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4 **1 The Dalradian rocks of Scotland:**
5 **an introduction**
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36 **ABSTRACT**
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38 The Dalradian Supergroup and its basement rocks, together with
39 younger plutons, underpin most of the Grampian Highlands and the
40 islands of the Inner Hebrides between the Highland Boundary and
41 Great Glen faults. The Dalradian is a mid-Neoproterozoic to early-
42 Ordovician sequence of largely clastic metasedimentary rocks, with
43 some volcanic units, which were deformed and metamorphosed to
44 varying degrees during the Early Palaeozoic Caledonian Orogeny.

45 Sedimentation of the lower parts of the Dalradian Supergroup,
46 possibly commencing about 730 million years ago, took place
47 initially in fault-bounded rift basins, within the supercontinent
48 of Rodinia and adjacent to sectors of continental crust that were
49 later to become the foundations of North America, Greenland and
50 Scandinavia. Later sedimentation reflected increased instability,
51 culminating between 600 and 570 million years ago in continental
52 rapture, volcanicity and the development of the Iapetus Ocean.
53 This left the crustal foundations of Scotland, together with those
54 of North America and Greenland, on a laterally extensive passive
55 margin to the new continent of Laurentia, where turbiditic
56 sedimentation continued for about 85 million years. Later plate
57 movements led to closure of the Iapetus Ocean and the multi-event
58 Caledonian Orogeny. Most of the deformation and metamorphism of
59 the Dalradian strata peaked at about 470 million years ago, during
60 the mid-Ordovician Grampian Event, which has been attributed to the
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4 collision of an oceanic arc with Laurentia. The later, mid-
5 Silurian Scandian Event, attributed to the collision of the
6 continent of Baltica with Laurentia and the final closure of the
7 Iapetus Ocean, apparently had little effect on the Dalradian rocks
8 but marked the start of late-orogenic uplift and extensive
9 magmatism in the Grampian Highlands that continued until Early
10 Devonian times.

11 The Dalradian rocks thus record a wide range of sedimentary
12 environments (alluvial, tidal, deltaic, shallow marine, turbiditic,
13 debris flow) and a complex structural and metamorphic history. In
14 areas of low strain, original sedimentary and volcanic structures
15 are well preserved, even at relatively high metamorphic grades.
16 There is convincing evidence for glacial episodes of worldwide
17 importance and economic deposits of stratiform barium minerals are
18 unique. The Grampian Highlands include two of the World's type-
19 areas for metamorphic zonation, Barrovian and Buchan, with
20 spectacular examples of the key metamorphic minerals, and various
21 stages of migmatite development. Polyphase folding is widespread
22 on all scales and gives rise to a range of associated cleavages and
23 lineations. Regional dislocations, both ductile and brittle, are
24 associated with a range of shear fabrics, breccias, clay gouges and
25 veining.
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5 **1.1 INTRODUCTION**
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7 ***D. Stephenson***
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10 **1.1.1 The Dalradian Supergroup**
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12 The Dalradian Supergroup is a mid-Neoproterozoic to Early
13 Palaeozoic sequence of largely clastic sedimentary rocks, with some
14 notable carbonate and volcanic units that were all deformed and
15 metamorphosed to varying degrees during the mid-Ordovician Grampian
16 Event of the Caledonian Orogeny. The Dalradian rocks, together
17 with Caledonian intrusive igneous rocks, form the bedrock to most
18 of the Grampian Highlands of Scotland and the islands of the Inner
19 Hebrides between the Highland Boundary and Great Glen faults. Pre-
20 Dalradian basement crops out in parts of the Northern Grampian
21 Highlands and on the Isle of Islay (Figure 1.1). The Dalradian
22 sequence, its basement and the Caledonian intrusions comprise the
23 Grampian Terrane, one of several major crustal blocks that were
24 juxtaposed during the Caledonian Orogeny to form the northern part
25 of the British Isles (Figure 1.2). Dalradian rocks also occur in
26 the Shetland Islands, east of the Walls Boundary Fault,
27 conventionally as part of the Grampian Terrane but possibly part of
28 a separate terrane. Siluro-Devonian and Mesozoic cover rocks crop
29 out mainly around the margins of the Grampian Highlands.
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32 The Grampian Terrane extends south-westwards into the northern and
33 north-western parts of Ireland, where Dalradian rocks crop out over
34 wide areas (Figure 1.2). There, the south-eastern terrane boundary
35 is largely buried beneath younger rocks and is difficult to define.
36 An extension or major splay of the Highland Boundary Fault probably
37 does extend from Cushendun in the east to Clew Bay in the west but,
38 unlike in Scotland, it is not defined by any strong geophysical
39 feature. A Dalradian sequence with remarkable similarities to that
40 of the Grampian Highlands also crops out in Connemara, well to the
41 south of Clew Bay, and hence it seems likely that the boundary of
42 the Grampian Terrane does not coincide with an extension of the
43 Highland Boundary Fault in the west of Ireland and possibly extends
44 south-eastwards as far as a line between south Antrim and Galway
45 (Ryan *et al.*, 1995).
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47 On a broader scale, the terranes of the northern British Isles are
48 inherently linked geologically to eastern North America and
49 Greenland, which were in close proximity prior to the opening of
50 the North Atlantic Ocean in Palaeogene times (*c.* 55 Ma ago) (Figure
51 1.3). The Dalradian Supergroup is similar in age to the Fleur de
52 Lys Supergroup in Newfoundland (Kennedy, 1975) and its lower parts
53 are equivalent to the Eleonore Bay Supergroup in East Greenland
54 (Soper, 1994b; Leslie *et al.*, 2008); the three sequences might have
55 been deposited in adjacent basins. The Geological Conservation
56 Review, and hence this volume, considers only the Dalradian rocks
57 of Scotland and Shetland; for reviews of the Irish Dalradian see
58 Alsop and Hutton (1990), Leake and Tanner (1994), Harris *et al.*
59 (1994), Cooper and Johnston (in Mitchell, 2004) and chapters by
60 J.S. Daly and D.M. Chew in Holland and Sanders (2009).
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4 The current best estimate for the age of deposition of the oldest
5 Dalradian rocks, adopted in this volume, is about 730 Ma. The
6 youngest strata that can be assigned to the Dalradian has been a
7 matter of recent debate, but it is now generally accepted that
8 there is stratigraphical and structural continuity through from
9 undisputed Dalradian strata into fossiliferous strata of Early
10 Cambrian age (c. 515 Ma) and possibly continuing up into mid-Arenig
11 age strata (Tanner and Pringle, 1999; Tanner and Sutherland, 2007).
12 Those Early Palaeozoic strata were formerly thought to have been
13 juxtaposed tectonically against the Dalradian sequence and
14 consequently they have been described separately in the *British*
15 *Cambrian to Ordovician Stratigraphy* GCR volume (Rushton *et al.*,
16 1999). They were assigned originally to the Highland Border
17 Complex, which also includes elements of an ophiolite obducted
18 during the Caledonian Orogeny, but Tanner and Sutherland (2007)
19 have suggested that they should be designated as a separate
20 'Trossachs Group' and included in the Dalradian Supergroup (see
21 *Introduction* to Chapter 4).

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23 The name 'Dalradian' is derived from that of the ancient Scots'
24 kingdom of Dalriada, which united the coastal areas of Argyll,
25 Arran and Antrim between the 5th and 9th centuries AD. It was
26 first applied to all of the metamorphic rocks that crop out between
27 the Moine Thrust and Highland Boundary Fault by Sir Archibald
28 Geikie in 1891. However, in his explanatory notes to the 1892
29 edition of Bartholomew's 10-miles-to-one-inch Geological Map of
30 Scotland, he did make it clear that the 'Moine Schists' of the
31 Northern Highlands are different in character to the 'Dalradian'
32 rocks south-east of the Great Glen. As survey work progressed,
33 quartzofeldspathic rocks of apparent 'Moine Schist' facies were
34 also identified in the northern part of the Grampian Highlands and
35 the term 'Dalradian' *sensu stricto* became restricted to the
36 lithologically more-diverse strata now assigned to the Appin,
37 Argyll and Southern Highland groups of the Dalradian Supergroup.
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39 The so-called 'Moine' rocks of the Grampian Highlands have been
40 the subject of much debate and revision of assignment and
41 terminology over the past 100 years. Originally they were referred
42 to variously, from north-east to south-west, as 'Granulitic Schists
43 of the Central Highlands' (Hinckman and Anderson, 1915), 'Struan
44 Flags' (Barrow, 1904) and 'Eilde Flags' (Bailey, 1910).
45 Subsequently, J.G.C. Anderson (1948) reviewed the local successions
46 and proposed that all rocks stratigraphically below a lowermost
47 limestone should be included in a 'Moinian Metamorphic Assemblage',
48 and Johnstone (1975) introduced the term 'Younger Moines' to
49 distinguish them from the Moine rocks north-west of the Great Glen
50 Fault. Detailed mapping in the later part of the 20th century
51 resulted in a subdivision into an older, largely migmatitic
52 'basement' referred to as the 'Central Highland Division' and an
53 overlying sequence dominated by non-migmatitic quartzofeldspathic
54 rocks termed the 'Grampian Division' (Piasecki and Van Breemen,
55 1979a,b; Piasecki, 1980). The non-migmatitic 'cover' rocks are now
56 assigned formally to the Grampian Group, the lowest group in the
57 Dalradian Supergroup, on the basis of stratigraphical and
58 structural continuity with the overlying sequences (Harris *et al.*,
59 1978). The 'basement' rocks, referred to for a while as the
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4 'Central Highland Migmatite Complex' (Harris et al., 1994;
5 Stephenson and Gould, 1995), and referred to in more-recent
6 literature as the Dava and Glen Banchor successions, have been
7 formalised as the Badenoch Group. They might yet prove to be
8 equivalent to the Moine Supergroup of the Northern Highlands, at
9 least in terms of their age (see *Introduction* to Chapter 5).

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11 Two other units within the Grampian Terrane, whose stratigraphical
12 affinities are uncertain but are most probably Dalradian, are
13 represented by GCR sites in this volume. These are the Bowmore
14 Sandstone Group of Islay and the Colonsay Group of Islay, Oronsay
15 and Colonsay.

16 Much of the terminology used in this volume is necessarily
17 complex. It is evolving continuously, hopefully towards simpler,
18 more-logical versions that are likely to gain widespread
19 acceptance. Hence it will differ in parts from what has been used
20 historically and even from current usage by some authors. In
21 addition to a glossary of terms used, the '*Glossary and*
22 *terminology*' section at the end of the volume includes brief
23 details and explanations of radiometric dating methods and
24 timescale adopted, lithological nomenclature (rock names), the
25 method of numbering of structures associated with phases of
26 deformation, the terminology of fold geometry, and the use of the
27 stereographic projection. In each case emphasis is placed upon
28 terms as used in this volume.
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30 31 **1.1.2 History of Research**

32
33 In 1774, the prominent 'Dalradian' mountain of Schiehallion was the
34 location for a ground-breaking experiment by the Astronomer Royal,
35 Nevil Maskelyne, who set out to measure the gravitational
36 attraction towards the quartzite mountain of a weight suspended on
37 a plumb-line (Smallwood, 2007). The density of the Earth was
38 estimated to be 4.5, possibly the earliest ever geophysical
39 calculation. However, the earliest published description of
40 Dalradian rocks was probably in James Hutton's *Theory of the Earth*
41 (1788), in which the country rocks intruded by granite veins at the
42 critical historical site in Glen Tilt were referred to as 'Alpine
43 schistus' (see the *Forest Lodge* GCR site report; in the *Caledonian*
44 *Igneous Rocks of Great Britain* GCR volume; Stephenson et al.,
45 1999).
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47 The first geological map of Scotland (one of the first geological
48 maps in the world), by Louis Albert Necker de Saussure in 1808, did
49 not differentiate the Dalradian rocks from the Moine of the
50 Northern Highlands or the Lewisian of the Hebridean Terrane, all of
51 which were described as 'primitive rocks stratified as gneiss, mica
52 slate and clay slate'. Subsequently, John MacCulloch's 1836 map of
53 Scotland showed several distinct metamorphic lithologies within the
54 three, still undivided, terranes. MacCulloch had surveyed almost
55 the whole of Scotland and Shetland himself (Bowden, 2007) and was
56 one of the first to describe and comment upon the origin of the
57 Highland rocks (e.g. MacCulloch, 1814, 1819). In his geological
58 essay on Scotland, Ami Boué (1820) attempted to correlate the
59 metamorphic rocks of Shetland with those of Scotland and was the
60 first to suggest that those of the eastern Mainland of Shetland are
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4 equivalent to those of the Grampian Highlands. A truly remarkable
5 geological map from this early period is that of Shetland by Samuel
6 Hibbert (1822), which even shows foliations and lineations in the
7 Dalradian rocks. This was the world's first purely structural
8 geological map and was published in conjunction with an account of
9 tectonite rock fabric (another world first).

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11 By the middle of the 19th century, the metamorphosed nature of the
12 rocks was beginning to be understood but the degree of metamorphism
13 was thought by many to be proportional to the age of the rocks, and
14 many geologists still adhered to the Wernerian doctrine, in which
15 crystalline rocks were thought to have been precipitated in a
16 regular sequence from a primeval ocean (Oldroyd and Hamilton,
17 2002). For many years these misconceptions greatly hindered
18 attempts to fit the main sequences of the Highlands into an overall
19 timescale. Murchison (1851, 1859) tried to show that the rocks of
20 the Grampian Highlands are more highly metamorphosed equivalents of
21 those in the Southern Uplands and Geikie (1865), although
22 recognizing them as older than those of the Southern Uplands, still
23 assigned them to a 'Lower Silurian' unit. The influence of
24 Murchison and Geikie ensured that their ideas persisted into the
25 next century, although as late as the 1890s George Barrow was
26 arguing that all of the Highland 'schists' were of the same age as
27 the Lewisian gneisses, and merely displayed different degrees of
28 metamorphism.

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30 Eventually, people such as James Nicol (1844, 1852, 1863),
31 professor at Cork and then Aberdeen University, and Robert Harkness
32 (1861) of Cork, whilst recognizing the existence and significance
33 of large-scale folding, started to identify local successions and
34 trace them along strike to establish a regional lithostratigraphy.
35 Then Archibald Geikie, who had been introduced to the Grampian
36 Highlands by Murchison in 1860, began to rationalize the overall
37 Scottish succession and to postulate large-scale overfolds as a
38 means of repeating the stratigraphy (Murchison and Geikie, 1861;
39 Geikie, 1865). Of particular note in this context is the slightly
40 later work of Peter Macnair (1896, 1906, 1908), Curator of Natural
41 History at the Glasgow Museums, who recognized the value of the
42 Loch Tay Limestone as a datum line in reconstructing the broad-
43 scale structural framework of the south-east Grampian Highlands.
44 Remarkably, the correlation of 'boulder beds' on the Garvellach
45 Isles, on Islay and at Schiehallion had been recognized early in
46 the 19th century by MacCulloch (1819), and those on Islay were
47 first interpreted as having a glacial origin as early as 1877 by J.
48 Thomson. By the end of the 19th century, knowledge of large-scale
49 nappe structures in the Alps was being applied to Scotland by the
50 Geological Survey, initially in the North-west Highlands and
51 subsequently to the Grampian Highlands. Systematic field surveys
52 were underway and petrographical techniques and methods of chemical
53 analysis were developing fast.

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55 Although the Geological Survey had started work in Scotland in
56 1854, mapping to the north of the Highland Boundary Fault did not
57 start until 1875. For the first few years this was concentrated on
58 the sedimentary rocks around the fringes of the Grampian Highlands,
59 but by the early 1880s, with Archibald Geikie as Director General,
60 J. Horne, J.S. Grant Wilson, L.W. Hinxman and J. Linn were mapping
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4 large areas of the North-east Grampian Highlands and W. Gunn, C.T.
5 Clough, J.B. Hill and H.M. Cadell were active on the Cowal
6 peninsula. The work in Cowal led to the recognition of polyphase
7 deformation, and the first use of minor structures to interpret the
8 overall pattern of major folds (Clough, in Gunn *et al.*, 1897). In
9 1895, work started in the Glen Coe-Appin area, with a highly
10 experienced team that included B.N. Peach and C.T. Clough, after
11 completion of their ground-breaking survey of the North-west
12 Highlands, and J.S. Grant Wilson. They were joined, among others,
13 by H.B. Maufe and E.B. Bailey who were soon to make their mark with
14 their exposition of cauldron subsidence in the volcanic rocks of
15 the area, as well as unravelling the complex structure and
16 proposing a succession for the Dalradian strata. Thereafter, until
17 well into the 20th century, survey work was concentrated in the
18 South-west Highlands, where large areas were surveyed by J.B. Hill,
19 H. Kynaston, R.G. Symes, S.B. Wilkinson and others. The notable
20 exception at that time was the work of G. Barrow and E.H.
21 Cunningham Craig in north-east Perthshire and Angus, which led to
22 Barrow's (1893) seminal work on metamorphic zones. Although Barrow
23 initially attributed the zonation to contact metamorphism above
24 concealed igneous masses, ironically the 'Barrovian zones' became
25 the world standard for the progressive regional metamorphism of
26 aluminous sedimentary rocks at medium pressure. As this concept
27 was extended throughout the Highlands it played a major part in
28 deciphering the geological history of the whole region.

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31 There then followed a period dominated by the work of Edward
32 Battersby Bailey, who was undoubtedly the most dynamic, prolific
33 and controversial figure ever to set foot upon Dalradian rocks.
34 Bailey was decorated for bravery in the First World War and legends
35 abound concerning his resilience and eccentricity in the field
36 (Figure 1.4). After distinguishing himself with the Geological
37 Survey, and then becoming disillusioned by official restrictions
38 upon his personal scientific investigations, he left in 1930 to
39 take a chair at the University of Glasgow. However, he
40 subsequently returned to the survey as Director in 1937, was
41 knighted in 1945 and continued to publish on Highland geology well
42 into retirement.

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44 Bailey started work in the Highlands in 1902, and in a series of
45 papers between 1910 and 1940 he elucidated the structure and
46 stratigraphy of Dalradian rocks over a wide swathe of ground from
47 Islay to Loch Awe, Loch Leven, Glen Roy, Glen Orchy, Glen Lyon,
48 Schiehallion, Loch Tummel, Blair Atholl, Glen Shee, Glen Clunie and
49 Braemar. Most of this was based upon his own mapping, much of it
50 in his own time, but he also re-interpreted ground that had already
51 been covered by others, most notably Barrow, with whom he had
52 fundamental disagreements. This was all in addition to his ground-
53 breaking work on the igneous rocks of Glen Coe and Mull. He could
54 never be described as a precise detailed mapper, and was certainly
55 not out of the same mould as the likes of Clough, Peach and Horne,
56 but he moved over the ground at incredible speed and was a master
57 at tracing out large-scale structures. In fact most of the major
58 folds recognized today in the above areas are the ones that were
59 first identified by Bailey.
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4 It was Bailey who first made use of the ungainly verb 'to young'
5 and coined the terms 'antiform' and 'synform'. He also introduced
6 the concept of 'slides' (or 'fold-faults') - very low-angle faults
7 associated with recumbent folds, which would be described
8 generically as 'ductile dislocations' in modern parlance. These he
9 divided into extensional 'lags', along which fold limbs and
10 significant parts of the succession can be excised, and
11 compressional 'thrusts', which generally result in the repetition
12 of parts of the succession. In 1922 he produced a comprehensive
13 synthesis in which major slides were perceived as fundamental
14 tectonic dislocations separating huge, Alpine-scale nappe
15 complexes, each complex having its own stratigraphical succession
16 and structural style. Initially three such nappe complexes were
17 recognized and named, in ascending structural order, the *Ballappel*
18 *Foundation* (from the type areas of *Ballachulish*, *Appin* and *Loch*
19 *Eilde*), the *Iltay Nappe* (comprising most of the ground between
20 *Islay* and *Loch Tay*), and the *Loch Awe Nappe*, but these were
21 subsequently reduced to two when Bailey (*in Allison*, 1941) accepted
22 the stratigraphical correlations of other investigators which
23 removed the need to invoke a separate Loch Awe Nappe. We now know
24 that both the structure and the stratigraphy of the Grampian
25 Highlands are more integrated and continuous than inferred by
26 Bailey, and hence many of the slides have lost much of their
27 original significance as major tectonic and stratigraphical
28 boundaries.
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31 At the beginning of the 20th century, the use of sedimentary
32 structures as way-up criteria was virtually unknown and Bailey,
33 along with everyone else, struggled to establish the correct order
34 of succession. Possibly the first use of graded bedding in the
35 Scottish Highlands to determine the younging direction was by Peach
36 *et al.* (1911) at a location within the *Kilmory Bay* GCR site, and
37 current-bedding was first used by J.F.N. Green on *Islay* (Green,
38 1924). But the key event happened in 1924, when two graduate
39 students from the University of Wisconsin, Sherwood Buckstaff and
40 Olaf Rove, accompanied Thorolf Vogt of the University of Trondheim
41 on a visit to *Ballachulish* and deduced that the succession
42 established by Bailey (1910, 1922) was in fact upside down. This
43 radical new interpretation was communicated to Bailey who was then
44 invited to attend a Princeton University summer school in Canada in
45 1927, where he became convinced of the need to apply sedimentary
46 structures to interpret folded rocks. As a result of this, in
47 1929, he acted as guide for a visit by a Princeton group to
48 Scotland, where all agreed that his original (1922) order of
49 succession needed to be reversed. Vogt and Bailey published their
50 findings as linked articles in the *Geological Magazine* (Vogt, 1930;
51 Bailey, 1930), and Bailey went on to re-appraise key sections
52 around *Loch Leven* and throughout the whole area, confirming the
53 presence of recumbent folds of many kilometres amplitude with
54 extensive inverted limbs. The legacy of this fundamental 'about
55 face' lives on to this day in the archives of the British
56 Geological Survey (BGS), where the original 6-inch to 1 mile maps
57 of the *Loch Leven* area, prepared prior to 1924, still show Bailey's
58 original succession.
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4 Survey mapping was severely curtailed by the First World War
5 (1914-18) although a detailed revision of part of the North-east
6 Grampian Highlands was carried out by H.H. Read, after he had been
7 discharged from active service on medical grounds. That work
8 formed the basis of a lifetime of investigation into the structure,
9 metamorphism and magmatism of the North-east Grampians, in a career
10 that ranged widely through the Scottish and Irish Caledonides and
11 took him from the Geological Survey to the University of Liverpool
12 and the Royal School of Mines (later Imperial College), London. He
13 was the first to recognise that the Buchan metamorphism originated
14 at lower pressures and higher temperatures than the Barrovian
15 sequence, became even more-widely known for his survey work in the
16 Northern Highlands, and was also part of a large team that carried
17 out the primary survey of the Shetland Islands in the early 1930s.
18 Previous publications on Shetland geology had concentrated mainly
19 upon mineral occurrences (e.g. Heddle, 1878, 1901) and the only
20 published maps were based upon that of Hibbert in 1822. The
21 Dalradian rocks were surveyed by D. Haldane, J. Knox, J. Phemister,
22 H.H. Read, T. Robertson and G.V. Wilson but the only ensuing
23 publications were those of Read, which concentrated upon the
24 metamorphism (Read, 1933, 1934, 1936, 1937) and the Caledonian
25 ophiolite-complex of Unst and Fetlar (see the *Caledonian Igneous*
26 *rocks of Great Britain* GCR volume; Stephenson *et al.*, 1999).

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28 Geological Survey work in Scotland between the wars and during the
29 Second World War (1939-45) was concentrated in the coalfields, the
30 Northern Highlands and the Inner Hebrides. Some sheet memoirs
31 based upon pre-1914 mapping of the Grampian Highlands were
32 published and the first edition of *British Regional Geology: the*
33 *Grampian Highlands* appeared in 1935. The latter was written by
34 H.H. Read who, by the time of its publication, had taken the chair
35 at Liverpool University, where his influence no doubt laid the
36 first foundations of the Dalradian research that was to flourish
37 there in the second half of the 20th century (see below). Other
38 than those by E.B. Bailey, there were few 'Dalradian' papers by
39 survey geologists. E.M. Anderson did small amounts of official
40 survey mapping in the Grampian Highlands and, inspired by Bailey,
41 he produced a paper based on his own work in the Schiehallion area
42 that significantly advanced understanding of the overall Dalradian
43 succession (Anderson, 1923). He retired due to ill health in 1928,
44 but continued 'indoor work' for many years and is best remembered
45 for '*The Dynamics of Faulting and Dyke Formation*', drawing upon his
46 experience in the Grampians and elsewhere. It was first published
47 in 1942, revised in 1951, remained a classic textbook for many
48 years and was last reprinted in 1972.

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50 The most prolific university contributions to the Dalradian
51 between the wars were undoubtedly by Glasgow, where Bailey clearly
52 inspired both existing staff and students. His predecessor, J.W.
53 Gregory, had published several accounts (Gregory, 1910, 1916, 1928,
54 1929, 1930) and the first overview of *Dalradian Geology* (Gregory,
55 1931), all of which presented an 'alternative' rationalization of
56 the succession across the whole region. W.J. McCallien (1925,
57 1926, 1929) had already published on the Dalradian rocks of Kintyre
58 and went on to collaborate with Bailey in Perthshire (Bailey and
59 McCallien, 1937). A. Allison worked on the Tayvallich-Loch Awe
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4 area and it was in the discussion to his paper, in 1941, that
5 Bailey had his final say on the gross structure of the South-west
6 Grampian Highlands, after becoming Director of the Geological
7 Survey. Among Bailey's students, S.M.K. Henderson (1938) was the
8 first to identify the Aberfoyle Anticline, but it was J.G.C.
9 Anderson who made a major contribution to the Dalradian of the
10 Highland Border region, in addition to his PhD studies on igneous
11 rocks of the western Grampian Highlands. He joined the Geological
12 Survey in Scotland in 1937, just before its activities became
13 focussed upon war-related resource evaluation, and hence he did
14 little 'official' mapping in the Highlands. However, in his own
15 time he covered large areas in the manner of his mentor, resulting
16 in a series of papers between 1935 and 1956, the last being
17 published after he was appointed to the chair in Cardiff in 1949.

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19 Work on the Dalradian at this time at Cambridge University centred
20 around C.E. Tilley and Gertrude Elles. This included the
21 recognition of the Portsoy Thrust in the North-east Grampian
22 Highlands (Elles, 1931) and the refining of Barrow's zones of
23 regional metamorphism (Tilley, 1925). Studies of the metamorphism
24 of basic igneous rocks in the Dalradian were also made in Cambridge
25 (Phillips, 1930; Wiseman, 1934), complementing what was already
26 known about the progressive metamorphism of pelitic rocks. Also of
27 the Cambridge 'school' was J.F.N. Green, who was a student
28 contemporary of Gertie Elles before embarking upon a non-geological
29 career in the Colonial Office, pursuing his geological interests in
30 his spare time and becoming president of both the Geologists'
31 Association and the Geological Society. After acclaimed work in
32 Pembrokeshire and the Lake District, he made a major contribution
33 to the geology of Islay, though a later paper on broader aspects of
34 the Dalradian of the South-west Grampian Highlands was criticised
35 by both Bailey and Elles (Green, 1924, 1931). His interest in the
36 Dalradian probably resulted from an association with Barrow, after
37 the latter's move to the Geological Survey in England. Less well
38 known is the PhD study of S.O. Agrell (1942) under the supervision
39 of Frank Coles Phillips, an unpublished part of which involved the
40 first petrofabric analysis of the Ben Vuirich Granite and its
41 country rocks. They could not have known how important these
42 fabrics would become in subsequent discussions on the timing of
43 pre-Caledonian and Caledonian magmatic and tectonic events, but the
44 conclusions reached accord remarkably well with current
45 interpretations (Howarth and Leake, 2002).

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48 By 1950, Bailey had retired from the Geological Survey but was
49 still a considerable influence on many aspects of Highland geology.
50 Read had moved to the chair at Imperial College, London, where he
51 continued to publish on the North-east Grampian Highlands. He led
52 many investigations into the Caledonian basic intrusions of the
53 region and introduced the concept of the Banff Nappe as a largely
54 allochthonous succession (Read, 1955). The latter view was however
55 disputed by his colleagues John Sutton and Janet Watson, who made a
56 brief diversion from their work on the Lewisian of the North-west
57 Highlands to publish three papers on the crucial across-strike
58 Dalradian section of the Banffshire coast (Sutton and Watson, 1954,
59 1955, 1956). Read became the authority of his day on the origin of
60 granites, deployed many post-graduate students and researchers to
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4 all parts of the Scottish Highlands, and developed what was to
5 become a major involvement in Dalradian and Caledonian igneous
6 rocks of the west of Ireland. But undoubtedly one of his most
7 momentous moves was to support Derek Flinn's studies of the
8 Dalradian (and other rocks) of Shetland, which were initiated as a
9 PhD under Read (Flinn, 1953) and continued for over 50 years (e.g.
10 Flinn, 2007). Subsequently at Imperial College, John Knill
11 combined structural geology in the Craignish-Kilmelfort area with
12 some of the earliest sedimentological studies of deformed and
13 metamorphosed rocks (Knill, 1959, 1960, 1963) and Brian Amos (1960)
14 and Brian Hackman (Stewart and Hackman, 1973) applied sedimentology
15 to the Bowmore Sandstone and Colonsay groups of Islay respectively.
16

17 In 1948, the chair in Liverpool passed to Robert Shackleton, who
18 had developed an interest in the Dalradian of Connemara and Donegal
19 whilst at Imperial College. In Liverpool, he also turned his
20 attention to the Grampian Highlands, in particular the Highland
21 Border region, where he worked with research students (Stone, 1957;
22 Stringer, 1957). This led to the conclusion that the Aberfoyle
23 Anticline, and hence the closure of the Tay Nappe, is downward
24 facing in the Highland Border region, and stimulated a debate on
25 the geometry and mechanism of emplacement of the nappe that
26 continues to the present day. The resulting seminal publication is
27 frequently cited as the first explanation of the concept of
28 structural facing in polyphase terrains to facilitate understanding
29 of the structural evolution of an area (Shackleton, 1958).
30 Shackleton's tenure also saw the move to Liverpool of Derek Flinn,
31 the PhD study of the Colonsay Group on Colonsay and Oronsay by A.D.
32 (Sandy) Stewart (1960) and the start of John Roberts'
33 investigations in the South-west Grampian Highlands (Roberts,
34 1963).
35

36 Meanwhile, in Glasgow, research on the Dalradian was continuing
37 under the direction of Basil King, and later Don Bowes, notable
38 students being Nick Rast around Schiehallion (PhD, 1956), Donald
39 Ramsay in Glen Lyon (PhD, 1959), Ken Jones in the Ben More-Stob
40 Binnein area (PhD Swansea, 1959) and Harry Convery in the Ben Ledi-
41 Balqhidder area. Rast became a key foundation in a 'dynasty' that
42 dominated university Dalradian research for the next forty years.
43 He first took up a post in Aberystwyth, where he extended his own
44 work eastwards across the Loch Tay Fault by supervising the
45 research of Brian Sturt, south of Loch Tummel (1959), and Tony
46 Harris, between Loch Tummel and Blair Atholl (1960). When
47 Shackleton moved to Leeds in 1962, Rast took over most of the
48 Dalradian research in Liverpool, supervising Jack Treagus south of
49 Loch Rannoch (1964a) and Peter Thomas to the north in what was
50 later to become known as the Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt (1965).
51 Those studies were two of the earliest to concentrate on rocks
52 below and around the Boundary Slide. He also supervised Martin
53 Litherland around Glen Creran (1970), A.N. Basahel on Islay (1971),
54 Duncan France around the Boundary Slide at Bridge of Orchy (1971)
55 and Graham Borradaile in the northern Loch Awe Syncline (1972a).
56 It was during this era that Rast and Litherland (1970) made the
57 first attempt to correlate the Dalradian successions of the South-
58 west Grampians and Lochaber with those of the Central Grampians,
59 which ultimately fed into the first correlations across the whole
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4 Grampian Terrane by Harris and Pitcher (1975). Wallace Pitcher,
5 Shackleton's successor at Liverpool, whilst mostly pursuing his
6 Caledonian interests in Donegal, was promoting an appraisal of
7 Dalradian tillites that culminated in the comprehensive Geological
8 Society memoir by Tony Spencer (1971). Numerous metamorphic
9 aspects of the Dalradian of Scotland were also investigated by Mike
10 Atherton, Mike Brotherton and John Mather (PhD, 1968), leading to a
11 major review article (Atherton, 1977), and the metamorphic history
12 of north-east Shetland was studied by Roger Key (PhD, 1972).
13

14 Rast left Liverpool in 1971 and was replaced by Tony Harris, who
15 by then had worked on Dalradian rocks for the Geological Survey in
16 the Elgin area and in the Highland Border, around Dunkeld. Harris
17 took up several lines of Dalradian research, involving many
18 research students, notably Peter Gower on the Loch Tay Limestone
19 (1973), Harry Bradbury (1978) and Richard Smith (1980) on the
20 Pitlochry-Blair Atholl district, Lindsay Parson around Fort
21 Augustus (1982), Andrew Highton (1983) and Nick Lindsay (1988) on
22 the problems surrounding the structural history and stratigraphical
23 correlation of the Grampian Group and its migmatitic 'basement',
24 and Phillip Rose on the emplacement and evolution of the Tay Nappe
25 (1989). Harris, Bradbury and Smith were all involved in a contract
26 with the Geological Survey to map Sheet 55E (Pitlochry, 1981). At
27 the same time, Jack Treagus was developing his own research in
28 Manchester, mainly in the Central Grampian Highlands and including
29 collaborative work with John Roberts in Newcastle on the Loch Leven
30 area and on the Banffshire coast. He directed research students in
31 the Braemar area (Paul Upton, 1983), Glen Lyon (Phillip Nell, 1984)
32 and the South-west Grampians (Charlie Bendall, 1995), and
33 collaborated with Peter Thomas, by this time at the University of
34 Strathclyde, on a new edition of Sheet 55W (Schiehallion, 2000),
35 with accompanying memoir, for the Geological Survey.
36

37 In Cambridge, Tilley's influence upon metamorphic studies
38 continued into the 1950s, introducing Henry Pantin to the basic
39 meta-igneous rocks of Ben Vrackie (1952) and encouraging Graham
40 Chinner to re-examine the pelitic gneisses of Glen Clova (1957).
41 Chinner then went on to direct numerous studies, in particular on
42 high-grade migmatitic rocks (e.g. John Ashworth, 1972; Eileen
43 McLellan, 1983). He was also responsible for introducing Ben Harte
44 to the south-east Grampians (1966), and Keith Watkins to the
45 Balquhider-Crianlarich area (1982). Ashworth and Harte both went
46 on to expand their studies elsewhere.
47

48 Studies of contemporaneous igneous rocks were also taking place at
49 Bristol University under Bernard Leake, whose main interest lay in
50 Connemara but who supervised Peter van de Kamp on the Green Beds
51 (1968) and collaborated with J.R. Wilson on the 'epidiorites' of
52 Tayvallich (Wilson and Leake, 1972). After moving to take up the
53 chair in Glasgow, Leake wrote a review of volcanism in the
54 Dalradian (Leake, 1982). Meanwhile, in Edinburgh (see below),
55 Colin Graham had started a major study of volcanic and subvolcanic
56 basic meta-igneous rocks in the South-west Grampians (Graham, 1976)
57 and had also contributed to a review (Graham and Bradbury, 1981).
58 Several more-recent studies of Dalradian volcanic and
59 volcanoclastic rocks and of magmatism in general have been linked
60 in some way to BGS mapping projects (Goodman and Winchester, 1993;
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4 Macdonald *et al.*, 2005; Pickett *et al.*, 2006; Macdonald and Fettes,
5 2007; Fettes *et al.*, 2011) and David Chew of Trinity College,
6 Dublin has incorporated the geochemistry of metavolcanic rocks into
7 wider studies of Dalradian tectonics (e.g. Chew *et al.*, 2009)..

8 In Edinburgh, Mike Johnson re-examined the structure and
9 metamorphism of the Banffshire Dalradian sections, with the help of
10 PhD studies by Vic Loudon (1963) and Doug Fettes (1968). He also
11 wrote reviews of the Dalradian for the first three editions of
12 *Geology of Scotland* (1965, 1983, 1991). Ben Harte expanded his
13 interests, notably through his own work in the 'Tarffside Nappe'
14 and other areas close to the Highland Border and through the PhD
15 work of John Booth (1984) and Tim Dempster (1983). The latter's
16 work on metamorphism of the Dalradian and particularly on its
17 uplift history has been continued at Glasgow. Harte also
18 supervised the study by Neil Hudson on Buchan-type metamorphism of
19 pelites (1976), which led on to studies at Derbyshire College,
20 later University of Derby, of calcsilicate metamorphism by Stuart
21 Kearns (1989), pelitic migmatites by Tim Johnson (1999) and the
22 Portsoy Shear-zone by Jim Carty (2001). Colin Graham started his
23 study of basic meta-igneous rocks with a PhD in 1973 and
24 subsequently expanded into studies of low- to intermediate-grade
25 metamorphism and fluid movement in the South-west Grampians that
26 have included PhD students Ken Greig (1987), Peter Dymoke (1989),
27 Alasdair Skelton (1993) and Chris Thomas (1999).

28 Following the earlier studies at Liverpool and Imperial College,
29 sedimentological understanding of the lower grade Dalradian rocks
30 of the South-west Grampian Highlands was significantly advanced by
31 the work of Roger Anderton, first as a PhD in Reading (1974), then
32 at the University of Strathclyde, and culminating in a seminal
33 review paper (Anderton, 1985). Subsequent notable sedimentological
34 PhD studies have been those of Brian Glover (1989) and Chris Banks
35 (2005), both on the Grampian Group of the Northern Grampians at the
36 University of Keele, and Elaine Burt (2002) on the Southern
37 Highland Group at Kingston University. At Keele, John Winchester's
38 interest in the Dalradian had originally been through whole-rock
39 geochemistry but broader structural and sedimentological aspects of
40 the Grampian Group in particular have been pursued through a number
41 of research students in the Northern Grampian area, Keith Whittles
42 (1981), Paula Haselock (1982) and C.T. Okonkwo (1985).
43 Subsequently, whilst at the University of Greenwich, Haselock
44 collaborated with colleagues and the BGS to produce Sheet 73E
45 (Foyers, 1996).

46 Much of the Dalradian research at Aberdeen University in the
47 latter part of the 20th century centred around the Caledonian basic
48 intrusions of the North-east Grampians and more-general mapping
49 contracts with the BGS. The latter were initially set up by Iain
50 Munro and Bill Ashcroft, with other staff such as Graham Leslie,
51 Alan Crane, Sally Goodman and Maarten Krabbendam becoming involved
52 subsequently, together with PhD students such as Ben Kneller
53 (1988). The first map and memoir to be produced in this way was
54 Sheet 77 (Aberdeen, 1982), and this was followed by 87W (Ellon,
55 1985), 65E (Ballater, 1995) and 56W (Glen Shee, 1999).

56 At Birmingham, Alan Wright worked particularly on the stratigraphy
57 and whole-rock geochemistry of the Appin Group (Wright, 1988) and
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4 supervised A.H. Hickman, who produced a radical re-appraisal of the
5 stratigraphy and structure of the crucial area between Glen Roy and
6 Lismore (Hickman, 1975, 1978). Also at Birmingham, Ian Fairchild,
7 following on from his PhD studies at Nottingham, made detailed
8 mineralogical and geochemical studies of the dolomitic beds at the
9 base of the Argyll Group on Islay and both he and Wright
10 contributed to the compilation of Sheet 27 (North Islay, 1994) for
11 the BGS. Meanwhile Bill Fitches, Alex Maltman and Roddy Muir in
12 Aberystwyth were concentrating upon the Colonsay Group in south-
13 west Islay and its relationship with the basement of Rhinns
14 Complex, whilst M.R. Bentley (PhD, 1986) re-appraised the outcrops
15 on Colonsay.
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17 Later work at Glasgow University has been largely by Geoff Tanner
18 and Tim Dempster, with significant discussion and counter argument
19 on broader tectonic themes by Brian Bluck. Tanner turned to
20 addressing several key issues in the Scottish Dalradian after a
21 long involvement with the Dalradian of Connemara that started with
22 Shackleton at Leeds. In a series of seminal papers since 1994, he
23 has established the emplacement age of the Ben Vuirich Granite
24 relative to the Grampian deformation and metamorphism (Tanner and
25 Leslie, 1994; Tanner, 1995; Tanner *et al.*, 2006) and has confirmed
26 the structural and stratigraphical continuity between the Southern
27 Highland Group and the older parts of the Highland Border Complex
28 (Tanner, 1995; Tanner and Pringle, 1999; Tanner and Sutherland,
29 2007). A collaboration with Peter Thomas has led to a classic
30 detailed description of recumbent folds between Tyndrum and Glen
31 Orchy (Tanner and Thomas, 2010) and structural investigations in
32 the Highland Border area around Loch Lomond, Cowal and Bute are
33 contributing to understanding the geometry and development of the
34 Tay Nappe.
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36 During the mid 20th century, Geological Survey work in the
37 Highlands was almost entirely north-west of the Great Glen. The
38 only Dalradian mapped was on the fringes of the Grampian Highlands
39 on sheets 95 (Elgin), 39 (Stirling) and 48W (Perth). However,
40 considerable data on the Dalradian of the Central Grampian
41 Highlands was obtained as a result of logging tunnels and other
42 excavations for new hydro-electric schemes, mostly by Scot
43 Johnstone and Donald Smith. Sheet 38W (Ben Lomond) and parts of
44 surrounding areas were revised in the early 1980s by Doug Fettes,
45 John Mendum, and Bill Henderson, and then in 1982 the East
46 Grampians Project set out to complete the revision mapping of the
47 North-east Grampian Highlands. Key players were Doug Fettes, John
48 Mendum, David Stephenson, David Gould, Chris Thomas, Graham Smith
49 and Steve Robertson, aided by specialists in geophysical,
50 geochemical and mineral surveys and by several university contract
51 teams (see above). Some nineteen 1:50 000 sheets were produced
52 over a twenty-year period. This was followed by the Monadhliath
53 Project in 1986, staffed mainly by Frank May, Roger Key, Colin
54 Clark, Martin Smith, Steve Robertson, Andrew Highton, Donald Smith
55 and Richard Smith. This project aimed to complete the mapping of
56 the Grampian Group and its 'basement' (i.e. the Dava and Glen
57 Banchor subgroups = Badenoch Group) in the Northern Grampian
58 Highlands, a significant part of which was still classed as
59 'primary survey'. The East Grampian Project completed the
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4 lithostratigraphical rationalisation and correlation of the Appin
5 and Argyll groups between the established sequences in the Central
6 Grampian Highlands and on the north coast and recognized several
7 important shear-zones and long-lived crustal lineaments (Fettes *et*
8 *al.*, 1986, 1991). The whole-rock geochemistry of metacarbonate
9 rocks proved to be a useful indicator of depositional environment
10 and a correlation tool (Thomas, 1989) and pelitic rocks revealed a
11 fascinating story of high-pressure metamorphic overprinting west of
12 the Portsoy Lineament (Beddoe-Stephens, 1990). The most
13 significant results to emerge from the Monadhliath Project have
14 been the establishment of a coherent lithostratigraphy for the
15 Grampian Group, linked to early Dalradian basin architecture, and
16 the confirmation of basement-cover relationships in the Northern
17 Grampians (e.g. Robertson and Smith, 1999; Smith *et al.*, 1999).

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19 Other work in the Grampian Highlands by the BGS that has provided
20 invaluable background information to so many studies includes the
21 regional gravity and aeromagnetic surveys (published in 1977 and
22 1978 respectively) and the regional stream-sediment surveys that
23 formed the basis for geochemical atlases (Great Glen, 1987; Argyll,
24 1990; East Grampians area, 1992; Southern Scotland, 1993). Work
25 for the Mineral Reconnaissance Programme, led mainly by Mike
26 Gallagher, Graham Smith and Stan Coats was spectacularly successful
27 in its identification of the stratabound barium materialization
28 near Aberfeldy (e.g. Coats *et al.*, 1984), and that provided the
29 impetus for investigations in other areas such as Tyndrum,
30 Duntanlich, Coire Kander and The Lecht. Apart from the baryte at
31 Aberfeldy and Duntanlich and a gold prospect at Cononish, economic
32 prospects have been disappointing but the investigations have
33 contributed to the mapping programme and inspired a wealth of
34 scientific spin-off studies.
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36 More-recent mapping by the BGS has been on Sheet 38E (Aberfoyle,
37 2005) and work is ongoing on sheets 46W and 46E in the Bridge of
38 Orchy-Killin area (mainly by Graham Leslie, Maarten Krabbendam,
39 Richard Smith and Chris Thomas). Other recent work includes the
40 dating of detrital zircons and Sm-Nd signatures of whole-rock as
41 indicators of sediment provenance (e.g. Cawood *et al.*, 2003), the
42 search for orogenic unconformities, especially within the Argyll
43 Group, that might correlate with possible examples in the west of
44 Ireland (e.g. Dempster *et al.*, 2002; Hutton and Alsop, 2004), and
45 the ongoing modelling of the Tay Nappe and regional deformation
46 mechanisms (Krabbendam *et al.*, 1997). The identification of various
47 glacial deposits within the sequence and their correlation with
48 known global glaciations has led to much speculation (e.g. McCay *et*
49 *al.*, 2006) and this has been linked to global C-isotope profiles,
50 largely by Tony Prave at St Andrews (Prave *et al.*, 2009a, 2009b).

51 Radiometric dating of events that have affected Dalradian rocks
52 has been carried out at the Scottish Universities Environmental
53 Research Centre (SUERC, formerly SURRC) and at the Natural
54 Environment Research Council's Isotope Geology Laboratories (NIGL).
55 At SUERC, Otto van Breemen, in collaboration with Mark Piasecki at
56 Hull, produced the first crucial dates on pegmatites emplaced in
57 slides that cut what they regarded as pre-Grampian Group basement
58 (Piasecki and van Breemen, 1979a,b, 1983). Subsequent fieldwork
59 has confirmed that relationship and more-modern high-precision
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4 zircon and monazite dates have been obtained by Steve Noble at
5 NIGL, in collaboration with Euan Hyslop and Andrew Highton at the
6 BGS (Noble *et al.*, 1996; Highton *et al.*, 1999). Other key dates,
7 notably for the emplacement of the the pre-metamorphic Ben Vuirich
8 Granite, and the North-east Grampian Basic Suite that was almost
9 coeval with the peak of Grampian deformation and metamorphism, were
10 produced initially under Robert Pankhurst at the forerunner to NIGL
11 (Pankhurst, 1970; Pankhurst and Pidgeon, 1976). These have been
12 repeated, together with dates of the Tayvallich volcanic rocks and
13 mineral ages that plot late-tectonic cooling and uplift, using
14 high-precision methods at SUERC and elsewhere. The key workers
15 have been Alex Halliday, Graeme Rogers and Tim Dempster, in
16 collaboration with projects at Glasgow and Edinburgh, who are
17 responsible for virtually the whole temporal framework currently in
18 use (Halliday *et al.*, 1989; Rogers *et al.*, 1989; Dempster *et al.*,
19 1995, 2002). The possibility of more-direct dating of Dalradian
20 sedimentation has been raised by encouraging results of Re-¹⁰⁷Os
21 dating at Durham University (Rooney *et al.*, 2011).
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23 Field excursion guides to the Dalradian have been published by
24 Read (1960) and Treagus (2009). Individual excursions are
25 described in several regional guides i.e. Arran (MacDonald and
26 Herriot, 1983), Aberdeen area (Trewin *et al.*, 1987), Glasgow and
27 Girvan (Lawson and Weedon, 1992), Fife and Angus (MacGregor, 1996).
28 Excursions in the Grampian Group and its inferred basement, all
29 formerly regarded as Moine, are included in the original excursion
30 guide to Moine geology (Allison *et al.*, 1988) and a series of
31 excursions to the Dalradian of the South-west Grampian Highlands,
32 described by various authors, comprise a whole part issue of the
33 *Scottish Journal of Geology* (volume 13, part 2, 1977).
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36 **1.2 GCR SITE SELECTION**

37 ***D. Stephenson***

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40 Metamorphic rocks in the more-sparsely populated areas of Great
41 Britain are on the whole less prone to damage than sequences in the
42 more-developed areas. They are none the less vulnerable to large-
43 scale activities, some long established and obvious, such as
44 quarrying and landfill, and others related to more-recent
45 exploitation of the rural landscape such as coastal defences,
46 hydro-electric schemes, wind farms and power transmission lines.
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48 The greatest threat is undoubtedly the possibility of large areas
49 of rock being obscured by man-made constructions or large volumes
50 being removed by excavations. Some of the harder and more-
51 resistant lithologies are an important source of construction
52 materials and are hence particularly vulnerable to large-scale
53 commercial extraction. Uses are many and varied but as demand
54 changes with time, new uses are constantly emerging, so that no
55 rock can be considered absolutely safe from future exploitation.
56 However, with careful management both disused and active quarries,
57 road cuttings and other excavations can provide highly instructive
58 exposures, especially in areas of poor natural exposure. On a
59 smaller scale, fossils, minerals and fine detail of delicate
60 features can be lost easily through injudicious hammering, for
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4 casual or commercial collecting or even for bona fide research
5 purposes. Much of the value of the GCR sites is derived from their
6 research potential, but sampling does need to be controlled
7 carefully and there is a clear need for better dissemination of
8 information about protected sites.
9

10 The GCR sites in this volume vary greatly in size and character.
11 There are long coastal sections (e.g. *Kilchiaran to Ardnave Point,*
12 *Rubha a'Mhail, West Tayvallich Peninsula, Cullen to Troup Head,*
13 *Fraserburgh to Rosehearty*) as well as numerous smaller coastal
14 exposures such as those on the Isles of Islay and Jura and on the
15 mainland of the South-west Grampian Highlands. River sections
16 dominate the inland areas (e.g. *River Leven Section, River Orchy,*
17 *River E, Glen Ey Gorge, Bridge of Brown, Bridge of Avon, Kymah*
18 *Burn*) but road cuttings provide valuable additional sites (*A9 and*
19 *River Garry, The Slochd*). At many of these sites exposure
20 approaches 100 percent. Some of the larger sites occupy upland
21 areas and mountain summits (*Stob Ban, Ben Lawers, Aonach Beag and*
22 *Geal-charn, Ben Alder, Ben Vuirich, Cairn Leuchan*), where large-
23 scale structures can be demonstrated, commonly in three dimensions,
24 or where key exposures protrude from otherwise poorly exposed
25 terrain.
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27 The Geological Conservation Review (GCR) aims to identify the most
28 important sites in order that the scientific case for their
29 protection and conservation is fully documented as a public record,
30 with the ultimate aim of formal notification as a Site of Special
31 Scientific Interest (SSSI). The notification of SSSIs under the
32 *National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act 1949* and
33 subsequently under the *Wildlife and Countryside Act 1981*, is the
34 main mechanism of legal protection in Great Britain, and in
35 Scotland this is the responsibility of Scottish Natural Heritage.
36 At the time of writing most, but not all, of the sites described in
37 this volume have been notified. The origins, aims and operation of
38 the review, together with comments on the law and practical
39 considerations of earth-science conservation, are explained fully
40 in Volume 1 of the GCR series, *An Introduction to the Geological*
41 *Conservation Review* (Ellis *et al.*, 1996). The GCR has identified
42 three fundamental site-selection criteria; these are *international*
43 *importance, presence of exceptional features and*
44 *representativeness*. Each site must satisfy at least one of these
45 criteria, many of them satisfy two and some fall into all three
46 categories (Table 1.1), such as the *Garvellach Isles* site that
47 displays a tillite of international importance for its detailed
48 features as well as for its stratigraphical and chronological
49 significance. In addition to the GCR sites, significant, well-
50 exposed local successions and structural features may be designated
51 as 'Regionally Important Geological/Geomorphological Sites' (RIGS)
52 so that, even though such status carries no legal protection, their
53 importance is at least recognized and recorded.
54

55 Features, events and processes that are fundamental to the
56 understanding of the geological history, composition and structure
57 of Britain are arranged for GCR purposes into subject 'blocks'.
58 The *Dalradian rocks of Scotland* comprise a single block. Within
59 each block, sites fall into natural groupings, termed 'networks',
60 which in this volume are based upon geographical areas (Figure
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4 1.5). The boundaries between the areas follow significant
5 stratigraphical or structural boundaries wherever possible and the
6 Highland Border Region and North-east Grampian Highlands are well
7 defined in this way. Boundaries between the South-west, Central
8 and Northern Grampian Highlands are more arbitrary and to some
9 extent reflect the areas of interest of particular groups of
10 researchers or periods of research. The six networks, each
11 represented by a single chapter, contain 85 sites, which are listed
12 in Table 1.1 together with their principal reasons for selection.
13

14 Site selection is inevitably subjective and some readers may feel
15 that vital features or occurrences have been omitted or that others
16 are over-represented. But the declared aim of the GCR is to
17 identify *the minimum number and area of sites needed to demonstrate*
18 *the current understanding* of the diversity and range of features
19 within each block or network. To identify too many sites would not
20 only make the whole exercise unwieldy and devalue the importance of
21 the exceptional sites, but it would also make justification and
22 defence of the legal protection afforded to those sites more
23 difficult to maintain.
24

25 Although this volume is titled *Dalradian rocks*, the GCR sites that
26 it contains illustrate not only the lithostratigraphy and
27 sedimentology of the Dalradian rocks and their basement but also
28 the structures and metamorphism that affect them as a result of the
29 Caledonian Orogeny. Some sites have been selected specifically to
30 illustrate just one of those aspects, but many illustrate two or
31 more. A few have historical significance.
32

33 The overall *international importance* of the Dalradian Supergroup
34 has already been discussed in a historical context, highlighting
35 significant contributions to the understanding of the processes of
36 deformation and metamorphism. These contributions are acknowledged
37 in several GCR sites such as those at *Glen Esk* and along the north
38 coast (e.g. *Fraserburgh to Rosehearty*), where metamorphic zones at
39 different confining pressures were first established. The sites
40 that illustrate Neoproterozoic glacial episodes, most notably at
41 the *Garvellach Isles* and *Caol Isla* continue to attract attention
42 for the worldwide significance of their deposits, the ages of which
43 are still controversial. The granite at the *Ben Vuirich* site has
44 yielded valuable information on the timing of deformation and
45 metamorphism during the Caledonian Orogeny and unique economic
46 deposits of stratabound barium minerals represented by the *Craig an*
47 *Chanaich to Frenich Burn* site are of undoubted international value.
48

49 *Exceptional features*, invaluable for research and/or teaching
50 purposes, are exhibited at many, if not most, of the GCR sites in
51 this volume. For example, a range of sedimentary structures are
52 particularly well displayed at the *A9 and River Garry* and *River E*
53 sites, and many sites have first-rate examples of specific features
54 such as dewatering structures (*Caol Isla*), slump structures (*Lussa*
55 *Bay, Kinuachdrach, Port Selma*), sandstone dykes (*Surnaig Farm*),
56 debris flows (*Black Mill Bay*) and Bouma sequences (*Rubha na*
57 *Magach*). World-class examples of tillites occur at the *Garvellach*
58 *Isles* site, algal stromatolites at *Rubha a'Mhail*, and pseudomorphs
59 after gypsum at *Craignish Point*. Many of the sites show minor fold
60 structures but these are particular features at *Black Mill Bay,*
61 *Fearnach Bay* and *Port Cill Maluaig*. Fold interference structures
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4 are seen at the *Creag nan Caisean-Meall Reamhar* site and classic
5 variations in style of cleavage occur in the related sites at
6 *Little Glen Shee, Craig a'Barns* and *Rotmell*. Various types of
7 migmatite are splendidly exposed at the *Balnacraig, Dinnet* and
8 *Cairnbulg to St Combs* sites. Pillow lavas are present at several
9 of the sites that include metavolcanic rocks (*West Tayvallich*
10 *Peninsula, Muckle Fergie Burn, Black Water*) but the most
11 exceptional meta-igneous features are probably the enigmatic
12 spinifex-like textures at the *Cunningsburgh* site.
13

14 The criterion of *representativeness* aims to ensure that all key
15 stratigraphical units and the most significant structural features
16 are represented. It is difficult to do this whilst keeping the
17 number of sites within reason. However, all of the main
18 stratigraphical features of the Dalradian succession (e.g. those
19 shown on Figure 1.6) are represented by sites, as well as some
20 near-contemporaneous igneous intrusions. Selected structures
21 include major and minor folds from each of the main phases of
22 deformation, principal dislocations (thrusts, slides and faults),
23 shear-zones and high-strain zones. Barrovian and Buchan
24 metamorphism are represented as well as the highest grade rocks in
25 the Dalradian and examples of polyphase metamorphism.
26

27 Clearly it would be impossible to represent all along-strike
28 regional variations of the stratigraphy, structure and metamorphism
29 by GCR sites. However, an attempt has been made to include
30 broad descriptions of such variations in appropriate chapter
31 introductions, together with references to key publications.
32 Hence, this volume does constitute a complete review of the
33 Dalradian Supergroup and the deformational and metamorphic effects
34 of the Caledonian Orogeny throughout the whole Grampian Terrane.
35

36 Metavolcanic rocks within the stratigraphical column provide time
37 markers and hence are important targets for radiometric dating.
38 Precise U-Pb zircon dates have been obtained from the Tayvallich
39 Volcanic Formation at the top of the Argyll Group, which give much
40 added value to the *West Tayvallich Peninsula* GCR site.
41 Unfortunately, as yet there have been no suitable targets that
42 would date the tillites at the base of the Argyll Group (e.g.
43 *Garvellach Isles* GCR site) that constitute the other significant
44 chronostratigraphical marker in the Dalradian succession.
45 Intrusions are less-precise chronostratigraphical markers than
46 lavas but the deformed granite represented by the *Ben Vuirich* GCR
47 site has yielded a number of increasingly precise radiometric dates
48 that, together with dates from the *Portsoy Granite (Cullen to Troup*
49 *Head* GCR site), have set time limits to Argyll Group deposition and
50 early phases of the Caledonian Orogeny. The Tayvallich and Ben
51 Vuirich dates are at present two of the mainstays of late-
52 Neoproterozoic and Caledonian chronology in the whole North
53 Atlantic region. Key radiometric evidence for the age of the
54 Badenoch Group basement rocks has come from metasedimentary rocks
55 at *The Slochd* GCR site.
56

57 Some sites are important in more than just the context of
58 Dalradian rocks, their deformation and metamorphism. In
59 particular, the *Ardsheal Peninsula* is also a GCR site in the
60 *Silurian and Devonian Plutonic Rocks* block, as the type-area for
61 the Appinite Suite of small ultramafic to felsic intrusions
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4 (Stephenson *et al.*, 1999). The *Keltie Water* GCR site has profound
5 implications for relationships between the Dalradian and the
6 Highland Border Complex and needs to be considered along with two
7 sites (*Leny Quarry* and *Lime Craig Quarry*), which are described in
8 Volume 18 of the GCR series, *British Cambrian to Ordovician*
9 *Stratigraphy* (Rushton *et al.*, 1999).

10 The broader aspects of Dalradian regional geology are outlined in
11 the various sections of this chapter, with variations applicable to
12 each network described in the following chapter introductions. In
13 some cases, sections of general discussion apply to two or more
14 related sites and this has necessitated a slight change of format
15 in the *Little Glen Shee*, *Craig a'Barns* and *Rotmell* site reports.
16 The voluminous and widespread Caledonian igneous rocks that are
17 emplaced within and upon the Dalradian rocks are described in the
18 *Caledonian Igneous Rocks of Great Britain* GCR volume (Stephenson *et*
19 *al.*, 1999). For details of post-Dalradian rocks in the Grampian
20 Highlands the reader is referred to *The Geology of Scotland*
21 (Trewin, 2002) and the volume in the British Geological Survey's
22 *British Regional Geology* series (Stephenson and Gould, 1995).
23
24

25 **1.3 BASEMENT TO THE DALRADIAN BASINS**

26 ***D. Stephenson***

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28
29 Our knowledge of the immediate basement to the Dalradian rocks of
30 the Grampian Highlands is limited to outcrops on the islands of
31 Islay and Colonsay in the south-west (the Rhinns Complex) and in
32 parts of the Northern Grampian Highlands (the Badenoch Group,
33 formerly known informally as the Dava and Glen Banchor successions)
34 (Figure 1.1). The existence of an unmodified contact with the
35 basement is difficult to demonstrate in either area, but a
36 stratigraphical and orogenic unconformity can be inferred from
37 omission and overstep of strata on a regional scale and from
38 structural and metamorphic hiatuses. Where contacts are exposed
39 they are commonly seen to coincide with zones of high strain and
40 shearing.
41

42 The Rhinns Complex was once thought to be part of the Lewisian
43 Gneiss Complex of the Hebridean Terrane. It is now regarded as
44 part of an extensive tract of Palaeoproterozoic juvenile crust that
45 includes the Ketilidian belt of southern Greenland and the
46 Svecofennian belt of Scandinavia and may form a link between those
47 two segments (Marcantonio *et al.*, 1988; Muir *et al.*, 1989, 1992;
48 Park, 1994). It extends south-westwards at least to the island of
49 Inishtrahull off the northern coast of Ireland and Bentley *et al.*
50 (1988) proposed that the three outcrops define a small
51 allochthonous Colonsay-western Islay Terrane, bounded by the Great
52 Glen and Loch Gruinart faults. Subsequently, it has been suggested
53 that it might also underlie much of the Grampian Highlands, where
54 the isotopic signatures of Caledonian granites are consistent with
55 derivation, at least in part, from comparable juvenile crust
56 forming a block measuring at least 600 x 100 km to the south-east
57 of the Great Glen Fault (Dickin and Bowes, 1991).
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59 Regional gravity and magnetic evidence indicate the presence of a
60 distinctively different, lower density, basement beneath the south-
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4 eastern part of the Grampian Highlands (i.e. beneath the Tay
5 Nappe), which seems to be a continuation of the basement that
6 underlies the Midland Valley of Scotland (Rollin, 1994; Trewin and
7 Rollin, 2002). The geophysical evidence also indicates the
8 existence of a different, high-density, basement beneath the Buchan
9 Block of the North-east Grampian Highlands.

10 The Dava and Glen Banchor subgroups of the Badenoch Group in the
11 Northern Grampian Highlands are somewhat younger sequences of
12 mainly gneissose and locally migmatitic metasedimentary rocks,
13 comparable in lithology to parts of the Moine Supergroup to the
14 north-west of the Great Glen Fault, and showing evidence of having
15 experienced at least some elements of a Neoproterozoic, Knoydartian
16 orogenic event. Gneissose metasedimentary units in the Buchan
17 Block have also been interpreted as part of a Proterozoic
18 'basement' to the Dalradian by some authors (Sturt *et al.*, 1977;
19 Ramsay and Sturt, 1979), although this is not currently accepted
20 (see the *Introduction* to Chapter 6).
21
22

23 **1.3.1 Rhinns Complex**

24
25 The Rhinns Complex crops out over an area of about 20 km² on the
26 Rhinns of western Islay and as a very small inlier at the north end
27 of Colonsay (Muir, 1990; Muir *et al.*, 1992, 1994a, 1994b) (see
28 Figure 2.1). On Islay, granitic and syenitic gneisses were all
29 affected by deformation and amphibolite-facies metamorphism prior
30 to the intrusion of gabbro sheets and further intense multiple
31 deformation (Wilkinson, 1907). The inlier on Colonsay covers only
32 c. 0.3 km² and is largely obscured by blown sand (Cunningham Craig
33 *et al.*, 1911). The exposures there are of quartzofeldspathic
34 gneiss, much of it pegmatitic, with dark knots, streaks and layers
35 of amphibolite. The metasyenites and metagabbros represent an
36 alkaline igneous association and are characterized by major- and
37 trace-element patterns similar to subduction-related igneous rocks
38 generated in continental margins or island-arcs (Muir *et al.*, 1992,
39 1994a). Isotope studies have shown that they were emplaced as
40 magmas consisting dominantly of juvenile material derived from a
41 depleted mantle source.
42

43 In places the gneisses have suffered considerable crushing,
44 mylonitization and metamorphic downgrading and have been
45 intersliced with the overlying low-grade metasedimentary rocks of
46 the Colonsay Group (Muir *et al.*, 1995). The intensity of the
47 cataclastic and mylonitic effects increases as the overlying
48 sequence is approached, but the actual contact is rarely seen.
49 Where it is exposed, it is marked by a high-strain zone of
50 phyllonitization and mylonitization. On Islay this is termed the
51 Kilchiaran Shear-zone or Bruichladdich Slide.
52

53 Palaeoproterozoic U-Pb zircon ages obtained from metasyenites on
54 Islay (1782 ± 5 Ma; Marcantonio *et al.*, 1988) and Inishtrahull
55 (1779 ± 3 Ma; Daly *et al.*, 1991) have been interpreted as
56 crystallization ages of the protolith. That is about the time that
57 the Lewisian Gneiss Complex of the Hebridean Terrane was undergoing
58 tectonothermal reworking during the Laxfordian Event (Mendum *et al.*,
59 2009). However, the stable isotope studies have shown that
60 the Rhinns rocks are not reworked Archaean crust but are derived
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4 dominantly from juvenile mantle material, effectively ruling out
5 any direct correlation with the Lewisian Gneiss Complex, in which
6 there is no evidence for major addition of mantle material at c.
7 1800 Ma.
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9 **1.3.2 Badenoch Group**

10
11 Large areas of middle amphibolite-facies, gneissose and locally
12 migmatitic, psammite and semipelite in the Northern Grampian
13 Highlands were originally regarded as stratigraphically equivalent
14 to the surrounding psammitic rocks, and all were equated with the
15 Moine succession north-west of the Great Glen Fault, being referred
16 to generally as the 'Younger Moines' (e.g. Johnstone, 1975; Harris
17 and Pitcher, 1975). Detailed mapping and radiometric age
18 determinations in the 1970s led to a radical re-interpretation of
19 the stratigraphical and structural significance of the migmatitic
20 rocks. These became regarded as a distinct tectonostratigraphical
21 unit, termed the 'Central Highland Division', and were viewed as an
22 older basement to the adjacent 'Grampian Division' psammites
23 (Piasecki and van Breemen, 1979a, 1979b; Piasecki, 1980; Piasecki
24 and Temperley, 1988a). The traditional view that the Central
25 Highland Division comprises migmatized versions of the adjacent
26 rocks (though not by this time correlated with the Moine) was
27 restated by Lindsay *et al.* (1989) and the matter remained
28 unresolved for some time, with the generally gneissose parts of the
29 succession regarded for convenience as a tectonothermal lithodemic
30 unit termed the 'Central Highland Migmatite Complex' (Harris *et al.*,
31 1994; Stephenson and Gould, 1995; Highton, 1999). Recent mapping
32 by the British Geological Survey (BGS) has shown that the
33 migmatization is controlled generally by the lithology of the
34 protolith, but has confirmed the existence of a basement-cover
35 relationship and has mapped out the contact. 'Basement' successions
36 have been documented in two geographically separate areas (see
37 Figure 5.1) and these have been referred to informally as the Dava
38 and Glen Banchor successions in recent publications (Robertson and
39 Smith, 1999; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Strachan *et al.*, 2002). They have
40 now been formalised as subgroups of the Badenoch Group. Additional
41 small inliers occur in the Aviemore area at Kincaig and Ord Ban
42 and enigmatic gneissose rocks in Gleann Liath, near Foyers,
43 described by Mould (1946), could be a fault slice of a similar
44 basement succession.
45
46

47 A series of ductile shear-zones, known collectively as the
48 Grampian Shear-zone (formerly the Grampian Slide or Slide-zone),
49 can be traced discontinuously throughout the outcrop of the Glen
50 Banchor Subgroup and largely delimit the Dava Subgroup. The shear-
51 zones have been variously interpreted as a deformed unconformity
52 between basement and cover (Piasecki, 1980), a zone of tectonic
53 interleaving of the Grampian Group with a migmatite complex
54 (Highton, 1992; Hyslop and Piasecki, 1999), and a zone of
55 distributed shear located entirely within the Badenoch Group (Smith
56 *et al.*, 1999).
57

58 Many of the shear-zones incorporate a distinctive suite of
59 syntectonic, foliated veins of pegmatitic granite and quartz, and
60 it is believed that these segregations formed during early ductile
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4 shearing along the slides (Hyslop, 1992; Hyslop and Piasecki,
5 1999). Several dates were obtained by Rb-Sr methods on combined
6 muscovite and whole rock, which cluster quite tightly around 750 Ma
7 (Piasecki and van Breemen, 1979a, 1983). More-precise U-Pb
8 analyses of monazites from such pegmatites have provided ages of
9 808 \pm 11/-9 Ma and 806 \pm 3 Ma, and a concordant age of 804 \pm 13/-12
10 Ma has been obtained from the host mylonite matrix (Noble *et al.*,
11 1996). U-Pb dating of single zircon grains within kyanite-bearing
12 migmatites has yielded an age of 840 \pm 11 Ma (Highton *et al.*,
13 1999). These U-Pb dates provide a minimum age for the Badenoch
14 Group and confirm that it was affected by a tectonothermal event,
15 comparable in age to the Knoydartian that affected the Moine
16 Supergroup of the Northern Highlands (Fettes *et al.*, 1986). No
17 such dates have been obtained from rocks assigned to, or cutting,
18 the Grampian Group, which record only later, Caledonian events,
19 supporting the notion of an orogenic unconformity at or near to its
20 base. Thus the rocks of the Badenoch Group are now regarded as
21 forming the basement to Grampian Group depositional basins, and may
22 possibly be comparable in age to the Moine Supergroup.
23

24 A full discussion of the basement-cover relationships and the
25 evidence for a stratigraphical, structural and metamorphic break is
26 given in the *Introduction* to Chapter 5 of the present volume.
27

28 **1.4 DALRADIAN LITHOSTRATIGRAPHY**

29 ***D. Stephenson***

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34 The Dalradian Supergroup is dominated by well-differentiated
35 sequences of variably metamorphosed marine clastic sedimentary
36 rocks and metacarbonate rocks. Some fluvial interludes are
37 recognized in the earliest parts and localized metavolcanic rocks
38 occur in the later parts. The aggregate total thickness of the
39 succession adds up to at least 25 km, although the complete
40 thickness was never deposited at one place. It is more likely that
41 depocentres migrated south-eastwards with time and individual
42 basins are unlikely to have accumulated more than 15 km of
43 sediment.
44

45 The formal hierarchical lithostratigraphy of the supergroup is
46 shown in Figure 1.6. This builds on the original division of the
47 Dalradian into three groups by Harris and Pitcher (1975), with
48 subsequent incorporation of the Grampian Group by Harris *et al.*
49 (1978), and further rationalization and modification by Winchester
50 and Glover (1988), Harris *et al.* (1994), Stephenson and Gould
51 (1995) and Smith *et al.* (1999). The Grampian, Appin and Argyll
52 groups are divided into subgroups. A suggestion by Banks and
53 Winchester (2004) that the lowest subgroup of the Grampian Group
54 should be elevated to group status as the Glenshirra Group has not
55 been accepted here.

56 The two lower groups (Grampian and Appin groups) fall within the
57 Cryogenian System/Period and the two higher groups (Argyll and
58 Southern Highland groups) fall mainly within the Ediacaran
59 System/Period but extend into the Middle Cambrian Series. Outcrops
60 of the four groups are shown on Figure 1.1, which illustrates the
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4 overall younging from north-west to south-east. Subgroup outcrops
5 are shown on the figures to accompany the regional chapter
6 introductions (Figures 2.1, 3.0, 4.1, 5.1, 6.1).

7 Similar sedimentary associations extend throughout the Grampian
8 Highlands along a strike length of some 320 km. In fact in some
9 parts of the succession, a remarkable stratigraphical consistency
10 is preserved over the whole Dalradian outcrop from Connemara in the
11 west of Ireland to the Banffshire coast, a distance of 700 km. A
12 simple 'layer-cake' stratigraphy, in some cases allowing detailed
13 correlation down to at least member level, is most apparent in the
14 middle part of the Appin Group. That sequence, from the calcareous
15 top part of the Lochaber Subgroup, through the whole of the
16 Ballachulish Subgroup, to the basal metamudstones and
17 metalimestones of the Blair Atholl Subgroup, is recognizable almost
18 everywhere. In other parts of the Dalradian Supergroup,
19 correlation between local successions is complicated by lateral
20 facies changes, diachronous boundaries, local unconformities, non-
21 sequences, tectonic discontinuities and changes in metamorphic
22 grade. Many formations have only local extent but laterally
23 persistent facies associations do allow broad correlations at
24 subgroup level over most of the outcrop.

25
26 Certain key formations of distinctive lithology have been traced
27 throughout the Grampian Highlands and, in some cases, through
28 north-western Ireland. Most of these are highlighted on Figure
29 1.6. They provide lithostratigraphical markers and some have
30 widespread chronostratigraphical significance. Foremost among the
31 latter are the tillites (e.g. the Port Askaig Tillite Formation)
32 that mark the base of the Argyll Group throughout most of its
33 outcrop and record a major glacial event. Correlation with
34 worldwide glaciations is currently a matter of debate but is taken
35 here to be with the 635 Ma Marinoan global event (see p. xx [in
36 Dating the Dalradian sedimentation]). The top of the Argyll Group
37 is marked in the South-west Grampian Highlands and parts of
38 Northern Ireland by large volumes of basic volcanic and subvolcanic
39 rocks (e.g. the Tayvallich Volcanic Formation). These represent a
40 major rift-related magmatic event during the early stages of
41 development of the Iapetus Ocean that has been dated
42 radiometrically at 600-595 Ma (see p. xx [in Dating the Dalradian
43 sedimentation]). Other events, although readily recognizable in
44 the lithostratigraphy, are probably more diachronous. These
45 include transgressive flooding surfaces, such as those at the bases
46 of the Ballachulish and Easdale subgroups, and basin shallowing
47 events marked by calcareous lithologies at the tops of those two
48 subgroups.

49
50 On the Shetland Islands, lithological associations are typical of
51 the Dalradian as a whole. In particular, metalimestones and
52 metamudstones in the middle of the succession suggest a broad
53 correlation with the Appin and Argyll groups, and metavolcanic
54 formations have been assumed to be broadly coeval with those at the
55 top of the Argyll Group and in the Southern Highland Group. But,
56 any detailed correlations with the Dalradian of mainland Scotland
57 that have been suggested are extremely tenuous.

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59 Correlations in parts of the succession are complicated by
60 syn-depositional, possibly listric faulting (e.g. Anderton, 1985,
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4 1988) and detailed field observations are now revealing previously
5 undetected intrabasinal unconformities and periods of non-
6 deposition. The scale and significance of such discontinuities is
7 currently a matter of much debate, in some cases leading to
8 speculation that major stratigraphical and orogenic breaks occur
9 within the Dalradian successions of both Scotland and Ireland
10 (Prave, 1999; Alsop *et al.*, 2000; Hutton and Alsop, 2004), though
11 this has been challenged by Tanner (2005).
12

13 The original depositional thicknesses of sedimentary units are
14 difficult to estimate due to tectonic thickening or thinning during
15 polyphase folding and ductile shearing. And regional metamorphism
16 not only obliterates original sedimentary features but can also
17 change the lithological and mineralogical characteristics to such
18 an extent that some lithostratigraphically equivalent units have
19 been given different formation names in areas of differing
20 metamorphic grade. However, the intensity of metamorphism and
21 deformation varies considerably on a regional basis. In the South-
22 west Grampian Highlands and in most of the Highland Border region,
23 the middle to upper parts of the Dalradian succession have been
24 affected only by low- to medium-grade metamorphism and are not
25 strongly deformed. Hence, their basin architecture,
26 sedimentological environment and depositional processes have been
27 deduced with some confidence (e.g. Roberts, 1966a; Hickman, 1975;
28 Anderton, 1976, 1979; Litherland, 1980; Burt, 2002). As a
29 consequence of this detailed knowledge, most early reviews of
30 Dalradian evolution were heavily biased towards interpretations
31 from those areas (e.g. Knill, 1963; Harris *et al.*, 1978; Johnson,
32 1965, 1983, 1991; Anderton, 1982, 1985, 1988). In areas of higher
33 grade metamorphism, interpretations of the original nature of the
34 rocks are generally more difficult, although sedimentary structures
35 are preserved to remarkably high grade in some psammitic rocks.
36 These have enabled several sedimentological studies to be made,
37 particularly in the Grampian Group (Winchester and Glover, 1988;
38 Glover and Winchester, 1989; Glover, 1993; Banks, 2007) and
39 sequence-stratigraphy has been applied to some extent in the
40 lowermost parts (Glover and McKie, 1996; Banks, 2005).
41

42 For many years, the regional correlation of local formations
43 within the Dalradian succession could not be attempted with any
44 confidence and the first Grampian-wide lithostratigraphical scheme
45 was that of Harris and Pitcher (1975). Since then most gaps in the
46 mapping have been filled, correlations have been widened to at
47 least subgroup level and most units have been formalized by
48 inclusion in the BGS Lexicon of Named Rock Units
49 (http://www.bgs.ac.uk/lexicon/lexicon_intro.html). However,
50 despite attempts to rationalize the plethora of local names,
51 historical uncertainties are still reflected by the fact that even
52 key regionally recognized formations have different names in
53 different areas. The name changes are usually confined to places
54 where there is a break in continuous outcrop. For example, the
55 major quartzite formation that dominates the Islay Subgroup is
56 known variously as the Jura Quartzite, the Schiehallion Quartzite,
57 the Creag Leacach Quartzite, the Kymah Quartzite and the Durn Hill
58 Quartzite. A similar number of names are used for the same
59 quartzite in Ireland.
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4 Other relics of historical nomenclature persist in formal names
5 that do not accord with accepted stratigraphical practice but have
6 been adopted because the name is well established. Thus, for
7 example, we have the Ballachulish Slate Formation immediately
8 succeeding the Ballachulish Limestone Formation and both a Lower
9 and an Upper Erins quartzite formation. In addition a few informal
10 names remain, usually because a formal rank and correlation have
11 yet to be established. These are placed in parentheses and not
12 capitalized (e.g. the Stuartfield 'division' of the North-east
13 Grampian Highlands). References to previous uses of the terms
14 'division' and 'group' are also parenthesized.
15

16 **1.4.1 Grampian Group**

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18
19 The Grampian Group crops out over an area of approximately 4250 km²
20 in a broad NE-trending area extending from Glen Orchy to near
21 Elgin, with an isolated outcrop on the north coast around Cullen.
22 It forms most of the Northern Grampian Highlands and large parts of
23 the Central Grampian Highlands as defined in this volume (chapters
24 3 and 5). The group consists mainly of psammites and semipelites,
25 with some quartzites, all at amphibolite-facies metamorphic grade.
26 The coarse-grained siliciclastic Scatsta Group at the base of the
27 Shetland Dalradian succession could well be a correlative, as could
28 much of the Colonsay Group on Islay and Colonsay. It is also
29 possible that the Bowmore Sandstone Group on Islay may be assigned
30 to the Grampian Group. These problematical units are discussed
31 separately below.
32

33 Regional mapping in the Northern Grampian Highlands has shown that
34 deposition of the group occurred within a series of linked NE-
35 trending basins bounded by major syndepositional faults and crustal
36 lineaments (see Figure 5.2). Stratigraphical successions have been
37 established in each of the main basins, although only the
38 Corrieyairack Basin is known in detail, whilst the Cromdale and
39 Strathtummel basins are still the subject of ongoing research.
40 Correlation between the basins is tentative in parts. However,
41 following the establishment of informal local stratigraphies (e.g.
42 Thomas, 1980), an initial division into subgroups proposed by
43 Winchester and Glover (1988) has now been expanded and adopted
44 across the region (Glover and Winchester, 1989; Smith *et al.*, 1999;
45 Banks, 2005). The three subgroups are characterized by different
46 lithofacies associations and are interpreted to represent distinct
47 phases of early and syn-rift extension followed by a protracted
48 period of post-rift thermal subsidence (Glover *et al.*, 1995).
49

50 The nature of the contact between the gneissose and migmatitic
51 basement of the Badenoch Group and the essentially non-gneissose
52 lithologies of the Grampian Group is considered in some detail in
53 the section on *Basement to the Dalradian Basins* and in the
54 *Introduction* to Chapter 5.

55 For much of its length in the North-east and Central Grampian
56 Highlands, the contact of the Grampian Group with the overlying
57 Appin Group is defined tectonically by a regional high-strain zone
58 of enigmatic origin and nature, known as the Boundary Slide-zone.
59 However, to the south-west of the Schiehallion district the slide
60 cuts up the succession so that a conformable Grampian-Appin group
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succession can be observed in places such as Glen Orchy and Kinlochleven and is inferred elsewhere. In those areas, the contact has been placed traditionally at the base of the Eilde Quartzite, now the base of the Loch Treig Schist and Quartzite Formation, although it is possible that unconformities exist locally (Winchester and Glover, 1988; Glover, 1993). A sedimentary transition is also recognized in the far north-east, where the boundary is rather arbitrarily defined to be above any major quartzite units.

The Grampian Group is geochemically distinctive and shares more characteristics with the Moine Supergroup of the Northern Highlands Terrane than it does with younger Dalradian groups. This is particularly noticeable in the regional geochemical maps, compiled from stream sediment data by the British Geological Survey (BGS) (Plant *et al.*, 1999; Stone *et al.*, 1999). The Moine Supergroup and Grampian Group are depleted in base elements such as Mg, Ni and Cu but are enriched in incompatible elements, Ba, K, La, Rb, Sr, U, and Zr, relative to later Dalradian sequences. In broad terms, this has been attributed to the change from dominantly psammitic sequences to more-mixed shelf and basin lithologies, which is reflected in a reduction in detrital minerals such as K-feldspar and an increase in marine clay minerals. Whole-rock analyses of the psammitic and semipelitic rocks are also chemically distinguishable from those in the overlying Appin Group and there are slight chemical differences between semipelites at different stratigraphical levels (Lambert *et al.*, 1982; Haselock, 1984; Winchester and Glover, 1988).

Throughout the sedimentation of the Grampian Group there was a constant supply of detritus from a hinterland of exposed quartzofeldspathic gneiss and granitic rock (Hickman, 1975; Glover and Winchester, 1989). This is particularly noticeable in pebbly beds of the Glenshirra Subgroup. Analysis of detrital zircon populations indicates source areas of Proterozoic rocks, with a marked absence of any Archean detritus (Cawood *et al.*, 2003). That study highlighted differences in provenance with time. In the Glenshirra Subgroup, populations are dominated by 1.8 Ga detritus with subsidiary 1.2 Ga detritus, suggesting that 'Rhinnian-type' basement was an important component of the source area at that time. Peaks at 2.0 Ga and 1.4 Ga characterize the Corrieyairack Subgroup, with progressive dilution by 1.1-0.9 Ga Grenvillian detritus in the more-mature sediments of the Glen Spean Subgroup. However, a study of detrital zircons and whole-rock Nd isotopes by Banks *et al.* (2007) revealed marked differences in provenance signatures between Grampian Group basins, which were attributed to sediment transport directions. Thus the Corrieyairack Basin contains voluminous 1.8 Ga detritus, inferred to have been derived from Ketilidian/Rhinnian igneous basement in the Labrador region of Laurentia to the west, whereas the more easterly Strathtummel Basin was dominated by 1.0 - 0.9 Ga Grenvillian/Sveconorwegian sources in Baltica to the east. Further-travelled basin-axial deposition supplied a greater variety of late-Paleoproterozoic (1.8 - 1.6 Ga) and early Mesoproterozoic (1.6 - 1.4Ga) detritus to both basins.

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4 **1.4.1.1 Glenshirra Subgroup**
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6 The base of the Grampian Group is not seen in undisturbed contact
7 with the underlying Badenoch Group rocks. The oldest exposed unit
8 is the Glenshirra Subgroup, which has a type area in the core of
9 the Glenshirra Dome in upper Speyside and in several fault- and
10 shear-bounded inliers closer to the Great Glen Fault between Loch
11 Lochy and Strath Errick (Haselock *et al.*, 1982; Okonkwo, 1988; May
12 and Highton, 1997).
13

14 The subgroup comprises sequences, up to 2 km in thickness, of
15 geochemically distinct, immature feldspathic psammite and beds of
16 pebbly psammite and metaconglomerate. The metaconglomerates
17 thicken and increase in abundance both up section and towards the
18 Great Glen Fault. Abundant sedimentary structures are of a type
19 indicative of deposition by traction currents in shallow marine
20 environments with periodic influxes of fluviatile deposits (Banks
21 and Winchester, 2004). The progressive westward thickening and
22 coarsening of the strata imply the presence of a basin margin to
23 the west or north-west, approximately coincident with the present
24 trace of the Great Glen Fault.
25

26 Banks and Winchester (2004) argued that the largely sub-aerial
27 environments of the Glenshirra Subgroup contrast so markedly with
28 the deep-water marine environments of the succeeding Grampian Group
29 sequences, that the Glenshirra should be afforded the status of a
30 separate group.
31

32 **1.4.1.2 Corrieyairack Subgroup**
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34 Around the Glenshirra Dome and in the upper reaches of the River
35 Nairn, the Glenshirra Subgroup rocks are conformably overlain by a
36 distinctive and regionally widespread succession of semipelite and
37 striped semipelite and psammite. This marks the base of the
38 overlying Corrieyairack Subgroup, which is the major component of
39 the Grampian Group in the southern Monadhliath mountains (Haselock
40 *et al.*, 1982; Okonkwo, 1988). The abrupt change to a semipelitic
41 succession records a basin-wide flooding event heralding the start
42 of a major period of widespread subsidence and rift-related
43 extension (Banks, 2005).
44

45 There the basal semipelites are overlain by 4-5 km of
46 siliciclastic rocks deposited by prograding turbidite complexes
47 (Banks, 2005). Variations in sediment supply and source area are
48 indicated by changes in the proportions of plagioclase and K-
49 feldspar, whereas variations in bed thickness and form reflect
50 depositional processes (Glover and Winchester, 1989; Key *et al.*,
51 1997). Overlying semipelites record a reduction in sand supply and
52 the development of shelf conditions along the basin margins as
53 recorded by the lateral thickness and facies changes. The youngest
54 parts of the subgroup record a renewed influx of sand-dominated
55 turbidites, deposited by extensive fan-lobe systems derived from
56 the north-west. These pass southwards and eastwards in the Glen
57 Spean and Drumochter areas into shelf environments with several
58 units of distinctive quartzite (Glover and Winchester, 1989; Glover
59 *et al.*, 1995; Robertson and Smith, 1999; Banks, 2005).
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4 Throughout the subgroup, rapid local facies and thickness
5 variations indicate contemporary tectonism and, together with the
6 progressive overstep onto an interbasin high in the Glen Banchor
7 area, they permit the tracing of outlines of former basin margins
8 (Glover and Winchester, 1989; Robertson and Smith, 1999). Locally,
9 as at Ord Ban and *Kincraig* near Aviemore, basement rocks of the
10 Glen Banchor Subgroup are overlain directly by a condensed shallow-
11 marine shelf sequence consisting of semipelite interbedded with
12 calcsilicate rocks, thin quartzites, metacarbonate rocks and
13 concordant sheets of amphibolite. These strata, previously
14 assigned to the now defunct 'Ord Ban Subgroup' of Winchester and
15 Glover (1988), are now redesignated as the *Kincraig* Formation.
16 Comparable lithologies that constitute the Grantown Formation near
17 Grantown-on-Spey (McIntyre, 1951; Highton, 1999) were also
18 previously assigned tentatively to the 'Ord Ban Subgroup' but this
19 formation includes metacarbonate rocks with a distinctly different
20 lithogeochemical signature, more like those of the lower Appin
21 Group (BGS unpublished data).
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24 **1.4.1.3 *Glen Spean Subgroup***

25
26 In all three major basins, the deep-water turbiditic rocks of the
27 uppermost Corrieyairick Subgroup are conformably overlain by
28 shallow-marine shelf sedimentary rocks of the Glen Spean Subgroup,
29 consisting of a mature mixed sequence of semipelite and psammite
30 with quartzites in the upper parts. Reduced subsidence and
31 relative tectonic stability at this time are interpreted to
32 represent post-rift thermal subsidence (Glover *et al.*, 1995).
33

34 In the south-west of the Corrieyairack Basin, rocks of the
35 subgroup were formerly known as the 'Eilde Flags'. Around Spean
36 Bridge, the succession is approximately 4000 m thick (Winchester
37 and Glover, 1991; Glover, 1993) but it thins southwards to about
38 100 m in the Kinlochleven area and on the Black Mount. A thin
39 development also occurs in the south-east of the basin, on the
40 flank of the Glen Banchor 'high'. Similar lithologies form a thick
41 succession in the Strathtummel Basin, where a near-continuous
42 section is exposed in the A9 road cuttings (see *Chapter 3*). There,
43 the whole succession was formerly referred to as the 'Struan
44 Flags', but Thomas (1980, 1988) described a 'Drumochter succession'
45 of flaggy psammites and semipelites, overlain by a predominantly
46 psammitic 'Strathtummel succession'. Those informal successions
47 were designated as new 'Atholl' and 'Strathtummel' subgroups by
48 Treagus (2000) and on the BGS 1:50 000 Sheet 55W (Schiehallion,
49 2000). However, they are almost certainly local equivalents of the
50 Glen Spean Subgroup and will be referred to as such in the future.
51 Shallow-water sedimentary structures are well preserved in many of
52 the psammitic beds and these have been described in detail and
53 interpreted by Banks (2007).
54

55 In the Cromdale Basin, the upper 2-3 km of Grampian Group strata
56 are dominated by micaceous psammites and quartzites, which are
57 assigned to the Glen Spean Subgroup. Shallow-water quartzites
58 become dominant towards the top of the subgroup, in the Cromdale
59 Hills, around Rothes and along the north coast at Cullen, where
60 they pass conformably upwards into Appin Group successions.
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1.4.2 Appin Group

The Appin Group was derived from a varied sequence of shelf sediments and comprises pelites, semipelites, quartzites, calcsilicate rocks, metalimestones and metadolostones, usually with rapid alternations of facies (Anderton, 1985; Wright, 1988). Local successions are easily established and the group has been divided into three subgroups. Lateral facies changes, thickness variations and local unconformities are well documented in several areas, but most formations and certain key beds can be traced over large distances and there is an overall general consistency of facies from Connemara in western Ireland to the Moray Firth coast. Correlations between local successions have thus been made with reasonable confidence throughout the Grampian Highlands (Harris *et al.*, 1994, fig. 14; Stephenson and Gould, 1995, fig. 10), aided in some areas by detailed studies of the whole-rock geochemistry of a variety of lithologies. Such studies have been more successful in the Appin Group than in other parts of the Dalradian succession (Lambert *et al.*, 1981; 1982; Hickman and Wright, 1983; Rock *et al.*, 1986). Of particular use are the geochemical studies of metacarbonate units, some of which retain distinctive geochemical characteristics over considerable distances (Rock, 1986; Thomas, 1989, 1993).

Rocks of the Appin Group crop out over some 2100 km² in a relatively narrow outcrop extending throughout the Grampian Highlands over a strike length of 325 km (Figure 1.1). In the south-west a complete sequence, which continues up into the overlying Argyll Group, is recognized in the core of the Islay Anticline. Thick developments occur around Appin and in Lochaber, which are type areas for the two lowest subgroups, the Lochaber and Ballachulish subgroups. South-eastwards from Appin, rapid facies changes and considerable attenuation occur; higher parts of the group were either not deposited, or are cut out by unconformities, or have been excised by possible tectonic dislocation along the Boundary Slide-zone. As a result, only a condensed and possibly incomplete sequence of Lochaber Subgroup rocks is present from Glen Orchy to Glen Lyon. A more-complete although still condensed sequence, which passes up conformably into the Argyll Group, reappears to the north of Schiehallion and expands rapidly eastwards to Blair Atholl, the type area of the highest, Blair Atholl Subgroup. The complete sequence is then traceable north-eastwards to Braemar. To the north of the Cairngorm and Glengairn granite plutons a similar succession has been traced northwards to link with the succession on the Moray Firth coast. Appin Group strata also occur as outliers in narrow fold hinges in the Northern Grampian Highlands, both in the Glen Roy area, where they represent an extension of the Lochaber stratigraphy, and farther to the east in the Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt. On Shetland, a varied succession of siliciclastic and carbonate rocks, typical of the Appin and Argyll groups, occurs in the middle of the 'East Mainland Succession' and it is this Whiteness Group that most strongly suggests a correlation with the Dalradian of mainland Scotland.

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4 The shallow-marine environment that dominated the Glen Spean
5 Subgroup continued up into Appin Group times, when sedimentation
6 occurred generally on a shallow tidal shelf, overlying crust that
7 was gently subsiding due to lithospheric stretching (Anderton,
8 1985; Wright, 1988). Conditions fluctuated between an open marine
9 oxidizing environment and stagnant euxinic lagoons to produce the
10 alternating sandstone and black pyritic mudstone sequences (Figure
11 1.6). The overall lateral persistence of sedimentary facies
12 suggests that similar processes of deposition were widespread and
13 that supply of sediment remained constant. As in the preceding
14 Grampian Group, this was from a north-western landmass, although
15 palaeocurrent indicators show that sediment was distributed along
16 the shelf by tidal longshore currents. In detail, a series of NE-
17 trending basins might have developed, bounded by synsedimentary
18 growth faults, such as those that have been identified in the Glen
19 Creran-Loch Leven district (Hickman, 1975; Litherland, 1980).
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22 **1.4.2.1 Lochaber Subgroup**

23

24 In many parts of the Grampian Highlands a sequence of semipelites
25 and pelites with lenticular interbedded quartzites succeeds the
26 underlying more-persistently psammitic rocks of the Grampian Group.
27 This conformable relationship persists throughout much of the type
28 area, between Port Appin and Glen Roy and in the mountainous ground
29 around Kinlochleven. Elsewhere, significant stratigraphical
30 omissions suggest the presence of local unconformities, such as
31 around the Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt, where over 1200 m of strata
32 are absent locally, possibly as a result of footwall uplift at a
33 basin margin (Glover *et al.*, 1995; Robertson and Smith, 1999). The
34 subgroup is absent between Onich and Glen Spean, where the
35 Ballachulish Subgroup is in direct contact with the Grampian Group
36 along what was formerly interpreted as the Fort William Slide
37 (Bailey, 1934, 1960) and subsequently re-interpreted as a localized
38 unconformity (Glover, 1993). Between Glen Orchy and Braemar the
39 Lochaber Subgroup is represented only by a highly condensed
40 sequence within and above the Boundary Slide-zone but farther north
41 a thick sequence, broadly comparable with that of the type area,
42 rests conformably upon the Grampian Group.
43

44 In its type area, the Lochaber Subgroup has a maximum aggregate
45 thickness of 4200 m (Hinzman *et al.*, 1923; Bailey, 1934). Hickman
46 (1975) defined type sections for some of the units within a
47 continuous section along the River Leven and Loch Leven.
48 Distinctive quartzite units are traceable over strike lengths of
49 tens of kilometres, although they do taper out laterally and might
50 be diachronous. Around Glen Coe and Kinlochleven there are three
51 major quartzites (the Eilde, Binnein and Glen Coe quartzites), all
52 of which thin north-eastwards towards Loch Treig, where the
53 succession becomes dominantly semipelitic, and they taper out north
54 of Glen Spean (Key *et al.*, 1997). The quartzites become finer
55 grained and less feldspathic towards the north-east, a
56 mineralogical change that is reflected in their whole-rock
57 chemistry (Hickman and Wright, 1983). Contacts between the
58 quartzites and interbedded semipelites are commonly transitional
59 over several metres with fine-scale interleaving of the two
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4 lithologies and consequently the alternating units are all classed
5 as members within a single Loch Treig Schist and Quartzite
6 Formation.

7 The upper part of the subgroup in its type area comprises a
8 homogeneous sequence, up to 2200 m thick, of distinctive striped,
9 greenish grey phyllitic or schistose semipelite and pelite with
10 minor thin quartzites, termed the Leven Schist Formation. The
11 pelites and semipelites are less feldspathic than those in the
12 Grampian Group, and this is matched by distinct changes in the
13 regional whole-rock chemistry and provenance (Lambert *et al.*, 1982;
14 Winchester and Glover, 1988; Stone *et al.*, 1999). The uppermost
15 strata become increasingly calcareous and contain thin beds of
16 metalimestone in the Glen Spean area.

17 To the south-west, the upper part of the Lochaber Subgroup is
18 exposed in the core of the Islay Anticline, where it consists of a
19 lower quartzite unit with pebble beds containing extrabasinal
20 granite clasts, and an overlying semipelitic unit which becomes
21 more calcareous upwards, comparable to the Leven Schists (Rast and
22 Litherland, 1970; Wright, 1988). However, south-east of the type
23 area a tripartite division is recognized in which basal dark grey
24 pelites and semipelites are overlain by striped semipelites with
25 thin metacarbonate beds, which in turn are overlain by pale greyish
26 green semipelites (Hickman, 1975; Litherland, 1980).

27 On the north-western edge of the Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt,
28 between Ben Alder and Kingussie, semipelites and quartzites similar
29 to those of the Loch Treig Schist and Quartzite Formation have been
30 assigned to the lower part of the Lochaber Subgroup (Robertson and
31 Smith, 1999). At the top of this succession is the Kinlochlaggan
32 Boulder Bed, containing clasts of a variety of intra- and
33 extrabasinal rock types including granite (Treagus, 1969, 1981;
34 Evans and Tanner, 1996). These beds were formerly interpreted as
35 tillites, deposited directly from ice-sheets, but the clasts are
36 now thought to have originated as ice-rafted dropstones. Either
37 way this is the earliest evidence for glacial activity in the
38 Dalradian succession.

39 Between Glen Orchy and Braemar, thin developments of the Lochaber
40 Subgroup have been recognized in condensed sequences, rarely
41 exceeding a few hundred metres in thickness (Treagus and King,
42 1978; Roberts and Treagus, 1979; Upton, 1986; Treagus, 1987, 2000).
43 The junction with the underlying Grampian Group lies within a zone
44 of high strain, the Boundary Slide-zone, in which several
45 formations are strongly attenuated or even excised locally along
46 tectonic breaks. However, in some areas, there seems to be a
47 continuous overall stratigraphical transition from the Grampian
48 Group into the Lochaber Subgroup, as in the *Gilbert's Bridge* GCR
49 site in Glen Tilt. The reduced thickness is not solely attributed
50 to deformation in the slide-zone; there would seem to be
51 considerable sedimentological thinning in this area, as there is in
52 many of the succeeding Appin Group formations. Recognition of
53 component formations is hampered by the highly tectonized state of
54 lithological units such as the Beoil Schist Formation in the
55 Schiehallion area and the Tom Anthon Mica Schist Formation
56 south-west of Braemar. Calcareous Leven Schist-type lithologies
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4 occur in the Meall Dubh Striped Pelite Formation of the
5 Schiehallion area and in the Glen Banvie Formation of Glen Tilt.

6 North of the granitic plutons that mark the Deeside Lineament,
7 Grampian Group psammites are overlain conformably by micaceous
8 psammites with thin quartzites and semipelites, passing up locally
9 into slightly calcareous lithologies. The subgroup thickens
10 markedly northwards, where the Findlater Flag Formation, passes
11 transitionally upwards into calcareous psammites and semipelites
12 locally termed the Pitlurg Calcareous Flag Formation and Cairnfield
13 Calcareous Flag Formation.
14

15 Throughout its outcrop, the lower part of the subgroup records the
16 continuation of relatively shallow marine conditions from Grampian
17 Group times and the basal psammites, quartzites and pelites show
18 close affinities with the Grampian Group. The major quartzites
19 exhibit well-preserved shallow-water sedimentary structures, such
20 as cross-bedding, grading, ripple-marks, slump and dewatering
21 structures and have been interpreted generally as nearshore tidal
22 sand bodies (Hickman, 1975; Wright, 1988). They probably
23 represented periodic basin shoaling events in a delta that extended
24 north-eastwards over a distance of about 40 km, with facies varying
25 from proximal at Appin to distal at Glen Roy (Glover *et al.*, 1995;
26 Glover and McKie, 1996). Farther east, where the quartzites and
27 associated psammites pass into semipelite, the complex facies
28 variations reflect generally deeper water environments (Key *et al.*,
29 1997). Gradually the coarse siliciclastic basin-fills gave way to
30 widespread deep-water muddy sedimentation during the first of
31 several marine transgressions that typify subsequent sedimentary
32 cycles of the Appin and Argyll groups. In almost all areas, the
33 highest beds of the subgroup are variably calcareous with
34 tremolitic amphibole, and rare units of impure metacarbonate rock,
35 heralding the more-persistent and more-widespread carbonate
36 sedimentation of the Ballachulish Subgroup. They have been
37 interpreted as reflecting the establishment of local lagoonal
38 environments with seawater-precipitated magnesium-rich carbonate
39 rocks and possible seasonal desiccation (Thomas, 1989; Stephenson,
40 1993). This broadly calcareous part of the succession is a useful
41 stratigraphical marker.
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44 **1.4.2.2 Ballachulish Subgroup**

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46 This subgroup, more than any other in the Dalradian, exhibits a
47 remarkable lateral continuity of lithological type; key elements of
48 the sequence can be traced, almost on a bed-for-bed basis, from
49 Connemara to the Moray Firth coast, attesting to widespread
50 stability and relatively uniform subsidence at this time.
51

52 In most parts of the Grampian Highlands, the contact of the
53 Lochaber Subgroup with the Ballachulish Subgroup is conformable;
54 there is a transition from calcareous semipelites and tremolitic
55 calcsilicate rocks to a background lithology of graphitic pelites
56 with more-persistent discrete beds of metacarbonate rock that are
57 commonly dolomitic. Notable exceptions occur between Onich and Glen
58 Spean, where the basal Ballachulish Subgroup rests with local
59 unconformity on the Grampian Group (Glover, 1993), and on the
60 north-western edge of the Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt where, as a
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4 result of non-deposition and erosion on a longstanding footwall
5 'high', the upper part of the Ballachulish Subgroup oversteps the
6 lower part and the entire Grampian Group to rest directly on the
7 Badenoch Group (Robertson and Smith, 1999). In the Boundary Slide-
8 zone, despite the highly attenuated successions, a complete
9 stratigraphical transition can be recognized in most areas.

10
11 Five formations are recognized in the Lochaber-Appin area (Bailey,
12 1960; Hickman, 1975; Litherland, 1980). The Ballachulish Limestone
13 Formation and Ballachulish Slate Formation together account for
14 over 500 m of succession in the type area, around Ballachulish and
15 Onich, but thin northwards around fold closures in the area of Glen
16 Roy, where they are partly excised by slides (Key *et al.*, 1997).
17 Phyllitic grey-green calcsilicate rocks, cream and grey
18 metadolostones and dark bluish grey metalimestones define the lower
19 formation within a background lithology of slaty and phyllitic
20 graphitic pelites that become dominant upwards. Intercalations of
21 graded psammite and quartzite on scales from a few millimetres to
22 about a metre become numerous in the upper part of the pelites
23 where they form the distinctively striped Appin Transition
24 Formation. The succeeding Appin Quartzite Formation is about 300 m
25 thick in its type area but it thins considerably to the north-east
26 like the quartzites of the Lochaber Subgroup. This massive, clean,
27 locally feldspathic quartzite is distinctive from other Dalradian
28 quartzites throughout its strike length, and is characterized by
29 sedimentary structures such as cross-bedding, ripple marks and
30 graded bedding. The overlying Appin Phyllite and Limestone
31 Formation consists of an alternating sequence of phyllitic and
32 flaggy semipelites and psammites, metacarbonate rocks and thin
33 quartzites. It attains a total thickness of up to 400 m in the
34 type area. The metacarbonate rocks, which are more prevalent in
35 the lower part, include several very distinctive lithologies, such
36 as the pure white Onich Limestone and the aptly named 'tiger-rock'
37 of Bailey (1960), which consists of regularly-spaced 5 to 10 cm
38 layers of orange-weathering dolomitic carbonate and dark grey
39 semipelite.
40

41 South-west of the type area, representatives of the Appin
42 Quartzite and the Appin Phyllite and Limestone formations crop out
43 on small islands in the Firth of Lorn, and still farther to the
44 south-west, after a gap of 75 km, the subgroup crops out in the
45 core of the Islay Anticline (Rast and Litherland, 1970).
46

47 To the south-east of Appin, the type succession thins rapidly
48 across strike and marked facies changes occur (Litherland, 1980,
49 figure 6). In Glen Creran the lower part of the sequence might be
50 cut out by an unconformity and local non-sequences within the Appin
51 Phyllite and Limestone Formation suggest some syndepositional
52 tectonic control (Litherland, 1980). Farther to the south-east,
53 beyond the Etive Pluton, the subgroup is absent. Small outliers of
54 schistose calcareous rocks below the Boundary Slide-zone in the
55 Bridge of Orchy area were formerly assumed to represent the
56 Ballachulish Limestone (Bailey and Macgregor, 1912; Thomas and
57 Treagus, 1968; Roberts and Treagus, 1979) but recent mapping by the
58 Geological Survey has re-assigned them all to the Lochaber
59 Subgroup. The remainder of the Appin Group succession is absent
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4 from this area, probably as a result of sedimentological factors
5 with further tectonic attenuation in the Boundary Slide-zone.

6 The attenuated Ballachulish Subgroup re-appears north-eastwards as
7 a condensed sequence totalling only 100 m at Errochty Water, but
8 increases to 700 m in the Schiehallion area (Treagus and King,
9 1978; Treagus, 2000). The subgroup continues to the Loch Tay Fault
10 at Foss where it is displaced north-eastwards to the Blair Atholl
11 area (Pantin, 1961; Smith and Harris, 1976). It can then be traced
12 in continuous outcrops north-eastwards to Braemar (Upton, 1986;
13 Goodman *et al.*, 1997; Crane *et al.*, 2002). Throughout this
14 continuous strike length of some 65 km the succession can be
15 matched almost bed for bed with that in the type areas of Lochaber
16 and Appin.

17
18 The subgroup is well developed to the north of the granitic
19 plutons of the Deeside Lineament and the distinctive formations can
20 be traced as far as the Keith area (see Chapter 6). However, the
21 units become ill defined north of Keith, where marked facies
22 changes probably reflect the original basin architecture. There,
23 apart from a condensed sequence of metalimestone, graphitic pelite
24 and quartzite around Deskford, and a thick sequence of graphitic
25 pelite with thin basal metacarbonate rocks at Sandend Bay, much of
26 the subgroup appears to be absent.

27
28 The base of the Ballachulish Subgroup marks a significant break
29 from the siliciclastic rock-dominated successions of the Grampian
30 Group and Lochaber Subgroup to the limestone-mudstone-sandstone
31 facies associations of the higher parts of the Appin Group and much
32 of the Argyll Group. It is interesting to note that this change
33 coincides with the appearance of Archaean detrital zircon grains in
34 the sediment load (Cawood *et al.*, 2003). The limestones and
35 graphitic mudstones of the lowest formations indicate a major
36 marine transgression and widespread subsidence, with the
37 progressive development of shallow, tidally influenced shelf
38 sedimentation and anoxic lagoonal environments (Anderton, 1985;
39 Wright, 1988). The more-persistent mudstones of the Ballachulish
40 Slate Formation have been interpreted as prodelta clay deposits,
41 and encroachment of upward-coarsening, fine quartz sands from the
42 delta into deeper water produced the overlying sandstones such as
43 the Appin Quartzite. A return to interbedded limestone, calcareous
44 mudstone and siltstone deposition (the Appin Phyllite and Limestone
45 Formation) indicates renewed transgression. Considerable along-
46 strike continuity of facies is seen in all of the formations but
47 the shelf must also have been relatively narrow to explain the
48 rapid down-dip facies changes seen, for example, between Appin and
49 Glen Creran (Litherland, 1980). The sporadic distribution of all
50 of the formations, particularly in the NE-trending block between
51 the Etive and Rannoch Moor plutons and the Bridge of Balgie Fault
52 probably reflects non-deposition and/or erosion due to local uplift
53 rather than tectonic excision.

54 55 56 **1.4.2.3 Blair Atholl Subgroup**

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58 The Blair Atholl Subgroup maintains a generally constant lithology
59 of dark pelites and metalimestones from Connemara to the Moray
60 Firth, although local successions differ in detail, making
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4 bed-for-bed matching difficult. In some areas, notably Islay, the
5 Blair Atholl district and parts of the North-east Grampian
6 Highlands, the upper part of the subgroup is less pelitic with
7 banded semipelites, micaceous psammites, metalimestones and
8 metadolostones comprising a distinctive 'pale group'.
9

10 In the Ardsheal Peninsula of the Appin area, the Ballachulish
11 Subgroup is seen to be overlain by some 300 m of dominantly slaty
12 pyritiferous pelites and semipelites with minor dark-grey
13 metalimestones and some more-psammitic beds, all comprising the
14 Cuil Bay Slate Formation (Hickman, 1975). The pelites and
15 semipelites pass upwards into the Lismore Limestone Formation, a
16 1 km-thick graphitic sequence of flaggy, banded, blue-grey
17 metalimestones with thin pelite members, which forms the whole
18 island of Lismore. It is also seen as an inlier in the core of the
19 Loch Don Anticline in south-eastern Mull. Hickman (1975) has
20 divided the formation into fifteen members and recognises several
21 limestone-mudstone cycles. Slump folds and syndepositional
22 breccias indicate periods of sediment instability along basin
23 margins. Individual limestone formations are laterally persistent
24 and contain ooids, stromatolites and lenticles of chert.

25 Owing to the south-westerly plunge of the major folds, any higher
26 beds of the subgroup that might have been deposited in the Appin-
27 Lismore area lie beneath the Firth of Lorn, but an extended
28 sequence has been recognized in the Islay Anticline (Rast and
29 Litherland, 1970). There, graphitic pelites and a metalimestone,
30 equated with the Cuil Bay Slate and Lismore Limestone, are overlain
31 by more pelites, semipelites and the distinctive, partly ooidal and
32 stromatolitic, Lossit Limestone (Spencer, 1971) (see Chapter 2,
33 *Introduction*).
34

35 To the south-east of the Appin area, in Glen Creran, the subgroup
36 thins and facies changes similar to those in the underlying
37 Ballachulish Subgroup result in a more-semipelitic succession
38 (Litherland, 1980). Like its predecessor, the Blair Atholl
39 Subgroup is absent eastwards from Glen Creran due to a presumed
40 combination of sedimentary thinning and possible movement within
41 the Boundary Slide-zone.
42

43 Strata of the Blair Atholl Subgroup reappear east of Loch Errochty
44 in stratigraphical continuity with the Ballachulish Subgroup and a
45 complete sequence, 250 to 350 m thick, is present between there and
46 the Loch Tay Fault at Foss (Treagus and King, 1978; Treagus, 2000).
47 A lower sequence of dark graphitic pelites and metalimestones is
48 equated with the Cuil Bay Slate and Lismore Limestone and an
49 overlying non-graphitic 'pale group' is generally composed of ribs
50 of psammite and quartzite in a graded pelitic or semipelitic
51 matrix. At the top of the subgroup is a pale cream-weathering
52 dolomitic metalimestone, equated with the Lossit Limestone.

53 Across the Loch Tay Fault, around Blair Atholl, a similar
54 continuous succession from the Ballachulish into the Blair Atholl
55 subgroup has been demonstrated (Smith and Harris, 1976). This
56 constituted the original type succession for the Blair Atholl
57 'series' (Bailey, 1925; Pantin, 1961). Thick beds of dark
58 graphitic metalimestone in the lower part of the Blair Atholl
59 Subgroup are a distinctive feature in this area and the main
60 formations can be followed north-eastwards through the Glen Shee
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4 area almost to Braemar (Upton, 1986; Goodman *et al.*, 1997; Crane *et*
5 *al.*, 2002).

6 North of the Deeside Lineament the Blair Atholl Subgroup consists
7 mainly of semipelites, which are more-pelitic, graphitic and
8 calcareous locally. A prominent thick metalimestone, the Inchroy
9 Limestone Formation, occurs in its central part and minor
10 metalimestones occur locally. The metalimestones thicken
11 considerably around Fordyce and dominate the subgroup in the north
12 coast section.
13

14 In many areas, the junction between the Ballachulish and Blair
15 Atholl subgroups is taken at a fairly abrupt change from a
16 background lithology dominated by semipelite and micaceous psammite
17 to one dominated by graphitic pelite, marking a change to deeper
18 de-oxygenated marine conditions. In contrast with the lateral
19 stratigraphical continuity exhibited by the underlying strata, the
20 greater variation seen between local successions might indicate
21 deposition in a series of smaller basins. Basin margins are
22 possibly marked by thinning of units and lateral changes of facies
23 into coarser grained siliciclastic deposits (semipelites and
24 micaceous psammites) and more-argillaceous limestones. Incomplete
25 stratigraphical sequences in some areas might indicate that
26 sediment supply periodically exceeded subsidence, so that emergence
27 led to local non-deposition.
28

29 **1.4.3 Argyll Group**

30
31
32 The base of the Argyll Group as originally defined was marked by a
33 tillite or a sequence of tillites, almost certainly deposited
34 beneath ice sheets during a glacial event of restricted duration.
35 The number of tillites and the character of the formations that
36 contain them vary, but they are present throughout most of the
37 Dalradian outcrop and hence constitute an important
38 chronostratigraphical marker, not only in the British Isles but
39 throughout the Caledonides. Unfortunately there are no obvious
40 associated targets for direct radiometric dating and consequently
41 there has been much debate as to with which of several dated global
42 glacial events they might be correlated (see p. xx for a full
43 discussion).
44

45 The group has been divided into four subgroups. The tillite-
46 bearing sequence is followed by local carbonate successions,
47 interpreted by some as 'cap carbonates', and by thick shallow-water
48 shelf and deltaic quartzites of regional extent. Together, these
49 constitute the oldest, Islay Subgroup, which marks the end of the
50 stable shelf conditions that characterized Appin Group deposition.
51 The succeeding Easdale, Crinan and Tayvallich subgroups are
52 generally characterized by basin deposits, turbidites and unstable
53 basin margin slump deposits, with only one widespread major
54 shallow-water interlude, in the upper Easdale Subgroup. It is
55 rarely possible to trace individual beds in the Easdale and Crinan
56 subgroups for any great distance and correlations are made on the
57 grounds of general similarity of facies. In contrast, for much of
58 its outcrop the Tayvallich Subgroup is dominated by a calcsilicate-
59 and carbonate-rock unit, which forms another of the principal
60 marker bands of the Dalradian succession. The Argyll Group is also
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4 characterized by penecontemporaneous volcanic activity, evidence of
5 which is found throughout the group but which reaches a maximum
6 development in the Tayvallich Subgroup. This volcanism has
7 provided the most-precise radiometric dates in the whole Dalradian
8 succession (see p. xx). Further evidence for tectonic instability
9 comes from widespread stratabound exhalative mineralization in the
10 Easdale Subgroup, which includes economically significant sulphide
11 and bedded baryte deposits near Aberfeldy.

12
13 Rocks of the Argyll Group crop out over an area of some 5700 km²
14 (Figure 1.1). Extensive outcrops occur on Islay and Jura, and the
15 type successions for all four subgroups are found in the South-west
16 Grampian Highlands. Between the Etive Pluton and the Bridge of
17 Balgie Fault, the Islay Subgroup, like much of the preceding Appin
18 Group, is absent, although most of the younger units are
19 continuous. Farther to the north-east a full succession is present
20 through the Tummel Steep Belt to the Glen Shee area, with the
21 higher units continuing to Deeside. In the North-east Grampian
22 Highlands, west of the Portsoy Shear-zone, the lowest units have
23 been traced intermittently to the north coast. East of the Portsoy
24 Shear-zone, the higher parts of the group are believed to be
25 present in an undivided gneissose sequence forming a horseshoe
26 outcrop pattern around the Turriff Syncline. In Shetland, the
27 absence of a tillite formation hampers identification of an
28 Appin/Argyll group boundary, but the metalimestone-bearing upper
29 part of the Whiteness Group is thought to be broadly equivalent to
30 the Argyll Group of the mainland Dalradian.

31
32 In the Islay Subgroup, conditions of deposition on or close to an
33 extensive continental shelf were similar to those of the preceding
34 Appin Group. The Easdale Subgroup then records the onset of
35 renewed instability with cycles of rapid basin deepening and
36 variable lithofacies within a series of NE-trending basins.
37 Locally thick clastic units indicate that sediment input kept pace
38 with extension in some of the basins, and crustal rupturing allowed
39 sub-marine volcanism to reach a climax in late Argyll Group time
40 (Fettes *et al.*, 2011).

41 42 **1.4.3.1 Islay Subgroup**

43
44 This largely psammitic subgroup is dominated in most areas by a
45 thick quartzite formation. The quartzite and the underlying basal
46 tillite-bearing formation are persistent and distinctive, enabling
47 a good correlation of beds from Connemara to the Moray Firth.

48
49 The basal Port Askaig Tillite Formation is one of the most obvious
50 and readily recognized lithostratigraphical units within the
51 Dalradian succession. In the type area on Islay and in the
52 Garvellach Isles, the combined sequence could be up to 870 m thick,
53 with up to 47 separate tillites recognized (Spencer, 1971, 1981).
54 It consists of a sequence of metasandstones, metasiltstones,
55 metaconglomerates, metadolostones and metadiamicctites that have
56 commonly been referred to informally as 'boulder beds'. These beds
57 range from 0.5 m to 65 m in thickness and contain boulders up to
58 2 m in diameter. The lower beds contain clasts of dolostone,
59 probably derived locally from within the formation or from the
60 underlying Blair Atholl Subgroup. However, the higher beds contain
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4 clasts of granite and gneissose granite of extrabasinal origin
5 (Fitches *et al.*, 1990). This division on the basis of clast
6 content is also recognizable in metadiamicctite sequences outwith
7 the type area. The metadiamicctites are generally regarded as
8 tillites, deposited from grounded ice sheets, but isolated clasts
9 in associated varved siltstones have been interpreted as dropstones
10 from floating ice.

11 The succeeding Bonahaven Dolomite Formation includes
12 metasandstones, metamudstones and impure dolomitic rocks with
13 stromatolites and has been the subject of intense sedimentological,
14 petrographical and geochemical studies (Hackman and Knill, 1962;
15 Klein, 1970; Spencer and Spencer, 1972; Fairchild, 1980a, 1980b,
16 1985, 1991; Kessler and Gollop, 1988). Outcrops are restricted to
17 north-east Islay, where the succession has been divided into four
18 members, with a total thickness of up to 350 m.

19 The Jura Quartzite Formation (formerly also referred to as the
20 Islay Quartzite) marks an abrupt change to a thick succession of
21 cross-bedded and pebbly quartzites characteristic of a slightly
22 deeper water tidal shelf environment (Anderton, 1976). The
23 quartzites form almost all of the islands of Jura and Scarba and
24 crop out on both limbs of the Islay Anticline on Islay. The
25 thickest development of over 5000 m is on Jura from where the
26 formation thins markedly along strike, to both the south-west and
27 north-east (see Anderton, 1979, figure 1). Sedimentary structures
28 imply dominant palaeocurrent flow directions towards the north-
29 north-east throughout the formation, with a general change towards
30 finer grained facies observed in the same direction.

31 Farther to the north-east in the Ardmucknish area, the Islay
32 Subgroup is reduced in thickness to between 300 and 800 m
33 (Litherland, 1980). The sequence there is similar to that of the
34 type area in that it includes two dolomitic metadiamicctites at the
35 base, followed by dolomitic metacarbonate rocks and pebbly,
36 cross-bedded quartzites. From Ardmucknish the subgroup increases
37 in thickness across strike to between 4500 and 7000 m around Glen
38 Creran, some 10 km to the east, where a distinctly different
39 succession, consisting predominantly of flaggy and pebbly
40 quartzites and semipelites with no metadiamicctites, was termed the
41 Creran succession by Litherland (1980). Graded turbidites and
42 'green beds' of possible volcanoclastic origin in the lower part of
43 this succession are features which become more common in the
44 subgroup in the North-east Grampian Highlands.

45 Eastwards from the Etive Pluton to the Bridge of Balgie Fault, the
46 Islay Subgroup is not present. Rocks of the overlying Easdale and
47 Crinan subgroups rest directly upon the Lochaber Subgroup with an
48 intervening zone of highly strained rocks that have been
49 interpreted as representing the Boundary Slide-zone (Roberts and
50 Treagus, 1979). If rocks of the Islay Subgroup were not deposited
51 in this area, it is necessary to invoke a fault-bounded structural
52 'high', separating rapidly subsiding basins on either side, to
53 account for the great thicknesses observed in the adjoining areas.
54 It is thought that non-deposition, contemporaneous erosion and
55 resultant unconformities above such 'highs' might account for many
56 gaps in local Islay Subgroup successions (Pantin, 1961; Harris and
57 Pitcher, 1975; Harris *et al.*, 1994).

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4 In the Schiehallion and Pitlochry areas, the Islay Subgroup is
5 well developed, with a succession comparable with that of the type
6 area (Bailey, 1925; Bailey and McCallien, 1937; Pantin, 1961;
7 Harris, 1963; Treagus, 2000). The Schiehallion Boulder Bed
8 Formation can be traced throughout most of the area, but is
9 particularly well developed on the northern slopes of Schiehallion
10 itself and is well exposed at the *Tempar Burn* GCR site. The lower
11 part has a matrix of calcareous semipelite with only carbonate-rock
12 clasts, whereas the upper part is more siliceous with large clasts
13 of granite, syenite and quartzite. The overlying Schiehallion
14 Quartzite Formation is typically massive and rarely cross-bedded.
15 In the lower part, conglomeratic beds contain boulders of granite
16 identical to those of the metadiamictites; dolomitic beds,
17 consisting of tremolitic metalimestone and calcareous pelites, are
18 well developed locally. Farther north-east, towards Braemar, thin
19 developments of pebbly, granitic metadiamictite occur locally at
20 the base of the massive Creag Leacach Quartzite Formation (Upton,
21 1986; Goodman *et al.*, 1997; Crane *et al.*, 2002).
22

23 To the north of the Deeside Lineament the lower part of the Islay
24 Subgroup consists of two interdigitating and diachronous
25 formations, the psammitic Ladder Hills Formation and the Nocht
26 Semipelite and Limestone Formation. Thin beds of metadiamictite,
27 typically underlain by a thin metadolostone, occur locally towards
28 the top of the Ladder Hills Formation and within the lower units of
29 the overlying Kymah Quartzite. Minor basic tuffs and pillow lavas
30 occur locally. The Kymah Quartzite varies considerably in
31 thickness between 10 m and 500 m, probably reflecting the influence
32 of the underlying basin architecture. However, the whole subgroup
33 is probably cut out structurally by the Portsoy Shear-zone to the
34 west of Huntly. It re-appears close to the north coast as the Durn
35 Hill Quartzite Formation, which overlies a psammitic formation
36 characterized by the presence of metadiamictite (Spencer and
37 Pitcher, 1968).
38

39 A dramatic climatic change that was possibly worldwide took place
40 at the beginning of Argyll Group times. On page xx it is argued
41 that this is most likely to be equated with the Marinoan glacial
42 period at c. 635 Ma. Tillites were probably deposited on a
43 shallow-marine shelf by up to seventeen successive pulses of
44 grounded ice, possibly advancing from the south-east. Pre-existing
45 intrabasinal sedimentary rocks were eroded by the glaciers and then
46 covered by marine tills in which extrabasinal granitoid debris
47 becomes increasingly common upwards. Isolated dropstones in varved
48 siltstones infer local flotation of the ice sheet but large-scale
49 deposition from ice rafts and reworking by downslope mass-flow, as
50 suggested by Eyles and Eyles (1983), had been rejected by Spencer
51 (1971). Periods of emergence and periglacial weathering between
52 the glacial cycles are suggested by polygonal sandstone wedges,
53 interpreted as ice wedges (Eyles and Clark, 1985). Beach
54 conglomerates then heralded the start of a marine transgression
55 followed by the next glacial advance. Dolomitic limestones with
56 stromatolites, suggestive of warm water, were deposited during some
57 of the interglacial periods, and on Islay, as in Donegal (McCay *et*
58 *al.*, 2006), a sequence that includes dolomitic metacarbonate rocks
59 has been interpreted as a 'cap carbonate' such as commonly occurs
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4 above tillite sequences of various ages worldwide. The paradox of
5 having an ice sheet at sea level, followed immediately by warm-
6 water carbonate precipitation in apparently low latitudes has so
7 far eluded a completely satisfactory explanation.

8 After the final retreat of the ice, the cold climate conditions
9 apparently ameliorated and shelf sedimentation resumed, resulting
10 in the deposition of the widespread quartzite formations. Locally
11 thick accumulations of psammite and quartzite indicate that
12 sediment input kept pace with extension in a series of NE-trending
13 basins. The closest shoreline remained north-west of Islay and
14 Jura with at least 100 km of open sea to the south-east (Anderton,
15 1985). The change to a tidal, shallow-water environment was
16 probably caused by a combination of source-area uplift and a
17 tectonically induced marine transgression. This change in
18 sedimentation is also marked by increasing volumes of Archaean
19 detrital grains above the level of the tillite formations (Cawood
20 *et al.*, 2003). In some areas, thin but significant accumulations
21 of volcanoclastic detritus and local pillow lavas could be early
22 signs of basin instability that was soon to become widespread.
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25 **1.4.3.2 Easdale Subgroup**

26
27 The base of this subgroup is marked in most places by a sharp
28 change to finer grained rocks showing features typical of deep-
29 water sedimentation and turbidity currents, with local incursions
30 of coarse-grained mass-flow deposits. Higher parts of the subgroup
31 are dominated by calcareous clastic rocks with local metacarbonate
32 rocks, representing shallower water sedimentation. These general
33 characteristics are preserved throughout the outcrop from Islay
34 almost to the north coast and, although the detailed stratigraphy
35 is less continuous than in preceding subgroups, individual units
36 and some very distinctive sequences can be traced for up to 100 km.
37

38 Along the south-eastern coasts of Islay and Jura, the Jura
39 Quartzite Formation is overlain by the Jura Slate, which
40 constitutes the basal member of the Scarba Conglomerate Formation
41 (Anderton, 1979). This formation is about 450 m thick, consisting
42 of metamudstones that pass upwards into quartzite and
43 metaconglomerate. Sedimentary structures such as graded beds with
44 erosional bases suggest deposition from turbidity currents on a
45 subsiding off-shore platform shelf. Farther north, on Scarba and
46 adjoining islands, coarse debris flows are considered to have
47 slumped downslope northwards into a fault-bounded basin. To the
48 north of Scarba the debris flows and associated quartzites become
49 finer-grained and thinner as they become interbedded with and pass
50 upwards into the deeper water Easdale Slate Formation (Anderton,
51 1979, 1985). The Easdale Slate consists predominantly of
52 graphitic, pyritic metamudstones, best developed on the islands of
53 Seil and Luing where they have been quarried extensively for
54 roofing slates. Thin beds of poorly graded metasandstones
55 represent incursions of distal turbidites. Still farther north, in
56 the Ardmucknish area, the Selma Black Slates and overlying Selma
57 Breccia are interpreted as equivalent to the Jura Slate and Scarba
58 Conglomerate. The overlying Culcharan Black Slates (200-500 m) and
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4 the graded, pebbly Culcharan Quartzite (200 m) were correlated with
5 the Easdale Slate by Litherland (1980).

6 To the east of Ardmucknish, the Creran succession of Litherland
7 (1980) is difficult to correlate with established Argyll Group
8 successions elsewhere (see above). Anderton (1985) regarded the
9 whole succession as typical of the Easdale Subgroup but Litherland
10 (1987), whilst accepting the similarity of parts of the topmost
11 Beinn Donn Quartzite Formation to the Killiecrankie Schist and
12 Cairn Mairg Quartzite of Perthshire (see below), re-iterated his
13 1980 view that the whole succession is equivalent to the Islay
14 Subgroup.
15

16 Throughout its strike length, the upper part of the Easdale
17 Subgroup is dominated by a variably calcareous shallow-marine
18 facies. In the South-west Grampian Highlands this facies is
19 represented by three major formations, separated geographically and
20 cropping out on different limbs of major folds but all broadly
21 equivalent stratigraphically (Roberts, 1966a). On the north-west
22 limb of the Loch Awe Syncline, the Easdale Slate passes upwards,
23 locally via the 20 m-thick Degnish Limestone Formation, into the
24 Craignish Phyllite Formation. The latter consists of abundant
25 alternations of laminated phyllitic metamudstones, quartzites,
26 metalimestones and pebbly metasandstones, with a total thickness of
27 up to 4500 m. Many of the sediments were deposited on tidal flats
28 and in subtidal environments with gypsum pseudomorphs, well
29 preserved in the *Craignish Point* GCR site, that indicate periodical
30 emergence. Above the Craignish Phyllite, cross-bedded, dark grey
31 metalimestones, intercalated with metamudstones comprise the Shira
32 Limestone and Slate Formation, which is a persistent local marker
33 unit, up to 300 m thick. On Islay and Jura, on the south-eastern
34 limb of the Islay Anticline, the Port Ellen Formation and its basal
35 Kilbride Limestone Member consist of similar lithologies and occupy
36 a similar stratigraphical position. There they are overlain by the
37 Laphroaig Quartzite Formation.
38

39 On the south-eastern limb of the Loch Awe Syncline, and passing
40 down into the core of the Ardrishaig Anticline, the upper part of
41 the subgroup is represented by the Ardrishaig Phyllite Formation,
42 overlain locally by the Shira Limestone. The Ardrishaig Phyllite
43 is similar lithologically to the Craignish and Port Ellen phyllite
44 formations but sedimentary structures are not so well preserved
45 owing to a higher metamorphic grade. The amount of deformation
46 makes estimates of thickness difficult but over 4000 m are recorded
47 in places. On the south-eastern limb of the Ardrishaig Anticline,
48 a diachronous, predominantly quartzitic unit with an apparent
49 thickness of up to 5000 m, the Lower Erins Quartzite, replaces the
50 upper part of the Ardrishaig Phyllite in Knapdale. There, the
51 quartzite is succeeded by the dominantly pelitic Stornoway Phyllite
52 Formation (with a more-graphitic and calcareous Stronachullin
53 Phyllite Member locally). Towards the north-east, around upper
54 Loch Fyne, the Ardrishaig Phyllite is overlain directly by the St
55 Catherine's Graphitic Schist, consisting of up to 200 m of
56 graphitic metamudstones with thinly bedded metalimestones that are
57 probably equivalent to the Shira Limestone. Minor 'green beds' of
58 detrital volcanic material occur in the south-eastern parts of the
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4 Ardrishaig Phyllite and Lower Erins Quartzite outcrop, and numerous
5 basic sills could be near-contemporaneous with sedimentation.

6 The Easdale is the earliest subgroup in the Dalradian that can be
7 traced continuously from the South-west Grampian Highlands through
8 the Central Grampian Highlands to the Pitlochry area and beyond.
9 Black slaty pelites overlain by Ardrishaig Phyllite-type
10 lithologies in the area around Dalmally can be equated with both
11 the Easdale Slate to the west and the Ben Eagach Schist to the
12 east, hence providing a crucial link (Roberts and Treagus, 1975).
13 Throughout this area, a common succession may be recognized above
14 the Boundary Slide-zone which, with only local absences, consists
15 of the Killiecrankie Schist-Carn Mairg Quartzite-Ben Eagach Schist-
16 Ben Lawers Schist formations.

17
18 The Killiecrankie Schist Formation is a deep-water facies
19 consisting dominantly of semipelite and pelite but with abundant
20 intercalated psammite and pebbly quartzite and many concordant
21 bands of amphibolitic metabasalt. Where there is no quartzite to
22 represent the Islay Subgroup, as in most of the ground between
23 Blair Atholl and Glen Shee, it is difficult to distinguish between
24 the Killiecrankie Schist and the underlying Blair Atholl Subgroup,
25 especially where the sequence is attenuated by tectonic slides, and
26 the facies is probably continuous across the subgroup boundary
27 (Goodman *et al.*, 1997; Crane *et al.*, 2002). The distinctive Carn
28 Mairg Quartzite ranges from feldspathic, pebbly quartzite, to a
29 psammitic metagreywacke and typically shows graded bedding.
30 Locally it is absent and it is probably best regarded as the
31 thickest and most extensive of many sandy turbidites that swept
32 periodically into the fine-grained basin sediments now represented
33 by the Killiecrankie and Ben Eagach schist formations.

34
35 The Ben Eagach Schist Formation can be traced almost continuously
36 from north of Tyndrum eastwards to the Glen Shee area. It consists
37 predominantly of distinctive graphitic pelites, with impersistent
38 thin metalimestones and amphibolites. Most of the stratabound
39 mineralization of the Argyll Group occurs in this formation,
40 extending intermittently over a strike length of at least 90 km,
41 from Loch Lyon to Loch Kander (Coats *et al.*, 1984). Most notable
42 is the 50 m-thick bed of baryte and celsian with sulphides around
43 Ben Eagach and Farragon Hill, north of Aberfeldy, which has been
44 mined commercially in recent times.

45
46 The Ben Lawers Schist Formation forms a wide continuous outcrop
47 extending from Tyndrum to the Braemar area. North of Loch Tay it
48 also occupies the core of the Ben Lawers Synform. The dominant
49 lithology is a calcareous pelite or semipelite with some thin beds
50 of quartzite and metalimestone. Hornblende-schists of
51 metasedimentary origin are common, but chloritic 'green beds' of
52 volcanoclastic origin and pods of basic and ultrabasic meta-igneous
53 material are also recorded. A persistent zone of stratabound
54 sulphide occurs near the top of the formation.

55
56 Above the Ben Lawers Schist, the top of the subgroup is marked by
57 a variety of lithologies. In the Glen Lyon area, the Auchlyne
58 Formation (formerly the Sron Bheag Schist) consists mainly of
59 psammite, semipelite and possible volcanoclastic rocks with various
60 calcsilicate rocks and metalimestones. East of the Loch Tay Fault
61 the Farragon Volcanic Formation, a complex sequence of quartzite,
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4 psammite, metabasalt and volcanoclastic 'green beds' represents the
5 earliest major volcanic episode in the Dalradian succession.

6 Only the upper formations of the subgroup can be traced with any
7 confidence north-east of the Pitlochry area. In the Glen Shee-
8 Braemar area, the Creag Leacach Quartzite of the Islay Subgroup
9 passes up through a transition member of interlaminated quartzite
10 and pelite into the graphitic Glas Maol Schist, which is correlated
11 with the Ben Eagach Schist (Upton, 1986). Farther north-east, in
12 the Ballater area, the subgroup consists mainly of psammite and
13 semipelite, the Craig nam Ban Psammite Formation, in the lower
14 part, with semipelite, calcsilicate rock, amphibolite and thin
15 impure metalimestones, the Glen Girnock Calcareous Formation,
16 equivalent to the Ben Lawers Schist, in the upper part (Smith *et*
17 *al.*, 2002). The Meall Dubh Metabasite Formation, a unit of
18 metabasalt and volcanoclastic rocks, occurs at the top of the
19 subgroup in an equivalent position to the Farragon Volcanic
20 Formation. Around the Ladder Hills, a more-typical Easdale
21 Subgroup sequence consists of semipelite and psammite of the
22 Culchavie Striped Formation, the Glenbuchat Graphitic Schist
23 Formation and a sequence of calcareous semipelite and minor
24 psammite with metalimestone and calcsilicate beds, termed the
25 Badenyon Schist and Limestone Formation. Basic pillow lavas and
26 tuffaceous beds of the Delnadamp Volcanic Member occur locally
27 within the graphitic pelite and semipelite.

28
29 Still farther north, most of the succession above the Islay
30 Subgroup is cut out by the Portsoy Shear-zone. Within and
31 immediately to the east of the shear-zone, various local
32 successions include Easdale-type facies but firm correlations with
33 established successions are impossible. On the north coast,
34 immediately west of the shear-zone, the subgroup is represented by
35 a sheared and attenuated succession consisting of the Castle Point
36 Pelite and Portsoy Limestone formations.

37
38 An initial shelf-deepening event at the start of the Easdale
39 Subgroup is indicated by a rapid change to finer grained sediments
40 showing features of deep-water sedimentation and turbidity
41 currents, with a general tendency to become finer towards the east
42 and north-east. Fault-controlled, steep shelf-slope sedimentation
43 resulted in local incursions of very coarse-grained, mass-flow
44 deposits, as seen in the Scarba Conglomerate Formation (Anderton,
45 1979, 1985). Marked along-strike facies changes indicate that, in
46 contrast to the preceding Appin Group, deposition occurred within
47 more-discrete fault-bounded marginal basins having a general north-
48 east trend (Anderton, 1985, 1988). The interbasinal highs are
49 marked by local thinning, facies changes, erosion or non-
50 deposition; they commonly coincide with long-lasting major
51 lineaments trending north-east or north-west (Fettes *et al.*, 1986;
52 Graham, 1986). Syngenetic barium and base-metal mineralization has
53 been attributed to ponding of exhalative brines in basins adjacent
54 to active faults, which in turn controlled sea-water infiltration
55 into buried sediments (Coats *et al.*, 1984).

56
57 Widespread shallow-water shelf and tidal-flat sedimentation
58 returned during late Easdale Subgroup times due to infilling of the
59 local basins with fine-grained sediment to produce, for example,
60 the Craignish and Ardrishaig phyllites and the Ben Lawers Schist.
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4 Although thin beds of volcanoclastic rock and local pillow lavas do
5 occur in the Islay Subgroup, the first major volcanic episode in
6 the Dalradian succession occurred in late Easdale Subgroup time and
7 is represented by the Farragon Volcanic Formation, the Meall Dubh
8 Metabasite Formation and the Delnadamp Volcanic Member. Taken
9 together with the tendency towards unstable sedimentation and the
10 slightly earlier syngenetic mineralization, these occurrences point
11 to an increased extension in this part of Rodinia, possibly
12 heralding the break up that led eventually to the separation of
13 Laurentia and formation of the Iapetus Ocean (Fettes *et al.*, 2011).
14

15 **1.4.3.3 Crinan Subgroup**

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17
18 Throughout its outcrop, this subgroup exhibits a relatively simple
19 stratigraphy in which many local successions are dominated by a
20 single thick formation. Sedimentation was generally of deep-water,
21 turbiditic type with marked variations in thickness and diachronous
22 facies changes. The Crinan Grit Formation of the South-west
23 Grampian Highlands passes north-eastwards into the generally
24 thinner-bedded and finer-grained Ben Lui Schist Formation of the
25 Central Grampian Highlands. In most areas of the North-east
26 Grampian Highlands, the Crinan and Tayvallich subgroups are
27 difficult to separate; they crop out in a broad horseshoe of
28 migmatitic and gneissose psammite and semipelite around the Turriff
29 Syncline.
30

31 The Crinan Grit Formation, and its local equivalent the Ardmore
32 Formation on the south-east coast of Islay, constitute the whole
33 subgroup on both limbs of the Loch Awe Syncline (Knill, 1959;
34 Roberts, 1966a; Borradaile, 1973, 1979). The base is probably
35 diachronous and is interbedded locally with lithologies
36 indistinguishable from the underlying Craignish Phyllite. In some
37 areas a local unconformity is implied by a basal conglomerate. On
38 the north-western limb of the syncline and around the head of Loch
39 Awe, the subgroup consists of 100-550 m of white quartzite with
40 thin beds of gritty psammite and interbedded green or grey
41 phyllitic semipelite. Locally, thin metalimestones and slaty
42 metamudstone units are present. A lens of pale green metatuff
43 occurs near Craignish, and the overlying psammites have a more
44 chloritic matrix, reflecting a volcanoclastic component. On the
45 south-eastern limb of the syncline the thickness increases to over
46 3000 m with the incoming of many thick-bedded psammites containing
47 angular fragments of detrital feldspar, mica and carbonate. Pebbly
48 and conglomeratic quartzites increase towards the top of the
49 formation and in places become the dominant lithology.
50

51 On the south-eastern limb of the Ardrishaig Anticline, the
52 subgroup crops out in a continuous strip along the west coast of
53 Kintyre and through Loch Fyne to the Central Grampian Highlands.
54 In south Knapdale the lower part of the subgroup is represented by
55 the Upper Erins Quartzite Formation, which lenses out to the north-
56 east. Grey-green, phyllitic pelites and semipelites occur locally
57 and pebbly quartzites, usually graded, become prevalent towards the
58 top of the formation (Roberts, 1966a). Above the Upper Erins
59 Quartzite, the Stonefield Schist Formation consists of schistose
60 semipelite and pelite, with subordinate psammite and quartzite and
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4 numerous lenticular quartzose metalimestones. When traced
5 north-eastwards, across Loch Fyne, this formation becomes
6 dominantly pelitic and passes north-eastwards into the Ben Lui
7 Schist Formation of the Central Grampian Highlands.

8
9 Around Tyndrum, the Ben Challum Quartzite Formation marks the base
10 of the subgroup locally. It consists of up to 500 m of quartzite
11 and micaceous semipelite with minor amphibolite of possible
12 volcanoclastic origin and two bands of low-grade stratabound
13 pyrite-chalcopyrite-sphalerite mineralization. There is a possible
14 correlation with a zone of similar sulphide mineralization in the
15 Upper Erins Quartzite in the Meall Mor area. The Ben Lui Schist
16 Formation crops out continuously from Loch Fyne to Ben Vuirich,
17 notably over wide areas on both limbs of the Ben Lawers Synform and
18 including structural outliers on the lower limb of the Tay Nappe
19 around Lochearnhead. The formation consists mainly of
20 garnetiferous semipelite and graded psammite, although sparse
21 hornblende-schist and impersistent beds of metalimestone have been
22 recorded in the Killin area (Johnstone and Smith, 1965) and near
23 Pitlochry (Sturt, 1961). At the base of the formation, between
24 Tyndrum and Glen Lyon, is a zone up to 50 m thick containing
25 lenticular bands of talcose or chloritic soft green schist
26 containing lenses and pods of dolomite and magnesite with minor
27 amounts of chromium, copper and nickel minerals. They probably
28 represent sediments derived from the erosion of local ultramafic
29 rocks, possibly of ophiolitic origin (Fortey and Smith, 1986; Power
30 and Pirrie, 2000) but more-likely derived from subcontinental
31 lithospheric mantle exposed during the development of extensional
32 basins (Chew, 2001).
33

34 To the north-east of Pitlochry, the metamorphic grade of the Ben
35 Lui Schist increases and the unit grades into migmatites that
36 constitute the Duchray Hill Gneiss Member of Glen Isla and the
37 equivalent Queen's Hill Gneiss Formation of Deeside (Read, 1927,
38 1928; see *Chapter 6, Introduction*). There, the formation also
39 includes numerous bands of gneissose amphibolite that probably
40 represent basic intrusions.

41 Generally gneissose and migmatitic semipelitic rocks that form a
42 broad horseshoe outcrop around the Turriff Syncline, from mid-
43 Donside to Fraserburgh have been assigned to the higher parts of
44 the Argyll Group (Read, 1955; Harris and Pitcher, 1975; Harris *et*
45 *al.*, 1994; Stephenson and Gould, 1995). Most are assumed to
46 represent the Crinan Subgroup, although the Easdale and Tayvallich
47 subgroups occur in some areas. Schistose and gneissose psammites
48 and pelites of the Craigievar Formation in mid-Donside are
49 considered to be equivalent to the psammites and semipelites of the
50 Aberdeen Formation to the east and north-east (Munro, 1986). In
51 the lower Ythan valley, gneisses of the Ellon Formation are
52 distinguished from those of the Aberdeen Formation by their lack of
53 regular lithological banding, their poor fissility and a foliated,
54 streaky appearance (Read, 1952; Munro, 1986). To the north and
55 east they grade into the structurally overlying Stuartfield
56 'division' of semipelite, pelite, psammite and metagreywacke. The
57 upper part of this 'division' has a more coherent stratigraphy
58 involving massive channel quartzites up to 500 m thick (e.g. the
59 Mormond Hill Quartzite Member) and calcareous beds, and is termed
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4 the Strichen Formation. The calcareous beds have been taken to
5 indicate that the formation spans the boundary between the Crinan
6 and Tayvallich subgroups (Kneller, 1988).

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8 Still farther north is the Inzie Head Gneiss Formation, which
9 exhibits a wide range of relict metasedimentary lithologies with a
10 general migmatitic appearance (Read and Farquhar, 1956), whereas on
11 the west side of the Turriff Syncline, the Cowhythe Psammite
12 Formation generally preserves original compositional banding with
13 migmatization concentrated mainly in the semipelitic units (Read,
14 1923). Both of these formations are well represented by GCR sites
15 described in Chapter 6.

16 The Crinan Subgroup marks a rapid shelf-deepening and
17 basin-forming event. Well-developed grading, channelling and
18 large-scale slump folding in the Crinan Grits are indicative of
19 proximal turbidite deposits, which Anderton (1985) considered were
20 deposited in submarine-fan channels flowing axially in a major
21 NE-trending basin along the line of what is now the Loch Awe
22 Syncline. As the grain size in the subgroup as a whole fines from
23 south-west to north-east, a major input from the south-west seems
24 likely. But the grain size also becomes finer from north-west to
25 south-east, so that the Upper Erins Quartzite and the Stonefield
26 Schist/Ben Lui Schist are all finer grained than the Crinan Grits.
27 Many authors have regarded the finer grained beds as more distal
28 turbidites, deposited in the same basin as the Crinan Grits (e.g.
29 Harris *et al.*, 1978), but Anderton (1985) suggested that they were
30 deposited in a separate parallel basin. Volcanic activity is not
31 so evident as in the preceding Easdale Subgroup but reworked
32 volcanoclastic deposits occur in the lower part of the subgroup and
33 ultramafic rocks indicate the possible exposure of sub-continental
34 lithospheric mantle somewhere in the basin (Chew, 2001). Slope
35 instability with contemporaneous earthquakes as a result of
36 intrabasinal faulting is suggested by the soft-sediment structures
37 preserved in the Crinan Grits.
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40 **1.4.3.4 Tayvallich Subgroup**

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42 This subgroup is characterized by carbonate sequences, accompanied
43 in the South-west Grampian Highlands by extensive basic volcanic
44 rocks and subvolcanic sills. The Tayvallich Limestone and its
45 lateral equivalents, the Loch Tay Limestone and Deeside Limestone,
46 together constitute one of the most persistent marker bands of the
47 Dalradian Supergroup, stretching from Donegal to the Banchory area
48 (Gower, 1973). The youngest limestone of the Shetland Dalradian
49 succession, the Laxfirth Limestone, is a possible equivalent. The
50 basic volcanicity resulted in the thickest developments of volcanic
51 and subvolcanic rocks seen in the Dalradian succession. However,
52 this volcanicity is less extensive laterally than that of earlier,
53 Easdale Subgroup times and Fettes *et al.* (2011) have speculated
54 that it might have been associated with localized pull-apart basins
55 on the rifted Laurentian margin, with the main full-scale rifting
56 of the continental crust occurring outboard of the preserved
57 Dalradian sequences.
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59 In the Loch Awe Syncline and the subsidiary Tayvallich Syncline to
60 the south-west, the Tayvallich Slate and Limestone Formation
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4 exhibits marked facies changes from north-west to south-east
5 comparable to those in the underlying Crinan Subgroup. The overall
6 thickness varies considerably, mainly due to variations in the
7 amount of sedimentary and volcanic material. The formation reaches
8 a maximum of 1200 m, but the total thickness of metalimestone is
9 relatively constant, at about 100 m. On the north-western limb of
10 the Loch Awe Syncline ooidal and graded, gritty metalimestones are
11 interbedded with graphitic metamudstones. These lithologies
12 probably represent shelf sedimentation. Coarse, slumped limestone-
13 breccias, metaconglomerates and gritty metasandstones, all
14 suggestive of an unstable shelf margin, attain maximum development
15 along the axial zone of the syncline. On the south-eastern limb
16 thinner lenses of limestone-breccia and metaconglomerate are
17 interbedded with turbiditic metasandstone (Knill, 1963). Around
18 the north-eastern closure of the Loch Awe Syncline, the upper part
19 of the Tayvallich Slate and Limestone Formation includes the
20 Kilchrenan Grit and the Kilchrenan Conglomerate members
21 (Borradaile, 1973, 1977). The latter is a matrix-supported
22 'boulder bed', up to 30 m thick, consisting of well-rounded
23 quartzite boulders in a matrix of gritty black metamudstone. It
24 has been interpreted as a slump conglomerate (Kilburn *et al.*,
25 1965). In the south and west, the upper beds of metalimestone
26 include several layers of volcanoclastic debris, including
27 fragments of pillows, set in a carbonate matrix and the transition
28 into the overlying Tayvallich Volcanic Formation is a complex
29 interdigitation of metalimestone, clastic metasedimentary rocks and
30 metavolcanic rocks.
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33 Metavolcanic rocks occupy much of the core of the Loch Awe
34 Syncline, with a smaller outcrop in the core of the Tayvallich
35 Syncline. The Tayvallich Volcanic Formation consists of up to
36 2000 m of commonly pillowed basic lava, hyaloclastite and a variety
37 of volcanoclastic volcanic rocks (Borradaile, 1973; Graham, 1976).
38 Extrusion of the main volcanic pile was clearly sub-marine but away
39 from the main centre of volcanicity, which corresponds to the axis
40 of the Loch Awe Syncline, ash-fall tuffs suggest that volcanism
41 evolved into a subaerial environment. Felsic tuffs have yielded U-
42 Pb zircon ages of 601 ± 4 Ma (Dempster *et al.*, 2002).
43

44 The volcanoclastic rocks include breccias and waterlain pebbly
45 deposits such as the Loch na Cille 'Boulder Bed' of the Tayvallich
46 Peninsula (Gower, 1977). The possibility of a major
47 stratigraphical break at this horizon has been proposed by Prave
48 (1999) and Alsop *et al.* (2000) who pointed to the presence of
49 cleaved clasts of metasedimentary rock with up to two deformational
50 fabrics. Alternatively the clasts could merely represent the
51 erosion of a significantly older metasedimentary source. This
52 boulder bed has also been correlated tentatively with a younger
53 tillite that has been recognized in the Dalradian of Donegal, which
54 could represent the Varanger glaciations at *c.* 620-590 Ma (Condon
55 and Prave, 2000).
56

57 Basic sills intrude the whole succession from the Craignish and
58 Ardrishaig phyllites upwards; their total thickness attains 3000 m
59 in places. These were originally thought to be contemporaneous
60 with the lavas (Borradaile, 1973; Graham, 1976). However, in
61 places they can be seen to have broken through limestone and
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4 developed pillowed margins within the unconsolidated sediments and
5 overlying water, so that they might well be near-contemporaneous
6 with their host sediments (Graham and Borradaile, 1984; Graham,
7 1986). A suite of NW-trending metabasalt dykes on Jura could
8 represent feeders to the lavas and sills (Graham and Borradaile,
9 1984).

10 To the south-east of the Ardrishaig Anticline the subgroup is
11 represented by the Loch Tay Limestone which maintains a thickness
12 of around 100 m along strike from Campbeltown to Glen Doll (Bailey,
13 1925; Elles, 1926; Johnstone and Smith, 1965; McCallien, 1929;
14 Roberts, 1966a; Crane *et al.*, 2002). Thinner developments are also
15 present to the south-east of the main outcrop, at the base of
16 structural outliers of Ben Lui Schist in the inverted limb of the
17 Tay Nappe around Lochearnhead (Johnstone and Smith, 1965; Mendum
18 and Fettes, 1985; Watkins, 1984). Throughout its strike length the
19 formation consists of thick beds of crystalline metalimestone,
20 locally with various schistose semipelites, calcsilicate rocks and
21 psammites. Thin, graphitic metamudstones and metagreywackes are
22 present locally and grading in all lithologies suggests a distal
23 turbidite origin. Intrusive basic meta-igneous rocks are present
24 throughout the outcrop, although there is no continuous volcanic
25 sequence comparable with the Tayvallich Volcanic Formation.
26

27 The Loch Tay Limestone can be traced almost continuously north-
28 eastwards as far as Glen Doll, beyond which the Water of Tanar
29 Limestone Formation and Deeside Limestone Formation are probably
30 lateral equivalents. The latter formations are composed largely of
31 calcareous semipelite and psammite with calcsilicate rocks,
32 amphibolite and only thin beds of impure metalimestone. Around the
33 head of Glen Esk and in Middle Deeside the calcareous rocks are
34 overlain by the dominantly psammitic Tarfside Psammite Formation,
35 which is also assigned to the Tayvallich Subgroup on account of
36 locally abundant calcsilicate and amphibolite beds (Harte, 1979).
37

38 North of Deeside, the gneissose units that are assigned generally
39 to the Crinan Subgroup probably include some Tayvallich Subgroup
40 rocks, as is indicated by the presence of calcsilicate and
41 metalimestone beds. Notable examples are the calcareous upper
42 parts of the Strichen Formation and its lateral equivalent on the
43 north coast, the Kinnairds Head Formation. In the coast section to
44 the west of the Turriff Syncline, the Tayvallich Subgroup is well
45 defined by a 1200 m-thick sequence, termed the Boyne Limestone
46 Formation, which includes the 200 m-thick Boyne Castle Limestone
47 Member (Read, 1923; Sutton and Watson, 1955). Inland, the
48 metalimestones can only be traced for some 2.5 km, making it
49 difficult to define the Argyll-Southern Highland group boundary
50 farther south.
51

52 However, in the Cabrach area, basaltic metavolcanic rocks occur
53 within a turbiditic sequence of pelite, semipelite and pebbly
54 psammite termed the Blackwater Formation (MacGregor and Roberts,
55 1963; Macdonald *et al.*, 2005). Since the formation appears to pass
56 upwards into Southern Highland Group lithologies, the volcanic
57 rocks have been correlated tentatively with the Tayvallich Volcanic
58 Formation, with which they share some tholeiitic geochemical
59 characteristics.
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4 The change from the coarse siliceous Crinan Grits to massive
5 carbonate beds with dispersed clastic carbonate containing
6 siliciclastic material implies a major change and reduction of
7 sediment source. Rapid lateral variations in facies and thickness
8 and intercalations of graphitic metamudstone, associated with
9 unconformities, overstep relations and pebbly beds indicate
10 deposition of the metalimestones by low-density turbidity currents.
11 They were therefore probably deposited in pre-existing Crinan
12 Subgroup basins following a reduction in the supply of clastic
13 sediment to the fringing shelves (Anderton, 1985).
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15 **1.4.4 Southern Highland Group**

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17
18 The Southern Highland Group consists of a c. 4 km-thick turbiditic
19 sequence made up mainly of coarse-grained, poorly sorted
20 metagreywacke with subordinate fine-grained metamudstone. Minor
21 intercalations of metalimestone occur locally. Volcaniclastic
22 'green beds' are widespread at several levels, notably in the basal
23 part of the group, there is one thick local development of basic
24 lavas, and widespread thin 'brown beds' within metamudstones of the
25 Highland Border have been interpreted as more-evolved ash-fall
26 tuffs. The metasedimentary rocks are markedly more chloritic than
27 those of the underlying Argyll Group, partly due to the generally
28 lower metamorphic grade, but probably also reflecting the
29 volcaniclastic input. They are also more feldspathic, with
30 high-grade metamorphic and granitic rock fragments, suggesting a
31 less-mature source area.
32

33 The group can be traced from County Mayo in western Ireland to the
34 North-east Grampian Highlands. Much of its outcrop occurs in areas
35 of gentle regional dip such as the Flat Belt of the Tay Nappe, so
36 that its outcrop covers a wide area of some 4900 km². The main
37 outcrop is a belt up to 34 km wide, extending along the whole
38 south-eastern edge of the Grampian Highlands from the Mull of
39 Kintyre to Stonehaven and Aberdeen (Chapter 4). A small outlier
40 occurs in the core of the Loch Awe Syncline, and in the North-east
41 Grampian Highlands the group occupies the broad core of the Turriff
42 Syncline and a small outlier on the east coast around Collieston.
43

44 Although several local successions have been established, detailed
45 correlations are seldom possible over any distance, as the general
46 lateral and vertical persistence of turbidite facies means that
47 there are few reliable stratigraphical marker beds. Green beds are
48 useful locally, but metamudstone beds are probably highly
49 diachronous. Correlations are further complicated by across-strike
50 changes in metamorphic grade, which significantly alter the
51 appearance of the rocks and have led to different names for units
52 that are probably equivalent stratigraphically. Consequently no
53 subgroups are recognized and in terms of thickness and uniformity
54 of facies the whole group is comparable to a subgroup in other
55 parts of the Dalradian succession.

56 In the core of the Loch Awe Syncline, the Tayvallich Volcanic
57 Formation is overlain by up to 1100 m of chloritic gritty
58 metasandstone and metamudstone, calcareous in parts, which together
59 comprise the Loch Avich Grit Formation. The succeeding Loch Avich
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4 Lavas Formation consists of 300 to 500 m of basaltic pillow lavas
5 with no significant sedimentary intercalations (Borradaile, 1973).

6 In the main outcrop of the group south-west of Loch Lomond, the
7 Loch Tay Limestone is succeeded by a typical, predominantly
8 metagreywacke sequence (McCallien, 1929; Roberts, 1966a). The
9 basal part of this sequence is the Glen Sluan Schist Formation,
10 consisting of up to 500 m of pelitic turbidites, lithologically
11 similar to the main part of the succession but separated from it by
12 the Green Beds Formation. Here, the latter form a well-defined
13 stratigraphical unit up to 1000 m thick, consisting of
14 metagreywacke and fine-grained quartzite, interbedded with the
15 well-foliated, green schists containing abundant chlorite and
16 epidote. These lithologies become hornblende-schist at higher
17 metamorphic grades. Lenses of obvious detrital material, pebbles
18 of quartz and graded bedding indicate a sedimentary origin. The
19 beds probably represent an influx of detrital basic volcanic
20 material, a feature reflected in their chemistry and mineralogy
21 (Phillips, 1930; van de Kamp, 1970). Mafic sheets within the
22 formation represent contemporaneous shallow intrusions. The
23 volcanoclastic components are interpreted as recording in part, the
24 erosion of the nearby Loch Avich lavas, but could also have
25 resulted from contemporaneous volcanism in the hinterland (Pickett
26 *et al.*, 2006). This interpretation is not however strongly
27 supported by the detrital zircon data, which are dominated by
28 Archaean detritus (Cawood *et al.* 2003). Above the Green Beds in
29 this area is the Beinn Bheula Schist Formation, which consists
30 predominantly of fine-grained metagreywacke with lenticular
31 developments of pebbly metasandstone and green metamudstone.

32 In the South-west Grampian Highlands, most of the Southern
33 Highland Group outcrop lies on the inverted limb of the Tay Nappe,
34 which is folded into the late broad Cowal Antiform. Consequently,
35 the lower parts of the group are also exposed on the south-eastern
36 limb of that fold. There the Beinn Bheula Schist passes
37 stratigraphically downwards into the Dunoon Phyllite Formation
38 (equivalent to the Glen Sluan Schist), with only local developments
39 of green beds that are too sparse to warrant a formal formation.
40 The Dunoon Phyllites lie within the complex hinge-zone of the Tay
41 Nappe, which takes the form of a downward-facing (i.e. synformal)
42 anticline known as the Aberfoyle Anticline. Consequently the rocks
43 that crop out farther to the south-east, between the Dunoon
44 Phyllites and the Highland Boundary Fault-zone, are regarded as
45 younger than the phyllites and broadly equivalent to the Beinn
46 Bheula Schist (Anderson, 1947a; Roberts, 1966a; Paterson *et al.*,
47 1990). In Cowal and Bute, these pebbly metasandstones with
48 metaconglomerate and local metalimestone and metamudstone were
49 formerly known as the Bullrock Greywacke and Innellan 'group' and
50 have now been united as the St Ninian Formation. In north Arran a
51 similar synformal anticline structure exists, with the Loch Ranza
52 Slate Formation occupying the core and the North Sannox Grits
53 Formation on each limb.

54 To the north-east of Loch Lomond, boundaries between metagreywacke
55 and metamudstone units are demonstrably diachronous. Hence,
56 although the metamudstones generally occur in the cores of
57 downward-facing anticlines, neither the local lithostratigraphical
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4 units nor the fold axes are likely to be continuous along the whole
5 length of the Highland Border. Metamudstone in the core of the
6 obvious main anticline in the Aberfoyle area is assigned to the
7 Aberfoyle Slate Formation, whereas other metamudstone units, there
8 and in the Callander area, are now recognized to be facies
9 variations within younger metagreywacke. To the north-west of the
10 Aberfoyle Anticline, throughout this area, the Southern Highland
11 Group consists predominantly of rocks of turbiditic greywacke
12 facies, most of which are assigned to the Ben Ledi Grit Formation
13 (e.g. Mendum and Fettes, 1985). Green beds and basic intrusions
14 are widespread at various horizons in the lower part of this
15 formation, and in the area of the Trossachs these define a separate
16 Loch Katrine Volcaniclastic Formation, underlain and overlain
17 respectively by the Ardnandave and Creag Innich sandstone
18 formations. Detrital sodic feldspar is common in many of the
19 metasandstones between Loch Fyne and Loch Tay and a redistribution
20 of sodium during metamorphism has given rise to many
21 porphyroblastic albite-schists in the metamudstone units (Bowes and
22 Convery, 1966; Watkins, 1983).

23
24 Correlation of lithostratigraphical units in the Highland Border
25 Steep Belt to the south-east of the Aberfoyle Anticline, is more
26 complex than previously supposed (Harris, 1962, 1972; Harris and
27 Fettes, 1972; Tanner, 1995, 1997; Bluck and Ingham, 1997; Tanner
28 and Sutherland, 2007). On that limb, the whole of the
29 metagreywacke sequence was formerly known as the 'Leny Grits'.
30 Most of it is now assigned to the Ben Ledi Grit Formation, but in
31 the Callander area, the upper part is the Keltie Water Grit
32 Formation, which includes the Leny Limestone with its fossils of
33 undoubted latest Early Cambrian age. This formation is now
34 accepted to be in stratigraphical and structural continuity with
35 the Ben Ledi Grits and thus provides the only reliable
36 biostratigraphical age for the top of Dalradian Supergroup. A full
37 discussion of the long-term debate concerning the affinities and
38 significance of this unit and its relationship to adjoining fault
39 slices of the Highland Border Complex can be found in Chapter 4.

40
41 To the north-east of Callander the south-eastern limb and hinge of
42 the Aberfoyle Anticline are cut-out by the Highland Boundary Fault.
43 Consequently in the Dunkeld area, the whole sequence in the
44 Highland Border Steep Belt youngs to the north-west. Continuity of
45 the Birnam Slate and Grit Formation (oldest) and the Dunkeld Grit
46 Formation (youngest) with the Ben Ledi Grits is difficult to
47 confirm and they could represent a higher stratigraphical level.
48 In a similar structural position to the north-east are the Cairn
49 Gibbs Psammite Formation of the Glen Shee area and the Rottal
50 Schist Formation of Glen Clova but there too, stratigraphical
51 continuity is uncertain.

52
53 To the east of the Loch Tay Fault, the lower parts of the Southern
54 Highland Group, consisting dominantly of more-pelitic metagreywacke
55 sequences, are exposed only along the north-western edge of its
56 outcrop. Between Loch Tay and Glen Shee, these constitute the
57 Pitlochry Schist Formation (Treagus, 2000), from Glen Shee
58 eastwards the equivalent unit is the Mount Blair Psammite and
59 Semipelite Formation (Crane *et al.*, 2002), and in the Glen Clova
60 area this basal unit has been termed the Longshank Gneiss
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4 Formation. Green beds are abundant at several stratigraphical
5 levels but are notably absent north-east from Glen Clova. Soft,
6 fine-grained, amorphous 'brown beds', up to 10 cm thick, have been
7 identified at several localities over a distance of 96 km along
8 strike, from the east side of Loch Lomond to near Fettercairn
9 (Batchelor, 2004a, 2004b). Their chemistry and mineralogy suggests
10 that they originated as mildly alkaline rhyolitic or trachytic tuff
11 from a relatively distant source.
12

13 Farther to the north-east, stratigraphical continuity is
14 interrupted by an extensive right-way-up sequence, which was
15 assigned by Harte (1979) to the Tarfside Nappe, a major recumbent
16 structure below the Tay Nappe. In that sequence a lower more-
17 pelitic unit, the Glen Effock Schist Formation, passes upwards into
18 the higher Glen Lethnot Grit Formation, characterised by beds of
19 pebbly psammite, and hence a broad correlation is suggested with
20 the Tay Nappe successions. On the east coast, north of Stonehaven,
21 the sequence reverts to being upside down and has been assigned to
22 the Glen Lethnot Grit on lithological criteria.
23

24 A transition from lagoonal calcareous silts and muds of the Argyll
25 Group into turbidites that define the Southern Highland Group is
26 well seen on both limbs of the Turriff Syncline. The turbiditic
27 psammites with subordinate semipelites and pelites are referred to
28 as the Whitehills Grit Formation on the western limb (Read, 1923;
29 Sutton and Watson, 1955) and the Rosehearty and Methlick formations
30 on the eastern limb (Read and Farquhar, 1956). In the core of the
31 syncline the Macduff Formation is a finer grained, more-distal
32 turbidite facies (Sutton and Watson, 1955). A more-persistent
33 semipelitic facies to the south-west has been termed the
34 Clashindarroch Formation. Around the closure of the syncline, in
35 the Correen Hills, the Southern Highland Group is represented by
36 the Suie Hill Formation, which consists dominantly of semipelite
37 and gritty psammite with prominent pelite units. An
38 eastward-younging sequence of turbiditic rocks on the east coast,
39 north of Aberdeen, is termed the Collieston Formation and is
40 assigned to the Southern Highland Group (Read and Farquhar, 1956;
41 Munro, 1986). This predominantly psammitic graded sequence
42 includes characteristic 'knotted' pelite containing andalusite and
43 cordierite.
44

45 Some exotic boulders and pebbles in the higher exposed part of the
46 Macduff Formation have been attributed to ice-rafting or debris
47 flows linked to marine tills (Sutton and Watson, 1954; Hambrey and
48 Waddams, 1981; Stoker *et al.*, 1999). Correlations with various
49 glacial periods, some as young as Ordovician, have been suggested,
50 though a correlation with the glacial deposit in the Southern
51 Highland Group of Donegal (Condon and Prave, 2000) and the Varanger
52 tillites (accepting their revised age of 620-590 Ma) seems to be
53 the most likely on present evidence (see below).
54

55 In general character the clastic sediments of the Southern
56 Highland Group are similar to those of the preceding Argyll Group
57 and sedimentary structures are commonly preserved in immature
58 turbidite-dominated sedimentary facies associations (Harris *et al.*,
59 1978; Anderton, 1980, 1985; Burt, 2002; Pickett *et al.*, 2006).
60 Metagreywacke and metasandstone are typically coarse-grained,
61 poorly sorted, graded, and are commonly composite. Bouma sequences
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4 have been identified in thin-bedded turbidites of the Macduff
5 Formation. Some of the channels are asymmetrical with steep banks
6 showing evidence of slumping and the bases of the coarser
7 metasandstones commonly display large saucer-shaped loadcasts.
8 Minor silty beds show small-scale cross-bedding.
9

10 These sediments mark a return to rapid basin deepening, which
11 persistently stayed ahead of the sedimentary and volcanic fill.
12 The sedimentary structures imply that the coarse-grained sediments
13 were probably deposited in slope-apron or ramp settings with
14 channels on the lower slopes and inner zones of major deep-water
15 sub-marine fans, with the finer sediments being laid down as
16 overbank deposits or as outer fan facies. Palaeocurrent directions
17 and facies changes in the sequence all suggest a dominant flow
18 towards the south-east with minor north-eastward and south-westward
19 axial flows. Clasts of feldspar, high-grade metamorphic rocks and
20 granitic rocks are more abundant than in earlier Dalradian
21 turbidites, suggesting a newly emerged, less mature source area
22 (Harris and Pitcher, 1975; Harris *et al.*, 1978), and Plant *et al.*
23 (1984) and Anderton (1985) suggested that this could be due to
24 stripping of a cover sequence in a north-western source area to
25 reveal a granitoid basement.
26

27 The Loch Avich Lavas, the 'green beds' and the 'brown beds'
28 represent a final phase of magmatism in the Dalradian basins,
29 probably erupting from volcanic centres in the Loch Awe area, close
30 to the source of the earlier Tayvallich lavas.
31

32 **1.4.5 Units of uncertain stratigraphical affinity**

33
34 Two metasedimentary units of uncertain affinity crop out on the
35 Isle of Islay, where they are separated by the NNE-trending Loch
36 Gruinart Fault, a possible splay from the Great Glen Fault (see
37 *Chapter 2*). Both the Colonsay Group and the Bowmore Sandstone
38 Group are thought to have been deformed and metamorphosed during
39 the Grampian Event but they are separated tectonically from the
40 Dalradian succession and direct correlations on lithological
41 grounds are equivocal. There are significant differences between
42 the early deformation histories of the Colonsay Group and the
43 Dalradian, adding to speculation that western Islay and Colonsay
44 might represent a separate terrane (e.g. Bentley *et al.*, 1988; Muir
45 *et al.*, 1992).
46

47 **1.4.5.1 Colonsay Group**

48
49 The Colonsay Group crops out on Colonsay, Oronsay and the Rhinns of
50 Islay. It consists of a 5.0–5.5 km-thick sequence of greenschist-
51 facies, strongly deformed metasandstone and phyllitic metamudstone,
52 with minor calcareous beds. The succession youngs generally
53 towards the north-west and Stewart (1962a) and Stewart and Hackman
54 (1973) divided the sequence into 18 lithostratigraphical units; the
55 lower 10 on Islay and the upper 8 on Oronsay and Colonsay. It is
56 possible that there is a slight overlap between the successions on
57 Islay and Oronsay but Bentley (1988) thought that there might be a
58 stratigraphical gap of up to a kilometre in thickness.
59 Subsequently, Muir *et al.* (1995) have recognized that four
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4 formations in the lower part of Stewart and Hackman's Islay
5 succession are in fact two formations repeated by folding, but they
6 also identified a previously unrecorded formation (the Octofad
7 Sandstone Formation) on the south-east coast of the Rhinns, which
8 is the lowest preserved part of the group.
9

10 The lowest 650 m of the succession on Islay consist of feldspathic
11 metasandstone and metamudstone, interpreted as representing delta-
12 top sheet sands and interdistributary muds. These pass upwards on
13 Islay into quartz-rich metagreywacke and metamudstone suggesting
14 deeper water, delta-slope turbidite accumulation. These become
15 increasingly distal as the succession youngs on to Oronsay and
16 Colonsay, possibly reflecting basin deepening. The upper part of
17 the succession on Colonsay shows a change back towards shallow-
18 water, marine, mainly siliciclastic sedimentation but with several
19 calcareous developments, notably the 1-5 m-thick (dolomitic)
20 Colonsay Limestone. The topmost units possibly reflect the onset
21 of renewed deepening. Several thin volcanoclastic layers have been
22 identified from mineralogical and geochemical criteria, mainly in
23 the upper part of the succession on Colonsay, by Batchelor (2011).
24

25 On Islay, the Colonsay Group is in sheared contact with gneisses
26 of the Rhinns Complex. A perceived coarsening of facies and the
27 presence of local conglomerates towards the contact led Wilkinson
28 (1907) and Bentley (1988) to suggest that the contact is a sheared
29 unconformity. However, for much of its length in the western and
30 central Rhinns, the contact is marked by a 3-4 m-wide mylonite zone
31 that cuts discordantly across four formations in the lower part of
32 the group. It is therefore possible that an unknown thickness of
33 the original sequence might be missing and Stewart and Hackman
34 (1973) interpreted the contact as a major tectonic dislocation,
35 which they termed the Bruichladdich Slide. However, on the south-
36 east coast of the Rhinns, Muir *et al.* (1995) identified complex
37 basement-cover interslicing, which extends into the Bruachladdich
38 area, and hence they proposed that the simpler, single plane of
39 dislocation in the central and western Rhinns would be more
40 appropriately named the Kilchiaran Shear-zone. The contact at the
41 north-eastern end of Colonsay was interpreted as a sheared
42 unconformity by both Bentley (1988) and Fitches and Maltman (1984).
43 However, the conglomeratic cover rocks there belong to the
44 Kilchattan Formation, about 4 km above the base of the Colonsay
45 Group succession on Islay, which would require a highly uneven
46 basement topography.
47

48 For many years the Rhinns basement was thought to be Lewisian, and
49 consequently the overlying Colonsay Group had been correlated with
50 the Torridonian, until this was challenged by Stewart (1969, 1975).
51 The presence of metalimestone in the upper part of the group
52 suggested to Litherland (*in* Stewart and Hackman, 1973) that there
53 could be a correlation with the Appin Group and this was supported
54 by Rock (1985), who suggested that the chemistry of the Colonsay
55 Limestone is similar to that of the Ballachulish Limestone. In
56 fact the uppermost formations on Colonsay are lithologically
57 similar to the laterally persistent Leven Schist to Appin Quartzite
58 sequence of the Ballachulish type area. Such a correlation would
59 imply that the underlying parts of the Colonsay Group are lateral
60 equivalents of the Lochaber Subgroup and the Grampian Group. The
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4 main objection to a correlation with any part of the Dalradian has
5 been on structural grounds, since the first phase of deformation
6 seen in Colonsay Group rocks is not apparent in the undoubted
7 Dalradian rocks of Islay (Borradaile, 1979; Fitches and Maltman,
8 1984). The matter is still not fully resolved but the distribution
9 of U-Pb ages in detrital zircon and titanite does suggest a
10 correlation with the Grampian Group (McAteer *et al.*, 2010).
11

12 **1.4.5.2 Bowmore Sandstone Group**

13
14 The Bowmore Sandstone Group is separated from both the Colonsay
15 Group of western Islay and the Dalradian succession of eastern
16 Islay by tectonic dislocations. The predominantly grey-brown,
17 feldspathic sandstones have been divided into two formations, each
18 exceeding 2 km in thickness (Amos, 1960). The lower, Laggan
19 Sandstone Formation, consists of fine- to medium-grained sandstone
20 with silty partings, and the upper, Blackrock Grit Formation, is
21 mainly coarse-grained sandstone with pebbly beds. The rocks are
22 tightly folded but the locally developed tectonic fabrics are weak
23 and metamorphism is slight. However, younging indicators are rare.
24

25 The group has been correlated variously with the Moine, the
26 Torridonian and the Dalradian (Fitches and Maltman, 1984, table 1).
27 It is separated from an overlying Dalradian succession by the Loch
28 Skerrols Thrust, and those workers who have regarded this as a
29 major structure, possibly equivalent to the Moine Thrust, have
30 correlated the Bowmore Sandstone mainly with the Torridonian, by
31 analogy with the structure of the North-west Highlands (e.g.
32 Johnstone, 1966; Stewart, 1969, 1975). Others have regarded the
33 Loch Skerrols Thrust as a structure of local importance only and
34 hence have proposed that the Bowmore Sandstone is more likely to be
35 part of the Dalradian succession. Fitches and Maltman (1984)
36 argued that it is the lateral equivalent of the Crinan Grits on the
37 lower, inverted limb of the Islay Anticline.
38
39

40 **1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE GRAMPIAN HIGHLANDS**

41 ***D. Stephenson***

42
43
44 Current structural interpretations of the Grampian Highlands are
45 still based upon those proposed by C.T. Clough and E.B. Bailey,
46 which drew upon the results of the primary mapping by the
47 Geological Survey. In a series of papers, from 1910 to 1938,
48 Bailey demonstrated that the rocks of the South-west and Central
49 Grampian Highlands are disposed in large, Alpine-scale recumbent
50 folds. He proposed that the long limbs of many of these folds are
51 partly replaced by low-angled faults, termed 'slides', with
52 postulated movements of several kilometres. Most of the major fold
53 structures originally identified and named by Bailey are still
54 recognized, and many of his slides exist as complex low-angled
55 high-strain zones, some with tectonic dislocation and/or
56 stratigraphical attenuation, but some have lost their original
57 significance as major tectonic and stratigraphical boundaries.
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59 Subsequent refinements to the Bailey model have involved careful
60 consideration of the relative ages of the various structures, their
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4 relationships with each other, and hence the overall structural
5 history of the area, which involves several phases of deformation.
6 This history has been painstakingly pieced together and refined by
7 a multitude of workers. Several alternative structural models have
8 emerged but no single hypothesis can account satisfactorily for all
9 of the observed features (see Stephenson and Gould, 1995 for
10 examples). Various controversies have raged over the years but
11 there has also been a remarkable amount of agreement and consensus
12 on many aspects.
13

14 The overall structure of the Grampian Highlands is best
15 illustrated by the dissected block diagram of Figure 1.7, which is
16 based upon an original published by Peter Thomas in 1979 and not
17 bettered since, though it was modified slightly by Stephenson and
18 Gould (1995) and reproduced by Strachan *et al.* (2002).

19 The large-scale structures are most easily described and
20 understood with reference to those of the South-west Grampian
21 Highlands (Figure 1.7, block A), where the relatively simple fold
22 geometry remains essentially as described first by Bailey (1910,
23 1922, 1934), despite subsequent re-interpretation by Roberts and
24 Treagus (1977c), Hickman (1978) and Litherland (1982). There, the
25 major folds are seen to diverge on either side of a central *Loch*
26 *Awe Syncline* which, although composite, is characterized by open to
27 close, upright, upward-facing folds that are generally regarded as
28 F1. On either side of this syncline, the early folds become
29 progressively overturned and verge to the north-west and south-
30 east. To the south-east, the tight *Ardrishaig Anticline* is
31 interpreted as the core of a large SE-facing nappe, the *Tay Nappe*,
32 which dominates the overall structure of the south-eastern part of
33 the Grampian Highlands throughout its strike length.
34

35 Throughout the Central Grampian Highlands, the core of the Tay
36 Nappe is obscured within a zone of steeply dipping strata resulting
37 from the refolding of co-axial F1 and F2 folds by near-upright F3
38 structures (the *Ben Lui Fold-complex* and the *Tummel* and *Cairnwell*
39 *steep belts*). To the north-west of this zone, generally SE-dipping
40 Appin and Argyll group strata are separated from the structurally
41 underlying Grampian Group by a high-strain zone, which includes
42 several planes of dislocation and has been termed the *Boundary*
43 *Slide*. Beneath the Boundary Slide, major early folds still face
44 south-east (e.g. those formerly known as the *Glen Orchy* and *Atholl*
45 *nappes*) but farther to the north-west, a fundamental change in
46 facing direction lies in the region of a 4 km-wide zone of upright,
47 isoclinal folds known as the *Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt* (Figure
48 1.7, blocks C and D).
49

50 To the north-west of the Loch Awe Syncline is a stack of NW-facing
51 early folds, including the *Islay Anticline*, *Appin Syncline*, *Beinn*
52 *Donn Syncline* and *Ballachulish Syncline* (Bailey, 1934; Roberts and
53 Treagus, 1977c). Similar NW-facing folds occur to the west of the
54 Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt (Key *et al.*, 1997) and there is
55 reasonable continuity of overall structure between Islay and Glen
56 Roy. To the west, these folds of mainly Appin and Argyll group
57 rocks overlie the Grampian Group.
58

59 In the following sections, each major structural domain of the
60 Grampian Highlands is described firstly in the south-west and then
61 progressively through to the north-east, with reference to the
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4 labelled blocks of Figure 1.7. The structure of the Dalradian
5 terrane in the Shetland Islands is described in the introduction to
6 Chapter 7.
7

8 **1.5.1 The Tay Nappe**

9

10 The Tay Nappe dominates the south-eastern part of the Grampian
11 Terrane, in a 15–20 km-wide outcrop that extends from Kintyre to
12 Stonehaven parallel to the Highland Boundary Fault (Figure 1.7, see
13 also Figure 4.4). Throughout much of its outcrop, the nappe is
14 parallel-sided and flat-lying. The erosion level is such that most
15 of the outcrop constitutes part of the inverted limb, so that
16 stratigraphical sequences are inverted. Structures underlying this
17 inverted limb are seen only in the area of the Angus glens, where a
18 largely right-way-up sequence has been interpreted as a separate
19 *Tarfside Nappe* (Harte, 1979). Close to the Highland Boundary
20 Fault, the Tay Nappe is bent downwards by a large monofold known as
21 the *Highland Border Downbend* to form the *Highland Border Steep Belt*
22 (see below). The hinge-zone of the nappe thus becomes downward
23 facing as a synformal anticline, recognized in the South-west
24 Grampian Highlands as the *Aberfoyle Anticline* (Shackleton, 1958).
25 The south-eastern limb of this anticline is the only place where
26 the original upper limb of the Tay Nappe is preserved.
27

28 In the South-west Grampian Highlands the inverted limb of the Tay
29 Nappe has the general form of a broad arch, known as the *Cowal*
30 *Antiform* (Figure 1.7, block A), although in some areas, at least,
31 this late (?D4) antiform is more of an open chevron (see Figure
32 4.4, section A-A'). To the north-west of the Cowal Antiform, the
33 core of the nappe is brought down below the level of erosion to
34 crop out as the *Ardrishaig Anticline*. Here the fold limbs, primary
35 axial planes and associated cleavages all dip steeply to the
36 north-west and constitute part of the *Knapdale Steep Belt* (Roberts,
37 1974). This is the only area in which the core of the Tay Nappe is
38 exposed.
39

40 North-east from Cowal, the crest of the late antiform flattens and
41 the inverted lower limb of the Tay Nappe forms the *Flat Belt* which
42 dominates so much of the South-eastern Grampian Highlands (Figure
43 1.7, blocks B, C and D). The width of the Flat Belt varies and is
44 up to 18 km wide in Perthshire. There, Krabbendam *et al.* (1997)
45 and Treagus (1999) have identified kilometre-scale isoclines and
46 right-way-up sequences within the dominantly inverted limb. The
47 north-western limit of the Flat Belt is defined by a zone of F1 and
48 F2 folds with steeply SE-dipping axial surfaces, which must refold
49 the hinge-zone of any major syncline originally underlying and
50 complementary to the Tay Nappe (Roberts and Treagus, 1979). This
51 zone is termed the *Ben Lui Fold Complex* in Figure 1.7 block B
52 (after Cummins and Shackleton, 1955) but the zone widens
53 north-eastwards in blocks C and D with the addition of many tight,
54 upright folds of later generation (F2 and F3) to form the *Tummel*
55 *Steep Belt* (see below).
56

57 Farther to the north-east, the amplitude of the Tay Nappe is
58 considerably reduced (Figure 1.7, block E). In the Glen Esk area a
59 broad late antiform, the *Tarfside Culmination*, exposes a wide zone
60 of right-way-up strata, apparently beneath the Tay Nappe that has
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4 been assigned to the Tarfside Nappe. According to Harte (1979) the
5 axial zone of the fold separating the two nappes has been replaced
6 by a slide, the *Glen Mark Slide*. On the coast section north of
7 Stonehaven, the Highland Border Downbend is well developed and a
8 generally flat-lying inverted sequence is bent down and becomes
9 overturned to the south-east, with downward-facing D1 structures
10 (Booth, 1984; Harte *et al.*, 1987) (see Figure 4.33).

11 To the north of Aberdeen the Tay Nappe can no longer be identified
12 with any certainty (Figure 1.7, block F). The rocks are mostly the
13 right way up, possibly beneath the Tay Nappe, and it is not clear
14 whether the inverted limb has been cut out by major thrusting, or
15 whether, more simply, the nappe structures have a much smaller
16 amplitude in this area (Harte *et al.*, 1984). However, in the coast
17 section around Collieston the beds are regionally inverted and
18 there are abundant small- to large-scale recumbent, isoclinal F1
19 folds with a maximum amplitude of about 1 km (Read and Farquhar,
20 1956; Mendum, 1987) (Figures 6.40. 6.41). These folds plunge
21 gently to the north, face eastwards and may represent a subdued
22 equivalent of the nappe (Ashcroft *et al.*, 1984).

23 Later (F3 and/or F4) NE-trending folds and other structures on
24 both a major and a minor scale were imposed subsequently on the Tay
25 Nappe. In addition to the Highland Border Downbend, broad, upright
26 folds affect the north-western part of the Flat Belt (Figure 1.7,
27 blocks B, C and D). Of these, the best developed are the Ben
28 Lawers Synform (Treagus, 1964b, 2000) and its complementary, lower
29 amplitude *Loch Tay* (or *Ben More*) *Antiform* to the south-east
30 (Watkins, 1984; Harte *et al.*, 1984; Treagus, 2000). The somewhat
31 tighter *Sron Mhor Syncline* may be of the same generation but it is
32 closely associated with steeper structures to the north and was
33 probably initiated as an earlier structure. The Collieston F1
34 folds are also refolded by a set of near-coaxial, tight folds which
35 post-date porphyroblast growth and hence are assigned to D3.
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39 **1.5.1.1 The Highland Border Steep Belt and The Hinge-** 40 **zone of the Tay Nappe**

41
42 The existence of a belt of steeply dipping rocks along the Highland
43 Border has long been known and was implicit in the early
44 discussions of the area (Henderson, 1938; Anderson, 1947a;
45 Stringer, 1957). However, it was Shackleton (1958) who used both
46 sedimentary structures and cleavage-bedding relationships to
47 demonstrate that the Aberfoyle Anticline is a downward-facing
48 synformal anticline and interpreted it as the closure of the Tay
49 Nappe. Subsequently, many detailed local studies have been made of
50 key areas (from south-west to north-east: Simpson and Wedden, 1974;
51 Paterson *et al.*, 1990; Mendum and Fettes, 1985; Stone, 1957;
52 Harris, 1962, 1972; Harris and Fettes, 1972; Harte *et al.*, 1984;
53 Booth, 1984).

54
55 Figure 4.4 shows a series of cross-sections along most of the
56 Highland Border region. North-eastwards from the Cowal and Bute
57 area, the Cowal Antiform passes into the Highland Border Downbend
58 (or Monoform), a sharp monoclinial flexure, over which the Flat Belt
59 of the Tay Nappe gives way to the Highland Border Steep Belt.
60 North-east from Dunkeld, the steep belt is overturned so that
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4 sequences of formerly inverted rocks dip at around 60° to the north-
5 west and are once more the right way up (Treagus *et al.*, 1972;
6 Harris and Fettes, 1972). The hinge-zone of the Tay Nappe was
7 originally described as a single downward-facing anticline, but it
8 has been shown subsequently to be more complex. For example, in
9 the Ben Ledi area the hinge-zone consists of two major synforms,
10 the *Aberfoyle Anticline* and the *Benvane Synform*, separated by the
11 *Ben Ledi Antiform* (Mendum and Fettes, 1985). These structures are
12 all inferred to be of D1 age, since minor D2 structures are not
13 seen near the Highland Border in this area and only become
14 overprinted on D1 farther to the north-west.

15
16 In the rocks of low metamorphic grade in the steep belt and in
17 much of the adjacent parts of the Flat Belt, minor structures are
18 very distinctive and are much influenced by lithology. Pelites
19 develop axial planar slaty cleavages but in the psammites, which
20 constitute most of the Southern Highland Group, spaced S1 pressure-
21 solution cleavages fan around fold closures and are strongly
22 refracted across lithological boundaries (see Figure 4.26).
23 Subsequent deformation during D2 results in characteristic
24 microlithons of S1 in the hinge-zones of minor F2 folds but
25 flattens the spaced cleavage on more-highly strained limbs and
26 induces a finely striped rock, so that it is difficult to recognize
27 the multiple origin of the dominant foliation (Harris *et al.*, 1976)
28 (see Figure 4.29).

29
30 The Highland Border Downbend is not generally seen to refold D3
31 structures. However, Crane *et al.* (2002) described gentle NE-
32 trending warps near Kirkmichael that do refold F3 folds and hence
33 the downbend is confirmed as regional F4. Where downbend-related
34 folds are present, they are usually accompanied by a strong
35 crenulation cleavage, best seen in the more pelitic or strongly
36 foliated rocks. This cleavage dips north-westwards at moderate to
37 subvertical angles.

38 39 **1.5.1.2 The Ben Lui Fold-complex, Tummel Steep Belt** 40 **and Cairnwell Steep Belt**

41
42 From Dalmally north-eastwards to Strathtummel, a zone of
43 steeply-inclined strata intervenes between the Flat Belt of the Tay
44 Nappe and the Boundary Slide. Since the axial plane of the
45 anticlinal Tay Nappe appears to be above the level of erosion
46 throughout this area, early workers considered that the underlying
47 major syncline (the 'righting fold') must lie within this zone. An
48 antiformal syncline around Ben Lui was termed the 'Ben Lui Fold' by
49 Bailey (1922) who proposed that it is the F1 syncline beneath the
50 Tay Nappe.

51
52 Subsequent work by Cummins and Shackleton (1955) supported
53 Bailey's view, but a more detailed study by Roberts and Treagus
54 (1964, 1975) showed that the folding is more complex. Beneath the
55 F1 Ardrishaig Anticline, the *Ben Lui Fold-complex* consists of three
56 recumbent folds with SE-dipping axial surfaces, the *Dalmally*
57 *Syncline*, the *Ra Chreag Anticline* and the *Ben Lui Syncline*, all of
58 which have been shown to be later, D2 (or possibly D3) structures.
59 This tripartite structure has been traced north-eastwards, via the
60 Balquhiddier area (Watkins, 1984), to Glen Lyon (Roberts and
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4 Treagus, 1979), beyond which the individual folds lose their
5 identity and the structure is probably represented by the F2
6 *Ruskich Antiform* (Nell, 1984; Treagus, 1987, 1999). Many folds in
7 the Schiehallion area and associated folds in Strathtummel with
8 SE-dipping axial surfaces appear to belong to the same generation
9 of F2 folds, which in places are seen to fold the axial planes of
10 major F1 folds such as the *Beinn a Chuallich Folds* and the *Creag na*
11 *h'Iolaire Anticline* (Roberts and Treagus, 1979; Treagus, 1987) (see
12 Figure 3.3b).
13

14 A similar co-axial arrangement of steeply inclined F1, F2 and F3
15 folds occurs east of the Loch Tay Fault in the *Tummel Steep Belt*
16 (Bradbury et al., 1979; Treagus, 1999, 2000) and can be traced
17 north-eastwards towards Braemar, where it is known as the *Cairnwell*
18 *Steep Belt* (Upton, 1986; Crane et al., 2002) (Figure 1.7, blocks C
19 and D). These two steep belts are offset along the complex 5 km-
20 wide NW-trending zone of large-scale F2 and F3 folds termed the
21 *Carn Dallaig Transfer Zone* (Crane et al., 2002, figure 19). They
22 are described in more detail in the *Introduction* to Chapter 6.
23

24 In the area around Schiehallion and Strathtummel (Figure 1.7,
25 block C) the strata undergo a dramatic swing of strike which is a
26 major feature of even small-scale maps (e.g. Figure 1.1). This
27 displacement is caused by two large-scale, steeply plunging,
28 north-trending, relatively late folds termed the *Errochty Synform*
29 and the *Bohespic Antiform* (see Figure 3.43). Earlier authors
30 assigned these folds to D3 or D4 (Rast, 1958; Thomas, 1980;
31 Treagus, 1987), but Treagus (2000) gave them a local designation of
32 De, being unable to state categorically whether they pre- or post-
33 date the regional D3 phase. The tight synform and broad, open
34 antiform have contrasting geometry. Such changes in fold geometry
35 commonly occur at the junction of materials of contrasting
36 competence; in this case the thick psammites of the Grampian Group
37 and the multilayered pelites and quartzites of the Appin Group. A
38 similar geometry occurs in other fold pairs that have symmetrical
39 spatial relationships to the major NNE- to NE-trending Loch Tay,
40 Bridge of Balgie and Tyndrum faults, and Treagus (1991) considered
41 that there might be a relationship between ductile shearing, the
42 late fold pairs and later brittle faults. The latest folds in this
43 area, termed the Dt phase by Treagus (2000), strongly deform the
44 *Errochty Synform* along NW-trending axes, the most important being
45 the *Trinafour Monoform*.
46

47 **1.5.2 The Boundary Slide-zone and possible related** 48 **structures** 49

50
51 The Boundary Slide can be traced almost continuously, as a zone of
52 high strain and attenuation along the boundary between the Grampian
53 and Appin groups, from Dalmally to Glen Tilt (Roberts and Treagus,
54 1977c) and then with less certainty, intermittently to Glen Rinnes
55 (Stephenson and Gould, 1995). This zone of highly schistose or
56 platy rocks varies in thickness from a few metres up to 2000 m, and
57 includes several planes of dislocation. Significant displacement
58 or tectonic excision of strata is difficult to prove in most areas
59 but a considerable stratigraphical hiatus can be demonstrated.
60 Indeed the whole succession from the Ballachulish Subgroup to the
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4 lower Easdale Subgroup is missing over some distance, between
5 Dalmally and Glen Lyon (A.G. Leslie, pers. comm., 2007). Such a
6 large hiatus most likely represents a major unconformity due to
7 non-deposition, possibly over a fault-bounded basement 'high'.
8 However, overlap can be demonstrated locally and attenuated
9 sequences of the Lochaber and Ballachulish subgroups in the
10 Schiehallion area mark the return to a complete succession towards
11 the north-east (Treagus and King, 1978; Roberts and Treagus, 1979;
12 Treagus, 1987, 1999, 2000). The sharp change in competence between
13 the psammitic and quartzitic Grampian Group and lower parts of the
14 Lochaber Subgroup and the more-variable overlying strata then
15 probably acted as a locus for high strain, with or without
16 localized shearing and displacement.
17

18 Originally interpreted as a major dislocation separating two major
19 tectonostratigraphical units, the *Ballappel Foundation* and the
20 *Iltay Nappe* (e.g. Bailey, 1922), the Boundary Slide has lessened in
21 significance as a structural boundary in most current
22 interpretations. However, there is no doubt that it does
23 transgress the stratigraphy on a regional basis and local planes of
24 dislocation within the slide-zone might result in a total
25 displacement of up to several kilometres (Treagus, 1987).
26 Individual slides truncate early isoclinal folds and there is no
27 doubt that the slide-zone is folded by later structures. The
28 strong platy or schistose fabric present throughout the zone was
29 regarded by Treagus (1987) as an intense development of the main
30 regional schistosity (S2) developed during nappe formation. Most
31 of the slides within the zone occur on the short limbs of F2 folds
32 and result in an overall movement, in a thrust sense, towards the
33 north-west. This fact is clearly contrary to the overall concept
34 of the dislocations as extensional slides (lags), but it may be
35 that they were initiated as extensional structures during basin
36 development (Soper and Anderton, 1984; Anderton, 1988) or during
37 the formation of the primary nappes (Thomas, 1980) and were then
38 re-activated in a reverse sense as thrusts during subsequent
39 tectonism. The present sinuous trace of the slide reflects large-
40 scale folding by later structures.
41

42 A Boundary Slide has been traced north-eastwards from Glen Tilt,
43 through the Braemar area to the eastern end of the Cairngorm
44 Granite (Upton, 1986), where its overall effect is much reduced.
45 Farther north, zones of high strain, locally accompanied by slides,
46 are common at or below the Grampian Group-Appin Group junction but
47 towards the north coast, the boundary appears to represent a
48 relatively undisturbed, rapid stratigraphical passage (see *Chapter*
49 *6, Introduction*). However, zones of shearing around the Grampian-
50 Appin group boundary in Glen Rinnes can be projected north-
51 eastwards towards a major shear-zone that can be traced for some 30
52 km at higher stratigraphical levels, to reach the coast between
53 Sandend and Portsoy. This *Keith Shear-zone* appears to have excised
54 parts of the Ballachulish Subgroup in places and between its
55 multiple branches are several pods and lenses of deformed
56 muscovite-biotite granite dated at c. 600 Ma (Barreiro, 1998).
57 Hence this shear-zone, at least, must have been in existence soon
58 after sedimentation, during the extensional events that permitted
59 emplacement of the Ben Vuirich Granite, the Tayvallich volcanism
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4 and the associated rifting heralding the opening of the Iapetus
5 Ocean (e.g. Kinny *et al.*, 2003b). Subsequent Grampian deformation
6 of the granite sheets resulted in a top-to-north-west, thrust sense
7 of movement.
8

9 **1.5.3 Folds beneath the Boundary Slide: the former** 10 **Glen Orchy and Atholl nappes and the Gaick Fold-complex**

11
12 In the area around Glen Orchy and Dalmally, Thomas and Treagus
13 (1968) and Thomas (1979) recognized three major isoclinal,
14 recumbent folds beneath the Boundary Slide, the *Glen Lochy*
15 *Anticline*, the *Beinn Udlaidh Syncline* and the *Beinn Chuirn*
16 *Anticline*, which they regarded as F1 (Figure 1.7, block B).
17 However, Roberts and Treagus (1975, 1977c) interpreted the
18 uppermost, *Beinn Chuirn Anticline*, as a secondary F2 fold,
19 associated with strong deformation along the Boundary Slide. More-
20 recent fieldwork on the *Beinn Udlaidh Syncline* by Tanner and Thomas
21 (2010) failed to find evidence of any earlier folding but thin
22 sections clearly revealed a cleavage and metamorphism pre-dating
23 the major folds, all of which were therefore re-assigned to D2.
24 All of the isoclinal folds, together referred to by some authors as
25 the *Glen Orchy Nappe*, face towards the south-east (i.e. in the same
26 direction as the major nappes above the Boundary Slide). These
27 folds are arched across the broad dome, of the *Glen Orchy Antiform*,
28 so that they face upwards on the north-west side of the dome and
29 downwards beneath the Boundary Slide on the south-east side.
30 Tanner and Thomas (2010) refer to this late structure as the Orchy
31 Dome and observe that it post-dates late crenulation cleavages and
32 hence is of D4 age or younger. A similar structure to the Glen
33 Orchy Antiform refolds three early isoclines farther to the
34 north-east, in the Glen Lyon area (Figure 1.7, block C; Roberts and
35 Treagus, 1979).

36
37 Still farther to the north-east, around Strathtummel and along the
38 A9 road section, a stack of isoclinal recumbent folds face
39 downwards to the south-east (Thomas, 1979, 1980). Their axial
40 surfaces, limbs and dominant cleavage all steepen to the south-east
41 and dip beneath the Boundary Slide (Figure 1.7, block D). These
42 folds, most notably the *Meall Reamhar Synform*, *Clunes Antiform* and
43 *Clunes Synform*, were originally interpreted as components of a
44 large-scale, isoclinal F1 fold termed the *Atholl Nappe*, which was
45 thought to lie beneath the Tay Nappe, the intervening syncline
46 having been cut out by the Boundary Slide. However more-recent
47 work has shown that the dominant major folds and cleavage belong to
48 the D2 regional phase (Treagus, 2000). They all verge towards the
49 north-west and hence are developed on what is essentially an
50 extension of the lower, inverted limb of the Tay Nappe, from which
51 they are separated by the Tummel Steep Belt of later, D3 and
52 possibly D4, folding. The Boundary Slide marks the north-western
53 limit of that steep belt but does not seem to disrupt either the
54 stratigraphy or the overall structure to any significant degree.
55 In places, an earlier, bedding-parallel S1 cleavage is recognized,
56 rare tight, metre- to 10 metre-scale F1 folds do occur on similar
57 axes to the F2 folds and the possibility of large-scale F1 folds
58 cannot be excluded (Treagus, 2000). The later Errochty Synform (Fe
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4 phase, see above) refolds the F1 and F2 folds and becomes very
5 tight in this area, where the hinge-zone passes into a high-strain
6 zone of flaggy rocks, at least 3 km wide, called the *Dalnacardoch*
7 *Banded Zone* (Thomas, 1979; Treagus, 2000).
8

9 Farther north, neither F1 nor F3 folds are recognized across a
10 wide area dominated by a stack of flat-lying, isoclinal, kilometre-
11 scale, south-facing F2 folds and termed the Gaick Fold-complex
12 (Leslie et al., 2006). Around the Pass of Drummochter, the F2
13 axial planes and cleavages of the flat belt are folded across the
14 broad *Drummochter Dome*, now generally accepted as a late structure
15 (D3 or D4 depending upon the author) analogous to the domes of Glen
16 Orchy and Glen Lyon (e.g. Lindsay et al., 1989). On the north-
17 western limb of the dome, some complex F1/F2 interference patterns
18 are observed at Crubenmore (Thomas, 1988). Beyond Drummochter, a
19 progressive increase in D3 deformation leads to steepening north-
20 western dips and eventually to a zone of open to close, upright F3
21 folds on the south-eastern flank of an inlier of 'basement'
22 Badenoch Group rocks termed the Glen Banchor High (Robertson and
23 Smith, 1999).
24

25 **1.5.4 The Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt**

26
27 To the north-west of the Glen Banchor High is a 2–4 km-wide zone, in
28 which all the fold limbs and axial planes are steeply dipping (over
29 60°). This is the *Geal-charn - Ossian Steep Belt* of Thomas (1979),
30 which can be traced for some 50 km from south-west of Loch Ossian to
31 Kinlochlaggan (Robertson and Smith, 1999). It is most clearly
32 defined in the south-west, where it affects upper Grampian Group
33 and Appin Group strata (Figure 1.7, block D). To the north it
34 widens and becomes more diffuse, affecting lower strata of the
35 Grampian Group and the Glen Banchor Subgroup 'basement' succession.
36 On its north-western side, the steep belt includes the
37 *Kinlochlaggan Syncline*, which has a core of Appin Group strata and
38 has long been regarded as a major isoclinal primary fold (Anderson,
39 1947b, 1956; Smith, 1968; Treagus, 1969).
40

41 Within the steep belt, upright, near-isoclinal coplanar F1 and F2
42 folds and fabrics (see Figure 5.4) are associated with ductile
43 shear-zones and/or slides. Major recumbent folds face in opposite
44 directions on either side, and the intense focussing of deformation
45 into such a narrow zone led Thomas (1979) to interpret the steep
46 belt as a fundamental root-zone from which the large-scale F1
47 nappes of the Grampian Highlands originally diverged. He therefore
48 regarded it as comparable to, but at a lower structural level than,
49 the Loch Awe Syncline in the South-west Grampian Highlands. The
50 concept of a root-zone is no longer popular but more-recent work
51 has confirmed the steep belt as a zone of primary upright
52 deformation that separates two contrasting structural domains: the
53 upright to steeply inclined NW-facing folds of the Loch Laggan-Glen
54 Roy area to the west, and the gently inclined, SE-facing folds of
55 the Drummochter-Strathtummel area to the south-east (Robertson and
56 Smith, 1999). It probably formed as a result of its location
57 adjacent to an original faulted rift-basin margin, where the strata
58 became compressed against the rigid upstanding buttress of the Glen
59 Banchor High (see Figure 5.32). F3 folds in the steep belt are
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4 comparable in orientation to F3 folds in the immediately adjacent
5 domains and are characterized by an upright crenulation cleavage.

6 To the north of Kinlochlaggan, a zone of steeply inclined strata,
7 thrust slices and intense deformation extends to the north-north-
8 east through the Monadhliath mountains (Piasecki and van Breemen,
9 1983). However, many of the upright folds in this zone are
10 interpreted as later, possibly F3 structures (Smith, 1968) and
11 their relationship to the steep belt is uncertain.
12

13 **1.5.5 NW-facing folds between Islay and Glen Roy**

14
15 This area is dominated by large-scale recumbent NW-facing early
16 folds that have been refolded by largely upright open to close
17 later folds. The area between Appin and Glen Roy in particular is
18 arguably the most intensively studied in the whole of the Scottish
19 Dalradian, particularly in the well-exposed, cross-strike section
20 along Loch Leven and Loch Eilde that is represented by several GCR
21 sites in *Chapter 3*. The original interpretation of the regional
22 structure by Bailey (1910) was based largely upon that section. It
23 underwent several modifications, including a complete reversal of
24 the order of stratigraphical succession and consequently the facing
25 direction of the major folds. The final interpretation by Bailey
26 (1934, 1960) has remained a sound basis for all subsequent work.
27

28 The two principal re-interpretations (Roberts and Treagus, 1977c;
29 Hickman, 1978) both accepted much of the near-surface fold geometry
30 proposed by Bailey (1934). However, they differed considerably in
31 the way in which the folds were projected to depth and correlated
32 across strike. There were also highly significant differences in
33 the assignation of relative ages to individual folds, much of the
34 evidence for which depends on the detailed observation and
35 interpretation of minor structures. These contrasting models have
36 been summarized by Stephenson and Gould (1995) and are illustrated
37 in Figure 1.8. They are all commented upon in Chapter 3, but the
38 descriptions there follow the Roberts and Treagus (1977c) model,
39 which was based largely upon detailed studies in the Ardsheal
40 Peninsula (Treagus and Treagus, 1971), around Ballachulish
41 (Roberts, 1976) and around Kinlochleven (Treagus, 1974). It also
42 drew upon the authors' experience in adjoining areas of the
43 South-west Grampian Highlands (Thomas and Treagus, 1968; Roberts,
44 1974; Roberts and Treagus, 1975).
45

46 In the Loch Leven area, Bailey recognized three NW-facing
47 recumbent isoclinal folds, each about 15 to 20 km in amplitude.
48 From north-west to south-east and progressing structurally upwards
49 these are the *Appin Syncline*, the *Kinlochleven Anticline* and the
50 *Ballachulish Syncline*. On the lower limb of the Kinlochleven
51 Anticline, demonstrably inverted strata of the Lochaber Subgroup
52 crop-out over a cross-strike width of some 7 km to form what is
53 known as the *Kinlochleven Inversion*. Bailey also recognized the
54 existence of near co-axial upright 'secondary folds', such as the
55 *Stob Ban Synform*, which refolds both the Kinlochleven Anticline and
56 the Ballachulish Syncline, and additional F2 folds such as the
57 *Kinlochleven Antiform* and *Blackwater Synform* that deform rocks of
58 the Kinlochleven Inversion were recognised by Roberts and Treagus.
59 The lower limbs of the two major synclines were considered by
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4 Bailey to be largely replaced at an early stage in the deformation
5 by tectonic slides: the *Fort William Slide* beneath the Appin
6 Syncline and the *Ballachulish Slide* beneath the Ballachulish
7 Syncline. However, the apparent excision of strata along the Fort
8 William Slide, at least in this area, has been shown subsequently
9 to be due to an unconformity in the lower part of the Appin Group
10 (Glover, 1993).
11

12 Any fundamental departures from Bailey's regional interpretation
13 have been refuted by contemporaneous and later researchers. In
14 particular, Weiss and McIntyre (1957) concentrated entirely on
15 small-scale structures, and by taking no account of the
16 larger-scale structures or overall stratigraphy, failed to
17 recognize any earlier recumbent folds. The concept of large-scale
18 nappes was also completely rejected by Voll (1964) who explained
19 the observed outcrop pattern in the critical Loch Creran area in
20 terms of major facies changes. However, a later paper did
21 recognize the Kinlochleven Inversion, and hence accepted the
22 presence of recumbent folds (Kruhl and Voll, 1975).
23

24 Hickman (1978) re-interpreted many of the large-scale folds
25 identified as primary by Bailey and by Roberts and Treagus, as
26 secondary, F2 structures. Large-scale recumbent F1 folds were
27 recognized only in the eastern part of the section, and in the
28 north-western part of the section, the Appin Syncline and the *Tom*
29 *Meadhoin Anticline* (the latter formerly regarded as the upward-
30 facing hinge of the Kinlochleven Anticline) were re-interpreted as
31 separate upright F2 folds. In many respects this model followed
32 the interpretation of Bowes and Wright (1967, 1973), based upon
33 detailed mapping in the Ardsheal peninsula, and was contested by
34 Roberts and Treagus (1980).
35

36 A similar major fold geometry has been identified farther to the
37 north-east, around Glen Spean and Glen Roy (Key *et al.*, 1997).
38 There, large-scale recumbent F1 folds, correlated with the Treig
39 Syncline and Kinlochleven Anticline, are refolded by co-axial
40 upright F2 folds, including the Appin Synform, the Stob Ban
41 Synform, the Inverlair Antiform and the Blackwater Synform (Figure
42 1.9). In this area, the Fort William Slide does seem to exist as a
43 high-strain zone and has been traced around the closure of the
44 Appin Syncline, but it dies out eastwards, where the Lochaber
45 Subgroup appears to rest conformably on the Grampian Group.
46

47 Correlation of the major folds to the south-west of Loch Leven,
48 into the area of Loch Creran and Benderloch, and onwards to the
49 Islay Anticline and Loch Awe Syncline, has been the subject of much
50 controversy. The Appin Syncline can be traced from Glen Roy
51 through Ardsheal to Lismore where, according to Hickman (1978), the
52 equivalent *Balygrundle Syncline* refolds an early isoclinal fold,
53 confirming its F2 status. The Tom Meadhoin Anticline was
54 correlated with the *Airds Hill Anticline* of Appin and Benderloch by
55 both Roberts and Treagus (1977c) and Hickman (1978), but whereas
56 the former regarded it as the hinge of the Kinlochleven Anticline,
57 and hence an F1 fold, the latter regarded it as F2. The
58 Ballachulish Syncline was correlated by Roberts and Treagus with
59 the *Beinn Donn Syncline* of Loch Creran but its main trace is
60 subsumed into a complex stack of slides farther to the east in Glen
61 Creran (Bailey, 1960).
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4 The Loch Creran area was described by Litherland (1982) almost
5 entirely in terms of relatively upright F1 folds in a simple
6 'mushroom-like' structure. He recognized no secondary folds of
7 regional extent, whereas Roberts and Treagus (1977c) concluded that
8 several of the F1 folds are refolded by a continuation of the F2
9 Stob Ban Synform and Hickman (1978) interpreted some of the upright
10 folds as F2.

11 Both the Islay Anticline and the Loch Awe Syncline were regarded
12 by Bailey as secondary folds but almost all subsequent workers have
13 interpreted them as primary (e.g. Cummins and Shackleton, 1955;
14 Shackleton, 1958; Rast, 1963; Borradaile, 1973; Roberts, 1974;
15 Roberts and Treagus, 1977c; Litherland, 1982). Roberts and Treagus
16 correlated the Islay Anticline with the Airds Hill and Kinlochleven
17 anticlines, and the Loch Awe Syncline with the Beinn Don and
18 Ballachulish synclines. However, those correlations involve
19 considerable deflections of the fold axial traces and Litherland
20 (1982) suggested alternative, more-direct correlations. He
21 correlated the Islay Anticline with the *Glen Creran Anticline*, and
22 the Loch Awe Syncline with the *Beinn Sgulaire Syncline* of upper
23 Glen Creran.

24 The correlation of major slides in the west of the Central
25 Grampian Highlands has been the subject of much speculation,
26 especially when they were thought to separate fundamental
27 tectonostratigraphical units. On Islay, the Islay Anticline
28 over-rides the Bowmore Sandstone along the *Loch Skerrols Thrust*,
29 which was formerly equated with the Moine Thrust (Bailey 1917,
30 1922; Kennedy, 1946). Later authors projected the Loch Skerrols
31 Thrust north-eastwards into the *Benderloch Slide* at Loch Creran,
32 which Bailey (1922) had correlated directly across the Etive Pluton
33 with the Boundary Slide of the Central Grampian Highlands, to form
34 what was later to become known as the '*Ilta Boundary Slide*'
35 (MacGregor, 1948; Rast, 1963). Subsequently, Rast and Litherland
36 (1970) proposed that the Benderloch Slide could be extended
37 north-eastwards beyond the Ballachulish Pluton to continue as the
38 Ballachulish Slide (Figure 1.7, block B). The latter is folded
39 around the closure of the F2 Stob Ban Synform and trends back
40 southwards to Glen Etive, from where Roberts and Treagus (1977c),
41 following Bailey, linked it across the Etive Pluton with a slide in
42 the Dalmally area, to propose once again a single, continuous
43 Boundary Slide. Whatever their connections and correlations might
44 be, the slides in this western area are clearly folded by F2 folds.
45 Hence their initiation and main movement must have been early, and
46 Litherland (1982) suggested that the Benderloch Slide could have
47 been a re-activated synsedimentary fault. However, intense local
48 re-activation of slides in the Dalmally area is compatible with the
49 dominant D2 movements elsewhere along the Boundary Slide (Roberts
50 and Treagus, 1975).

51 52 53 54 55 **1.5.6 Corrieyairack, Strathspey and the Monadhliath** 56 **Mountains**

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58 Metasedimentary successions in this area of the Northern Grampian
59 Highlands consist almost entirely of rocks of the Grampian Group
60 and the Badenoch Group.
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4 To the south-east and east of the Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt,
5 structures are comparable to and share a common history of
6 structural development with those described above in the overlying
7 Atholl Nappe (Lindsay *et al.*, 1989). This structural continuity
8 was used as an argument for including the Grampian Group in the
9 Dalradian, in accord with the proposal of Harris *et al.* (1978),
10 based largely on stratigraphical continuity.

11 To the west and north-west of the steep belt and its projected
12 continuation, many of the major structures are downward
13 continuations of those that affect higher structural and
14 stratigraphical levels of the Dalradian to the south and
15 south-west, and hence the phases of deformation are broadly
16 comparable.

17 Semipelites and micaceous tops to graded psammitic beds in the
18 Grampian Group commonly show an early schistosity, usually
19 subparallel to or steeper than bedding, which is clearly folded by
20 the major folds and is assumed to represent S1. In the area around
21 Loch Killin and the Corrieyairack Pass, Haselock *et al.* (1982) also
22 recognized stratigraphical repetitions and minor structures, which
23 suggested the presence of major early isoclines, refolded by the
24 major more-upright regional folds. A similar structural pattern
25 was recorded in the area between the Corrieyairack Pluton and Loch
26 Laggan by Okonkwo (1988). However, major F1 folds cannot be
27 identified anywhere north-east of Glen Roy and the Strath Ossian
28 Pluton (Key *et al.*, 1997).

29 These areas are dominated by near-upright NE-trending F2 folds
30 that face to the north-west, such as the *Tarff Antiform-Synform*
31 *pair*, the *Corrieyairack Synform* and the *Creag Mhor Anticline*
32 (Haselock *et al.*, 1982; Key *et al.*, 1997; May and Highton, 1997).
33 Their axes are typically gently inclined to subhorizontal,
34 curvilinear and are associated with a prominent lineation. Farther
35 east, in the upper Findhorn area, the major folds, such as the *Loch*
36 *Laggan Anticline* and the *Loch Laggan - Monadhliath Syncline-*
37 *complex*, become tight to isoclinal and, together with the
38 Corrieyairack Syncline, were originally interpreted as primary
39 structures (Anderson, 1956; Piasecki, 1975).

40 The earliest recognizable folds to affect most of the Grampian
41 Group (F2) are associated locally with high-strain zones and
42 slides, which are particularly abundant close to the contact with
43 the 'basement' of the Badenoch Group (e.g. the *Lochindorb Shear-*
44 *zone*). In the west, between Loch Lochy and Loch Tarff, the *Eilrig*
45 *Shear-zone* brings younger Grampian Group rocks to rest upon the
46 Glenshirra Subgroup (Phillips *et al.*, 1993; Key *et al.*, 1997).
47 Microstructures indicate a consistent NW-directed sense of shear
48 and the metamorphic state changes from amphibolite facies above to
49 greenschist facies below the shear-zone. Phillips *et al.* (1993)
50 suggested that this shear-zone might represent the surface
51 expression of a major basal decollement or floor thrust to many of
52 the structurally higher slides and shear-zones.

53 In places, the D2 structures are indistinguishable from those of
54 similar-style F3 folds. However, in the area between Killin, Farr
55 and upper Glen Kyllachy, D3 structures consist of near-upright open
56 folds with axes generally trending around north-south (Piasecki,
57 1975; Haselock *et al.*, 1982) (see Figure 5.2b). Minor structures
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4 and fabrics of this phase dominate the area, overprinting and
5 commonly obliterating the earlier structures.

6 A major structural feature of the Northern Grampian Highlands is
7 a 3-4 km-wide zone that extends almost normal to the Caledonian
8 regional trend from the Foyers Pluton, through Kincaig, to the
9 eastern end of the Cairngorm Pluton. Within this zone, bedding,
10 foliation and F1 and F2 axial surface traces become south-east
11 trending and the upright to sideways-facing folds verge towards the
12 south-west. The change in trend of the major folds from north-east
13 to south-east (see Figure 5.2b) was recognized and investigated in
14 the area between Kincaig and Newtonmore by Whitten (1959) in a
15 detailed petrofabric study of the minor structures, which concluded
16 that the two trends represent a single generation of folds. Later
17 NW-trending open domes (?F4) have a considerable influence on the
18 local outcrop pattern, around Kincaig for example, and expose
19 inliers of Badenoch Group basement. Hence Smith *et al.* (1999) have
20 suggested that the SE-trending zone, which they termed the *Foyers-*
21 *Cairngorm Lineament*, is founded upon a series of basement 'highs'
22 (see Figure 5.2a), which influenced the orientation of fold axes
23 within the shallow cover of Grampian Group strata.

24 To the south-west, between the Allt Crom Complex and the
25 Corrieyairack Pluton, the broad arch of the post-D2 (?F3)
26 Glenshirra Dome has a trace that swings from east to north-east
27 (see Figure 5.19). The dome exposes an inlier of the Glenshirra
28 Subgroup and both Haselock *et al.* (1982) and Okonkwo (1988)
29 recognized a zone of high strain between it and the overlying
30 Corrieyairack Subgroup, which they termed the *Gairbeinn Slide* and
31 attributed to D1. However, recent investigations have concluded
32 that the high strain is focused at the boundary between contrasting
33 lithologies within a conformable succession and can be attributed
34 to D2 (Smith *et al.*, 1999).
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38 **1.5.6.1 Structures affecting the Badenoch Group**

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40 The tectonic relationships between the Grampian Group and the
41 Badenoch Group have been discussed in detail elsewhere in this
42 chapter. The current view advocates that the largely migmatitic
43 Badenoch Group constitutes an older basement beneath a cover of
44 Grampian Group metasedimentary rocks and consequently that they
45 have undergone more phases of deformation and metamorphism
46 (Piasecki and van Breemen, 1979a, 1979b, 1983; Piasecki, 1980;
47 Piasecki and Temperley, 1988a; Smith *et al.*, 1999).
48

49
50 **1.5.6.1.1 The Grampian Shear-zone** The boundary between the
51 Grampian Group and the Badenoch Group was formerly taken at a
52 complex zone of shearing and dislocation, up to 200 m in thickness,
53 known then as the 'Grampian Slide' or 'Slide-zone' (Figure 1.7, blocks
54 E and F). Minor slides occur locally both above and below this
55 zone and the slides appear to anastomose on a regional scale. It
56 is now thought that the major slides, and certainly those that
57 contain syntectonic pegmatitic veins dated at c. 806 Ma, are all
58 within the Badenoch Group. However, the effects of later shearing
59 are thought to have extended structurally downwards from the
60 Grampian Group into the basement rocks and hence the Neoproterozoic
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4 ductile slides in the Grampian Shear-zone were reworked strongly in
5 places during the Grampian Event. The main reworking is regarded
6 as D2 in the structural sequence identified in the Grampian Group,
7 since the shear fabrics are parallel to the axial surfaces of near-
8 isoclinal folds that fold an earlier fabric assumed to represent
9 D1.

10 Individual shear-zones range from a few centimetres up to several
11 tens of metres thick and are characterized by intense grain-size
12 reduction, destruction of pre-existing gneissose and migmatitic
13 foliations, attenuation of minor folds, and muscovite growth. They
14 commonly follow lithological boundaries and movement is
15 concentrated locally within pelitic units. A variety of kinematic
16 indicators indicate a mainly top-to-the-north or -north-east sense
17 of shear.
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20 *1.5.6.1.2 Structures below the Grampian shear-zone* Most
21 parts of the Badenoch Group are characterized by a penetrative
22 gneissose fabric, which is folded by tight to isoclinal, recumbent
23 folds. The gneissose fabric is generally concordant with broad
24 compositional banding, which might represent original bedding. No
25 major F1 folds have been recognized but rare intrafolial folds and
26 local low-angle discordance between the gneissose fabric and
27 compositional banding suggest that early large-scale recumbent
28 structures do exist. This deformation is considered to be broadly
29 coeval with middle- to upper-amphibolite-facies metamorphism and
30 regional migmatization.
31

32 The early gneissose fabric of the Badenoch Group successions is
33 crenulated and transposed by the S1 schistosity that affects the
34 Grampian Group rocks, which is associated with a later generation
35 of lit-par-lit migmatites in lithologies of suitable composition.

36 The outcrop pattern is controlled largely by intermediate-scale
37 folds. In areas of low strain these structures are recumbent to
38 reclined, with a well-developed axial planar crenulation cleavage.
39 In areas of intense deformation the earlier gneissose fabric
40 becomes transposed into the crenulation fabric to produce a new
41 banding. A larger-scale recumbent fold in the Kincaig area, has a
42 NNW-trending outcrop of Glen Banchor Subgroup rocks in its core;
43 its axis trends north-east and it closes to the north-west. All of
44 these folds were regarded by Piasecki (1980) and Piasecki and
45 Temperley (1988a) as affecting only the basement rocks, but are now
46 considered to be part of the D2 phase in the Grampian Group
47 structural sequence. Several phases of later near-upright folding
48 recognized locally in the basement by Piasecki (1980) were
49 correlated with the later deformations in the Grampian Group.
50

51 **1.5.7 The Banff and Buchan area**

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54 The Banff and Buchan area of the North-east Grampian Highlands is
55 bounded to the west and south by major shear-zones and it is
56 distinguished from the remainder of the Scottish Dalradian by
57 different stratigraphical, metamorphic, igneous and geophysical
58 features. The western boundary of this *Buchan Block* is marked by
59 the *Portsoy-Duchray Hill Lineament*, a major tectonic and
60 stratigraphical boundary with a long history of extensional,
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4 transtensional, compressional and transpressional activity, which
5 can be traced from the north coast to the Glen Shee area (Fettes *et*
6 *al.*, 1986, Goodman, 1994). Major stratigraphical discontinuities
7 occur at the lineament (Fettes *et al.*, 1991) and marked differences
8 in metamorphic history on each side indicate major westward
9 overthrusting during the regional D3 event (Baker, 1987;
10 Beddoe-Stephens, 1990). The lineament also appears to have acted
11 as a pathway for magma at various times, influencing the
12 emplacement of both basic and silicic sheet intrusions. The
13 southern margin of the Buchan Block is more difficult to define.
14 It extends at least as far as the granitic plutons of Deeside but
15 farther south the stratigraphical and structural features merge
16 with those of the Highland Border region through an imbricated zone
17 of east-west-trending shear-zones.
18

19 Various zones of shearing and dislocation on the western margin of
20 the Buchan Block have been used to define its limit (see Chapter 6,
21 Introduction). On the eastern edge of the Cowhythe Psammite
22 Formation outcrop, a zone of highly deformed rocks marks the
23 position of the *Boyne Line* of Read (1955), which was interpreted as
24 a major slide underlying his proposed Banff Nappe. From the
25 western margin of the Cowhythe Formation, a sub-vertical zone of
26 shearing and faulting extends through Portsoy westwards for over
27 1 km. This *Portsoy Shear-zone*, which can be traced inland in a
28 general southerly direction to the Cabrach area, is the main
29 surface expression of the northern section of the *Portsoy-Duchray*
30 *Hill Lineament*.
31

32 To the west of the Portsoy-Duchray Hill Lineament, Appin and
33 Argyll group rocks are involved in a series of NW-facing folds,
34 which can be traced down sequence into the underlying Grampian
35 Group. There would appear to be no equivalent to the Boundary
36 Slide in the coast section, although high strain along this
37 boundary does occur in Glen Rinnes, 40 km to the south-west. On the
38 east side of the Buchan Block, recumbent folds which might be
39 correlated with those of the Tay Nappe have been identified in
40 sections around Collieston (see above). However, the Buchan Block
41 is dominated by late, open, broad, upright folds with gently
42 NNE-plunging axes, principally the *Turriff Syncline* and *Buchan*
43 *Anticline*, within which the upper parts of the Dalradian succession
44 occur in right-way-up sequences (see Chapter 6 for a full
45 discussion).
46

47 Early interpretations regarded the Banff and Buchan Dalradian
48 succession as part of an allochthonous, recumbent, SE-facing 'Banff
49 Nappe' (Read, 1923, 1955; Read and Farquhar, 1956) and other
50 authors have suggested that the nappe and its underlying gneissose
51 'basement' are all allochthonous (Sturt *et al.*, 1977; Ramsay and
52 Sturt, 1979). However, current interpretations suggest that the
53 structures are essentially autochthonous and that successions can
54 be correlated, at least at subgroup level, with those farther to
55 the south-west (see Chapter 6, *Introduction*).
56

57 Along the north coast the rocks exhibit locally complex folding
58 with steep dips over much of the section, but regionally they are
59 disposed in the form of a broad, open syncline, the Turriff
60 Syncline. The western limb of the syncline is steep due to a
61 related monoform, termed the *Boyndie Syncline* and to the east it
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4 passes into the broad Buchan Anticline. An inlier of gneissose
5 rocks in the hinge of the anticline was thought by Read and
6 Farquhar (1956) to be in the core of the Banff Nappe, which others
7 have equated tentatively with the Tay Nappe (Treagus and Roberts,
8 1981; Ashcroft *et al.*, 1984).
9

10 The attitude and style of the consistently upward-facing F1 folds
11 varies according to structural level, being generally upright and
12 open to close at the highest levels in the centre of the late
13 Turriff Syncline and generally close to tight on both limbs, where
14 they face to the north-west, contrary to Read's (1955) model of a
15 SE-facing nappe. Post-D1 structures are restricted to lower
16 structural levels and hence are seen only on the western and
17 eastern limbs of the Turriff Syncline. D2 folds and fabrics are
18 dominant locally, as in the area around Portsoy. The D3
19 deformation, which post-dates the peak of metamorphism, is
20 represented by westerly verging, small- to medium-scale folds with
21 limits that almost coincide with the andalusite isograd (Figure
22 6.3a). Larger-scale F3 folds are characteristically monoclinial, as
23 in the Boyndie Syncline. The major Turriff Syncline and Buchan
24 Anticline have been tentatively attributed to the D3 phase by most
25 authors, although their overall open and upright character is more
26 comparable with major D4 structures elsewhere.
27

28 One of the most striking features of both stratigraphical and
29 structural maps of the Grampian Highlands is the 20 km-amplitude
30 'S'-shaped 'knee-bend' in the strata in the area between Braemar
31 and Tomintoul (e.g. Figures 1.1, 1.7, block E, 6.1). The reasons
32 for this major feature are obscure, since there are no obvious
33 associated minor folds or cleavages developed. It is clearly a
34 late structure, as all of the folds and dislocations in the area,
35 including the Portsoy-Duchray Hill Lineament, are folded around it.
36 Such a large-scale structure must reflect deep crustal weaknesses
37 and might reflect crustal block movements in the later stages of
38 the Caledonian Orogeny. It is curious that both axial traces of
39 the 'Knee-bend' appear to be marked by E-W-trending lines of late-
40 Caledonian granitic plutons, the southern one roughly coinciding
41 with the Deeside Lineament.
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44 **1.5.8 Structural development of the Grampian** 45 **Highlands** 46

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48 In most areas of the Grampian Highlands the structural development
49 of the Dalradian has been explained in terms of three or four major
50 episodes or phases of deformation (D1-4), all of which occurred
51 during the Caledonian Orogeny. Pre-Caledonian events are recorded
52 only in the Badenoch Group and the Rhinns Complex. During the
53 first widespread Caledonian deformation (D1), close to tight major
54 folds were initiated with a north-east-south-west axial trend. The
55 D1 structures are widespread but were commonly transposed during
56 later events and hence are difficult to detect except in the south-
57 west and south-east. Metamorphism at this stage did not exceed
58 greenschist facies. D2 structures affect almost all Dalradian
59 strata except for those at the highest structural levels, close to
60 the Highland Boundary Fault. During D2 the F1 folds were
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4 extensively modified, either by near-co-axial refolding or, at
5 deeper levels, by simple shear on a regional scale. Much of the
6 observed high strain and/or displacement along major slides can be
7 attributed to the D2 phase, although the slides might have been
8 initiated earlier, during D1 or as synsedimentary growth faults. A
9 separate D3 phase of generally more-upright folding can be
10 identified in most areas, except within about 5–10 km of the
11 Highland Boundary Fault. It is broadly coincident with the peak of
12 regional metamorphism and associated igneous intrusion, although it
13 might be a little later in some areas, particularly in the north-
14 east. Various late-tectonic phases overprint the composite
15 foliations of the early nappes and the F2 and F3 fold-complexes.
16 The most widespread, D4 structures are within the Highland Border
17 Steep Belt and the Buchan Block but still-later phases occur
18 locally. They are all separated from the earlier movements by a
19 significant time gap and seem to be the result of a change in
20 tectonic regime from ductile folding to basement fracture and block
21 uplift, possibly coeval with but not necessarily resulting from the
22 Scandian (Baltica–Laurentia) collision.
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25 **1.5.8.1 Early crustal shortening (D1)**

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27 The early regional syntheses of E.B. Bailey and others established
28 that the Dalradian strata are disposed in large-scale recumbent
29 folds or nappes that originated early in the deformational
30 sequence. The mechanism of nappe development was not considered at
31 that time, apart from an 'eddy' theory in which NW-directed movements
32 in the lower structural levels are compensated by movements in the
33 opposite direction at higher levels (Bailey, 1938). South-eastward
34 gravity sliding of the higher nappes was proposed by Cummins and
35 Shackleton (1955) and has subsequently been invoked by several
36 authors in conjunction with various models (e.g. Bradbury *et al.*,
37 1979; Shackleton, 1979; Anderton, 1988) (Figure 1.10c). However,
38 the first overall models involved the concept of a root-zone, from
39 which nappes were expelled laterally in opposing directions (Sturt,
40 1961; Harris, 1963; Rast, 1963; Thomas, 1979, 1980) (Figure 1.10a).
41 These were refined into models in which essentially upright major
42 folds fanned outwards as 'mushroom' or 'fountain' structures above the
43 root-zone and then 'collapsed' under gravity in a continuous process
44 to produce the recumbent structures (Roberts and Treagus, 1977c,
45 1979; Nell, 1986; Treagus, 1987) (Figure 1.10b). The later models
46 emphasized the importance of north-westerly directed movements,
47 particularly on such structures as the Ballachulish and Boundary
48 slides, possibly rising from a fundamental 'floor thrust' (Bradbury,
49 1985; Mendum and Fettes, 1985; Nell, 1986; L.M. Hall in Fettes *et*
50 *al.*, 1986; Treagus 1987) (Figure 1.10d). Thus, despite the
51 apparent dominance of the SE-facing Tay Nappe, overall movement in
52 the Grampian Highlands was considered to be to the north-west, and
53 hence the structural development of the whole Scottish Caledonides
54 could be modelled as a complete entity from the Highland Border to
55 the Moine Thrust Belt, where Caledonian structures over-ride the
56 foreland (e.g. Coward, 1983; Fettes *et al.*, 1986). All of the
57 above models have been summarized by Stephenson and Gould (1995,
58 pp. 102–107), from where Figure 1.10 has been taken.
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4 The overall concept of a root-zone and a 'mushroom' or upright
5 'fountain' of primary folds has fallen out of favour. Most authors
6 find it difficult to imagine major nappes being expelled in this
7 manner from such a narrow zone, either laterally or vertically, and
8 root-like F1 folds are difficult to identify with any certainty in
9 the complex steep belts (e.g. Shackleton, 1979; Coward, 1983).
10 There is no direct evidence regarding the original attitude of the
11 F1 folds (i.e. upright or recumbent) and current conflicting views
12 are dependent upon how they are seen to relate in particular to the
13 development of the Tay Nappe (see below).
14

15 **1.5.8.2 Peak deformation (D2)**

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18 The history of development of the Tay Nappe is central to all
19 interpretations of the overall evolution of the Grampian Highlands
20 and is a matter of continuing discussion. It is possible that SE-
21 facing folds, such as the Tay Nappe, originated as primary (D1)
22 structures, in which case the F1 folds were most likely to have
23 been recumbent and tight to isoclinal (e.g. Mendum and Fettes,
24 1985; Mendum and Thomas, 1997). However, other authors have
25 considered that their current geometry and facing direction is a
26 result of subsequent deformation during the D2 phase. Both
27 backward gravitational collapse of an upright 'nappe fountain'
28 (Roberts and Treagus, 1977a, 1977c; Treagus, 1987; Figure 1.10b)
29 and large-scale isoclinal backfolding of an original NW-facing Tay
30 Nappe (L.M. Hall in Fettes *et al.*, 1986; Figure 1.10d) have been
31 suggested. New fold hinges formed by either of these mechanisms
32 became F2 folds, such as the the Ben Lui Fold-complex, which has
33 the overall effect of 'righting' the inverted limb of the Tay Nappe.
34

35 However, most authors now agree that the D2 deformation was almost
36 continuous with D1 as part of a single progressive event and had a
37 high simple-shear component. Nell (1986), Treagus (1987) and
38 Anderton (1988) all suggested that the F2 folds were overturned
39 towards the north-west at deep structural levels where they were
40 associated with NW-directed simple shear along the Boundary Slide
41 and related dislocations. At higher levels, the upright F1 folds
42 became translated by SE-directed simple shear, also of D2 age, to
43 produce the intense deformation of the inverted limb of the Tay
44 Nappe in the Flat Belt as described by Harris *et al.* (1976) (echoes
45 of the 'eddy' theory of Bailey, 1938).
46

47 Most current models for the development of the Tay Nappe invoke
48 near-upright compressional F1 folds, the lower levels of which were
49 subjected to top-to-the-south-east simple shear as a result of
50 north-westward subduction beneath the Laurentian margin (e.g.
51 Krabbendam *et al.*, 1997; Treagus, 1999; Rose and Harris, 2000). At
52 higher levels the upright F1 folds were little affected by the D2
53 deformation, except that they might have developed a south-east
54 vergence (P.W.G. Tanner, personal communication, 2008). They are
55 preserved only in the Aberfoyle Anticline and equivalent folds in
56 the Highland Border Steep Belt. At lower levels, the originally
57 SE-facing limbs became the dominant long limbs of shear-folds,
58 giving the impression of being part of a single inverted lower limb
59 of a large-scale nappe (see Figure 1.11). Krabbendam *et al.* (1997)
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4 estimated the structural thickness affected by the shear to be 4-5
5 km, with a displacement of 10-50 km.

6 In areas to the north-west of the Tay Nappe, the F1 folds were
7 considerably modified by generally co-axial F2 folding, which is
8 particularly well developed above the Boundary Slide and in the
9 various steep belts. To the north-west of the Geal-charn-Ossian
10 Steep Belt, NW-facing nappes, such as the Ballachulish Nappe, were
11 refolded into upright folds such as the Stob Ban Synform. However,
12 most of the F2 folds were originally recumbent and verged to the
13 north-west. They are typically close to isoclinal and are almost
14 always associated with the dominant foliation (S2), which varies
15 from pressure-solution striping to crenulation, schistosity or
16 gneissosity, depending on lithology, metamorphic grade and amount
17 of strain. Extremely strong fabrics, some submylonitic, in high-
18 strain zones on the attenuated limbs of large-scale F2 folds are
19 continuous with the penetrative S2 fabrics, confirming the D2
20 affinities of major slides, most of which moved in a top-to-north-
21 west thrust sense during this phase. The stacking produced by the
22 D2 refolding and thrusting resulted in considerable crustal
23 thickening that eventually led to the classic Barrovian
24 metamorphism.
25

26 27 **1.5.8.3 Waning deformation and peak metamorphism (D3)**

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29 The D3 deformation phase is dominated by more-upright structures
30 that are particularly well represented in the various steep belts
31 such as the Tummel Steep Belt. They formed under lower to middle
32 amphibolite-facies conditions, and were associated with locally
33 high temperatures producing minor granitic melts and pegmatitic
34 segregations. The F3 folds clearly fold the dominant S2 fabrics
35 and vary from open to tight, with moderately inclined to vertical
36 axial planes. Axial planes and fold axes display highly variable
37 orientations; in many places the F3 folds are co-axial with F2
38 folds, but elsewhere they developed at right angles, as in the Carn
39 Dallaig Transfer Zone near Kirkmichael, and spectacular non-co-
40 axial interference structures are seen in some areas.
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43 **1.5.8.4 Post-nappe deformation and uplift (D4 and** 44 **later)**

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46 The later phases of Caledonian deformation were, with notable local
47 exceptions, generally less intense and produced more-open, near-
48 upright structures trending between east-north-east and north-east.
49 These take the form of broad upright folds, chevron-style minor
50 folds, crenulations and brittle structures; well-developed axial
51 planar fabrics are generally seen only in hinge-zones. The
52 numbering of later phases is frequently inconsistent and is
53 complicated by local variations (see for example the scheme adopted
54 by Treagus, 2000 to identify late phases in the area north of
55 Schiehallion, which uses local letters rather than regional
56 numbers). However, most authors are agreed upon the existence of a
57 late, D4 phase that is associated with retrograde metamorphism.
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59 The D4 phase probably included more than just one type of tectonic
60 mechanism but most authors have attributed the initial, most
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4 widespread D4 deformation to the commencement of late-orogenic
5 isostatic uplift (Watson, 1984; Harte *et al.*, 1984; Mendum and
6 Fettes, 1985; Dempster, 1985a). The scale, monoformal nature and
7 lateral continuity of many of the earlier F4 folds, especially the
8 Highland Border Downbend, suggest that they are controlled by a
9 parallel series of major basement lineaments. Between these
10 lineaments episodic uplift of crustal blocks at different rates
11 generated the pattern of contrasting flat and steep belts which now
12 dominates the south-eastern Grampian Highlands.
13

14 The Highland Border Downbend is the largest and most obvious D4
15 structure and is responsible for the downturning of the hinge-zone
16 and part of the lower limb of the Tay Nappe into the Highland
17 Border Steep Belt. The D4 deformation is also probably responsible
18 for the steepening of major F2 and F3 fold limbs in the Knapdale,
19 Tummel and Cairnwell steep belts. In the North-east Grampian
20 Highlands, the Turriff Syncline, Buchan Anticline and other late
21 NE- to NNE-trending open to close folds are regarded as D4,
22 although they are often difficult to separate from D3 structures.
23 Renewed movements at this time on major shear-zones such as the
24 Portsoy Shear-zone, probably resulted in further disruption and re-
25 orientation of intrusions of the North-east Grampian Basic Suite.
26

27 Minor folds and crenulation cleavages that overprint the earlier
28 D4 major flexures locally, can be traced north-westwards across the
29 Flat Belt, where they are seen to be related to broad, upright
30 folds such as the Ben Lawers Synform (termed F3 by Treagus, 1987,
31 2000). These are taken to indicate a later D4 compressional phase
32 which post-dates the earlier D4 uplift event. Roberts and Treagus
33 (1977c, 1979) and Treagus (1987) also considered that the
34 Drummochter and Glen Orchy domes are late-D4 compressional
35 structures (i.e. their D3).
36

37 Other late major folds, such as the Bohespic Antiform and Errochty
38 Synform, north of Schiehallion, which have a more north-south
39 trend, were attributed to D4 (his D3) by Thomas (1979, 1980). They
40 were considered to belong to a post-D4 phase (i.e. post his D3) by
41 Treagus (1987) but were then re-interpreted as pre-dating D4 (his
42 D3) by Treagus (2000). Whatever their relative age might be, they
43 form part of a set of major north- to NNE-trending folds between
44 the Ericht-Laidon and Loch Tay faults, which Treagus (1991) related
45 to the initiation of sinistral movement on the faults. Refolding
46 and overprinting by more-definitely later fabrics are generally
47 only of local extent and tend to be small-scale, brittle open box
48 folds and conjugate kink-zones. However, significant NW-trending
49 flexures and monofolds affect the limbs of the Errochty Synform
50 (Thomas, 1980; Treagus, 2000), and Roberts (1974) described a
51 complex sequence of late structures from the South-west Grampian
52 Highlands.
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54 **1.6 METAMORPHISM OF THE GRAMPIAN HIGHLANDS**

55 ***D.J. Fettes and A.G. Leslie***

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58 The metamorphic grade expressed in the Dalradian rocks of the
59 Grampian Highlands was initially referred to index minerals in
60 pelitic rocks. Barrow (1893, 1912), working in the south-east of
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4 the Grampian Highlands, was the first to establish a zonal sequence
5 in such rocks, indicative of progressive metamorphic grade. This
6 scheme, slightly modified by Tilley (1925), became the classical
7 Barrovian zones (chlorite → biotite → garnet → staurolite →
8 kyanite → sillimanite). Subsequently, Read (1952) recognized a
9 different style of metamorphism in the North-east Grampian
10 Highlands, characterized by a progressive mineral sequence, which
11 he termed the Buchan zones (biotite → cordierite → andalusite →
12 sillimanite). The overall pattern of metamorphic zonation across
13 the Grampian Highlands was established principally by Elles and
14 Tilley (1930), Kennedy (1948), Chinner (1966), Dewey and Pankhurst
15 (1970) and Winchester (1974) and comprehensive summaries of the
16 metamorphic reactions that define the boundaries of the metamorphic
17 zones were provided by Atherton (1977), Harte and Hudson (1979) and
18 Hudson (1980). Although these workers all made use of zonation in
19 pelitic and calc-silicate rocks, the metamorphic grade is more-
20 generally illustrated by the broader concept of metamorphic facies,
21 which is applicable to all lithologies (Fettes *et al.*, 1985; Harte,
22 1988). The basis of the correlation between the mineral zones and
23 the range of facies was given by Fettes *et al.* (1985).

24
25 Read (1952) regarded the Barrovian and Buchan metamorphisms as
26 quite separate events. However, Johnson (1962, 1963) demonstrated
27 that the two metamorphisms were coeval relative to the deformation
28 sequence, a conclusion subsequently supported by radiometric dates
29 (Oliver *et al.*, 2000). Fettes *et al.* (1976) demonstrated that the
30 Buchan zones are part of a progressive decrease in the pressure of
31 metamorphism (or increase in the geothermal gradient) from the
32 South-west to the North-east Grampian Highlands. The transition
33 from the Barrovian to the Buchan areas was detailed by Harte and
34 Hudson (1979), who defined a series of four zonal sequences
35 reflecting decreasing pressure, namely: *Barrovian* (biotite → garnet
36 → staurolite → kyanite → sillimanite), *Stonehavian* (biotite →
37 garnet → chloritoid + biotite → staurolite → sillimanite, *West*
38 *Buchan* (biotite → cordierite → andalusite → staurolite → kyanite)
39 and *East Buchan* (biotite → cordierite → andalusite → sillimanite
40 → sillimanite + K-feldspar). That is, the transition from
41 Barrovian zonal sequences to Buchan sequences occurs both
42 northwards along the Stonehaven coast and eastwards along the
43 Banffshire coast. Strictly, the Buchan sequence as defined by Read
44 (1952) is restricted to eastern Aberdeenshire. However, the term
45 Buchan metamorphism is commonly used for the area of low-P/T type,
46 that is the West Buchan and East Buchan sequences of Harte and
47 Hudson (1979). Similarly the type area of Barrovian metamorphism
48 is the Angus glens and eastern Perthshire, although the term is
49 commonly used to describe the wider area of intermediate-P/T type
50 (see below).

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53 The above studies clearly indicate that the Buchan and Barrovian
54 sequences are expressions of the variable pressure-temperature
55 conditions, in both space and time, of the Grampian Event; the two
56 sequences are broadly synchronous and are not separate or
57 dissociated metamorphisms.

58 The metamorphic history of the Dalradian rocks on the Shetland
59 Isles and its timing relative to Caledonian deformation is
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4 difficult to correlate with that of the Grampian Highlands and is
5 discussed separately in the introduction to Chapter 7.
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7 **1.6.1 Distribution of facies**

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9 The distribution of metamorphic facies is shown in Figure 1.12.
10 This shows the general increase in grade from greenschist facies in
11 the South-west Grampian Highlands, north-eastwards through the
12 epidote-amphibolite facies to predominantly amphibolite facies;
13 greenschist-facies assemblages wedge out as two arms running,
14 respectively, along the Highland Boundary and Great Glen faults.
15 The greater part of the higher grade rocks lie in the lower
16 amphibolite facies, characterized by kyanite + staurolite and
17 andalusite + cordierite assemblages. In the Northern and North-
18 eastern Grampian Highlands the rocks reach middle and upper
19 amphibolite-facies conditions, characterized by sillimanite +
20 muscovite and sillimanite + K-feldspar assemblages. Superimposed
21 on the main metamorphic facies from Loch Tay to Kintyre is a
22 regional zone marked by the development of late-stage albite
23 porphyroblasts (Watkins, 1983).
24

25 Some earlier zonal maps differentiated areas of 'migmatites' (e.g.
26 Dewey and Pankhurst, 1970; Fettes, 1979). These rocks are
27 characterized by the presence of quartzofeldspathic lenses, pods or
28 stringers and are generally associated with sillimanite-bearing
29 amphibolite-facies rocks. Barrow (1912) originally considered the
30 migmatites as the heat source for the metamorphism, a view echoed
31 by Kennedy (1948) and Read (1955). However subsequent studies have
32 shown that the 'migmatites' encompass a variety of products
33 including coarse sillimanite gneisses and true anatexitic melts
34 (e.g. Atherton, 1977; Ashworth, 1976, 1979). These products were
35 derived by a range of relatively high-grade metamorphic and
36 metasomatic processes, and the presence or absence of 'migmatites'
37 at the local scale is largely controlled by the chemical
38 composition of the host lithologies. As such, 'migmatites' can be
39 regarded as by-products of high-grade metamorphism with no direct
40 significance in terms of the pattern of metamorphic facies.
41

42 The boundaries of the facies, or the regional isograd surfaces,
43 are broadly flat lying over the greater part of the Northern and
44 Central Grampian Highlands but steepen markedly against the
45 Highland Boundary Fault, particularly in the east towards
46 Stonehaven. This pattern of facies and facies boundaries led
47 Kennedy (1948) to propose the concept of a 'thermal anticline'
48 whose core is marked by the higher grade rocks and which plunges
49 south-westwards. The distribution of the metamorphic facies is now
50 generally considered to represent the peak conditions during the
51 Grampian Event. Although there is evidence of a pre-Grampian
52 (Knoydartian) regional metamorphic event in the Badenoch Group, no
53 evidence of overprinting consistent with polyorogenic metamorphism
54 has been identified in the facies pattern in Dalradian strata. No
55 regionally significant areas of retrogressive metamorphism are
56 present.
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4 **1.6.2 Age of metamorphism and relationship to**
5 **ductile deformation**
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8 Elles and Tilley (1930) suggested that the metamorphism was broadly
9 coeval with the early deformation, but that no metamorphism
10 accompanied the later folds, which demonstrably fold the isograd
11 surfaces. Later workers placed emphasis on the textural
12 relationship between porphyroblast growth and deformational fabrics
13 (e.g. Rast, 1958; Sturt and Harris, 1961; Johnson, 1962, 1963;
14 Harte and Johnson, 1969). This work broadly showed that growth
15 started during the early deformation and that the peak took place
16 after the main nappe-forming or crustal thickening phases but
17 before the later uplift phases, that is syn-D2 to late-D3 (Strachan
18 *et al.*, 2002). The late deformation was accompanied by only limited
19 and localized retrogression, due to relatively rapid uplift of the
20 succession.

21 A maximum age for the metamorphism is given by the age of the
22 youngest rocks that have been affected, namely the top of the
23 Trossachs Group, which Tanner and Sutherland (2007) gave as early
24 Arenig (*c.* 477 Ma). The later stages of metamorphism in the North-
25 east Grampian Highlands are given by a series of dates on syn- to
26 late-metamorphic intrusions, such as the Strichen Granite (473 Ma,
27 Oliver *et al.*, 2000), the Inch Pluton of the North-east Grampian
28 Basic Suite (470 Ma, Dempster *et al.*, 2002) and the Aberdeen
29 Granite (470 Ma, Kneller and Aftalion, 1987). A minimum age is
30 given by dates from post-metamorphic granites such as Kennethmont
31 at 457 Ma (Oliver *et al.*, 2008). This accords with dates of 473-
32 465 Ma for garnet growth (roughly from syn-D2 to syn-D3) in Glen
33 Clova given by Baxter *et al.* (2002). Baxter *et al.* further
34 proposed that the peak conditions in the kyanite, sillmanite and
35 garnet zones were effectively synchronous.
36

37 In the Northern Grampian Highlands, the age of the metamorphism
38 has been given as 470-450 Ma based on U-Pb monazite ages by
39 Barreiro (quoted by Phillips *et al.*, 1999).
40

41 Although conditions and exact timing varied across the Dalradian
42 belt, in general metamorphism, that is porphyroblast growth, lasted
43 about 10 Ma from *c.* 474 to *c.* 464 Ma, with peak conditions around
44 470 Ma. This accords with a date for peak conditions for Grampian
45 tectonothermal events in Connemara in western Ireland of *c.* 470 Ma
46 (Friedrich *et al.*, 1999).
47

48 In the Grampian Highlands the main metamorphism was rapidly
49 followed by cooling and uplift, which had occurred by at least *c.*
50 460 Ma (Dempster, 1985a; Dempster *et al.*, 1995; Soper and Evans,
51 1997; Soper *et al.*, 1999; Oliver *et al.*, 2000). Dempster (1985a)
52 further argued for significant uplift and cooling episodes at 460-
53 440 Ma and 410-390 Ma.
54

54 **1.6.3 Facies variations in space and time**
55

56 Although the pattern of the Grampian metamorphism is broadly
57 uniform throughout the Grampian Highlands there are significant
58 variations. Fettes *et al.* (1976) documented an increase in
59 geothermal gradient from the South-west to the North-east Grampian
60 Highlands and P-T estimates have subsequently quantified those
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4 variations. Thus temperatures of c. 550°C were recorded for lower
5 amphibolite-facies conditions across the Northern and North-east
6 Grampian Highlands but at markedly different pressures in different
7 areas: namely 9–10 kbar in the Schiehallion area (Baker, 1985), 7–8
8 kbar in western Aberdeenshire (Baker, 1985) and in the Monadhliath
9 (Phillips *et al.*, 1999), 5–6 kbar in Angus (Dempster, 1985a; Zenk
10 and Schulz, 2004), and 3–4 kbar in Banffshire (Beddoe-Stephens,
11 1990). In addition, Graham (1983) recorded pressures of 8–10 kbar
12 for epidote-amphibolite-facies rocks in the South-west Grampian
13 Highlands, whereas similar facies rocks in Buchan record pressures
14 of 2–3 kbar (Hudson, 1985; Beddoe-Stephens, 1990). Although these
15 figures indicate systematic variations across the Grampian
16 Highlands there are also significant variations in style and timing
17 at a local scale with marked kinks in the P-T-t loops. Harte
18 (1988) categorized these variations into six regions characterized
19 by different metamorphic and tectonic styles with their boundaries
20 coincident in part with major lineaments (Ashcroft *et al.*, 1984;
21 Fettes *et al.*, 1986).

22 23 24 **1.6.3.1 South-west Region**

25
26 This region encompasses the area south-west of the Cruachan
27 Lineament (Graham 1986). This lineament separates a higher density
28 block to the south-west, dominated by the thick succession of the
29 mafic Tayvallich Volcanic Formation, from a lower density block to
30 the north-east with a markedly lower abundance of mafic intrusive
31 rocks. The lineament also marks the south-western limit of
32 granitic plutons.

33
34 The region is characterized by greenschist-facies metamorphism
35 with a thin spine of garnet-bearing epidote-amphibolite-facies
36 rocks running through the centre. The biotite isograd swings
37 through 90° across the Cruachan Lineament from a north-west trend
38 to the north to a south-west trend to the south (Figure 1.12). The
39 metamorphism is characteristically of a low-temperature-high-
40 pressure type compared to that in the rest of the Grampian
41 Highlands, with reported temperatures ranging from 410 to 530°C (in
42 garnet-bearing rocks) and pressures in the range 8–10 kbar (Graham
43 and Harte, 1985). A later retrogressive phase is associated with
44 lower greenschist-facies conditions and pressures of c. 6 kbar.
45 Graham (1986) attributed this distinctive style of metamorphism,
46 particularly the absence of high-temperature assemblages, to the
47 relatively low conductivity and low heat-production potential of
48 the mafic rocks. He also noted that the peak of metamorphism in
49 the region was closely associated with the early deformation and
50 thus relatively earlier than in the other regions.

51 52 53 **1.6.3.2 South Perthshire Region**

54
55 This region lies between the Cruachan Lineament and the Portsoy-
56 Duchray Hill Lineament and extends northwards from the Highland
57 Boundary Fault to the Tummel Steep Belt. It encompasses the
58 Highland Border Steep Belt and the Flat Belt of the Tay Nappe. The
59 metamorphism is represented in classical Barrovian zones,
60 reflecting a regional increase in grade to the north. The main
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4 porphyroblast growth took place after the nappe-forming movements,
5 essentially post-D2 to syn/post-D3 (Bradbury, 1979; Watkins, 1985).
6 Dempster (1985a) contrasted the presence of chloritoid + biotite
7 assemblages in Perthshire with their absence from the Angus glens
8 to the east (South-east Region), indicating slightly lower
9 pressures of metamorphism than in the latter.

10 The zone of late-stage albite porphyroblast growth extends from
11 this area into the South-west Grampian Highlands. Watkins (1983)
12 noted that the albite porphyroblasts occur in the crests of
13 regional F3 folds and attributed their origin to a late-stage
14 metamorphic phase driven by dehydration fluids trapped in the fold
15 crests. However, Dymoke (1989) suggested that the albite
16 porphyroblasts were a prograde product initiated by a phase of D3
17 movements in rocks at temperatures still close to their maximum.

18 Elles and Tilley (1930) noted inverted metamorphic zones in the
19 Balquidder area with garnet-zone overlying biotite-zone rocks.
20 Watkins (1985) argued that, since porphyroblast growth post-dated
21 the major nappe-forming movements in this region, the inversion
22 could not be tectonic. He suggested that the inversion represented
23 a negative thermal gradient, attributed to emplacement of
24 relatively hot rocks at higher levels during the nappe formation.
25 It is also possible however, that garnet crystallization was either
26 inhibited in the biotite zone by bulk-rock compositional control or
27 was subsequently retrogressed by late-stage fluid movement.
28 Watkins (1985) argued though that retrogression was not a
29 significant factor.

30 Dempster (1985a) studied the cooling ages recorded by a number of
31 mineral species along two north-south transects of the Highland
32 Border. In this region he noted differential and spasmodic uplift;
33 over most of the transect the rocks show an initial slow cooling
34 phase from the peak metamorphic conditions followed by a period of
35 rapid uplift and cooling.

36 37 38 39 **1.6.3.3 South-east Region**

40
41 This region extends from the Highland Boundary Fault northwards to
42 the River Dee, east of the Portsoy-Duchray Hill Lineament, and is
43 the classical area of *Barrovian metamorphism* (Barrow, 1893, 1912;
44 Tilley, 1925). However, in the east of the region, lower pressure
45 chloritoid + biotite assemblages are present, both transitional to,
46 and within, the area of *Stonehavian metamorphism* (Harte and Hudson,
47 1979, fig. 2).

48 The main porphyroblast growth occurred from syn-D2 to syn-D3 with
49 a late phase of sillimanite growth slightly post-D3 (Harte and
50 Johnson, 1969; McLellan, 1985). Throughout the region, the isograd
51 surfaces trend broadly parallel to the Highland Boundary Fault and
52 steepen markedly against it. Chinner (1978) suggested that the
53 cause of the steepening was underthrusting by cold material, but
54 Harte and Hudson (1979) attributed it partly to late folding but
55 also to the presence of a tectonic boundary, roughly coincident
56 with the Highland Boundary Fault; a subsiding basin to the south
57 brought cold rocks into contact with the northern sequences at the
58 time of metamorphism.
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4 In a transect of this region, Dempster (1985a) deduced that the
5 northernmost or structurally deepest rocks recorded the oldest
6 cooling ages, indicating relatively rapid uplift. In contrast,
7 rocks rotated into the Highland Border Steep Belt by late folds
8 show evidence of very slow cooling. He suggested that the rapid
9 uplift of hot rocks from depth might have resulted in heat transfer
10 to adjacent blocks, thus prolonging or promoting metamorphism in
11 those blocks.
12

13 **1.6.3.4 North Perthshire Region**

14
15 This region encompasses the Tummel Steep Belt and extends
16 northwards across the Central Grampian Highlands to the Boundary
17 Slide. The rocks in this region are steeply dipping, in contrast
18 to the flat-lying aspect of those to the south in the Flat Belt of
19 the Tay Nappe. Dempster and Harte (1986) noted that the Barrovian
20 zones, which show a progressive increase in metamorphic grade
21 across the Flat Belt, are poorly developed within the Tummel Steep
22 Belt. This they attributed to continued porphyroblast growth in
23 the northern region; porphyroblast growth in the Flat Belt took
24 place between D2 and D3 and syn-D3, whereas in the Tummel Steep
25 Belt growth continued post-D3. They further calculated that the
26 later porphyroblast growth in the north was accompanied by a
27 significant increase in ambient pressure conditions, rising from 7
28 kbar (at 550°C) in the earlier growth phase to 9 kbar (at 550°C) in
29 the later. This pressure increase was attributed to D3 rotation
30 and deeper burial of originally flat-lying strata in the Tummel
31 Steep Belt, thus promoting continued porphyroblast growth.
32

33 Dempster (1985a) suggested that the region cooled rapidly to c.
34 300°C in the period 460-440 Ma; the fact that the rocks in the
35 Tummel Steep Belt do not record a temperature rise consequent upon
36 their burial was attributed to uplift shortly afterwards.
37
38

39 **1.6.3.5 Buchan Region**

40
41 This is essentially the area of *Buchan metamorphism* (Read, 1952),
42 encompassing the *East Buchan* and *West Buchan* sequences of Harte and
43 Hudson (1979). The area lies east of the Portsoy-Duchray Hill
44 Lineament and north of the River Dee. The Buchan region hosts a
45 significant number of syn- to late-metamorphic granites as well as
46 intrusions of the 470 Ma North-east Grampian Basic Suite, a unique
47 occurrence in the Scottish Dalradian. The area is relatively
48 simple in structure; the D1 and D2 phases have not given rise to
49 major nappe structures, zones of inversion or crustal thickening
50 such as are seen in other regions. In addition, the only other
51 deformational phase identified (D3) is manifested by a late
52 crenulation cleavage that demonstrably post-dates the main
53 porphyroblast growth. The area is characterized by high-
54 temperature-low-pressure metamorphic conditions; Hudson (1985)
55 estimated temperatures of c. 430°C, 490°C and 510°C for the
56 cordierite, andalusite and staurolite isograds respectively.
57 Pressure estimates are uncertain but were reported by Hudson as 2-
58 3.5 kbar in the staurolite zone.
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4 The North-east Grampian Basic Suite was intruded after the early
5 deformation, broadly coeval with peak metamorphic conditions
6 (Johnson and Stewart, 1960; Johnson, 1962, 1963; Fettes, 1970;
7 Pankhurst, 1970). Droop and Charnley (1985) estimated inner
8 aureole conditions of 700-850°C and 4-5 kbar (granulite-facies
9 hornfelses), indicating an emplacement depth of c. 15-18 km. The
10 main regional porphyroblast growth is, in general, difficult to
11 separate from the thermal effects. However, the intrusions
12 undoubtedly boosted ambient regional temperatures and gave rise,
13 for example, to the upper amphibolite-facies sillimanite gneisses
14 around the Huntly-Knock Intrusion (Ashworth, 1975). Harte and
15 Hudson (1979) discussed the possibility of two generations of
16 sillimanite crystallization, the first of regional metamorphic
17 origin, the second related to the gabbroic intrusions, although
18 concluding that both were most probably part of a regional prograde
19 event.
20

21 The current position of the kyanite/andalusite isograd is close to
22 the Portsoy-Duchray Hill Lineament. West of this however, there is
23 a zone up to 10 km wide indicative of a pressure increase, where
24 andalusite has inverted to kyanite (Chinner and Heseltine, 1979;
25 Baker, 1985; Beddoe-Stephens, 1990). Beddoe-Stephens noted that
26 pressure conditions east of the Portsoy-Duchray Hill Lineament in
27 Buchan did not exceed 4.5 kbar but that rocks to the west record
28 significantly higher pressures of 8-9 kbar in structurally lower
29 strata. He calculated that a pressure increase of c. 2 kbar
30 occurred across the lineament during porphyroblast growth, and that
31 it was this increase that led to the inversion of the regional
32 andalusite to kyanite; the pressure increase was attributed to
33 overthrusting on the Portsoy Shear-zone. Dempster *et al.* (1995)
34 subsequently suggested that the pressure increase might have
35 reflected magmatic loading induced by intrusion of the basic rocks.
36 However the question arises as to whether the intrusions had
37 sufficient mass to produce the necessary overpressures.
38

39 Considerable movement occurred on a regional system of shear-zones
40 subsequent to the main porphyroblast growth, deforming the basic
41 igneous rocks, their aureoles and the Dalradian country rocks that
42 were unaffected by gabbro intrusion (Ashcroft *et al.*, 1984).
43 Kneller and Leslie (1984) demonstrated that shearing occurred in
44 rocks at or close to their peak metamorphic conditions and led
45 locally to crystallization of sillimanite (fibrolite) in rocks
46 previously carrying andalusite + cordierite mineral assemblages;
47 this crystallization was attributed to the percolation of hot
48 fluids along the shear-zones.
49

50 **1.6.3.6 Monadhliath Region**

51 This region covers the remainder of the Grampian Highlands,
52 coinciding broadly with the Northern Grampian Highlands as defined
53 in this volume. It includes rocks assigned to the Badenoch Group
54 and to the unconformably overlying Grampian and Appin group strata.
55 The region contains such notable structural features as the Geal-
56 charn-Ossian Steep Belt, the Eilrig Shear-zone, and the Grampian
57 Shear-zone. The greater part of the area features amphibolite-
58 facies assemblages, the exception being a strip of greenschist-
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4 facies rocks lying below the Eilrig Shear-zone (Figure 1.12;
5 Phillips *et al.*, 1993). Phillips *et al.* (1999) reported a coherent
6 metamorphic history across the region, with growth of biotite
7 during D1 and kyanite early in D2. The general conditions for
8 kyanite growth were given as 7–8 kbar and 500–600°C. In the
9 northern part of the region, there was significant decompression
10 during the later part of D2 resulting in conditions of 5–6 kbar and
11 585–695°C. This moved the rocks from the kyanite stability field
12 into that of sillimanite. However, in the south of the region, no
13 such changes have been observed and the rocks remained in the
14 kyanite field. Phillips *et al.* (1993) suggested peak temperatures
15 of 250°C for the greenschist-facies rocks below the Eilrig Shear-
16 zone in contrast to 550°C for rocks above, suggesting that
17 considerable crustal shortening affected the Grampian Group strata
18 juxtaposed along the shear-zone.
19

20 Late-Neoproterozoic syntectonic porphyroblast growth and
21 pegmatitic segregation is recorded in ductile shear-zones within
22 the Badenoch Group and, locally, close to the contact with the
23 younger Dalradian rocks (Hyslop, 1992; Hyslop and Piasecki, 1999).
24 U-Pb monazite analyses from the pegmatites have provided high-
25 precision ages of 808 +11/-9 Ma and 806 ± 3 Ma, and a concordant
26 age of 804 +13/-12 Ma has been obtained from the host mylonite
27 matrix (Noble *et al.*, 1996). More-recent U-Pb dating of single
28 zircon grains within kyanite-bearing migmatites has yielded an age
29 of 840 ± 11 Ma (Highton *et al.* (1999). Together, these data have
30 been interpreted by Highton *et al.* as the effects, in the Badenoch
31 Group rocks, of the high-grade metamorphism and migmatization that
32 is associated with Knoydartian orogenesis farther west in the Moine
33 Supergroup of the Northern Highlands Terrane.
34

35 In contrast, radiometric evidence for Neoproterozoic
36 tectonothermal events has yet to be recorded in the succeeding
37 Dalradian rocks. There is evidence of progressive overstep of
38 various lithologies onto the older strata (Smith *et al.*, 1999;
39 Robertson and Smith, 1999), and this, combined with ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr
40 isotopic signatures from the lowest Dalradian strata (Thomas *et al.*,
41 2004), provides evidence for a significant stratigraphical and
42 tectonothermal break at the base of the Grampian Group. The
43 Badenoch Group rocks have thus been interpreted as a Moine-like
44 metasedimentary basement that was affected by the Knoydartian
45 tectonothermal event prior to deposition of the overlying Grampian
46 Group, which records only Grampian Event deformation and
47 metamorphism.
48

49 **1.6.4 Metamorphic Models**

50
51
52 A great variety of models has been proposed to explain the pattern
53 of metamorphism in the Grampian Highlands. These include the
54 thermal effects of 'older granites' (Barrow, 1912), burial (Elles and
55 Tilley, 1930), thermal zonation around a mountain root (Kennedy,
56 1948), uprising migmatite domes (Read and Farquhar, 1956), and
57 self-generating heat in tectonically heated crust (Richardson and
58 Powell, 1976). The latter is now generally accepted as an
59 important cause, although it does not explain the very high heat
60 flows in the area of least crustal thickening in Buchan. The high
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4 heat flow has been ascribed to deep-seated igneous masses (Harte
5 and Hudson, 1979), and to lithospheric stretching that might have
6 occurred during thermal relaxation immediately following Grampian
7 arc accretion (Kneller, 1985). The latter concept is consistent
8 with the extension necessary for intrusion of the gabbros and with
9 the contrasting structural architecture.

10 Also within the Barrovian sequences of the south-east Grampian
11 Highlands, several workers have noted the limited time-span of the
12 metamorphism, the requisite rate of heating and the virtual
13 synchronicity of porphyroblast growth in the different mineral
14 zones, and have concluded that advective heat sources are essential
15 (Baxter *et al.*, 2002; Ague and Baxter, 2007; Lyubetskaya and Ague,
16 2010; Viete *et al.*, 2011a, 2011b; Vorhies and Ague, 2011). Viete
17 *et al.* (2011a, 2011b) argued for mid-crustal extensional shear-
18 zones that focussed heat sources such as magmas and hot fluids, as
19 well as generating heat through mechanical working; they suggested
20 crustal thickening was not a significant factor. Vorhies and Ague
21 (2011) argued for thermal relaxation of a thickened crust as a
22 general factor in the Dalradian metamorphism but also for
23 significant advective heat input in the Barrovian (*sensu stricto*)
24 and Buchan regions, the heat input being facilitated by the
25 numerous igneous intrusions and associated fluid flow. They noted
26 the variation across the Dalradian belt, with the metamorphism in
27 the South-west Grampian Highlands and western Perthshire being the
28 product of a thickened crust with little or no additional heat
29 source, whereas in the eastern Grampian Highlands (essentially the
30 areas where the greatest temperatures were attained) crustal
31 loading was significantly less and advective heat from igneous
32 intrusions was the major factor in the metamorphism. Viete *et al.*
33 (2011a, 2011b) and Vorhies and Ague (2011) noted spikes in the peak
34 metamorphic conditions, for example the phases of sillimanite
35 growth. This they ascribed to thermal pulses associated with the
36 igneous intrusions.

37 These systematic changes along the Dalradian outcrop reflect
38 variations in tectonism during the Grampian Event. In the south-
39 west, compression and crust-thickening deformation was greater or
40 lasted longer than in the north-east, where the later phases might
41 have included a period of extension.

42 Following peak metamorphic conditions at around 470-467 Ma, the
43 entire region was subject to differential and spasmodic uplift,
44 resulting in rapid exhumation and cooling. Ague and Baxter (2007)
45 also suggested that the cooling might have been hastened by the
46 ingress of relatively cold fluids.

50 1.7 DATING THE DALRADIAN SEDIMENTATION

51 *D. Stephenson*

52
53 The age of the sediments that became the Dalradian Supergroup is
54 poorly constrained. Fossils are rare, are poorly preserved, and
55 where species have been identified they have a wide stratigraphical
56 range. Tillites and other possible glacial deposits raise
57 various possibilities of correlation with global glacial events.
58 As yet few radiometric age determinations have been made on the
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4 undoubted interbedded volcanic rocks and most available dates
5 relate to intrusions or later tectonothermal events.
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7 **1.7.1 Palaeontology**

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9 The palaeontology of the Dalradian was reviewed by Downie *et al.*
10 (1971) and Downie (1975) and there have been few significant
11 developments since then.
12

13 In the Appin Group, worm burrows recorded from quartzites by Peach
14 and Horne, (1930) have subsequently been shown to be dewatering
15 structures (Tanner, 1998a) but algal stromatolites have been
16 demonstrated in the Lismore and Lossit limestones (Spencer and
17 Spencer, 1972). The Lossit Limestone has also yielded oncoliths.
18 None are of biostratigraphical value.

19 In the Argyll Group, the Bonahaven Dolomite Formation has yielded
20 acritarchs and algal stromatolites (Hackman and Knill, 1962;
21 Spencer and Spencer, 1972), including some which suggest a late-
22 Neoproterozoic age (Downie, 1975). Fairchild (1977) recorded
23 possible glauconitized microfossils, but a report by Brasier and
24 McIlroy (1998) of metazoan faecal pellets was subsequently
25 retracted (Brasier and Shields, 2000). The Easdale Slate contains
26 long-ranging, Ediacaran to Cambrian acritarchs (Downie, 1975).
27 Limestone clasts in the Selma Breccia contain oncoliths, catagraphs
28 and other calcareous fossils, which have been assigned to the
29 Ediacaran (Litherland, 1975). However, calcareous and burrowing
30 algae that resemble Early Cambrian and younger forms are also
31 present (Downie, 1975). Acritarchs from the Tayvallich Limestone,
32 which were originally thought to be Early Cambrian (Downie *et al.*,
33 1971), are now known to have a longer range, extending back into
34 the Ediacaran.
35

36 In the Southern Highland Group the search for fossils has
37 concentrated upon the weakly deformed, greenschist-facies
38 metamudstones and metalimestones of the Highland Border area and
39 Turriff Syncline. The Macduff Formation has yielded rare burrows,
40 a few acritarchs and more-widespread microfossils, which resemble
41 highly altered chitinozoa. Downie *et al.* (1971) tentatively
42 identified chitinozoa of early Ordovician, probably Llanvirn, age,
43 and a single specimen of the Ordovician acritarch, *Veryhachium*
44 *lairdii*, was identified by Molyneux (1998). However, failure to
45 replicate this find and its unusually pristine state of
46 preservation despite metamorphism to biotite grade cast doubt upon
47 its origin. In fact all of these identifications remain
48 controversial and have not gained general acceptance. Similarly, a
49 record of Silurian graptolites by Skevington (1971) is now
50 attributed to a sample labelling error. Possibly one of the most
51 striking features of these generally low-grade rocks is their lack
52 of macrofossils and trace fossils which has led several workers to
53 suggest that they must all be of Neoproterozoic age.
54

55 The fossiliferous limestone of Leny Quarry near Callander, which
56 contains latest Early Cambrian Pagetid trilobites (Pringle, 1940;
57 Rushton *et al.*, 1999), is undoubtedly the most reliable
58 palaeontological indicator of the age of the youngest Dalradian
59 strata in Scotland. This outcrop was once regarded as part of the
60 Highland Border Complex, in faulted contact with the Southern
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4 Highland Group (Bluck *et al.*, 1984; Curry *et al.*, 1984). However,
5 a detailed examination of key sections, and in particular that in
6 the *Keltie Water* GCR site, near Callander, has resulted in a
7 radical re-appraisal of the relationship between the Highland
8 Border Complex and the Southern Highland Group (Tanner, 1995;
9 Tanner and Pringle, 1999; Tanner and Sutherland, 2007). It is now
10 accepted that there is both stratigraphical and structural
11 continuity between the Southern Highland Group and the Keltie Water
12 Grit Formation, which includes the Leny Limestone. The south-
13 easterly younging sequence continues through rocks containing mid-
14 Arenig fossils (Rushton *et al.*, 1999), but reports of supposed
15 chitinozoa of younger, Caradoc-Ashgill age by Burton *et al.* (1983)
16 and Curry *et al.* (1984) have now been discounted (Tanner and
17 Sutherland, 2007). Thus, Dalradian sedimentation continued to at
18 least Early Cambrian times and possibly through to Arenig times.
19 The succession of Dalradian Supergroup plus at least part of the
20 Highland Border Complex was then deformed as one, during the
21 Llanvirn-Age Grampian Event.
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24 **1.7.2 Correlation of the Dalradian tillites and** 25 **other possible glacial deposits** 26

27 The tillites at the base of the Argyll Group constitute one of the
28 most persistent stratigraphical markers throughout the length of
29 the Dalradian outcrop. Traditionally they have been correlated
30 with the Varanger tillites in Scandinavia, which had been dated by
31 Rb-Sr methods on associated metasedimentary rocks at *c.* 653 Ma
32 (Pringle, 1972). However, revised estimates for the age of the
33 Varanger tillites (see below) now suggest that they are probably
34 younger than the Tayvallich volcanic rocks at the top of the Argyll
35 Group, necessitating a re-appraisal of the age of all possible
36 glacial events represented in the Dalradian successions of
37 Scotland and Ireland.
38

39 Prave (1999), Brasier and Shields (2000), Condon and Prave (2000)
40 and McCay *et al.* (2006) have all proposed that the basal Argyll
41 Group tillites can be correlated with the Ghubrah glaciation in the
42 Oman, dated at 723 \pm 16/-10 Ma (Brasier *et al.*, 2000), which is part
43 of the Sturtian global glacial event. If however, as is argued
44 below, the base of the Grampian Group is unlikely to be older than
45 *c.* 750 Ma and might even be as young as *c.* 700 Ma, this correlation
46 would allow little or no time for the accumulation of the Grampian
47 and Appin groups. Even the localized Kinlochlaggan Boulder Bed,
48 interpreted as containing glacially-rafted dropstones and thus
49 recording the earliest glacial influence in the Dalradian, is
50 assigned to the Lochaber Subgroup, is hence almost certainly
51 younger than 720 Ma and cannot be correlated with the Sturtian
52 event. The most likely scenario, based upon currently available
53 worldwide data and proposed by Leslie *et al.* (2008), is that the
54 basal Argyll Group tillites should be equated with the Ghaub
55 glaciation in Namibia at *c.* 635 Ma (Hoffmann *et al.*, 2004), which
56 is regarded as part of the Marinoan global event.
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58 The younger, Southern Highland Group glacial dropstone deposits
59 in Inishowen (Donegal, Ireland) and Macduff (North-east Grampian
60 Highlands) could then probably be correlated with the Varanger
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4 tillites (now 620–590 Ma, Gorokhov *et al.*, 2001; Bingen *et al.*,
5 2005) and the Gaskiers Formation of Newfoundland (c. 580 Ma,
6 Bowring *et al.*, 2003).
7

8 **1.7.3 Radiometric dating and isotopic evidence** 9

10 Age constraints on the initiation of Dalradian sedimentation are
11 poor. The youngest detrital zircons in Dalradian rocks have
12 yielded ages of 900 Ma (Cawood *et al.*, 2003; Banks *et al.*, 2007)
13 and the Grampian Group must be younger than the 800 Ma pegmatites
14 within the Badenoch Group that constitutes its basement. The
15 youngest deformation event recorded within the Moine rocks to the
16 north-west of the Great Glen Fault is c. 730 Ma (Tanner and Evans,
17 2003; Emery, 2005) and it is possible that this might also have
18 affected the lithologically similar Badenoch Group rocks. However,
19 there is no radiometric evidence for Neoproterozoic tectonothermal
20 activity in the Grampian Group or higher parts of the Dalradian
21 Supergroup, which record only Caledonian events. ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr whole-
22 rock isotope data from the oldest metacarbonate rocks of the
23 Grampian Group are consistent with a global late-Neoproterozoic
24 strontium sea-water signature younger than 800 Ma and possibly as
25 young as c. 670 Ma (Thomas *et al.*, 2004). Given the mounting
26 evidence for a significant stratigraphical and tectonothermal break
27 at the base of the Grampian Group (Smith *et al.*, 1999), the current
28 consensus is that the base is unlikely to be older than c. 750 Ma
29 and sedimentation could have been initiated as late as c. 730–700 Ma
30 (Leslie *et al.*, 2008).
31

32 Later parts of the Grampian Group have been shown to be
33 stratigraphically continuous with the Lochaber Subgroup in several
34 areas and in general there would then appear to be stratigraphical
35 continuity throughout the Appin Group, with no obvious major
36 tectonic breaks. There are no radiometric dates that cover this
37 interval, which continued at least until the major glacial event at
38 the base of the Argyll Group that could be correlated with global
39 glaciations at c. 635 Ma (see above). The time interval
40 represented by this marine glacial interval is not known, but no
41 major unconformity is seen.
42

43 At the top of the Argyll Group, the Tayvallich magmatism has been
44 reliably dated by high-precision U-Pb methods on zircons at 600–595
45 Ma (Halliday *et al.*, 1989; Dempster *et al.*, 2002).
46

47 Estimates of minimum radiometric ages for younger parts of the
48 Dalradian depend upon the dating of post-sedimentary tectonothermal
49 events, in particular granites that were intruded into the
50 Dalradian succession and then experienced the same deformation and
51 metamorphism.

52 Much attention has centred upon the Ben Vuirich Granite Pluton,
53 near Pitlochry. For many years it was believed that this granite
54 was intruded after at least some of the earlier phases of
55 deformation of its Dalradian host rocks (Bradbury *et al.*, 1976;
56 Rogers *et al.*, 1989; Tanner and Leslie, 1994). However, detailed
57 investigations of hornfelsed country rocks and xenoliths within the
58 granite have now suggested that the pluton was emplaced into a
59 previously undeformed sedimentary sequence of the Blair Atholl
60 Subgroup (Tanner *et al.*, 2006). S1 and S2 fabrics, previously
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4 thought by some to have been preserved only in the aureole and
5 xenoliths, and hence to be related to Neoproterozoic events, can
6 now be assigned to the mid-Ordovician Grampian Event. The 590 Ma
7 age of intrusion, obtained by U-Pb dating of carefully selected
8 zircons (Rogers *et al.*, 1989) and confirmed by ion-microprobe dates
9 on individual zircons (Pidgeon and Compston, 1992), is now thought
10 to be much closer to the age of sedimentation of the country rocks
11 but prior to any significant tectonic deformation (Tanner *et al.*,
12 2006). Farther north, in the North-east Grampian Highlands, the
13 Keith-Portsoy Granite was intruded as a number of separate
14 lenticular sheets into Appin Group and lower Islay Subgroup rocks.
15 Zircons from two separate lenses have yielded precise U-Pb
16 intrusion ages of c. 600 Ma (Barreiro, 1998).
17

18 The Ben Vuirich and Keith-Portsoy granites, together with several
19 other intrusions in both the Grampian and Northern Highlands
20 terranes, comprise the 600-590 Ma Vuirich Suite, which has been
21 shown to have an A-type chemistry (Tanner *et al.*, 2006). This
22 rift-related granitic suite was broadly coeval with the 595 Ma
23 Tayvallich basic magmatism that marks the top of the Argyll Group,
24 and both suites were probably related to a major extensional event
25 that was part of the break-up of the supercontinent of Rodinia,
26 leading eventually to the formation of the Iapetus Ocean (Cawood *et*
27 *al.*, 2001). Sedimentation of the upper parts of the Dalradian
28 succession took place in marginal basins and on continental slopes
29 resulting from this 'Iapetan Event'.
30

31 **1.7.4 Conclusions**

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34 The detailed chronological interpretation is constantly changing as
35 more and better radiometric dates become available and as other
36 methods are developed, but a reasonable consensus is beginning to
37 emerge.

38 The Badenoch Group successions must be older than the c. 800 Ma
39 pegmatitic veins and mylonites that cut them and they might have
40 been affected by the same 730 Ma tectonothermal event that has been
41 recorded in the Moine successions of the Northern Highlands
42 Terrane. The earliest Grampian Group sedimentation probably post-
43 dates that late-Knoydartian Event, and strontium sea-water
44 signatures of the oldest metacarbonate rocks suggest an age within
45 the range 800-670 Ma. A current best estimate for the age of the
46 basal Grampian Group is 730-700 Ma.
47

48 If the tillites at the base of the Argyll Group are correlated
49 with the Marinoan glaciations at 635 Ma, close to the start of the
50 Ediacaran Period, the Grampian and Appin groups together cover a
51 maximum interval of c. 95 Ma in the late Cryogenian Period. As yet
52 there is no evidence to enable any chronological subdivision of
53 those groups. The top of the Argyll Group is well defined by the
54 Tayvallich basic magmatism at 600-595 Ma, implying that the group
55 spans some 40 Ma, all well within the Ediacaran.

56 Granites of the Vuirich Suite were intruded into lower Argyll
57 Group successions at 600-590 Ma, whilst the uppermost Argyll Group
58 and lowest Southern Highland Group sediments were being deposited
59 and prior to any significant tectonic deformation or metamorphism.
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4 It is now accepted by most workers that there is stratigraphical
5 and structural continuity in the Southern Highland Group of the
6 Highland Border region from the Ben Ledi Grit Formation through
7 into the Keltie Water Grit Formation, and the Lower Cambrian Leny
8 Limestone in particular (c. 515 Ma on current timescales).
9 Therefore, the base of the Cambrian (at 542 Ma) must lie within the
10 Southern Highland Group, though there is no obvious stratigraphical
11 horizon where it may be located. Although this part of the
12 succession has a total thickness of several kilometres, the general
13 turbiditic nature of the sediments suggests relatively rapid
14 accumulation, and it is difficult to imagine it taking some 80 Ma
15 for them to accumulate. There are no obvious major tectonic breaks
16 and significant stratigraphical hiatuses are difficult to recognize
17 in these facies. It is also possible that sedimentation continued
18 through to mid-Arenig time in the Trossachs Group (c. 477 Ma on
19 current timescales).
20

21 However, the above model does allow time for the deformation and
22 metamorphism to reach its peak at c. 470 Ma in the mid-Ordovician
23 Grampian Event.
24

25 **1.8 TECTONIC EVOLUTION OF THE DALRADIAN BASINS**

26 ***D. Stephenson***

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31 For much of Proterozoic time, the crustal foundations of Scotland
32 were part of a continental block that also incorporated parts of
33 present-day North America and Greenland. At the beginning of
34 Neoproterozoic time, this block was included within the large
35 supercontinent of Rodinia, where it lay adjacent to blocks that
36 later became the Baltic shield and South America (Figure 1.13). It
37 was only towards the end of Neoproterozoic time that Rodinia became
38 fragmented and the three blocks became respectively the separate
39 continents of Laurentia and Baltica and part of Gondwana. However,
40 many authors have used those names to refer to the respective
41 blocks of continental crust, even prior to their development as
42 separate continents.
43

44 Sedimentation of the lower parts of the Dalradian Supergroup
45 recorded events that took place within Rodinia, with later
46 sedimentation recording increased instability and eventual break-up
47 that left Laurentia separated from Gondwana and Baltica by the
48 newly formed Iapetus Ocean. The latest Dalradian sedimentation and
49 volcanism took place in basins on the Laurentian margin of the
50 ocean. Later plate movements, during Early Palaeozoic time,
51 resulted in closure of the Iapetus Ocean and the Caledonian
52 Orogeny. Much evidence for the sequence of orogenic events is
53 recorded by the deformation and metamorphism of the Dalradian
54 strata.

55 Good, recent overviews of the tectonic setting and evolution of
56 this area are given by Holdsworth *et al.* (2000), Strachan *et al.*
57 (2002) and Leslie *et al.* (2008), on which much of this account is
58 based.
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4 **1.8.1 Palaeoproterozoic and Mesoproterozoic events**
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6 Little is known about the nature of the crust that was stretched
7 and rifted to form the Dalradian basins. The few areas of basement
8 rock that are exposed within the Grampian Terrane are mostly fault
9 bounded and their tectonostratigraphical affinities are unclear
10 (see above). Despite the present relatively close proximity of the
11 Lewisian Gneiss Complex in the Northern Highlands and Hebridean
12 terranes, there is no evidence for the presence of Archaean crust
13 beneath the Dalradian. Archaean detritus is present throughout the
14 higher parts of the succession (Cawood *et al.*, 2003), but the
15 source has not been identified and could well be distant. However,
16 large amounts of juvenile crust are known to have been generated by
17 Palaeoproterozoic arc magmatism to the south of major Archaean
18 cratons, in both the 'Laurentian' and 'Baltic' crustal blocks.
19 Examples include the Ketilidian Belt (1900–1800 Ma) of Laurentia and
20 the Svecofennian Province (1900–1850 Ma) of Baltica. The Rhinns
21 Complex of Islay and Colonsay (c. 1780 Ma) is probably
22 representative of a similar Palaeoproterozoic belt that might
23 underlie much of the Dalradian.
24

25 Towards the end of the Mesoproterozoic Era, from c. 1100 to 950
26 Ma, a series of mountain belts was formed around the globe. It was
27 this mountain building event, generally referred to as the
28 Grenvillian after its type area in North America, that led to
29 amalgamation of the supercontinent of Rodinia. Palaeomagnetic
30 reconstructions generally place the crustal blocks that were to
31 become Baltica, Laurentia and the South American sector of Gondwana
32 adjacent to each other, with Scotland positioned close to the
33 triple junction (e.g. Soper, 1994a, 1994b; Torsvik *et al.*, 1996;
34 Dalziel, 1997; Holdsworth *et al.*, 2000) (Figure 1.14a). A
35 Grenville Front is well established in eastern Canada (e.g. Indares
36 and Dunning, 1997) and the effects of the Sveconorwegian Orogeny,
37 of similar age, are widespread in south-western Sweden (Möller,
38 1998). However, in Scotland, evidence for Grenvillian orogenesis
39 is sparse. It is restricted to the Glenelg-Attadale Inlier, in the
40 Northern Highlands Terrane and the Outer Hebrides Fault-zone, in
41 the Hebridean Terrane (Mendum *et al.*, 2009). The only pre-
42 Grenvillian rocks in the Grampian Terrane, in the Rhinns Complex,
43 show no evidence of Grenvillian reworking and hence it is concluded
44 that the Grenville Front lay farther to the north, buried beneath
45 the extensive cover of post-Grenville metasedimentary rocks.
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48 **1.8.2 Pre-Dalradian Neoproterozoic sedimentation and**
49 **tectonothermal events**
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51 The Badenoch Group successions of the northern Grampian Highlands
52 are now generally accepted as having been derived from sedimentary
53 rocks that experienced a tectonothermal event at 840–800 Ma and
54 hence pre-date the earliest Dalradian sediments, which show no
55 evidence of such an event. The generally gneissose and migmatized
56 lithologies yield little evidence of their origin but they
57 undoubtedly comprise one of several thick sedimentary successions
58 that were deposited on the 'Laurentian' crustal block of Rodinia
59 towards the end of and immediately following the Grenvillian
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4 Orogeny. Representative successions in the Northern Highlands
5 Terrane are the Torridon Group (fluvial) and the Moine
6 Supergroup (fluvial and shallow marine); sediments of both
7 contain very few Archaean detrital zircons and it has been
8 suggested that they were derived largely from erosion of the
9 Grenvillian mountain belt (Rainbird *et al.*, 2001; Krabbendam *et*
10 *al.*, 2008).

11
12 Outcrops of the Badenoch Group now lie close to those of the Moine
13 Supergroup and they are comparable in lithology to parts of the
14 Moine succession. Their present proximity is largely as a result
15 of terrane assembly during the Caledonian Orogeny and hence direct
16 correlations across the Great Glen Fault are not possible.
17 However, their detrital zircons (Cawood *et al.*, 2003) have a
18 similar age distribution to those of the Morar Group of the Moine
19 and the Torridon Group (Krabbendam *et al.*, 2008) and their broad
20 tectonic setting and age are probably comparable.

21 The age of the Moine is constrained by its youngest detrital
22 zircons at *c.* 950 Ma (Kinny *et al.*, 1999; Friend *et al.*, 2003), and
23 by later intrusions at *c.* 870 Ma (Friend *et al.*, 1997; Millar,
24 1999; Rogers *et al.*, 2001). The intrusions, of granitic sheets and
25 tholeiitic basic rocks, constitute a bimodal igneous event, typical
26 of an intracontinental rift setting (Ryan and Soper, 2001), and it
27 probably represents the development of a failed rift between the
28 'Baltic' and 'Laurentian' crustal blocks.

29
30 The earliest known tectonothermal event in the Badenoch Group is
31 recorded by a U-Pb age of *c.* 840 Ma on zircons within migmatites
32 (Highton *et al.*, 1999) and from U-Pb ages of *c.* 806 Ma on monazites
33 from pegmatites and their host mylonites (Noble *et al.*, 1996).
34 [The pegmatites had previously yielded less-precise ages of *c.* 750
35 Ma by Rb-Sr methods (Piasecki and van Breemen, 1979a, 1983).] Those
36 dates correlate well with numerous dates in the range 820-780 Ma on
37 pegmatites and metamorphic minerals within the Moine which,
38 together with a separate cluster of dates at 750-730 Ma, have been
39 attributed to a major Knoydartian Orogeny (e.g. Rogers *et al.*,
40 1998; Tanner and Evans, 2003). The extent and nature of those
41 events have been the source of much controversy. Soper and England
42 (1995) envisaged that the Neoproterozoic evolution of the Scottish
43 part of the Laurentian crustal block was dominated by rifting and
44 extension, without any contractional orogenic events. However, by
45 linking radiometric age dating with metamorphic pressure and
46 temperature data, recent work has shown that at least some of the
47 Knoydartian events are contractional (Vance *et al.*, 1998; Zeh and
48 Millar, 2001; Tanner and Evans, 2003). Orogenic igneous activity
49 occurred at *c.* 840-800 Ma in northern Norway (Daly *et al.*, 1991)
50 and sinistral strike-slip motion between the 'Baltic' and
51 'Laurentian' crustal blocks at *c.* 800-750 Ma, as suggested by Park
52 (1992), might have severed an original close association with the
53 Knoydartian events of Scotland.
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56 **1.8.3 Late-Neoproterozoic Dalradian basins**

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58 The lithostratigraphy and sedimentology of the Dalradian Supergroup
59 indicate periods of basin deepening and shallowing which, by
60 analogy with Phanerozoic basins, have been attributed to multiple
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4 periods of lithospheric stretching, rifting and thermal subsidence.
5 Early phases of rifting and subsidence, possibly from c. 730 Ma,
6 took place within the supercontinent of Rodinia. Increasing
7 instability, attributed to progressive lithospheric stretching,
8 first produced a series of fault-bounded basins and eventually
9 culminated in continental rupture, volcanicity and development of
10 the Iapetus Ocean at c. 600 Ma (Figure 1.14b). The Grampian
11 Terrane then became part of an extensive passive margin to the new
12 continent of Laurentia, where turbiditic sedimentation continued
13 for at least 85 Ma, and possibly until the early Ordovician (Figure
14 1.14c).

15
16 Several studies have addressed basin architecture and its
17 influence on both the composition and shape of the sediment pile,
18 factors that in turn have affected the morphology of some regional
19 folds. In the Northern Grampian Highlands, basin margins within
20 the Grampian Group and lower parts of the Appin Group can be
21 identified from thickness and facies changes and overstep onto
22 older strata (Glover *et al.*, 1995; Goodman *et al.*, 1997; Smith *et*
23 *al.*, 1999; Robertson and Smith, 1999). In the South-west Grampian
24 Highlands, Knill (1963), Borradaile (1979), Litherland (1980) and
25 Anderton (1985) identified very rapid lateral facies and thickness
26 changes in the Appin Group and lower parts of the Argyll Group,
27 which imply that syndepositional faulting accommodated the
28 deposition of the essentially shallow-water shelf deposits.
29 Anderton (1985), in particular, envisaged this area of deposition
30 to be divided into a series of NW-dipping fault blocks bounded by
31 'scoop-shaped' listric faults, which delimited individual basins
32 (Figure 1.15). The faults might also have acted as controls for
33 later sub-marine volcanic activity, and were eventually draped by
34 rapidly deposited sub-marine fan deposits on a subsiding
35 continental margin in Southern Highland Group times.
36

37 More-recent studies have concentrated on tracking the evolution
38 and denudation history of the hinterland, through plotting the age
39 distribution and frequency of detrital zircons obtained by
40 Sensitive High-Resolution Ion Micro Probe (SHRIMP) analysis (e.g.
41 Cawood *et al.*, 2003, 2007).
42

43 **1.8.3.1 Early rifting**

44
45 Rifting of the 'Laurentian' crustal block was probably initiated
46 during the middle of the Cryogenian Period at some time after 730
47 Ma and lasted for about 60–70 Ma. Turbiditic sands and muds of the
48 Grampian Group were derived from a hinterland to the west and
49 north-west (Banks, 2005), with at least one basin receiving
50 detritus from the east (Banks *et al.*, 2007). Early models that
51 envisaged a broad ensialic rift, opening north-eastwards to form a
52 marine gulf (Winchester and Glover, 1988), were refined following
53 the recognition of discrete intrabasinal highs separating a series
54 of localized basins (e.g. Robertson and Smith, 1999; see Figure
55 5.2a). Those early (presumably failed) rift basins had been
56 infilled by the time that deltaic and shelf sands prograded from
57 the south and east across their margins in late Grampian Group and
58 early Appin Group times. The sand- and mud-dominated sedimentary
59 facies associations culminated with diminished sediment input into
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4 marginal offshelf to lagoonal, locally emergent, even evaporitic
5 environments in Lochaber Subgroup time (Stephenson, 1993). Ages of
6 detrital zircons show that the source areas throughout Grampian
7 Group and earliest Appin Group sedimentation were dominated by
8 late-Palaeoproterozoic to earliest-Neoproterozoic rocks, possibly
9 from the Ketillidian and Grenvillian mountain belts, such as those
10 that had supplied earlier Neoproterozoic successions in the
11 Northern Highlands Terrane (Cawood et al., 2003; Banks et al.,
12 2007).
13

14 **1.8.3.2 Post-rift thermal subsidence**

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16
17 Shallow-marine shelf sedimentary facies associations that dominate
18 the remainder of the Appin Group are characteristic of post-rift
19 thermal subsidence, which might have extended for c. 30–40 Ma until
20 the end of the Cryogenian Period at c. 635 Ma. The base of the
21 Ballachulish Subgroup is marked by a major transgression across a
22 flooding surface, which saw the onset and development of wide-
23 ranging and uniform sedimentary lithofacies (Figure 1.15a).
24 Typically, deposition of dark anoxic limestone and mud is followed
25 by shallowing upwards cycles of progradational clean-washed sands
26 and shallow-water muds and limestones. Marine basins at this time
27 were probably wide and shallow as evidenced by remarkably similar
28 successions extending along strike across Ireland and Scotland.
29 Renewed flooding resulted in further deposition of muds and
30 limestones during Blair Atholl Subgroup time, before glacial
31 diamictites were deposited during a major lowstand at c. 635 Ma.
32 In the Central Grampian Highlands, some parts of these basins were
33 interspersed with sediment-starved areas, now expressed by major
34 stratigraphical omissions and subsequent overstep. The flooding at
35 the base of the Ballachulish Subgroup introduced, or just preceded,
36 the arrival of Archaean zircons in detritus and an apparent absence
37 of Grenvillian ones.
38
39

40 **1.8.3.3 Renewed rifting**

41
42 Vigorous extension is recorded by renewed rifting in early-
43 Ediacaran time. Sharply-defined thickness changes become apparent
44 in the Islay Subgroup and are most-likely to have been fault
45 controlled (Anderton, 1985). Instability is recorded by influxes
46 of pebbly sands, debris-flow breccias and slump deposits in the
47 Easdale Subgroup. Localized basaltic volcanic centres became a
48 widespread feature for the first time (e.g. Goodman and Winchester,
49 1993; Fettes et al., 2011) and synsedimentary exhalative
50 mineralization affected some small basins. Within this
51 increasingly unstable environment the upward-shallowing cyclical
52 behaviour, recorded previously in the Appin Group, recurred briefly
53 in late Easdale Subgroup time, with deposition of shallow-marine
54 shelf sands, limestones and muds. It was only following this stage
55 that the sediment-starved sectors in the Central Grampian Highlands
56 were overstepped as a more rapidly foundering rift system evolved
57 during Crinan Subgroup time (Figure 1.15b). A newly established
58 trough received a deluge of immature siliciclastic sediment that
59 became increasingly dominated by Archaean detritus.
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4 **1.8.3.4 Rift-drift transition; the Iapetan extensional**
5 **event**
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8 The rifting of Rodinia during early-Ediacaran (Argyll Group) time
9 eventually led to complete rupture of the continental crust and the
10 formation of the Iapetus Ocean, as the new continents of Baltica
11 and Gondwana drifted away from Laurentia (Soper, 1994b; Figure
12 1.14c). [Iapetus was the father of Atlas in Greek mythology.]

13 The timing of this rift-drift transition is generally considered
14 to be tightly constrained by a sudden increase in magmatism at c.
15 600 Ma. Localized episodes of igneous activity had punctuated
16 periods of basin deepening throughout Argyll Group time, but more-
17 voluminous basic volcanism in the South-west Grampian Highlands
18 dominated the Tayvallich Subgroup and eruption continued more-
19 sporadically during deposition of the Southern Highland Group
20 (Figure 1.15c). All of the Dalradian lavas have tholeiitic
21 affinities similar to those formed at accreting oceanic plate
22 margins (Graham and Bradbury, 1981), but the more-voluminous later
23 eruptions show evidence of a more-enriched, deeper mantle source
24 that was able to rise to higher levels as continental rupture
25 progressed (Macdonald *et al.*, 2005; Fettes *et al.*, 2011). Anderton
26 (1985) observed that the thickest volcanic sequences overlie areas
27 of supposed greatest crustal attenuation and it might also be
28 significant that the most-enriched magmas were erupted close to
29 major structures such as the Cruachan and Portsoy lineaments. The
30 Tayvallich basic volcanic rocks have been dated precisely at around
31 600-595 Ma (Halliday *et al.*, 1989; Dempster *et al.*, 2002), coeval
32 with the foliated, mildly alkaline granites of Keith-Portsoy at 600
33 Ma and Ben Vuirich at 590 Ma (Rogers *et al.*, 1989). Together they
34 define a major bimodal magmatic event, typical of an extensional
35 rift environment (Tanner *et al.*, 2006).
36

37 The onset of the Iapetan extensional event is also recorded in the
38 Northern Highlands Terrane, where a variety of igneous rocks were
39 intruded into the Moine Supergroup between 610 and 590 Ma (e.g.
40 Kinny *et al.*, 2003b). As in the Grampian Terrane, this magmatism
41 was distinctly bimodal, with both basic and silicic intrusions,
42 some with alkaline affinities, and all compatible with a
43 continental rift setting.
44

45 The rifting was also heralded by basic (and possibly ultrabasic)
46 volcanism in Shetland which, according to Flinn (2007), was
47 followed very shortly afterwards by burial metamorphism. The
48 metamorphism was boosted by high heat-flow through the stretched
49 and thinned crust, prior to oceanic opening. As the Laurentian
50 passive margin developed, the Dalradian strata become tilted (in
51 the manner of present day 'seaward-dipping seismic reflectors'),
52 were eventually rotated into a vertical orientation and suffered
53 further metamorphism and granitic veining locally under the
54 influence of permeating hydrous fluids. The upper part of the
55 vertical 'slab' was then rotated further to form the inverted limb
56 of a huge monocline that is the main structure of the Shetland
57 Dalradian. Flinn's interpretation places this whole sequence of
58 events in an extensional regime, related to Iapetus opening, some
59 100 Ma before the Grampian Event affected the Grampian Highlands,
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4 possibly overprinting and obscuring any earlier tectonothermal
5 events in that region.

6 A major change to more-immature sediment, increasingly dominated
7 by Archaean detritus, had already occurred at the base of the
8 Crinan Subgroup. From that time onwards, Palaeoproterozoic zircons
9 became less-abundant in the sediment load, suggesting that either
10 any c. 1800 Ma Ketillidian/Rhinnian source had become isolated from
11 the Dalradian basins by the Iapetan rifting or, more likely, that
12 it had been buried by sedimentation (Leslie *et al.*, 2008). During
13 Tayvallich Subgroup time, volcanoclastic aprons built out from the
14 volcanic centres and carbonate build-ups on the shelf were reworked
15 into deeper water as redeposited metacarbonate rocks (Thomas *et*
16 *al.*, 2004). In Southern Highland Group time, as the Iapetus Ocean
17 began to widen and the continental margin foundered, turbiditic
18 submarine fans prograded from the margin into the trough and
19 possibly extended along the trough axis, spilling out onto adjacent
20 marginal platforms. Localized volcanic activity continued and
21 volcanoclastic debris was reworked along the margin as 'green beds'
22 (Pickett *et al.*, 2006).
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25 **1.8.4 Cambrian to early Ordovician sedimentation**

26
27 It is now generally accepted that deep-water turbiditic
28 sedimentation on the Laurentian side of the Iapetus Ocean continued
29 throughout the later parts of the Ediacaran Period at least until
30 latest Early Cambrian time (*cf.* the Leny Limestone) and possibly
31 into the early Ordovician (mid Arenig) (Tanner, 1995; Tanner and
32 Pringle, 1999; Tanner and Sutherland, 2007; see the *Introduction* to
33 Chapter 4). The younger rocks, currently assigned to the Highland
34 Border Complex, occur only in fault-bounded slivers along the
35 Highland Boundary Fault. They include pillow lavas and remnants of
36 a fragmented ophiolite-complex that must have been obducted onto
37 the margin of the Grampian Terrane at some stage during the
38 Grampian Event (Tanner, 2007; see below).
39

40 Coeval with this upper Southern Highland Group-Highland Border
41 Complex succession is the undeformed, non-metamorphosed Cambrian to
42 mid-Ordovician succession of the Hebridean Terrane, described in
43 GCR Volume 18 (Rushton *et al.*, 1999). This sandstone and carbonate
44 sequence (the Ardvreck and Durness groups) rests upon a remarkably
45 planar basal unconformity and represents a major marine
46 transgression onto a wide, shallow shelf on the subsiding
47 Laurentian margin.
48

49 The two successions, together with their correlatives in East
50 Greenland and north-west Newfoundland, formed subparallel
51 sedimentary belts located along the continuous passive margin of
52 Laurentia (Figure 1.14c). The shelf sequences were deposited on
53 the landward side of the generally deeper water Dalradian-type
54 lithologies that accumulated on the continental slope and rise.
55 Oceanic crust is presumed to have existed to the south-east of the
56 present Dalradian outcrop, where it might ultimately have been
57 covered by progradation of the youngest sediments. All along the
58 former margin, these two successions are now in much closer
59 proximity than they were at their time of deposition due to the
60 effects of crustal shortening during the Caledonian Orogeny.
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4 Whether or not there was originally a continuous transition between
5 them has been a matter of debate (e.g. Dewey, 1969; Bluck *et al.*,
6 1997; Leslie *et al.*, 2008). However, the ages of their detrital
7 zircons are distinctly different (Cawood *et al.*, 2007), reflecting
8 derivation from different sectors of the Laurentian margin.
9 Palaeocurrent data suggests that the Dalradian sediments were
10 supplied by currents from the south-west, along troughs parallel to
11 the Laurentian shoreline (Anderton, 1985). These could have
12 sampled Mesoproterozoic rocks of the Grenvillian mountain belt
13 currently exposed in eastern Canada, which are not represented by
14 zircon ages in samples from the Ardvreck Group. The sediments of
15 the latter group were transported by currents flowing from the
16 north-west, across the shelf and transverse to the shoreline
17 (McKie, 1990), from a hinterland to the west composed almost
18 entirely of Palaeoproterozoic and Archaean rocks.
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21 **1.8.5 The Caledonian Orogeny**

22

23 The Iapetus Ocean reached its greatest width, of about 2000 km,
24 during late Cambrian time at around 500 Ma. It then began to close
25 rapidly due to the renewed convergence of Laurentia with Baltica
26 and with a microcontinent called Avalonia that separated from
27 Gondwana (Soper and Hutton, 1984; Pickering *et al.*, 1988; Soper *et*
28 *al.*, 1992) (Figure 1.14d). The combined tectonic and magmatic
29 effects of that convergence, leading eventually to continent-
30 continent collision and subsequent uplift, constitute the
31 Caledonian Orogeny. Prior to the more-recent opening of the North
32 Atlantic Ocean, the resultant Caledonian mountain belt stretched
33 continuously from the Appalachians, through Newfoundland and the
34 British Isles to East Greenland and north-west Scandinavia (Figure
35 1.3). The western Caledonian Front can be followed from East
36 Greenland, through the Moine Thrust Belt of north-west Scotland to
37 Newfoundland, whilst the eastern front runs through Sweden and
38 Norway. In southern Britain a complex Caledonian Front lies buried
39 beneath younger strata.
40

41 Within this broad orogenic framework, many separate events have
42 been identified, several of which have been given specific names.
43 Of most relevance to the Dalradian are the mid-Ordovician peak of
44 deformation and metamorphism, accompanied by localized basic
45 magmatism and crustal melting, termed the Grampian Event, and a
46 period of later folding, uplift and generation of huge volumes of
47 largely silicic magma, during the Silurian, termed the Scandian
48 Event. The Early- to Mid-Devonian Acadian Event, which was
49 responsible for most of the deformation in northern England and
50 Wales, might have been the cause of re-activation of the major
51 bounding faults of the Scottish Highlands (Mendum and Noble, 2010).
52

53 The GCR sites in this volume represent Caledonian deformation and
54 metamorphism in the Grampian Terrane. GCR volumes 3 (Treagus,
55 1992) and 34 (Mendum *et al.*, 2009) represent deformation and
56 metamorphism elsewhere in Britain, and Volume 17 (Stephenson *et*
57 *al.*, 1999) represents Caledonian magmatism throughout Britain.
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1.8.5.1 *The Grampian Event*

The mid-Ordovician Grampian Event was the first collisional event to affect the Scottish part of the Laurentian margin, and was the first phase of the Caledonian Orogeny (Lambert and McKerrow, 1976). This event is now widely regarded as having been caused by the collision of an arc terrane against the passive margin (Dewey and Shackleton, 1984; van Staal *et al.*, 1998; Oliver, 2001; see Figures 1.14d and 1.16). In Scotland, there is only indirect evidence that an arc is buried beneath post-Ordovician sedimentary cover in the Midland Valley (Bluck, 1983, 1984) and might also occur at depth beneath part of the Highland Border region of the Grampian Highlands. However, parts of an early Cambrian to early Ordovician island arc, together with a suprasubduction ophiolite, are exposed in western Ireland (Dewey and Ryan, 1990). Most Grampian deformation and metamorphism in Scotland occurred in the Grampian Terrane. In the Northern Highlands Terrane, most deformation appears to be Knoydartian (see above) or Scandian (see below), but some significant Grampian tectonic and metamorphic effects have also been proved (Kinny *et al.*, 1999; Dallmeyer *et al.*, 2001; Rogers *et al.*, 2001; Emery, 2005). A comparable mid-Ordovician orogenic event in the Appalachians of eastern North America is known as the Taconic Event (Dewey and Shackleton, 1984).

In Cambrian and early Ordovician times, the Scottish sector of the Laurentian margin consisted of a shallow-water shelf that developed on the foreland of the Hebridean Terrane. This passed south-eastwards into the deep-marine turbidite basins of the Southern Highland Group (Figure 1.16a), where sedimentation was terminated in the mid Ordovician by crustal flexure and/or uplift associated with the Grampian Event (e.g. Soper *et al.*, 1999). The arc-continent collision is thought to have resulted in the obduction or overthrusting of exotic ophiolitic nappes (Figure 1.16b), accompanied by regional deformation and Barrovian metamorphism of the Dalradian rocks (Dewey and Shackleton, 1984; Dewey and Ryan, 1990; Chew *et al.*, 2010). The best-preserved ophiolite-complex occurs in north-east Shetland in two nappes that structurally overlie Dalradian rocks (Flinn and Oglethorpe, 2005). Another ophiolite-complex occurs in the Grampian Terrane at Clew Bay in Ireland and ophiolitic fragments form a discontinuous outcrop along the Highland Border from Bute to Stonehaven (Tanner, 2007). Ophiolites of similar age occur in the Midland Valley Terrane at Ballantrae and Tyrone.

Several authors have attributed the main Grampian deformation to the obduction of ophiolites (e.g. Dewey and Shackleton, 1984; Dewey and Mange, 1999; Dewey, 2005) and it has been common practice to regard their age of emplacement as marking the start of the Grampian Event. Although relatively precise radiometric dates are now available for the crystallization ages of some of the obducted material, attempts to date the time of obduction have so far proved more difficult and, in some cases, contradictory.

In Shetland, an Ar-Ar step-heating age of 498 ± 2 Ma from hornblende in the metamorphic sole of the lower nappe (Flinn *et al.*, 1991) is older than a U-Pb zircon crystallization age of 492 ± 3 Ma for a leucotonalite vein within the ophiolite (Spray and

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4 Dunning, 1991). Nevertheless, Flinn and Oglethorpe (2005)
5 concluded that the lower nappe was obducted at about 500 Ma, i.e.
6 early in the Grampian Event. However, U-Pb monazite ages from
7 pelites in the footwall of the ophiolite nappes have been
8 considered to date the regional metamorphism at 462–451 Ma (Cutts
9 *et al.*, 2011). Leucotonalites associated with the Ballantrae
10 ophiolite have yielded a U-Pb zircon age of 483 ± 4 Ma with a
11 marginally younger K-Ar hornblende age of 478 ± 8 Ma on an
12 amphibolite that is considered to date obduction (Bluck *et al.*,
13 1980). Two Cambrian dates obtained from an amphibolite on Bute
14 that have been claimed to date obduction of the Highland Border
15 ophiolite (Dempster and Bluck, 1991) have been questioned by Tanner
16 (2007). The latter, expanding upon a model first proposed by
17 Henderson and Robertson (1982), argued that the Highland Border
18 Ophiolite was obducted at a relatively late stage in the Grampian
19 Event onto the upper limb of an already recumbent Tay Nappe (F1)
20 and hence could not have been responsible for significant early
21 deformation of the Dalradian. However, subsequent work has shown
22 that the ophiolite is relatively early in age and was emplaced
23 prior to D1 (Henderson *et al.*, 2009), at around 490 Ma (Chew *et*
24 *al.*, 2010), and prior to the metamorphic peak at c. 470 Ma.

25
26 It seems reasonable to conclude that fragments of ophiolite were
27 probably obducted at various times in different places during the
28 Grampian Event. Possibly more-reliable indicators of the onset of
29 arc-continent collision in the west of Ireland are U-Pb zircon
30 dates of 489 ± 3.1 Ma and 487 ± 2.3 Ma obtained from leucotonalite
31 boulders unequivocally derived from the Cambro-Ordovician arc (Chew
32 *et al.*, 2007). Nd isotope evidence indicates that these
33 leucotonalites had assimilated significant amounts of Laurentian
34 margin sediment and hence that subduction was underway by c. 490
35 Ma. The timing might have varied slightly along the Laurentian
36 margin, particularly if the convergence was markedly oblique, and
37 some authors have suggested that events occurred earlier in Ireland
38 than Scotland.

39
40 In the Scottish sector, intra-oceanic obduction and accretion was
41 probably under way by 480 Ma (Tremadoc–Arenig) time, with the
42 Midland Valley Arc beginning to encroach upon the Laurentian margin
43 (Bluck, 2001) (Figure 1.16a). The youngest rocks affected by
44 Grampian deformation in the Highland Border region are at most c.
45 520 Ma (latest Early Cambrian; the Leny Limestone) and possibly as
46 young as c. 475 Ma (mid Arenig; Tanner and Sutherland, 2007). But,
47 by Arenig–Llanvirn time (470 Ma), several lines of evidence
48 indicate that orogenesis was well under way and that the arc had
49 been accreted onto the continental margin (Figure 1.16b).

50
51 The Grampian deformation culminated in the formation of major fold
52 stacks or nappe complexes and associated zones of structural
53 attenuation (Figure 1.16c). Structures associated with at least
54 the major phases D1, D2 and D3 were formed at this time. The gross
55 lateral continuity of the Dalradian lithostratigraphy precludes the
56 existence of any large-scale thrusting at the present exposure
57 level but a major zone of top-to-the-SE simple shear in the lower
58 levels of the SE-facing and southerly directed Tay Nappe might
59 reflect underthrusting of the arc beneath the Laurentian margin
60 (Krabbendam *et al.*, 1997).
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5 Several suites of plutonic rocks were intruded into the Dalradian
6 rocks of the North-east Grampian Highlands at c. 470 Ma,
7 demonstrably during regional deformation and metamorphism.
8 Precisely dated by U-Pb methods on minerals, these include the
9 North-east Grampian Basic suite and two suites of diorite and
10 granite (Kneller and Aftalion, 1987; Dempster *et al.*, 2002).
11 Similar basic and silicic plutons were emplaced at c. 470 Ma during
12 the peak of metamorphism in the west of Ireland (Friedrich *et al.*,
13 1999). These dates are consistent with U-Pb monazite ages of c.
14 470-450 Ma obtained from Grampian Group rocks of the Northern
15 Grampian Highlands that are thought to date the peak of
16 metamorphism (Phillips *et al.*, 1999).

17 General consensus is that the main collisional event was
18 relatively short-lived, and its culmination is constrained in both
19 Western Ireland and Scotland to an interval of c. 10 Ma between 475
20 and 462 Ma (Dewey and Mange, 1999; Friedrich *et al.*, 1999; Soper *et*
21 *al.*, 1999; Oliver, 2001). It was followed by uplift and cooling as
22 the metamorphic belt was unroofed, starting at c. 460 Ma and
23 continuing through to early Silurian time. A range of mineral
24 ages, determined by various methods on muscovite and biotite,
25 suggest relatively rapid cooling through 500°C and 350°C between 470
26 and 440 Ma and slower cooling through 300°C between 460 and 430 Ma,
27 depending on location within the orogen (Dempster *et al.*, 1995;
28 Soper *et al.*, 1999; Oliver *et al.*, 2000).

29 Uplift and erosion dispersed Grampian-age metamorphic detritus
30 across the accreted arc (or arcs) and into an accretionary wedge
31 facing the narrowing Iapetus Ocean. In Scotland, such detritus
32 appears in the sedimentary record of the Southern Uplands in the
33 Caradoc Stage (Oliver, 2001). Later strike-slip displacements,
34 which moved structural blocks and possibly whole terranes for
35 considerable distances along the orogenic belt (see below), mean
36 that detailed sediment-dispersal pathways cannot be determined.
37 However, more complete data in the west of Ireland record
38 progressive unroofing of an ophiolite complex during Arenig time,
39 followed by exhumation of the metamorphic belt during the Llanvirn
40 Age (Dewey and Mange, 1999).
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43 **1.8.5.2 The Scandian Event**

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45 The second main phase of the Caledonian Orogeny, termed the
46 Scandian Event, occurred during early Silurian to Early Devonian
47 time, between c. 435 and 400 Ma. It coincided with the final
48 closure of the Iapetus Ocean, and the docking of Avalonia against
49 Laurentia, but resulted mainly from the collision of Baltica with
50 Laurentia (Coward, 1990; Dewey and Mange, 1999; Dallmeyer *et al.*,
51 2001; Kinny *et al.*, 2003a) (Figures 1.14 e and f). The effects of
52 this event are widespread in the Northern Highlands Terrane and
53 both west and east of the Walls Boundary Fault in Shetland, but are
54 very limited in the Grampian Terrane, which must have been located
55 some distance away from, and to the south of, the main collision
56 zone (Figure 1.17a). An alternative view is that the Grampian
57 Highlands might have formed a relatively rigid block entrained
58 between contractional deformation zones at the leading edges of the
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4 obliquely colliding Laurentian and Baltican plates (Leslie *et al.*,
5 2008).

6 There is no specific evidence of regional deformation and
7 metamorphism in the Grampian Terrane during the Scandian Event.
8 Almost all of the major regional folds, including the Tay Nappe,
9 had formed by now and the metamorphic peak was well past. However,
10 the uplift and cooling at the end of the Grampian Event might have
11 overlapped in time with Scandian deformation elsewhere and it is
12 not clear how the major regional D4 deformation and subsequent
13 localized phases are related to the overall tectonic pattern.
14

15 In contrast, Scandian nappe stacking dominates the structure of
16 the Northern Highlands Terrane of Scotland and the East Greenland
17 Caledonides. The most prominent structure ascribed to the Scandian
18 Event in Britain is the Moine Thrust Belt, which forms the western
19 Caledonian Front in Scotland. Thrusts within the belt are cut by
20 syenites of the Loch Borrallan Pluton, which have been dated at 430
21 ± 4 Ma (van Breemen *et al.*, 1979). However, dating of micas in the
22 Moine Supergroup and mylonites that overlie the thrust belt has
23 indicated that ductile deformation may have been occurring until *c.*
24 410 Ma (Dallmeyer *et al.*, 2001). Ductile deformation and thrusting
25 also occurred farther to the east within the Moine rocks, and
26 hence, in the Northern Highlands Terrane, the Scandian Event
27 resulted in significant overall crustal shortening, probably in
28 excess of 150 km. West-verging shears to the west of the Walls
29 Boundary Fault in Shetland, including the Virdibreck Shear-zone
30 responsible for emplacement of possible Dalradian rocks of the
31 Queyfirth Group, have long been equated with the Moine Thrust Belt
32 and hence can be regarded as Scandian.
33

34 East of the Walls Boundary Fault, the Upper Nappe of the Shetland
35 Ophiolite-complex was emplaced by westward thrusting over the Lower
36 Nappe, from which it is separated by an imbricate zone. Within the
37 imbricate zone are siliceous metasedimentary rocks of Ordovician to
38 Silurian age, derived by erosion of the Lower Nappe and Dalradian
39 'basement'. The thrusting was broadly coeval with emplacement of
40 the Skaw Granite, which has been dated by Ar-Ar step heating of
41 muscovite in its aureole at *c.* 425 Ma (Flinn and Oglethorpe, 2005).
42 Hence the emplacement of the Skaw Granite, the westward thrusting
43 of the Upper Nappe and the metamorphism of the Ordovician-Silurian
44 sedimentary rocks can all be regarded as part of the Scandian
45 Event. In a further development, Cutts *et al.* (2011) have
46 attributed a marked contrast in P-T conditions between pelites
47 directly below the Lower Nappe and those from deeper structural
48 levels to an extensional tectonic break that excised at least 10 km
49 of crustal section at some time after the peak of metamorphism.
50

51 Flinn and Oglethorpe (2005) also attributed the west-verging
52 Quarff Nappe to the Scandian Event. The presence of Scandian
53 structures in eastern Shetland further emphasises the separation
54 between the Scottish and Shetland Dalradian sequences. Prior to
55 later sinistral movement along terrane boundaries (see below),
56 Shetland was probably sited more-directly opposite the Norwegian
57 sector of Baltica, where a Scandian fold-and-thrust belt with an
58 opposite, easterly vergence marks the eastern Caledonian Front.
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60 The final stages of closure of the Iapetus Ocean was achieved by
61 subduction to the north-west beneath the Laurentian margin (e.g.
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4 Dewey and Ryan, 1990), reversing the polarity of oceanic
5 subduction, which had been towards the south-east beneath the
6 Midland Valley Arc (Figure 1.16). It is generally accepted that
7 the ocean had closed and the three continents had collided by the
8 end of the Wenlock Epoch (e.g. Soper *et al.*, 1992). And it is at
9 about that time, at c. 425 Ma, that large volumes of silicic magma
10 were intruded into both the Grampian and Northern Highlands
11 terranes, followed shortly afterwards by High-K calc-alkaline
12 volcanism in the Grampian and Midland Valley terranes (424-410 Ma).
13 The magmas were derived mainly from lower crustal sources, but
14 there is also a significant background input of magma from the
15 subcontinental lithospheric mantle, modified by contact with
16 subducted oceanic crust, even after the continental collision (see
17 the *Caledonian Igneous rocks of Great Britain* GCR volume;
18 Stephenson *et al.*, 1999). The emplacement of the magmas implies
19 that by this time the Grampian Terrane at least was being uplifted
20 in an extensional regime and hence could not have been experiencing
21 Scandian orogenic (i.e. compressional) forces.
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24 **1.8.5.3 Late Brittle Faulting, Terrane Assembly and** 25 **Extensional Collapse** 26

27 The main phase of Scandian ductile thrusting and folding was
28 followed by sinistral strike-slip displacements along an array of
29 NE-trending steep faults that dissect the Northern Highlands and
30 Grampian terranes (Watson, 1984) (Figure 1.17). Strike-slip
31 faults had already developed prior to and during the collision of
32 Avalonia and Laurentia. However, the major sinistral movement was
33 associated with the lateral translation of Baltica and Avalonia
34 along the Laurentian margin that was probably continuous throughout
35 late Silurian and into Early Devonian time. Those movements
36 eventually resulted in juxtaposition of the Northern Highlands and
37 Grampian terranes in more-or-less their current positions.
38 According to some authors (e.g. Bluck, 2002), the Highland Border
39 Ophiolite-complex was part of an exotic terrane that 'docked' with
40 the Grampian Terrane during this strike-slip motion, and the
41 Midland Valley Terrane reached its present position only in latest
42 Devonian time (Bluck, 1984).
43

44 The most prominent faults are those that form the terrane
45 boundaries; the linked Great Glen and Walls Boundary faults and the
46 Highland Boundary Fault, along which hundreds of kilometres of
47 displacement might have occurred. Seismic reflection studies show
48 that the Great Glen Fault is coincident with a subvertical
49 structure that extends to at least 40 km depth (Hall *et al.*, 1984),
50 and isotopic signatures of mantle-derived magmas are different
51 either side of the fault, suggesting that it has some expression in
52 the upper mantle (Canning *et al.*, 1996, 1998). Geophysical studies
53 have shown that the Highland Boundary Fault is broadly coincident
54 with a change in lower crustal structure (Rollin, 1994) and various
55 workers have speculated that this may correspond to the edge of the
56 Laurentian craton (e.g. Soper and Hutton, 1984).
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58 The timing and amount of movement along these faults are important
59 for reconstructing some of the tectonic events in the later part of
60 the Caledonian Orogeny (Harris, 1995). Although little is known
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4 about its pre-Silurian history, sinistral movement on the Great
5 Glen Fault certainly occurred during the period between c. 430 Ma
6 and c. 400 Ma (Stewart *et al.*, 1999). More specifically, Silurian
7 displacement is indicated by the U-Pb zircon age of 428 ± 2 Ma of
8 the Clunes Tonalite which is thought to have been emplaced during
9 sinistral shear (Stewart *et al.*, 2001). The fault was re-activated
10 around 400–393 Ma, as shown by evidence of sinistral transpression
11 affecting the c. 400 Ma Rosemarkie Inlier leucogranite intrusions
12 (Mendum and Noble, 2010). Late Emsian sedimentary rocks within the
13 fault-zone are relatively undeformed and it therefore seems certain
14 that intense deformation fabrics seen in Moine and Dalradian rocks
15 within the 3 km-wide fault-zone pre-date most Old Red Sandstone
16 deposition (Stewart *et al.*, 1999). However, during Early and Mid
17 Devonian time, alluvial fans were deposited along active fault
18 scarps (Trewin and Thirlwall, 2002). Thus, lateral movement along
19 the Great Glen and associated faults overlapped with, but
20 outlasted, the Scandian Event. Post-Caledonian structures along
21 the fault-zone (most notably associated with Mesozoic dextral
22 movements) are invariably brittle in style (Stewart *et al.*, 1999).

23
24 The magnitude of early displacement along the Great Glen Fault is
25 uncertain because there is no unambiguous correlation of pre-
26 Devonian features across the fault. Estimates of sinistral
27 movement based on correlations of various igneous and metamorphic
28 features have ranged from 104 km (Kennedy, 1946) to 160 km
29 (Winchester, 1974; Piasecki *et al.*, 1981). Latterly, the general
30 consensus has been that sinistral displacements are unlikely to
31 have exceeded 200–300 km. This is consistent with most
32 palaeomagnetic estimates (Briden *et al.*, 1984) and the inferred
33 offset of reflectors within the mantle lithosphere (Snyder and
34 Flack, 1990). A comparable early sinistral offset of at least 100
35 km on the Walls Boundary Fault is based on the onshore geology of
36 Shetland (Flinn, 1961) but apparent offsets of various offshore
37 features have produced a variety of ambiguous and controversial
38 estimates (e.g. Ritchie and Hitchen, 1993; Underhill, 1993).
39 However, larger displacements are implied by tectonic
40 reconstructions that place the Northern Highlands Terrane opposite
41 Baltica during the Scandian collision, and Dewey and Strachan
42 (2003) have suggested that at least 700 km of sinistral
43 displacement must have occurred in order to explain the absence of
44 Scandian deformation from the Grampian Terrane.

45
46 The Highland Boundary Fault is a high-angle reverse fault that
47 eventually juxtaposed Dalradian rocks against Upper Devonian and
48 Lower Carboniferous rocks of the Midland Valley Terrane. Much of
49 the movement was therefore post Caledonian, although it seems
50 likely that the reverse fault might have re-activated an older and
51 more fundamental structure (Tanner, 2008). The full tectonic
52 significance of the fault is uncertain. Late Silurian to Early
53 Devonian sinistral displacements have commonly been assumed (e.g.
54 Soper and Hutton, 1984; Hutton, 1987; Soper *et al.*, 1992) and
55 studies of clasts within Old Red Sandstone sedimentary rocks led
56 Bluck (1984) to conclude that major strike-slip movement continued
57 until latest Devonian time. However, there is little direct
58 evidence and other workers have argued against any major lateral
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4 displacements after the Grampian Event (e.g. Hutchison and Oliver,
5 1998; Oliver, 2001).

6 Within the Grampian Terrane, several related NE-trending faults
7 occur mainly between the Great Glen and Loch Tay faults (see
8 figures 1.1 and 3.1). Marked facies and thickness changes across
9 these faults, particularly in the Central Grampian Highlands,
10 suggest that they exerted an influence on Appin and early Argyll
11 group sedimentation and defined basin margins in places. Treagus
12 (1991) demonstrated an early phase of dip-slip movement with a
13 cumulative downthrow to the east of c. 7 km, followed by sinistral
14 strike-slip with a cumulative displacement of c. 23 km. Various
15 lines of evidence suggest a late Silurian to Early Devonian age for
16 the main strike-slip movements, which had a close temporal
17 relationship with, and partly controlled the emplacement of,
18 certain late-Caledonian plutons and dyke-swarms (Morris and Hutton,
19 1993; Jacques and Reavy, 1994). The intrusion of large volumes of
20 silicic magma, starting at c. 425 Ma, suggests that by mid-Silurian
21 time sinistral transtensional stresses had begun to replace oblique
22 convergence and transpression.
23

24 Most of the strike-slip faults developed prior to the onset of Old
25 Red Sandstone sedimentation and by Early Devonian time the Scottish
26 sector of the Caledonian orogenic belt was undergoing extensional
27 collapse (McClay *et al.*, 1986). Extensional dip-slip movements on
28 many of the faults then led to the development of localized
29 intermontane basins during the Early Devonian and more-extensive
30 regional basins in Mid to Late Devonian time. Syndepositional
31 deformation of Old Red Sandstone sedimentary rocks in the Orcadian
32 Basin has been proposed by Seranne (1992), and shear fabrics in the
33 Upper Nappe of the Shetland Ophiolite-complex and its underlying
34 imbricate zone might also be related to this extensional phase and
35 hence represent the youngest deformation to affect Caledonian
36 metamorphic rocks (Cannat, 1989).
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52

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27

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56

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60 surname for works by sole authors and dual authors. Where there
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4 are references that include the first-named author with others, the
5 sole-author works are listed chronologically first, followed by the
6 dual author references (alphabetically) followed by the references
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40 ***Glossary and terminology***

43 **G.1 Geochronology**

44
45 The time-scale and chronostratigraphical names used throughout this
46 volume are from *A Geologic Time Scale 2004* (Gradstein *et al.*,
47 2004). Wherever possible, interpretations of age are based upon the
48 most recent radiometric dates, which are almost always by U-Pb
49 analysis of zircons or, rarely, monazites. Determinations by other
50 radiometric methods provide additional information but are
51 interpreted with more caution or are included for historical
52 interest.
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55 **G.2 Lithological nomenclature**

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57 The nomenclature of metamorphic rocks in this volume broadly
58 follows the recommendations of the British Geological Survey's Rock
59 Classification Scheme (Robertson, 1999). It also draws upon some
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4 parts of the Recommendations of the International Union of
5 Geological Sciences Subcommittee on the Systematics of Metamorphic
6 Rocks (Fettes and Desmons, 2007). However, the nature of the GCR is
7 such that the site reports draw heavily upon previous literature,
8 to which the reader is frequently referred. Hence, some more-
9 radical changes in nomenclature that would make comparison with
10 previous work confusing have been avoided.

11 Historically in the Grampian Highlands, the names used to describe
12 units of metasedimentary rock have been dependent upon metamorphic
13 grade and the ease with which primary sedimentary features can be
14 identified. Thus in the South-west Grampian Highlands, where
15 metamorphic grade is generally low, many authors have used
16 sedimentary rock terms (e.g. mudstone, siltstone, sandstone), with
17 or without the prefix 'meta'. In an ideal world this would be the
18 preferred scheme. However, where the rocks are more metamorphosed,
19 the terms pelite, semipelite, psammite and quartzite have been used
20 to represent argillaceous to arenaceous clastic protoliths. Use of
21 the latter scheme, first proposed by Tyrrell (1921), is almost
22 unique to the British Isles, has not been recommended by the IUGS
23 (Fettes and Desmons, 2007), and will almost certainly be phased out
24 in the future. Some attempt has been made to rationalize the two
25 'schemes', at least within individual chapters of this volume, but
26 total consistency has proved to be impractical for various
27 pragmatic reasons.

28
29 Some commonly used names have been abandoned because they are no
30 longer approved in any modern-day sedimentary-rock scheme. For
31 example, the term 'grit', beloved of Highland geologists since the
32 earliest days, becomes 'pebbly sandstone' or 'microconglomerate'
33 under this regime, and 'arkose' becomes 'feldspathic sandstone'.

34
35 Regardless of metamorphic grade, relatively pure metacarbonate
36 rocks consisting essentially of recrystallized carbonate minerals
37 are referred to as 'metalimestone' or 'metadolostone'. The term
38 'marble' is rarely found in modern descriptions and tends to be
39 used as an informal general term for a decorative metacarbonate
40 rock. Calcsilicate rocks represent originally impure calcareous (or
41 magnesian) carbonate rocks and contain a high proportion of
42 calcium-magnesium-silicate minerals such as tremolitic amphibole,
43 grossular garnet, epidote, zoisite and idocrase. Such rocks grade
44 into metasedimentary 'para-amphibolites'.

45 The textural terms 'slate', 'phyllite', 'schist' and 'gneiss' have
46 commonly been used as rock names and are still approved by the IUGS
47 and BGS schemes for use where the nature of the protolith is
48 uncertain. However, they impart no information about the
49 composition of the rock and hence the preferred terminology
50 restricts their use to textural qualifiers, giving priority to root
51 names based upon composition e.g. 'slaty metamudstone' or 'slaty
52 pelite', rather than 'pelitic slate'. This principal has been
53 followed throughout this volume wherever possible.

54
55 Restrictions on the use of non-approved rock names do not apply to
56 lithostratigraphical names, into which they are commonly
57 incorporated by historical precedence and in order to maintain
58 consistency (e.g. Ballachulish Slate Formation, Ben Ledi Grit
59 Formation).

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4 The terminology of igneous rocks follows the IUGS-approved scheme
5 of Le Maitre et al. (2002), with slight modifications following the
6 BGS Rock Classification Scheme of Gillespie and Styles (1999).
7 Metamorphosed igneous rocks are classified, wherever possible, by
8 adding the prefix 'meta' to the name of their protolith (eg.
9 metabasalt, metadolerite, metagranite). Where the protolith cannot
10 be identified, general descriptive terms such as 'hornblende
11 schist' or 'amphibolite' are used. The term 'epidiorite', formerly
12 used for various metamorphosed basic rocks has been abandoned.
13

14 For the names of minerals, the reader is referred to standard
15 textbooks.
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17 **G.3 Nomenclature and numbering of structures related to** 18 **phases of deformation** 19

20 Identifiable episodes of deformation have been termed D1, D2, D3
21 etc. in order of decreasing age. Folds that can be related to
22 specific deformation phases are numbered F1, F2, F3 etc.
23 Corresponding cleavages and other planar structures are numbered
24 S1, S2, S3 etc. and primary bedding is numbered S0. Lineations are
25 likewise numbered L1, L2, L3 etc.
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27 However, not all of the deformation episodes are necessarily
28 developed in all areas and, even within individual areas, the
29 multiplicity of workers has resulted in differences in numbering of
30 structural events. Consequently inconsistencies in the nomenclature
31 of structural phases are common when comparing detailed studies of
32 separate areas. Authors undertaking regional syntheses have
33 attempted to solve this problem by disregarding phases of
34 deformation whose effects can be shown to be of local extent only.
35 The regional phases are then numbered to produce a sequence of
36 major events recognizable over wide areas and accepted by most
37 authors. Thus, for example, the sequence D1 to D3 identified in the
38 regional synthesis of the South-west Highlands by Roberts and
39 Treagus (1977c), differs numerically from that used in detailed,
40 more local studies within the same area by Roberts (1974; 1976) and
41 Treagus (1974). The issue of local fold phases that are difficult
42 to date or seem to be additional to the regional phases was
43 addressed by Treagus (2000) by the use of lower case letters, such
44 as De and Dt to represent Errochty and Trinafour fold phases
45 respectively in the Schiehallion area. Even with this
46 rationalization, problems still exist on a regional scale with the
47 result that different nomenclatures have been applied by various
48 authors.
49

50 One major problem arises from a variation in the number of
51 recognizable major phases across the Tay Nappe. D1 and D2 are
52 widespread events recognized by most authors. However, a D3 event,
53 responsible for refolding of the Tay Nappe in the Tummel Steep
54 Belt, for example, becomes difficult to distinguish farther to the
55 north-west. Consequently, workers in the Central Grampian Highlands
56 and southern parts of the Northern Grampian Highlands, such as
57 Roberts and Treagus (1977c; 1979), Thomas (1979; 1980) and Treagus
58 (1987) recognized only D1 and D2 as definite nappe-forming and
59 nappe-modifying events and later upright folds such as the Ben
60 Lawers Synform, termed by them D3, were regarded as part of a post-
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4 nappe phase. Workers in areas to the south-east (e.g. Harris *et*
5 *al.*, 1976; Bradbury *et al.*, 1979; Harte *et al.*, 1984; Mendum and
6 Fettes, 1985) recognized three nappe forming or modifying events
7 (D1, D2, D3) and hence their main late-tectonic phase, responsible
8 in particular for the Highland Border Downbend, is D4. It is still
9 not clear whether structures such as the Ben Lawers Synform
10 correlate with D3 or D4 structures father to the south-east but the
11 D1-D4 nomenclature is more generally applicable and hence will be
12 adopted in this volume unless stated otherwise.
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14 **G.4 Use of the stereographic projection**

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17 The equal-area stereographic projection, whose use in structural
18 geology was popularized by Coles Phillips (1954), remains the best
19 tool for representing the orientation of planes and lines in three-
20 dimensional space. Although it is possible to project planes and
21 lines onto either the lower or the upper surface of a sphere, it
22 has become conventional to use only the lower hemisphere; the
23 equal-area projection of that hemisphere onto a two-dimensional
24 plane is known as a stereogram or stereoplot.

25 On the stereogram, a plane is represented by a great circle, and a
26 lineation by a point; if many planes are to be plotted they are
27 best recorded as poles (a pole is a line drawn at right angles to
28 the plane that uniquely defines the dip, dip direction, and strike
29 of the plane) (Figure G.1a). Plotting of the two main geometrical
30 features of minor folds, the axial plane and hinge, is illustrated
31 in Figure G.1b.
32

33 In areas of tilted or folded strata, the pattern defined by the
34 poles to bedding, for example, most commonly forms one of two
35 distinctive patterns. Either the points cluster in a single group
36 (a point distribution), or they are spread out along a great circle
37 path and define a girdle (Figures G.1c and G.1d). A cluster
38 represents the variation in orientation of a single surface or
39 horizon, for which the computed mean is commonly quoted, together
40 with the number of observations (N). In the case of the girdle, a
41 best-fit great circle for the dataset is computed (i.e. the plane
42 containing the poles to the bedding; Figure G.1d), with the pole to
43 this plane giving the attitude of the major fold axis.
44

45 **G.5 Glossary**

46
47 This glossary aims to provide simple explanations of all but the
48 most elementary geological terms used in Chapter 1 and in the
49 Introduction and Conclusions sections of site descriptions. It also
50 includes many of the more important terms encountered in other
51 sections of the volume. *The explanations are not intended to be*
52 *comprehensive definitions, but concentrate instead on the way in*
53 *which the terms are used in this volume.* Bold type indicates a
54 further glossary entry.
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57 **A-type:** refers to an igneous rock, usually a granite, with **alkaline**
58 characteristics; an alkali granite.
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4 **Accretion:** used in a tectonic context to describe the process
5 whereby sections of usually oceanic crust become attached to the
6 margin of a craton or pre-existing terrane during plate collision.
7 **Acritarch:** hollow organic walled microfossils of uncertain
8 biological affinities, but most might be algal cysts.
9 **Agglomerate:** a **pyroclastic** rock with predominantly rounded **clasts**
10 greater than 64 mm in diameter.
11 **Alkaline:** describes igneous rocks that contain more sodium and/or
12 potassium than is required to form feldspar and hence contain, or
13 have the potential to contain (i.e. in the **norm**), other alkali-
14 bearing minerals such as feldspathoids, alkali pyroxenes and
15 alkali amphiboles.
16 **Allochthonous:** describes a body of rock that has been transported
17 from where it was originally formed to its present position by
18 tectonic processes.
19 **Alluvial: proximal** terrestrial depositional environments containing
20 a spectrum of **mass-flow** (debris-flow) and stream-flow (**fluvial**)
21 deposits.
22 **Amphibolite:** a dark-green rock composed largely of amphibole,
23 typically hornblende, possibly with some plagioclase. Most
24 amphibolites are metamorphosed **mafic** igneous rocks (ortho-
25 amphibolites), but some are metamorphosed calcareous sedimentary
26 rocks (**para-amphibolites**).
27 **Amygdale:** a gas bubble cavity in an igneous rock that has been
28 infilled later with minerals.
29 **Anatexis:** describes partial melting of a pre-existing rock
30 **Anticline:** a fold in which the oldest strata lie in the core of the
31 fold, irrespective of whether the fold closes upwards, downwards
32 or sideways.
33 **Antiform:** a fold with **limbs** that converge upwards (upward closing),
34 either in strata where the direction of **younging** in the
35 stratigraphical sequence is not known, or where the strata have
36 been previously inverted so that the fold is an upward-closing
37 syncline. In areas of multiphase folding, all upward closing post-
38 F1 folds should strictly be termed antiforms because of the likely
39 presence of both upward- and downward-facing earlier structures.
40 **Aphyric:** textural term, applied to igneous rocks that lack
41 relatively large, conspicuous crystals (**phenocrysts**) compared with
42 the grain size of the groundmass (or non-**porphyritic**).
43 **Aplitic:** describes relatively finer grained areas, or typically
44 veins, usually of **felsic** material, within an igneous rock
45 **Appinitic:** describes coarse-grained **ultramafic** and **mafic** igneous
46 rocks, characterized by the presence of abundant hydrous **mafic**
47 minerals, particularly amphibole, and by distinctive whole-rock
48 geochemistry.
49 **Ash-fall tuff:** lithified **pyroclastic** fall deposit with grain size
50 less than 2 mm in diameter.
51 **Augen:** large, generally ovoid crystals within a foliated matrix.
52 The foliation wraps around the augen to give a characteristic
53 texture. (From German for 'eyes'.)
54 **Autochthonous:** describes a body of rock that formed approximately
55 in its present position in contact with its basement.
56 **Axial planar cleavage or foliation:** a **cleavage** or **foliation** that is
57 orientated parallel to the **axial plane** of a fold or set of folds.
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5 **Back-arc basin:** the region adjacent to a **subduction**-related **island**
6 **arc**, on the opposite side of the arc from the trench and
7 subducting plate. Stresses in the back-arc region are typically
8 extensional.
9

10 **Basement:** The oldest rock units recognized in a given area; usually
11 a complex of metamorphic and/or igneous rocks that underlies a
12 sedimentary or metasedimentary succession.

13 **Basic:** describes igneous rocks relatively rich in the 'bases' of
14 early chemistry (MgO, FeO, CaO, Fe₂O₃); silica (SiO₂) is relatively
15 low (nominally 45 - 52%).

16 **Basin** (i.e. sedimentary basin): a region of prolonged subsidence
17 of the Earth's surface.

18 **Bedding:** a feature of sedimentary rocks, in which planar or near-
19 planar surfaces known as bedding planes indicate successive
20 depositional surfaces formed as the sediments were laid down.

21 **Biostratigraphy:** the stratigraphical subdivision of sedimentary or
22 metasedimentary rocks based on their fossil content.

23 **Blastomylonite:** a type of **mylonite** in which **porphyroclasts** and
24 matrix have undergone recrystallization, normally synchronous with
25 the deformation.
26

27 **Boudinage:** the process whereby a competent bed or layer surrounded
28 by less competent layers is subject to extension and separates
29 into 'boudins', which have the cross-section appearance of a
30 'string of sausages', separated by the less competent material.

31 **Breccia:** rock composed of angular and subangular broken fragments
32 greater than 2 mm in diameter; can be volcanic, sedimentary or
33 **fault**-related.

34 **Brittle fault:** a **fault** that has developed at low enough
35 temperatures and pressures that the rocks adjacent to the fault
36 have become broken and ground up by **cataclasis**, rather than
37 undergoing recrystallization (contrast with **ductile**).
38

39 **Buckle fold:** fold formed in response to end loading of a competent
40 layer, e.g. bed, vein, igneous sheet.

41 **Calc-alkaline:** describes a suite of igneous rocks, characterized
42 chemically by the steady decrease in iron content relative to
43 silica during evolution of the magma; typical of magmas generated
44 at destructive plate margins during **orogenesis**.
45

46 **Calcsilicate:** referring to calcium- and/or magnesium-silicate
47 minerals, or to metamorphic rocks that are rich in those minerals
48 but contain few or no carbonate minerals.

49 **Cataclasis:** fine-scale brecciation, fracturing, crushing and
50 rotation of mineral grains under **brittle** conditions, without
51 significant chemical reconstitution. A cataclastic rock has no
52 foliation.

53 **Chert:** a microcrystalline or cryptocrystalline sedimentary rock
54 composed dominantly of silica.

55 **Chevron fold:** a fold with an angular **hinge** and near-planar **limbs**,
56 the limbs commonly being of approximately equal length
57 (symmetrical).
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59 **Chronostratigraphy:** the correlation and subdivision of sedimentary
60 and volcanic rock units and their metamorphosed equivalents on the
61 basis of their relative ages. The hierarchy of
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4 chronostratigraphical units is erathem, series, system and stage,
5 which correspond to the geological time units era, period, epoch
6 and age.

7 **Clast:** a fragment in a rock.

8 **Cleavage:** plane of incipient parting in a rock, produced by the
9 preferred alignment of platy minerals such as mica in response to
10 confining pressure during deformation and accompanying low-grade
11 metamorphism.

12 **Coaxial:** describes parallel linear structures, especially fold axes
13 and related **lineations** arising from different phases, plunging by
14 the same amount and towards the same direction.

15 **Comagmatic:** describes igneous rocks that are considered to have
16 been derived from the same parent **magma**, or at least from the same
17 source region, at the same time and under identical physical and
18 chemical conditions.

19 **Complex:** a large-scale spatially related assemblage of mixed rock
20 units (igneous, metamorphic and sedimentary), with complicated
21 inter-relationships, various ages and diverse origins.

22 **Concretion:** a hard, compact mass, commonly spheroidal or ovoid, in
23 a sedimentary rock, formed by precipitation of a cementing mineral
24 (commonly carbonate) around a nucleus during deposition or more
25 commonly during subsequent burial and **diagenesis**.

26 **Conglomerate:** a sedimentary rock with a significant proportion of
27 **clasts** greater than 2 mm in diameter, set in a finer-grained
28 groundmass (normally sandstone or siltstone). The clasts are
29 typically rounded to subangular pebbles, cobbles and boulders.

30 **Country rock:** rock that has been intruded by an igneous rock or
31 replaced by a mineral vein etc.

32 **Crenulation cleavage:** a type of **spaced cleavage** developed by the
33 microfolding (crenulation) of an earlier **cleavage** or **schistosity**.

34 **Cross-bedding:** a structure in sedimentary rocks, notably
35 sandstones, that was formed due to current action by the migration
36 of ripples or dunes on the sediment surface. Cross-bedding can be
37 formed in **alluvial**, tidal or aeolian environments.

38 **Crust:** The outermost layer or shell of the Earth, above the **mantle**.
39 It consists of two parts: a **basic** layer, which forms the oceanic
40 crust and underlies the continents at depth; and a layer of
41 dominantly **silicic** rocks, which forms the thickest, upper part of
42 the continental crust.

43 **Crustal shortening:** compression of the **crust** resulting in
44 shortening on a regional scale, normally in the plane of the
45 earth's surface.

46 **Culmination:** highest point on a structural surface or linear
47 structural feature, where the dip or plunge reverses its
48 direction.

49 **Cumulate:** an igneous rock formed by the accumulation of crystals in
50 a magma chamber.

51 **Depleted mantle:** **mantle** that has been depleted in **incompatible**
52 **elements**, through **partial melting**.

53 **Detrital zircon:** a zircon crystal within a sedimentary deposit or
54 rock. Detrital zircons can be dated by **radiometric dating** methods
55 to provide information about the age of their source rocks. Hence,
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4 they can provide a maximum age limit for deposition of the
5 sedimentary unit.

6 **Dextral:** the sense of **strike-slip** displacement along a **fault** that
7 has had right lateral movement; i.e. to an observer standing on
8 one side of the fault, the rocks on the other side appear to have
9 been displaced to the right.

10 **Diagenesis:** the process of consolidation, mineral growth,
11 recrystallization and other processes leading to lithification of
12 unconsolidated sediment to form rock.

13 **Diamictite:** a sedimentary rock that consists of a fine-grained
14 matrix with much coarser clasts, such as pebble-bearing mudstones
15 and matrix-supported conglomerates. Diamictites show poor or no
16 sorting and are commonly, but not exclusively, of glacial origin.

17 **Diatexite:** rock that has been almost, but not completely, melted,
18 commonly with only refractory minerals remaining.

19 **Distal:** far from the source.

20 **Dolerite:** medium-grained rock of basaltic composition; used herein
21 as a synonym of microgabbro.

22 **Dolostone:** a carbonate-rich sedimentary rock largely composed of
23 the mineral dolomite (calcium-magnesium carbonate).

24 **Ductile:** a type of deformation that occurs at relatively high
25 temperature and/or pressure, where the rocks deform by
26 distributing the strain smoothly throughout the deforming mass,
27 typically by recrystallization and grain boundary migration
28 processes.

29 **Dyke:** a body of igneous rock emplaced as a steep, generally near-
30 vertical sheet, and normally discordant to the structure of its
31 host rocks.

32 **Enclave:** an inclusion; one rock type enclosed within another.

33 **Epidiiorite:** An obsolete term, widely used in the Grampian
34 Highlands, for fine- to medium-grained basic meta-igneous rocks at
35 medium to high grades of metamorphism, where the mineralogy
36 becomes comparable to that of a diorite i.e. hornblende plus
37 plagioclase of andesine composition.

38 **Euhedral:** describes a mineral grain, such as a **phenocryst**, with
39 well-formed crystal faces.

40 **Extensional tectonics:** the term used for tectonic processes where
41 the **crust** is under extension, for example in an orogenic collapse
42 or continental rift setting.

43 **Extrusive:** refers to igneous rocks that have been extruded onto the
44 Earth's surface, rather than being intruded beneath the surface
45 (**intrusive**).

46 **Facies:** the characteristic features of a rock unit, including rock
47 type, mineralogy, texture and structure, which together reflect a
48 particular sedimentary, igneous or metamorphic environment and/or
49 process.

50 **Facing:** the direction towards which a rock unit, layer or structure
51 youngs. Facing can be applied to folds, cleavages and even faults.
52 A fold faces in the direction normal to its axis, along the axial
53 surface and towards the younger beds (Figure G.2).

54 **Fault:** A fracture or zone of fractures in the Earth's **crust** across
55 which the rocks have been displaced relative to each other.

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4 **Felsic:** describes light-coloured minerals (*feldspar/feldspathoid*
5 and *silica*) or an igneous rock containing abundant proportions of
6 these minerals; the opposite of **mafic**.

7 **Felsite:** a field term for glassy and fine-grained **felsic** igneous
8 rocks.

9 **Fluvial:** describes a depositional system related directly to
10 stream-flow deposition (i.e. rivers and streams), within a more-
11 general **alluvial** system.

12 **Fold axial plane:** see **fold axial surface**.

13 **Fold axial surface:** the surface that joins the hinge lines of a
14 fold occurring in successive folded surfaces (Figure G.3). Where
15 the surface is planar or near-planar, it is commonly referred to
16 as an **axial plane**.

17 **Fold axis:** strictly describes an abstract feature i.e. the line
18 that when moved parallel to itself generates a fold. It is also
19 used to describe the feature derived from a stereographic
20 projection (i.e. a *pi*-axis). However, it is commonly used loosely
21 as a synonym for **fold hinge** (Figure G.3).

22 **Fold hinge:** the trace of the fold **axial surface** (or axial plane) on
23 a folded surface. Measured in the field as the line along which a
24 change occurs in the amount and/or direction of dip of a folded
25 surface; the area with the smallest radius of curvature (Figure
26 G.3).

27 **Fold limb:** the part of the fold between one hinge and the next; the
28 area with a larger radius of curvature (Figure G.3).

29 **Fold interference pattern/structure:** the complex geometry created
30 where early folds have themselves been deformed and re-orientated
31 by later folds.

32 **Foliation:** the planar arrangement of textural and mineralogical
33 components within a rock. In metamorphic rocks, generally formed
34 during deformation and metamorphism of the pre-existing bedding or
35 other primary fabric.

36 **Footwall:** the block of rock immediately below any non-vertical
37 **fault, thrust** or **slide**.

38 **Foreland:** the stable region in front of an orogenic belt, which has
39 not been significantly affected by the deformation and
40 metamorphism. The rocks in the orogenic belt are normally thrust
41 and overfolded towards the foreland.

42 **Gneiss:** Coarse-grained metamorphic rock with a compositional
43 layering known as gneissose layering, typically defined by paler
44 coloured quartz- and feldspar-rich layers and darker coloured
45 layers of **mafic** minerals. Gneisses are formed by segregation and
46 mineral growth during metamorphism at high grades.

47 **Graben:** an elongate down-faulted crustal block commonly bounded by
48 two normal **faults** or fault systems and with a marked topographic
49 expression. A half-graben is bounded on one side by a **fault** or
50 fault system.

51 **Graded bedding:** describes a bed in a sedimentary rock that has a
52 progressive change in particle size from top to bottom. Most
53 common is a sequence with coarse grains at the bottom and fining
54 upwards.

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4 **Granofelsic:** refers to a recrystallized, medium- to coarse-grained
5 quartzofeldspathic rock, commonly a **psammite**, with little or no
6 foliation or lineation.

7 **Greywacke:** a coarse-grained and poorly sorted sedimentary rock
8 composed of angular to subangular fragments in a sandy, silty or
9 clayey matrix. Normally deposited from turbidity currents.

10
11 **Hangingwall:** the block of rock immediately above any non-vertical
12 **fault, thrust** or **slide**.

13 **Hinge-zone:** the zone around a **fold hinge**.

14 **Hornfels:** a well-baked, hard, splintery rock resulting from thermal
15 (contact) metamorphism.

16 **Hyaloclastite:** A **pyroclastic** rock composed of angular fragments of
17 glass, formed when **magma** is rapidly quenched and shattered on
18 entering water.

19 **Hydrothermal:** describes the reaction of hot water with rocks,
20 resulting in changes in mineralogy and chemistry (cf.
21 **metasomatism**).

22
23 **Imbricate zone:** consists of slices of rock displaced by successive
24 **thrust faults** within a **thrust belt**, which commonly form a
25 structure like stacked roof tiles.

26 **Incompatible elements:** trace elements that are not readily accepted
27 into the crystal structure of common rock-forming minerals during
28 the crystallization of **magma** and hence are concentrated
29 preferentially into the remaining liquid. They are also
30 concentrated in the first liquids produced during **partial melting**.

31 **Inlier:** strictly, an area of older rocks enclosed within a sequence
32 of younger rocks. Where the sequences are inverted, or where
33 boundaries between the distinct sequences are all structural
34 dislocations (especially low-angle **thrust faults** or **slides**), the
35 term 'structural inlier' is commonly used, irrespective of the
36 relative ages.

37 **Intermediate:** applied to an igneous rock that is transitional
38 between **silicic** and **basic** (i.e. SiO₂ between 52% and 63%).

39 **Intrafolial:** literally "within the foliation"; a term used to
40 describe isolated, tight to **isoclinal** folds that typically have
41 **axial planes** parallel to the **foliation** of the rock. The folds
42 generally affect only a few layers of the rock succession and can
43 even be confined to a single layer.

44 **Intrusive:** refers to igneous rocks that have been intruded into
45 older rocks beneath the Earth's surface, rather than being
46 extruded onto the surface (**extrusive**).

47 **Island Arc:** a chain of islands formed largely of volcanic rocks and
48 volcaniclastic sedimentary rocks, commonly with a core of
49 associated plutonic rocks, that formed above a **subduction zone**.

50 **Isoclinal fold:** a fold with parallel **limbs**.

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52 **Joint:** a fracture in a rock across which there has been no
53 noticeable displacement.

54 **Juvenile:** applied to material that has been derived directly from
55 the melting or **partial melting** of **crust** or **mantle**.

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4 **Keratophyre:** an altered fine- to medium-grained **felsic** igneous rock
5 (originally a trachyte or microsyenite), consisting essentially of
6 albite with minor chloritized **mafic** minerals.

7 **Kink fold:** a fold with planar **limbs** and a markedly angular **hinge**.
8

9 **Lamination:** very fine layering.

10 **Lamprophyre:** mineralogically and geochemically distinctive group of
11 largely medium-grained igneous rocks characterised by abundant
12 **phenocrysts** of **mafic** minerals, with **felsic** minerals largely
13 confined to the groundmass. Allied to coarse-grained **appinitic**
14 rocks.
15

16 **Lava:** molten rock at the Earth's surface (contrast with **magma**).

17 **Lee (side):** the steep slope of a ripple or dune bedform where
18 sediment 'avalanches' from the top.

19 **Leuco:** prefix to denote a *relatively* light-coloured variant of a
20 rock-type.

21 **Leucocratic:** *absolute* term to describe light-coloured igneous rocks
22 based upon the modal proportions of **mafic** minerals being within
23 the range 0 - 35%.

24 **Leucosome:** Lighter coloured, igneous-looking layers composed of
25 **felsic** minerals in a **migmatite**, formed by segregation from or
26 **partial melting** of the original rock.
27

28 **Limestone:** a sedimentary carbonate rock consisting largely of the
29 mineral calcite (calcium carbonate).

30 **Lineation:** a linear structure in a rock; any linear fabric element.
31 It can result from a number of processes including aligned mineral
32 growth, intersection of cleavage and bedding, minor folding,
33 stretching, or fault movement.

34 **Listric:** refers to a **normal fault** whose dip decreases downwards.

35 **Lithosphere:** the outer layer of the solid Earth, including the
36 **crust** and upper part of the **mantle**, which forms tectonic plates.

37 **Lithostratigraphy:** the stratigraphical subdivision and correlation
38 of sedimentary and volcanic rock units and their metamorphosed
39 equivalents based on their lithology, stratigraphical position and
40 affinities. Units are named according to their perceived rank in a
41 formal hierarchy, namely supergroup, group, formation, member and
42 bed. The fundamental unit is the formation.
43

44 **Mafic:** describes dark-coloured minerals, rich in *magnesium* and/or
45 iron (*Fe*), **or** an igneous rock containing substantial proportions
46 of these minerals, mainly amphibole, pyroxene or olivine; the
47 opposite of **felsic**.
48

49 **Magma:** molten rock beneath the Earth's surface.

50 **Mantle:** part of the interior of the Earth, beneath the **crust** and
51 above the core.

52 **Mass-flow:** the transport, down slope under the force of gravity, of
53 large, coherent masses of sediment, tephra or rock; commonly
54 assisted by the incorporation of water, ice or air.

55 **Megacryst:** a large crystal, occurring within an igneous rock or
56 more rarely a metamorphic rock, which is notably larger than the
57 surrounding minerals in the groundmass or matrix.

58 **Mélange:** a chaotic rock unit, characterized by the lack of internal
59 continuity of contacts between component blocks and including
60 fragments of a wide range of composition and size.
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4 **Meta-**: prefix added to any rock name (lithology) to indicate that
5 it has been metamorphosed e.g. metabasalt is a metamorphosed
6 basalt.

7 **Metamorphic aureole**: an area of rocks around an igneous intrusion
8 that has undergone metamorphism due to the increased temperatures
9 created by the intrusion of **magma**. Also commonly referred to as a
10 **thermal aureole** or simply an aureole.

11 **Metamorphic facies**: an expression of a specific range of
12 metamorphic conditions, in particular temperature and pressure, as
13 determined from sets of mineral assemblages (Figure G.4). Unlike
14 **metamorphic zones**, which relate to specific lithologies,
15 metamorphic facies are applicable to all lithologies, although
16 their names are derived from mineral assemblages in rocks of
17 basaltic composition.

18 **Metamorphic grade**: widely used to indicate relative conditions of
19 metamorphism; either as informal references to low, medium or high
20 grade, with increase in temperature and/or pressure; or related to
21 a specific **metamorphic zone** e.g. biotite-grade, sillimanite-grade
22 etc.

23 **Metamorphic isograd**: in theory, any line connecting points of equal
24 **metamorphic grade**, but in practise usually marks the incoming
25 during **prograde** metamorphism of a key mineral, especially one that
26 characterizes a **metamorphic zone**.

27 **Metamorphic zone**: an area or volume defined by the presence of a
28 metamorphic index mineral or set of minerals in rocks of a
29 specified composition (e.g. in metamudstones or in basic meta-
30 igneous rocks).

31 **Metasomatism**: the process of chemical change and mineralogical
32 replacement due to the introduction of different elements through
33 fluid circulating in the rocks.

34 **Micro**: prefix added to the name of any coarse-grained igneous rock
35 to indicate a medium-grained variety e.g. microgabbro is a medium-
36 grained rock of gabbroic mineralogy.

37 **Microfossil**: a fossil that is of such a size that it can only be
38 identified by use of a microscope.

39 **Microlithon**: in **spaced cleavage**, microlithons are the tabular to
40 lenticular, millimetre- to centimetre-thick rock domains that lie
41 between the cleavage domains. They are generally quartz and
42 feldspar rich and either lack cleavage or have only poor cleavage
43 development.

44 **Mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB)**: type of **tholeiitic** basalt, generated
45 at mid-ocean ridges. A world-wide, voluminous basalt type widely
46 used as a fundamental standard for comparative geochemistry.

47 **Migmatite**: a partially melted layered rock having an overall
48 metamorphic appearance, generally consisting of light-coloured
49 layers (**leucosome**) of igneous-looking **felsic** minerals, and darker
50 layers (**melasome**), richer in **mafic** minerals.

51 **Monoform**: large- or medium-scale fold with one steep and one
52 shallow-dipping limb in a sequence in which the way up of the beds
53 is not known. Similar to monocline, where the way up is known.

54 **Mudstone**: a clastic sedimentary rock composed of very fine-grained
55 clay and silt particles (grain size < 0.032 mm).

56 **Mullion**: an architectural term, adopted to describe a combination
57 of **lineations** and **fold hinges**, which appear as a series of
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4 centimetre- to metre-scale columnar structures on the surface of a
5 bed or layer.

6 **Mylonite:** A coherent, thinly layered rock, formed in a zone of
7 intense **ductile** deformation where pre-existing grains in the rock
8 have been deformed, recrystallized, and reduced to a grain size of
9 0.05 mm or less.

10
11 **Nappe:** a large recumbent fold or a coherent body of rock, with its
12 margins bounded by **thrust faults** or **shear-zones**, either of which
13 has been moved a considerable distance from its original location.
14 (see also **allochthonous**).

15
16 **Normative composition:** a theoretical mineralogical composition of
17 an igneous rock obtained by recalculation of the whole-rock
18 chemical composition; useful for classification purposes and for
19 comparison with experimental studies of **magma** crystallization.

20 **Normal fault:** an extensional high-angle **fault** (dip over 45°) on
21 which the **hangingwall** has moved downwards relative to the
22 **footwall**.

23
24 **Obduction:** the overriding/overthrusting of oceanic **crust** on to the
25 leading edge of continental **lithosphere** during plate collision.

26 **Ophiolite:** an ordered sequence of related **ultramafic** rocks,
27 gabbros, sheeted **dykes** and basalt **lavas** that originated through
28 the generation of oceanic **crust**.

29 **Orogenesis:** crustal thickening following the collision of tectonic
30 plates and resulting in magmatism, folding, thrusting and
31 accretion, leading to regional uplift and mountain building. A
32 period of orogenesis may be referred to as an orogenic event or as
33 an orogeny, and the resulting area of rocks affected by these
34 processes constitutes an orogenic belt.

35 **Orthogneiss:** a **gneiss** with an igneous **protolith**.

36 **Orthoquartzite:** a clastic sedimentary rock composed originally
37 almost exclusively of quartz sand (over 90% quartz).

38 **Outlier:** strictly, an area of younger rocks completely surrounded
39 by older rocks. Where the sequences are inverted (as in the Flat
40 Belt of the Tay Nappe), or where an upper unit of restricted
41 outcrop lies upon a low-angle **thrust fault** or **slide**, the term
42 'structural outlier' is commonly used, irrespective of the
43 relative ages.
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46 **Palaeocurrent:** a wind or water current direction that existed at
47 the time of deposition of sedimentary rocks, and that can be
48 inferred from sedimentary structures.
49

50 **Palaeogeography:** the study of the configurations of continents and
51 oceans and their physical geography during geological history.

52 **Palaeomagnetism:** the variation in the Earth's magnetic field over
53 time. When rocks that contain magnetic minerals are deposited, the
54 orientation of the Earth's magnetic field is locked within the
55 rocks and can be used to study the movement of tectonic plates.

56 **Para-amphibolite:** an **amphibolite** with a sedimentary **protolith**.

57 **Paragneiss:** a **gneiss** with a sedimentary **protolith**.

58 **Partial melting:** the incomplete melting of a rock to produce a
59 **magma** that differs in composition from the parent rock.
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4 **Passive margin:** a continental margin formed following rifting and
5 continental rupture that is not the site of convergent tectonic
6 processes. Passive margins generally contain marine sedimentary
7 sequences.

8 **Pegmatite:** a very coarsely crystalline igneous-textured rock,
9 typically a vein, **dyke** or sheet but also as irregular patches.
10 Most commonly the minerals are **felsic** but used strictly the term
11 has no mineralogical connotation.

12 **Pelite:** used here, and historically in the Scottish Highlands, for
13 a rock, rich in mica, which formed by metamorphism of a sediment
14 rich in clay minerals (a metamudstone).

15 **Phenocryst:** a crystal in an igneous rock that is larger than those
16 of the groundmass, usually having crystallized at an earlier
17 stage.

18 **Phyllite:** describes a rock with a strong **cleavage**, intermediate in
19 texture between **slate** and **schist**, characterized by growth of new
20 sericite, chlorite and locally biotite. Most commonly applied to
21 **pelites** and **semipelites** but in theory can be applied to any
22 **protolith**.

23 **Phyllonite:** a very platy type of **mylonite**, formed by deformation
24 and recrystallization of rocks rich in mica and chlorite.

25 **-phyric:** as in 'plagioclase-phyric', a **porphyritic** rock containing
26 **phenocrysts** of plagioclase.

27 **Picrite:** a magnesium-rich igneous rock (MgO greater than 18%),
28 generally appearing as an olivine- and/or pyroxene-rich variety of
29 a gabbro, dolerite or basalt.

30 **Pillow lava:** subaqueously erupted **lava**, usually basaltic in
31 composition, comprising an accumulation of smooth pillow shapes
32 produced by rapid chilling.

33 **Plunge:** the orientation of a **fold hinge/axis** or other linear
34 structure, expressed as its angle below the horizontal (measured
35 in degrees in a vertical plane) and its azimuth or compass
36 direction.

37 **Pluton:** an intrusion of igneous rock, generally of kilometre-scale
38 or larger, that has been emplaced at depth in the Earth's **crust**.

39 **Porphyritic:** textural term for an igneous rock in which larger
40 crystals (**phenocrysts**) are set in a finer grained or glassy
41 groundmass.

42 **Porphyroblast:** a newly grown mineral in a metamorphic rock that is
43 significantly larger than most minerals in the matrix.

44 **Porphyroclast:** a relict, resistant, large crystal or rock fragment
45 within a foliated rock. Common in **mylonites** where the rock has had
46 its overall grain size reduced by deformation processes.

47 **Porphyry:** a field term for an igneous rock that contains
48 **phenocrysts** within a fine-grained groundmass of indeterminate
49 composition; usually preceded by a mineral qualifier indicating
50 the type of **phenocryst** present; e.g. feldspar porphyry.

51 **Prograde:** metamorphism during which the temperature and/or pressure
52 is progressively increasing. See **retrograde**. Also used to describe
53 the advance of a sedimentary feature such as a delta.

54 **Protolith:** the source rock from which a new rock was formed, either
55 by metamorphism to form a metamorphic rock, or by melting to form
56 an igneous rock.

57 **Proximal:** near to the source.
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4 **Psammite:** used here, and historically in the Scottish Highlands,
5 for a rock, rich in quartz and feldspar with some micas, formed by
6 metamorphism of a sandstone (a metasandstone or meta-arenite).

7 **Pseudomorph:** a replacement product, usually crystalline and
8 consisting of one or more minerals, that retains the distinctive
9 original shape of the parent crystal.

10 **Ptygmatic fold:** normally a single layer or vein, tightly folded in
11 a lobate manner in a less-competent schistose matrix.

12 **Pyroclastic:** describes unconsolidated deposits and rocks that form
13 directly by explosive ejection from a volcano.

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16 **Quartzite:** used here, and historically in the Scottish Highlands,
17 for a rock composed largely of quartz grains, formed by
18 metamorphism of a pure sandstone (a meta-orthoquartzite).

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20 **Radiometric dating:** Measuring the age of rocks using the rate of
21 decay of radioactive isotopes contained within minerals in the
22 rock. Sometimes referred to as isotopic dating.

23 **Recumbent fold:** an overturned fold with a near-horizontal **axial**
24 **plane.**

25 **Restite:** the material remaining after **partial melting.**

26 **Retrograde:** metamorphism in which minerals that formed at
27 relatively high temperature and/or pressure are converted to those
28 characteristic of lower grades.

29 **Rift:** a defined area of crustal extension and thinning, typically
30 bounded by **normal faults.** A rift may eventually rupture the
31 continental **crust,** allowing the development of new oceanic
32 **lithosphere,** to become an ocean. A failed rift is one in which
33 extension has been insufficient to produce oceanic material.

34 **Rift basin:** a depositional **basin** resulting from crustal extension.

35 **Rift-drift transition:** the evolution of a continental **rift** into a
36 **passive margin** following the development of new oceanic
37 **lithosphere.**

38 **Rodding:** a type of **lineation,** formed by elongate structures that
39 are monomineralic and not formed from the original rock, most
40 commonly of quartz.

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43 **S-type:** refers to an igneous rock, usually a granite, that formed
44 by the **partial melting** of sedimentary or metasedimentary rocks.

45 **Sandstone:** a clastic sedimentary rock made up mainly of quartz and
46 feldspar, between 0.032 and 2 mm in grain size.

47 **Schist:** a foliated metamorphic rock with a **schistosity.** A textural
48 term that can be combined with compositional or mineralogical
49 terms to specify the type of schist.

50 **Schistosity:** the subparallel alignment of grains, most commonly of
51 micas, but also of other minerals, e.g. hornblende, talc, etc., to
52 form a tectonic **foliation,** enabling the rock to split readily into
53 thin flakes or laminae.

54 **Selvedge:** marginal zone to a rock mass having a distinctive feature
55 or composition. Commonly refers to the fine-grained margin of an
56 intrusion or to a concentration of **mafic** minerals adjacent to
57 **leucosomes** in **migmatites** and migmatic rocks.

58 **Semipelite:** used here, and historically in the Scottish Highlands,
59 for a metasedimentary rock, with roughly equal amounts of
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4 siliciclastic grains (quartz and feldspar) and micas, which formed
5 from a sedimentary rock dominantly composed of silt.

6 **Serpentinization:** the hydrothermal alteration of **ultramafic** rocks
7 in which the **mafic** minerals are replaced by a range of hydrous
8 secondary minerals, collectively known as serpentine.

9 **Serpentinite:** a rock dominantly composed of serpentine-group
10 minerals.

11 **Shearing:** Deformation of a rock body by the sliding or translation
12 of one part relative to another part, in response to an applied
13 stress. The deformation can be **brittle** or **ductile** dependent on the
14 strain rate, temperature, pressure, presence of fluids, rock
15 mineralogy, etc. Shearing can occur across a single fault-plane,
16 across **shear-zones**, or it can affect kilometre-thick rock
17 sequences.

18 **Shear-zone:** a near-planar zone of intense **shearing**, with
19 deformation generally by **ductile** processes.

20 **Sheath fold:** a fold with a tubular shape in three dimensions,
21 resulting from the marked variation in the **plunge** of the **fold axis**
22 through some 180°. In cross-section on two-dimensional surfaces
23 sheath folds are commonly manifest as closed ovoid structures.

24 **SHRIMP:** refers to 'Sensitive High-Resolution Ion MicroProbe'. An
25 in-situ method of measuring isotope concentrations in polished
26 thin sections or polished sections of rocks.

27 **Silicic:** used to describe igneous rocks rich in silica (SiO₂ more
28 than 63%). Preferred alternative to traditional term 'acid'.

29 **Siliciclastic:** describes a sedimentary or metasedimentary rock
30 composed dominantly of clasts of silicate minerals.

31 **Sill:** a tabular body of igneous rock, originally intruded as a
32 subhorizontal sheet and generally concordant with the **bedding** or
33 **foliation** in the **country rocks**.

34 **Siltstone:** a clastic sedimentary rock made up of silt-sized grains
35 (between 0.004 and 0.032 mm).

36 **Sinistral:** the sense of **strike-slip** displacement along a **fault** that
37 has had left lateral movement; i.e. to an observer standing on one
38 side of the fault, the rocks on the other side appear to have been
39 displaced to the left.

40 **Slate:** describes a fine-grained rock with a very strong, very
41 regular, closely spaced penetrative **cleavage**, enabling it to be
42 split into thin parallel sheets (slates). Most commonly applied to
43 **pelites** and **semipelites** but in theory can be applied to any
44 **protolith**.

45 **Slickenside:** Linear grooves and ridges formed on a **fault** plane as
46 rocks move against each other.

47 **Slide:** strictly any **fault** making a very low angle with original
48 **bedding** but nowadays used almost exclusively for extensional
49 faults (lags), commonly on the long upper limbs of **recumbent folds**
50 and excising elements of the succession. A lag is the opposite of
51 a compressional **thrust fault**.

52 **Spaced cleavage:** a type of **foliation** defined by closely spaced
53 micaceous cleavage surfaces, or less commonly fractures (termed
54 cleavage domains), that divide the rock into a series of fine-
55 scale quartzofeldspathic tabular bodies (termed rock domains).
56 Includes **crenulation cleavage**. In rocks of low metamorphic grade,
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4 spaced cleavage is commonly the result of pervasive pressure-
5 solution processes.

6 **Spilite:** a pervasively altered basalt, commonly in a sub-marine
7 environment, due to conversion of the plagioclase to albite,
8 together with other hydrous mineralogical changes.

9 **Steatite:** a massive, typically pale grey-green, fine-grained rock
10 consisting largely of the magnesium silicate minerals talc and
11 magnesite.

12 **Stereoplot:** stereographic projection of structural data. Also known
13 as a stereogram. See Figure G.1 and accompanying text.

14 **Stoss (side):** the gentle, up-current side of a ripple or dune
15 before. See also **lee** side.

16 **Strike-slip:** a term used to describe a **fault** on which the sense of
17 movement is parallel to the strike of the fault.

18 **Subduction:** the process of one lithospheric plate descending
19 beneath another during plate convergence. Subduction occurs along
20 a narrow belt, termed a subduction zone. Where an oceanic plate is
21 subducted beneath a continental plate, a trench is formed.

22 **Supercontinent:** A large landmass that forms from the convergence of
23 multiple continents. Such supercontinents have formed at various
24 periods in the geological record, e.g. Rodinia in Mesoproterozoic
25 times.

26 **Syncline:** a fold in which the youngest strata lie in the core of
27 the fold, irrespective of whether the fold closes downwards,
28 upwards or sideways.

29 **Synform:** a fold with **limbs** that converge downwards (downward
30 closing), either in strata where the direction of **younging** of the
31 stratigraphical sequence is not known, or where the strata have
32 been previously inverted so that the fold is a downward-closing
33 anticline. In areas of multiphase folding, all downward closing
34 post-F1 folds should strictly be termed synforms because of the
35 likely presence of both upward- and downward-facing earlier
36 structures.

37 **Tectonothermal event:** an event in which rocks are heated and
38 metamorphosed at depth in the crust due to tectonic processes;
39 most commonly as a result of **orogenesis**.

40 **Terrane:** a fault-bounded body of oceanic or continental **crust**
41 having a geological history that is significantly distinct from
42 that of contiguous bodies.

43 **Tholeiitic:** describes a suite of silica-oversaturated igneous
44 rocks, characterized chemically by strong iron enrichment relative
45 to magnesium during the early stages of evolution of the **magma**;
46 formed in extensional within-plate settings, at constructive plate
47 margins, and in **island arcs**.

48 **Thermal aureole:** see **metamorphic aureole**.

49 **Thermal relaxation:** in a zone of rifting, upwelling **mantle** rises
50 beneath the base of the **crust**, which becomes stretched and
51 thinned. Following the end of rifting, this hot mantle material
52 will gradually cool and contract, causing subsidence over a wider
53 area, and generating a thermal relaxation **basin**.

54 **Thrust fault:** a compressional reverse **fault** making a low-angle
55 (less than 45°) with original **bedding** and placing older rocks over
56 younger rocks, repeating elements of the succession. Typically
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4 occurs on the short lower limbs of **recumbent folds**. The opposite
5 of an extensional lag or **slide**.

6 **Thrust belt:** a zone where a series of **thrust faults** crop out at the
7 Earth's surface marking a major area of translation linked to an
8 orogenic belt.

9 **Tillite:** a lithified glacial till ('boulder clay').

10 **TIMS:** refers to 'Thermal Ionization Mass Spectrometry' (also known
11 as 'Isotope Dilution Thermal Ionization Mass Spectrometry' or ID-
12 TIMS). A method of measuring isotope concentrations involving
13 grain selection (usually zircon or monazite) and dissolution in
14 acid.

15 **Trace fossil:** a sedimentary structure that was formed by a living
16 organism.

17 **Transcurrent:** describes predominantly horizontal relative movement
18 across a large-scale, steeply dipping **fault** or **shear-zone** (see
19 also **strike-slip**).

20 **Transgression:** the spread or extension of the sea over land areas,
21 commonly due to a relative sea-level rise.

22 **Transpression:** crustal shortening as a result of oblique
23 compression across a **transcurrent fault** or **shear-zone**.

24 **Transtension:** crustal extension as a result of oblique tension
25 across a **transcurrent fault** or **shear-zone** leading to localised
26 **rifts** or **basins**.

27 **Tuff:** a **pyroclastic** rock derived from volcanic ash and made up of
28 fragments with average grain size less than 2 mm.

29 **Turbidite:** a clastic sedimentary rock formed by deposition from a
30 **turbidity current**.

31 **Turbidity current:** an underwater, gravity-controlled, density flow
32 laden with suspended sediment, which produces a characteristic
33 graded sedimentary unit showing a range from sand and gravel at
34 the base to silt and mud at the top.

35 **U-Pb dating:** measurement of the amounts of lead daughter products
36 that result from the decay of various isotopes of uranium to
37 calculate a radiometric age for a rock. Zircon and monazite are
38 the common minerals dated. See **SHRIMP** and **TIMS**.

39 **Ultrabasic:** describes an igneous rock with a silica content less
40 than that of **basic** rocks (less than 45% SiO₂).

41 **Ultramafic:** describes an igneous rock in which dark-coloured, **mafic**
42 minerals (amphibole, pyroxene, olivine) comprise more than 90% of
43 the rock.

44 **Unconformity:** a contact between two rock units of significantly
45 different ages, representing a significant gap in the geological
46 time record.

47 **Vergence:** direction of relative movement or rotation of layers in
48 an asymmetrical fold pair. Also the direction of overturning of
49 folded layers, e.g. towards the south. (Figure G.3).

50 **Vesicle:** a gas bubble cavity, usually in a **lava** or shallow
51 intrusion.

52 **Volcaniclastic:** generally applied to a clastic rock containing
53 mainly material derived from volcanic activity, but without regard
54 for its origin or environment of deposition (includes rocks formed
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4 directly by explosive eruption from a volcano, and sedimentary
5 rocks containing transported volcanic debris).
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8 **Xenolith:** a rock fragment that is alien to the igneous rock in
9 which it is found. Commonly refers to blocks of country rock
10 included within intrusions.

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12 **Younging:** the demonstration of the direction in a sedimentary or
13 volcanic sequence in which younger strata can be found.
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21 **Figure 1.1** General bedrock geology of the Grampian Highlands and
22 Inner Hebrides south-east of the Great Glen Fault, showing the
23 outcrops of Dalradian groups and major faults. Adapted from
24 Stephenson and Gould (1995) and the BGS 1:625 000 scale Bedrock
25 Geology map (UK North, 2007).

26 BBF Bridge of Balgie Fault, ELF Ericht-Laidon Fault, GDF Glen Doll
27 Fault, GF Garabal Fault, GLF Gleann Liath Fault, LTF Loch Tay
28 Fault, MF Markie Fault, PBF Pass of Brander Fault, RF Rothes Fault,
29 SF Sronlairig Fault, TF Tyndrum Fault.
30

31 **Figure 1.2** Terrane map of the northern British Isles showing the
32 outcrop of the Dalradian Supergroup in the Grampian Terrane of
33 Scotland and Ireland and in Shetland. Adapted from the BGS 1:500
34 000 scale Tectonic map of Britain, Ireland and adjacent areas
35 (1996) and the BGS 1:625 000 scale Bedrock Geology map (UK North,
36 2007).
37

38 **Figure 1.3** Distribution of ancient continental fragments and
39 Caledonian orogenic belts around Britain and Ireland prior to the
40 opening of the North Atlantic Ocean in Palaeogene time (after
41 Holdsworth *et al.*, 2000).
42

43 **Figure 1.4** Edward Battersby Bailey in a typical field pose. Note
44 the mode of dress: shabby jacket with various pieces of equipment
45 tied on with string; shorts, worn in all weather and all seasons;
46 lack of socks (they would only get wet); shoes (not boots), with
47 holes in the toes (legend has it that he would deliberately cut the
48 toes out of new shoes in order that the water could run out).
49 Other legends tell that first thing every morning he would stand in
50 a stream so that he didn't worry about getting his feet wet for the
51 rest of the day and then eat his packed lunch so that he didn't have
52 to carry it and waste time eating it later. After mapping and
53 interpreting huge areas of the Grampian Highlands for the
54 Geological Survey and then as Professor of Geology at Glasgow
55 University, he became Director of the Geological Survey (1937–1945)
56 and was knighted in 1945. (Photo: BGS No. P 225785, reproduced
57 with the permission of the Director, British Geological Survey, ©
58 NERC.)
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4 **Figure 1.5** Divisions of the Grampian Highlands as used in this
5 volume and locations of GCR sites, numbered as in Table 1.1.
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7 **Figure 1.6** Overall Dalradian stratigraphy with interpreted
8 depositional environments, water depth and subsidence history,
9 based mainly on successions in the western and south-western parts
10 of the Grampian Highlands and Inner Hebrides. Representative
11 formations are from the Corrieyairack, Laggan and Glen Spean areas
12 (Grampian Group), the Lochaber area (Appin Group) and Islay, Jura
13 and Kintyre (Argyll and Southern Highland groups). After Anderton
14 (1985) and Strachan and Holdsworth (2000).
15

16 **Figure 1.7** Block diagram of major structures in the Grampian
17 Highlands. Brittle faults, major mafic and ultramafic intrusions
18 and minor intrusions are not shown. Sections A, B, C and D were
19 adapted from an original by P.R. Thomas (1979) and incorporated in
20 an overall model in Stephenson and Gould (1995).

21 AS Appin Syncline, BA Bohespic Antiform, BAS Ballachulish
22 Slide, BCH Beinn a'Chuallich folds, BDS Beinn Don Syncline,
23 BES Benderloch Slide, BLA Beinn na Lap Antiform, BLS Ben
24 Lawers Synform, BOS Boundary Slide, CIA Creag na h'Iolaire
25 Anticline, CS Corrieyairack Syncline, DD Drumochter Dome, ES
26 Errochty Synform, FWS Fort William Slide, GCA Glen Creran
27 Anticline, GMS Glen Mark Slide, GS Grampian Slide, HBD
28 Highland Border Downbend, HBS Highland Border Steep Belt, KA
29 Kinlochleven Anticline, OSB Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt, SBS
30 Stob Ban Synform, SMS Sron Mhor Synform, TMA Tom Meadhoin
31 Anticline, TSB Tummel Steep Belt.
32

33 **Figure 1.8** Contrasting interpretations of the structure of the
34 classic section along Loch Leven by different authors (after
35 Stephenson and Gould, 1995).

36 (a) Bailey (1934)

37 (b) Roberts and Treagus (1977b, 1977c): revised
38 stratigraphical correlations and drastically revised
39 projections at depth

40 (c) Hickman (1978): primary folds are identified only in the
41 eastern part of the section

42 AS Appin Syncline, BAS Ballachulish Slide, BS Ballachulish
43 Syncline, BWS Blackwater Synform, FWS Fort William Slide, KA
44 Kinlochleven Anticline, KAF Kinlochleven Antiform, MA Mamore
45 Anticline/Antiform, MS Mamore Syncline, SBS Stob Ban Synform,
46 TMA Tom Meadhoin Anticline, TS Treig Syncline.
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48 **Figure 1.9** Cross-section to illustrate the structure in the Glen
49 Roy and Glen Spean area; a north-eastern continuation of the
50 structures shown in Figure 1.8 (after Key *et al.*, 1997).
51

52 **Figure 1.10** Alternative models for the structural development of
53 the Grampian Highlands (after Stephenson and Gould, 1995).
54 Individual stages are not numbered (D1, D2 etc.) to avoid confusing
55 and unintentional time correlations between the models but all show
56 deformation up to and including the post-nappe D4 phase.

57 (a) Root-zone and 'mushroom' models: final stage adapted from
58 Thomas (1980)

59 (b) Nappe fans/'fountains': adapted from Roberts and Treagus
60 (1977a, 1977c) and Treagus (1987)
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4 (c) Gravity sliding of rootless nappes: adapted from
5 Shackleton (1979)
6 (d) North-westward movement and backfolding: from model of
7 Hall in Fettes *et al.* (1986)

8 Stipple Grampian Group, BAS Ballachulish Slide, BLF Ben Lui
9 Fold-complex, BOS Boundary Slide, FWS Fort William Slide, OSB
10 Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt, SBS Stob Ban Synform, TN Tay
11 Nappe.
12

13 **Figure 1.11** Model for the evolution of the Tay Nappe (after
14 Krabbendam *et al.*, 1997).

- 15 (a) Lower levels of upright F1 folds are subjected to top-to-
16 the-south-east D2 shearing. The position of the older
17 part of the Highland Border Complex is highly speculative.
18 (b) F3 folding steepens structures in the north-west; the F4
19 Highland Border Downbend results in the Highland Border
20 Steep Belt to the south-east, which consequently includes
21 outcrops of downward-facing F1 folds and the limit of D2
22 deformation.

23 HBD Highland Border Downbend.
24

25 **Figure 1.12** Distribution of metamorphic facies within the Grampian
26 Highlands, as adapted from Fettes *et al.* (1985) by Stephenson and
27 Gould (1995) and Strachan *et al.* (2002).

28 B Balquidder, C Cairngorms, D Deeside, ESZ Eilrig Shear-
29 zone, M Monadhliath, S Schiehallion, TSB Tummel Steep Belt.
30

31 **Figure 1.13** Reconstruction showing the positions of Baltica,
32 Amazonia and Laurentia, prior to the break-up of the supercontinent
33 of Rodinia and formation of the Iapetus ocean in late
34 Neoproterozoic time (after Soper, 1994b). Arrows indicate the
35 relative movements of the continental blocks during subsequent
36 rifting.

37 A-C western margin of Appalachian-Caledonian orogenic belt, G
38 Greenland, N Newfoundland, S Scotland.
39

40 **Figure 1.14** Global palaeogeographical reconstructions from the mid
41 Neoproterozoic to the mid Silurian. Modified after Torsvik *et al.*
42 (1996) and Holdsworth *et al.* (2000).

43 (a) The supercontinent Rodinia at *c.* 750 Ma. The Grenvillian
44 orogenic belts that welded the Rodinia continent together are
45 indicated in black. Rifting has commenced between Laurentia and
46 East-Gondwana.

47 (b) Late Neoproterozoic, *c.* 600-580 Ma. Rifting between the
48 continents of Laurentia, Baltica and the Amazonia sector of West
49 Gondwana. See Figure 1.13 for the situation immediately prior to
50 this.

51 (c) Late Neoproterozoic-Cambrian, *c.* 550-540 Ma. The Iapetus
52 Ocean is at its widest. Clastic and carbonate deposition occurs
53 along the southern margin of Laurentia.

54 (d) Mid Ordovician, *c.* 470 Ma. Iapetus is in the process of
55 closing. Collision of oceanic and microcontinental arcs with
56 Laurentia, e.g. the Midland Valley Terrane, results in the Grampian
57 Event in Scotland and the Taconic Event in North America.

58 (e) Early Silurian, *c.* 440 Ma, Continental terranes that have
59 spalled off Gondwana, notably Avalonia, collide with Laurentia as
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4 the Iapetus Ocean closes and the Rheic Ocean widens. The start of
5 the Scandian Event.

6 (f) Mid Silurian, c. 425 Ma. Final closure of Iapetus and
7 Tornquist oceans. Collision of Baltica with the Greenland sector
8 of Laurentia gives rise to the main Scandian Event (435-425 Ma).
9 MVT Midland Valley Terrane, SP South Pole.

10
11 **Figure 1.15** Schematic cross-sections to show the progressive
12 development of the rifted Laurentian margin in Scotland during a)
13 late Appin Group time b) Crinan Subgroup time and c) Southern
14 Highland Group time (after Anderton, 1985). Basaltic volcanic
15 rocks and intrusions are shown in black (in c only).
16

17 **Figure 1.16** A possible tectonic model for the Grampian Event in
18 Scotland, which is here attributed to the collision of an intra-
19 oceanic subduction zone and island arc (now possibly forming the
20 basement to the Midland Valley Terrane) with the margin of
21 Laurentia during closure of the Iapetus Ocean (Strachan, 2000 after
22 Dewey and Ryan, 1990 with modifications to text to reflect more-
23 recent evidence for the timing of events).
24

25 **Figure 1.17** Reconstruction of the final stages of the Caledonian
26 Orogeny with multiple plate collisions and re-alignments in mid
27 Silurian to Early Devonian time (after Soper *et al.*, 1992).

28 (a) Wenlock-Ludlow, c. 420 Ma. The Iapetus Ocean has almost
29 closed as Eastern Avalonia converges with Baltica.

30 (b) Lochkovian, c. 400 Ma. The Rheic Ocean has closed as
31 Armorica collides with Eastern Avalonia and strike-slip
32 re-alignment of terranes occurs between Laurentia and
33 Baltica (the Acadian Event). Farther south, Iberia is
34 converging with Armorica prior to collision in Mid
35 Devonian time.

36 GGF Great Glen Fault, HBF Highland Boundary Fault, MTB Moine
37 Thrust Belt.
38

39 **Figure G.1** Simplified examples of the use of the equal-area
40 stereographic projection (lower hemisphere) to represent geological
41 structures:

42 (a) representation of a bedding plane as a great-circle
43 trace and as a pole.

44 (b) representation of a fold hinge line (fold axis) as
45 a point, lying on the axial plane (great circle).

46 (c) example of a point distribution, defined by poles
47 to gently dipping beds, mean dip = 05°.

48 (d) example of a girdle distribution of poles to
49 bedding, with a best-fit great circle, and its pole (fold
50 axis).
51

52 **Figure G.2** Diagram to illustrate the concept of 'facing'
53 direction of folds, introduced by Shackleton (1958) as a means to
54 describe the structural 'way-up' of strata. Shackleton defined 'facing'
55 geometrically as 'the direction normal to the fold axis, along the
56 axial plane, and towards the younger beds'. Thus a synclinal synform
57 is described as 'upward facing', whereas an anticlinal (i.e. inverted)
58 synform is 'downward facing'. Asymmetrical and recumbent folds have a
59 sideways component of facing which is an important descriptive
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4 parameter, and which has commonly been used to infer the direction of
5 tectonic transport.
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7 **Figure G.3** Fold terminology:

8 (a) single inclined fold pair illustrating the basic
9 fold nomenclature (from McClay, 1987);

10 (b) fold train showing the change from upright to
11 recumbent fold and the concept of an enveloping surface (from
12 McClay, 1987);

13 (c) terms to describe the tightness of folds (from
14 McClay, 1987);

15 (d) Asymmetrical minor folds showing Z, S and M
16 symmetry and their typical relationship to larger scale
17 antiformal and synformal structures (from McClay, 1987);

18 (e) Fold profile showing direction of vergence of an
19 asymmetrical fold (from Bell, 1981);

20 (f) Geometry of coaxially refolded folds showing F1
21 and F2 major folds and related minor fold structures. Note how
22 minor F1 folds change vergence across F1 fold axial traces but
23 maintain a consistent vergence across the F2 fold axial traces,
24 whilst changing their facing from upwards to downwards. Minor
25 F2 folds change their vergence across the F2 axes (after Bell,
26 1981);

27 (g) Geometry of orthogonally refolded folds. Note
28 that both F1 and F2 folds change vergence across F2 fold axes
29 but not facing direction (arrows indicate facing direction of F1
30 folds) (after Bell, 1981).
31

32 **Figure G.4** Pressure/Depth-Temperature diagram showing the fields
33 of metamorphic facies (Yardley, 1989) Abbreviations: a-e-albite-
34 epidote, hbl-hornblende, hfls-hornfels, preh-pump-prehnite-
35 pumpellyite, px-pyroxene.
36

37 **Table 1.1** Dalradian rocks of Scotland: GCR networks and
38 site selection criteria.
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Table 1.1 Dalradian rocks of Scotland: GCR networks and site selection criteria.

Site name **GCR selection criteria**

South-west Grampian Highlands Network, Chapter 2

1 Garvellach Isles	Representative of Port Askaig Tillite. Some of the best examples of large- and small-scale sedimentary features in tillites formed from floating icebergs. Internationally important exposures of Neoproterozoic glacial deposit with major chronostratigraphical implications.
2 Caol Isla, Islay	Representative of lower part of Bonahaven Dolomite. Internationally important section showing transition from tillite into possible cap carbonate, with exceptional examples of tidal sedimentary structures.
3 Rubha a' Mhail, Islay	Representative of upper part of Bonahaven Dolomite, with exceptional examples of algal stromatolites and associated sedimentary structures.
4 Kilnaughton Bay, Islay	Representative of transition from shallow-water sands of Jura Quartzite into deeper water muds and gravity-flow deposits of Scarba Conglomerate. Pebbles are good strain indicators. Unusual occurrence of kyanite in greenschist-facies rocks.
5 Lussa Bay, Jura	Representative of Scarba Conglomerate with spectacular examples of sedimentary slump structures.
6 Kinuachdrach, Jura	Representative of Scarba Conglomerate with spectacular examples of sedimentary scour and slump structures and evidence of actual slump scar.
7 Surnaig Farm, Islay	Representative of Laphroaig Quartzite with spectacular examples of sandstone dykes.
8 Ardbeg, Islay	Representative of tightly folded and metamorphosed metadolerite sill. Notable for unusual presence of stilpnomelane.
9 Ardilistry Bay, Islay	Representative of greenschist-facies metadolerite sill. Notable for basal layer of metapyroxenite.
10 Black Mill Bay, Luing	Representative of Easdale Slate, including a debris-flow deposit. Exceptional examples of minor structures resulting from two deformational episodes.
11 Craignish Point	Representative of Craignish Phyllite containing spectacular pseudomorphs after gypsum and other sedimentary structures.
12 Fearnach Bay	Representative of Craignish Phyllite in a more-highly metamorphosed and deformed state than at Craignish Point. Splendid first-generation minor structures on NW limb of F1 Loch Awe Syncline.

13 Kilmory Bay	Representative of Ardrishaig Phyllite and base of Crinan Grit, with clear sedimentary structures indicating younging. Demonstrates relationship between major and minor fold structures in core of F1 Loch Awe Syncline.
14 Port Cill Maluaig	Representative of Ardrishaig Phyllite. Excellent examples of two phases of minor folds on SE limb of F1 Ardrishaig Anticline. F2 folds have strongly curved hinges.
15 Strone Point	Representative of Ardrishaig Phyllite. Minor structures of a single phase (D1) within the Strone Point Anticline illustrate the geometry of the major F1 Ardrishaig Anticline.
16 Kilchrenan Burn and Shore	Representative of a slump deposit transported from an unstable shelf into deeper water just prior to Tayvallich volcanism. Deformed pebbles are good indicators of strain during D1 deformation.
17 West Tayvallich Peninsula	Representative of Tayvallich Slate and Limestone and Tayvallich Volcanic formations, including controversial Loch na Cille Boulder Bed. Many sedimentary and volcanic features including excellent pillow lavas. Has provided only reliable radiometric dates from upper part of Dalradian, which are of great chronostratigraphical value.
18 South Bay, Barmore Island	Representative conformable section in Knapdale Steep Belt, from top of Crinan Subgroup through into Southern Highland Group, including Loch Tay Limestone and Green Beds.
19 Loch Avich	Type locality of Loch Avich Grit and Loch Avich Lavas formations. Youngest lavas in Dalradian succession.
20 Bun-an-Uillt, Islay	Representative of Bowmore Sandstone Group. Excellent, and only, exposure of Loch Skerrols Thrust.
21 Kilchiaran to Ardnav Point, Islay	Representative of lithologies and structures in lower part of Colonsay Group. Best exposure of Kilchiaran Shear-zone.

Central Grampian Highlands Network, Chapter 3

22 River Leven Section	Representative section from top of Grampian Group into Appin Group demonstrating continuity of both sedimentation and small-scale tectonic structures.
23 Nathrach	Representative of Binnein Schist and Binnein Quartzite. Minor structures yield important information on geometry of major folds from two phases of deformation.
24 Rubha Cladaich	Representative of Glen Coe Quartzite, Binnein Schist and Binnein Quartzite. Well-preserved sedimentary and tectonic structures on glaciated surfaces. Together with Nathrach, provides evidence for three generations of major folds.

25 Tom Meadhoin and Doire Ban	Clarifies succession from Binnein Quartzite to Ballachulish Slate. Exposes hinge of F1 Kinlochleven Anticline, re-orientated by major F2 folding, and Ballachulish Slide.
26 Stob Ban	Magnificent exposures of hinges of major F1 Ballachulish Syncline and F2 Stob Ban Synform.
27 St John's Church, Loch Leven	Representative section across the F1 Ballachulish Syncline, with rare exposure of Ballachulish Slide on lower limb.
28 Onich Dry River Gorge and 29 Onich Shore Section	Together these sites provide a representative section through Ballachulish Slate, Appin Quartzite and Appin Phyllite and Limestone formations in F1 Appin Syncline. Sedimentary structures provide clear evidence of younging. Minor folds and cleavage indicate age, position and shape of the major fold.
30 Ardsheal Peninsula	Representative of formations from Appin Transition to Cuil Bay Slate in complete section across F1 Appin Syncline. Excellent examples of minor F1 folds and evidence of later deformation.
31 South Coast, Lismore Island	Type locality of Lismore Limestone Formation. Excellent D1 and D2 minor structures in core of F1 Appin Syncline.
32 Camas Nathais	Exceptional exposure of Benderloch Slide, representative of major ductile fault in Grampian Terrane that might have originated during sedimentation.
33 Port Selma, Ardmucknish	Representative of Selma Breccia. Exceptional example of sedimentary slump breccia. Contains rare Dalradian microfossils.
34 River Orchy	Representative section from top of Grampian Group into Appin Group demonstrating continuity of both sedimentation and tectonic history. Exceptional demonstrations of relationship of minor structures to major early fold.
35 A9 Road Cuttings and River Garry Gorge	Almost continuous section through Grampian Group of Strathtummel Basin. Excellent examples of sedimentary structures, major and minor F2 folds and significant late folds.
36 Creag nan Caisean - Meall Reamhar	Representative of Bruar and Tummel Quartzite formations. Excellent sedimentary younging evidence and interference structures in minor folds. Exhibits both limbs of F2 Meall Reamhar Synform.
37 Meall Dail Chealach	Representative of major late kink fold, the Trinafour Monoform. Refolded earlier structures including post-D2 Errochty Synform.
38 Strath Fionan	Representative section of condensed sequence from top of Grampian Group to top of Ballachulish Subgroup, demonstrating continuity of both sedimentation and tectonic history. Unusual preservation of sedimentary structures in highly strained rocks.
39 Tempair Burn	Representative of Schiehallion Boulder Bed. Internationally important exposure of

	Neoproterozoic glacial deposit with major chronostratigraphical implications.
40 Allt Druidhe	Representative section across Boundary Slide-zone, which here excises several hundred metres of succession. Unusual small-scale structures.
41 Slatich	Rare continuous exposures across hinge-zone of major F2 fold, the Ruskich Antiform. Unusual occurrence of small-scale F1 folds and all affected by later, F4 minor structures. Representative of Ben Lawers Schist, Farragon Volcanic and Ben Lui Schist formations.
42 Ben Lawers	Type locality of major, post-nappe, F4 Ben Lawers Synform with D1 and D2 minor structures. Representative of Ben Eagach Schist, Ben Lawers Schist, Ben Lui Schist and Loch Tay Limestone formations.
43 Craig an Chanaich to Frenich Burn	Principal exposures of a unique, metamorphosed and deformed body of stratiform baryte, barium silicate and sulphides that has been extracted commercially and is of international importance.
44 Auchtertyre	Exceptional example of stratabound sulphide mineralization in Ben Challum Quartzite Formation. Minor folds with curved hinges.
45 Ben Oss	Major splay of Tyndrum Fault, representative of major system of NE-trending sinistral faults. Exceptional examples of features associated with major faults.

Highland Border Region Network, Chapter 4

46 Ardschalpsie Point	Representative continuous section across top limb of F1 Tay Nappe. Exposes branch of Highland Boundary Fault. Representative of St Ninian Formation with excellent sedimentary structures.
47 Cove Bay to Kilcreggan	Only well-exposed coastal section across closure of F1 Tay Nappe, with evidence from clear minor structures. Reference section for Dunoon Phyllites. Representative of Bullrock Greywacke and Beinn Bheula Schists.
48 Portincaple	Hinge-zone of F4 Highland Border Downbend with minor structures from 4 major episodes of deformation. Representative of Beinn Bheula Schists.
49 Bealach nam Bo	Excellent varied examples of volcanoclastic 'green beds'. Representative of Loch Katrine Volcanoclastic and Creag Innich Sandstone formations. Exhibits simple D1 minor structures with some modification during D2.
50 Duke's Pass	Representative of Aberfoyle Slates and Ben Ledi Grits in core of Aberfoyle Anticline. Exhibits clear unmodified D1 minor structures in south, with D2 structures developing to north.
51 Keltie Water, Callander	Major historical and continuing national importance in debate over stratigraphical and structural continuity across boundary between

		Southern Highland Group and Highland Border Complex, once regarded as a possible terrane boundary. Representative of Ben Ledi Grit and Keltie Water Grit formations, the latter with definitive Early Cambrian fossils nearby.
52 Little Glen Shee		Representative of lowest stratigraphical level and highest structural level in original F1 Tay Nappe. Hence lowest metamorphic grade, with well-preserved sedimentary structures. D1 minor structures in Highland Border Steep Belt, unmodified by later events. Historical area where downward-facing folds first demonstrated.
53 Craig a' Barns	These three sites together display the geometry of the downbent hinge-zone of the flat-lying Tay Nappe, the largest, most significant major recumbent fold in the whole of Great Britain. Excellent examples of sedimentary structures, pressure-solution cleavage development,	Representative of higher stratigraphical level and lower structural level in original F1 Tay Nappe. Hence sedimentary characteristics and D1 structures considerably modified by D2 structures. Unique exposures of hinge of F4 Highland Border Downbend.
54 Rotmell	cleavage refraction, bedding/cleavage and cleavage/cleavage relationships.	Representative of inverted Flat Belt of F1 Tay Nappe. Rocks at lowest structural level in original nappe, hence higher metamorphic grade (garnet-bearing) and strongly modified by D2 deformation. Evidence for emplacement of nappe by D2 translation to SE.
55 Glen Esk		Internationally recognized type area for the 6 zones of Barrovian-type regional metamorphism in pelitic rocks. Index minerals all visible in hand specimen.
56 Garron Point to Muchalls		Most north-easterly continuous section across downbent hinge-zone of F1 Tay Nappe. Excellent examples of structures from 3 deformational events (D1, D2 and D4). Historical locality where downward-facing folds first demonstrated.

Northern Grampian Highlands Network, Chapter 5

57 An Suidhe, Kincaig	Historical site where relationships between Grampian Group and pre-Dalradian basement first described. Now regarded as major orogenic unconformity. Representative of basement Glen Banchor Subgroup and carbonate-bearing Kincaig Formation at local base of Dalradian. Basement cut by major shear-zone with syntectonic pegmatitic veins, dated elsewhere.
58 The Slochd	Historical site where undeformed unconformity at

	base of Dalradian is now re-interpreted as sheared. Spectacular examples of migmatitic metasedimentary rocks in basement Dava Subgroup and syntectonic pegmatitic veins within Grampian Shear-zone. Isotopic evidence for 840 Ma zircon growth in basement rocks.
59 Lochan Uaine	Excellent example of a high-strain zone separating two distinct metasedimentary units, one gneissose and the other non-gneissose with good sedimentary structures. Representative of Ruthven Semipelite and Gairbeinn Pebbly Psammite formations, once thought to be Moine and Dalradian respectively but now both assigned to Grampian Group.
60 Blargie Craig	Representative of Laggan Inlier, including basement Glen Banchor Subgroup and cover of Grampian and Appin group. One of few places where basement-cover contact is exposed, here with most of Grampian Group omitted stratigraphically over a basement 'high'.
61 River E	Excellent preservation of wide range of fluvial and alluvial sedimentary structures in low-strain core of F2 antiform. Representative of lowest rocks in Dalradian succession (Glen Buck Pebbly Psammite).
62 Garva Bridge	Type area of Glenshirra Subgroup, including fluvial environments rarely seen in later Dalradian successions. Good evidence for basin geometry and depositional environment.
63 Rubha na Magach	Representative of Loch Laggan Psammite, dominant formation of Corrieyairack Subgroup. Low deformation preserves excellent Bouma sequences, deposited by turbidity currents near centre of basin.
64 Kinloch Laggan Road A86	Type locality for Kinlochlaggan Boulder Bed of Lochaber Subgroup. Ice-rafted dropstones are earliest recorded glacial influence in Dalradian succession.
65 Allt Mhainisteir	Representative complete section across Appin Group, Kinlochlaggan succession in Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt. Exposes Inverpattack Fault, major splay off regional NE-trending sinistral faults.
66 Aonach Beag and Geal-charn	Spans Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt, with excellent 3D exposures of tight upright folds, including Kinlochlaggan Syncline. Illustrates contrasting fold geometry between basin and footwall 'high'.
67 Ben Alder	Representative of F2 and F3 fold structures changing from steep to gently inclined SE of Geal-charn-Ossian Steep Belt, in Grampian Group strata on edge of Strath Tummel Basin.

68 Ben Vuirich	Type example of c. 600 Ma Vuirich Granitic Suite with high-precision radiometric date. Nationally important for minimum age of Blair Atholl Subgroup. Internationally important for maximum age of Caledonian deformation in Grampian Highlands. Key exposures of xenoliths and hornfels preserve weak earlier fabric of uncertain origin.
69 Gilbert's Bridge, Glen Tilt	Historically important representative section across Boundary Slide, high-strain zone at junction between Grampian and Appin groups.
70 Glen Ey Gorge	Representative section across Boundary Slide, high-strain zone at junction between Grampian and Appin groups.
71 Cairn Leuchan	Represents most-extreme regional metamorphic conditions seen in Scottish Dalradian, recorded in both metasedimentary and basic meta-igneous rocks. Evidence for timing of sillimanite growth and two generations of migmatite.
72 Balnacraig, Dinnet	Displays many classical features of migmatization of metasedimentary rocks as result of partial melting, possibly enhanced by intrusion of basic magma. Features include granitic leucosomes, xenoliths of refractory material and large crystals of sillimanite.
73 Muckle Fergie Burn	Representative sequence of metadiamicrites of glacial origin near base of Argyll Group. Succeeding pillow lavas are earliest basic igneous activity in Dalradian succession.
74 Bridge of Brown	Demonstrates transition from Grampian Group into Appin Group, with no tectonic dislocation (c.f. Boundary Slide elsewhere). Representative succession from topmost Glen Spean Subgroup to top of Lochaber Subgroup.
75 Bridge of Avon	Representative condensed succession from base of Ballachulish Subgroup to Blair Atholl Subgroup. Records typical shallow-marine transgression and regression.
76 Kymah Burn	Type section of Ladder Hills Formation and representative of Nochtly Semipelite and Limestone and Kymah Quartzite formations that together comprise Islay Subgroup in this area. Thin basaltic lava and tuff units are present. Spectacular section through large-scale refolded fold.
77 Black Water	Representative section through Blackwater Formation, including thickest, most-extensive sequence of metavolcanic rocks in NE Grampian Highlands. Features metapicrites, pillow lavas and fragmental rocks in turbiditic environment.
78 Auchindoun Castle	Representative of Mortlach Graphitic Schist Formation, including basal Dufftown Limestone. Pelites contain exceptionally clear examples, with possible international value, of andalusite, pseudomorphed by kyanite due to later increase in pressure west of Portsoy

	Lineament.
79 Cullen to Troup Head	Longest continuous section across strike of Dalradian, from topmost Grampian Group to highest preserved Southern Highland Group. Complete transect from low to high structural level and high to low metamorphic grade, with a major dislocation and metamorphic hiatus at Portsoy Lineament. 600 Ma Portsoy Granite and boulder bed high in succession are age markers.
80 Fraserburgh to Rosehearty	Representative of Buchan Block, with its distinctive structural history, lacking major D1 nappe structures. International type section of regional low-pressure-high-temperature Buchan metamorphism. Exposes transition from partly calcareous Tayvallich Subgroup into Southern Highland Group.
81 Cairnbulg to St Combs	Representative of Inzie Head Gneiss Formation in core of Buchan Anticline. Spectacular range of low-pressure-high-temperature migmatites produced by partial melting, possibly associated with dioritic intrusions at peak of metamorphism.
82 Collieston to Whinnyfold	Representative of Collieston Formation, with well-preserved turbiditic sedimentary structures. Large-scale recumbent syncline might be north-eastern extension of Tay Nappe.

Shetland Network, Chapter 7

83 Scalloway	Representative of Colla Firth Permeation and Injection Belt, within Whiteness Group. Granite sheets and veins indicate minimum age of deformation and peak of metamorphism in Shetland Dalradian, which might be significantly earlier than in Scotland.
84 Hawks Ness	Representative section from top of Whiteness Group into lower part of Clift Hills Group, records deepening marine environment with volcanism. Exhibits short-wavelength isoclinal folding and mineral assemblages record two metamorphic events.
85 Cunningsburgh	Representative of Dunrossness Spilitic Formation, youngest Dalradian unit in Shetland. Submarine lavas and volcanoclastic rocks with minor deep-water sediments intruded by gabbro. Serpentinized and brecciated ultramafic rocks contain distinctive elongate pseudomorphs after olivine.

Figure 1.1

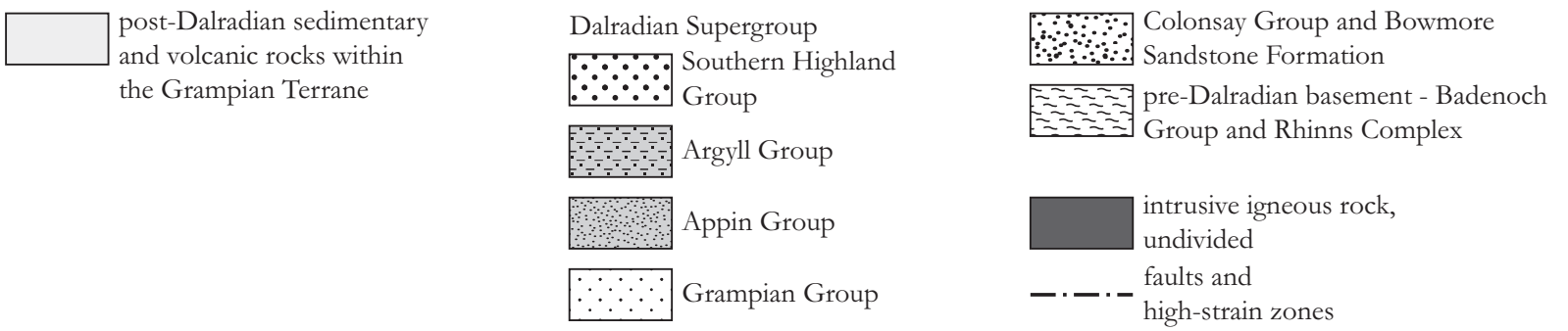
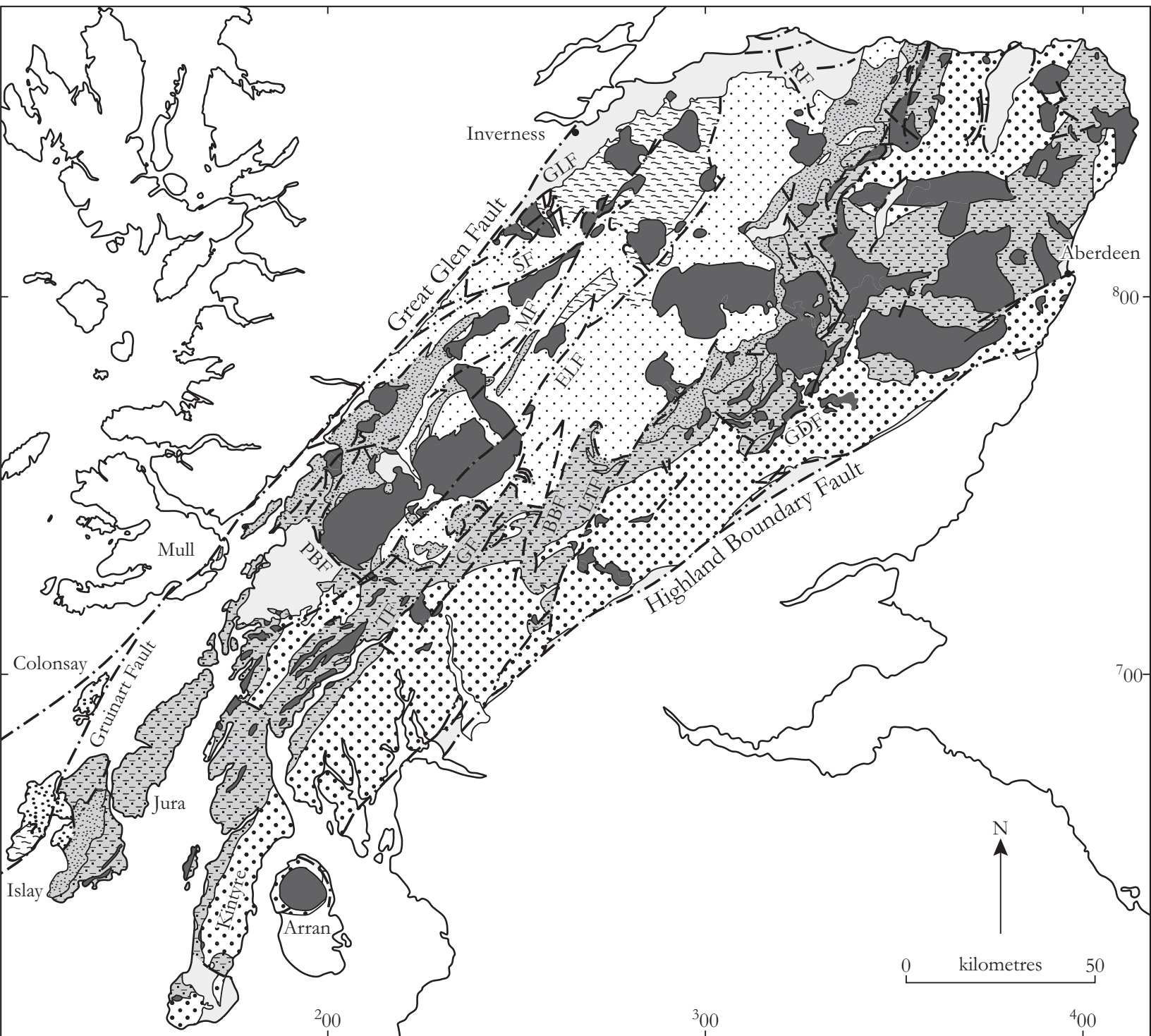
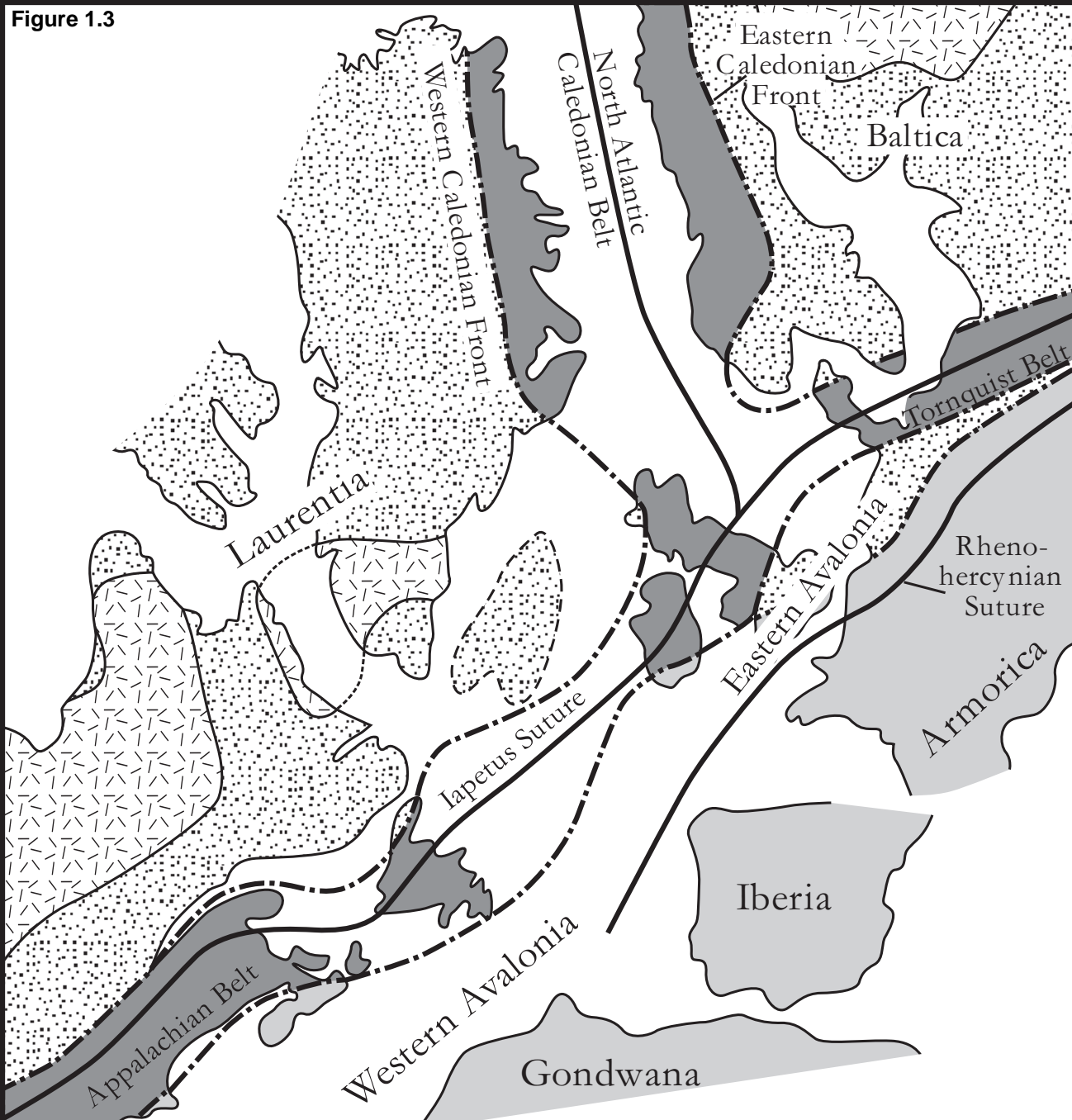


Figure 1.2



Figure 1.3





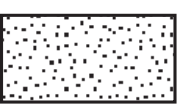
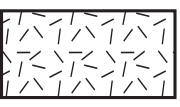


-  post-Caledonian orogens
(Late Palaeozoic and later)
-  Caledonian Orogen
(Early to Mid-Palaeozoic)
-  Late Archaean to
Proterozoic orogens
-  Archaean cratons
-  orogenic fronts
-  major orogenic sutures

Figure 1.4
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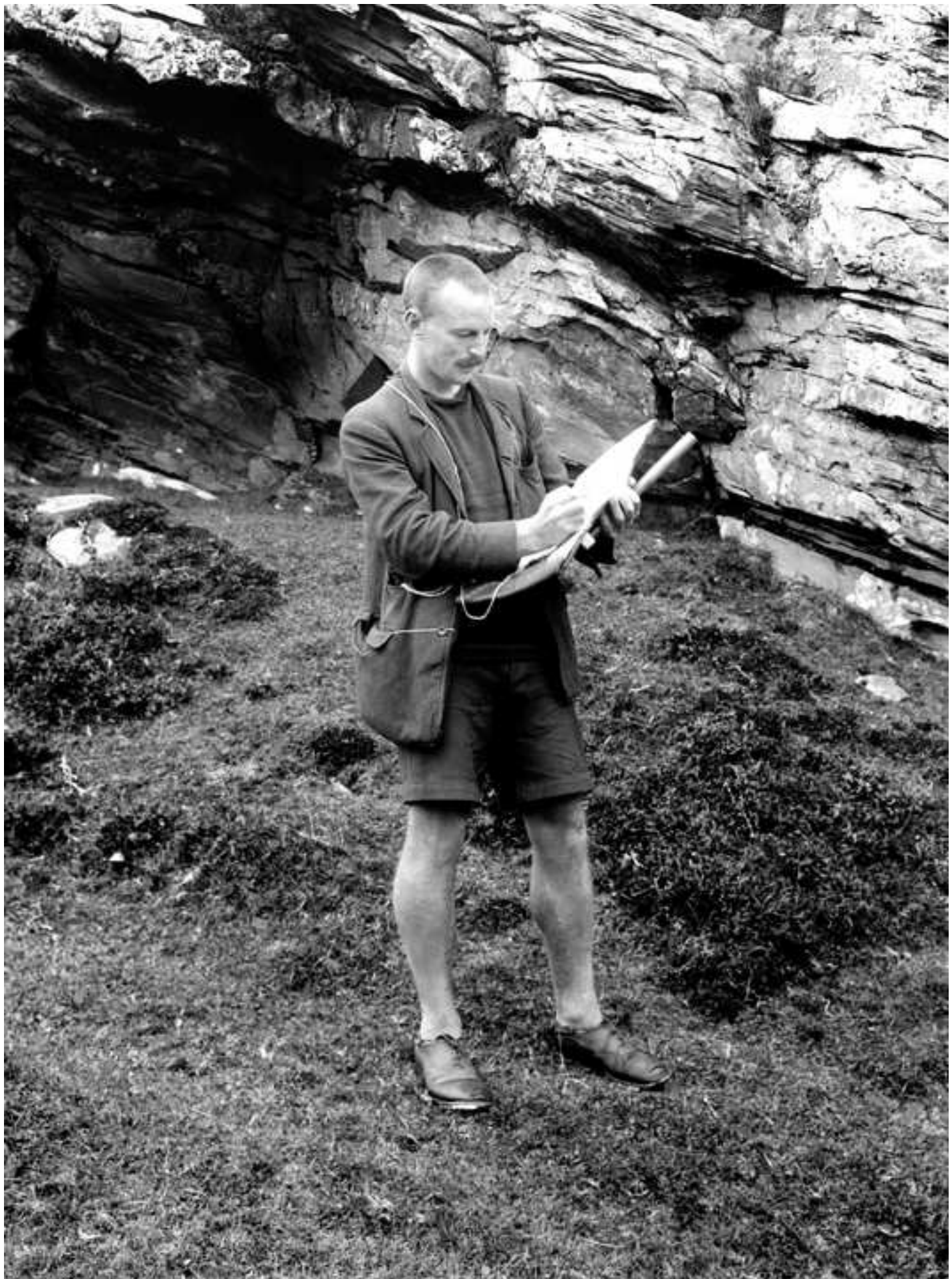


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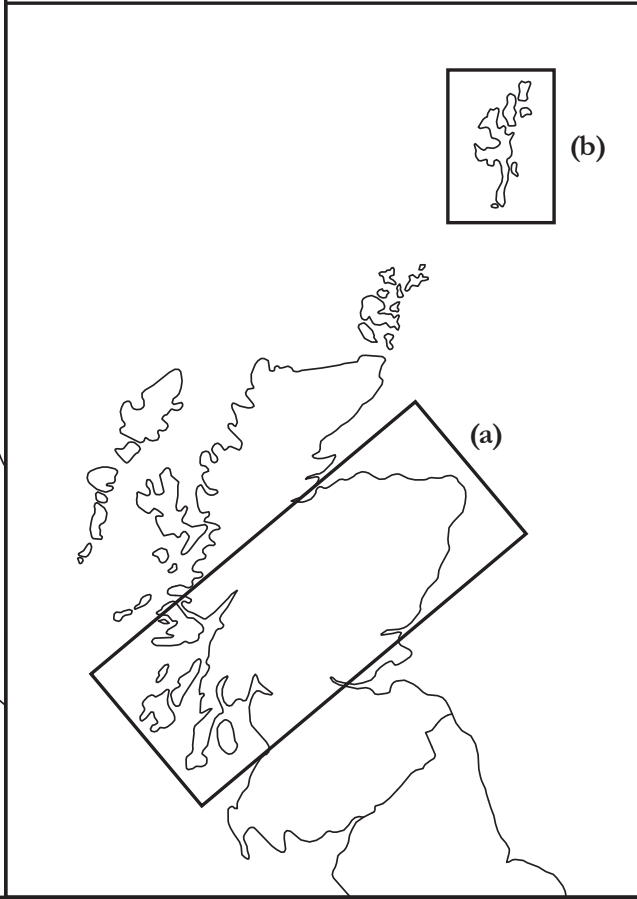
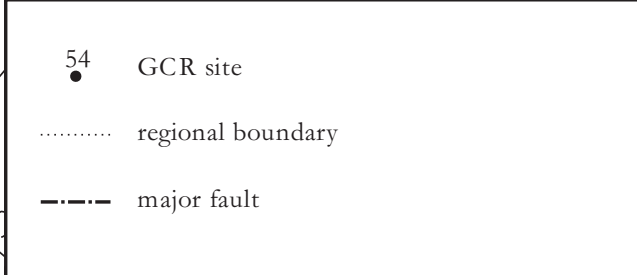
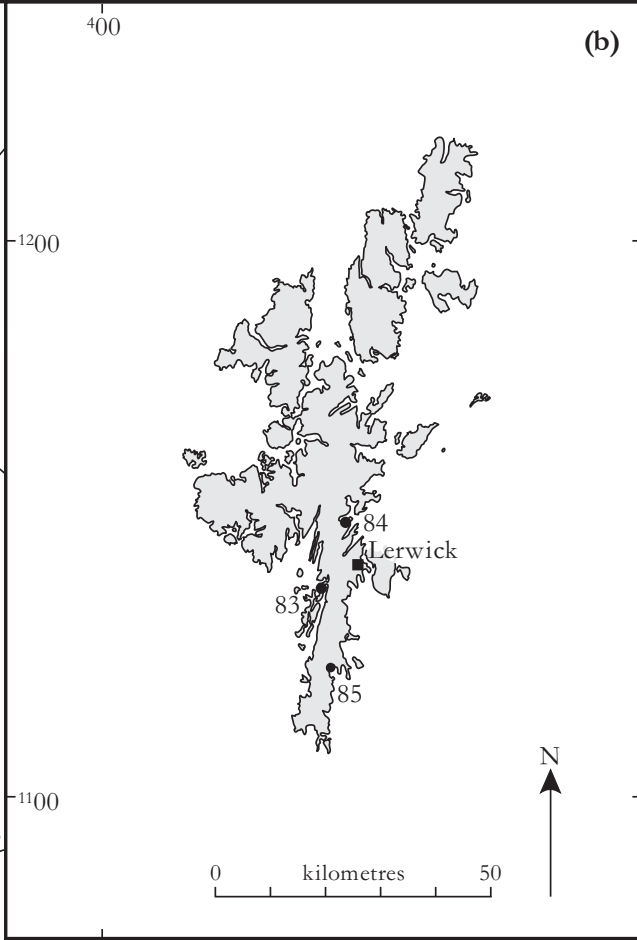
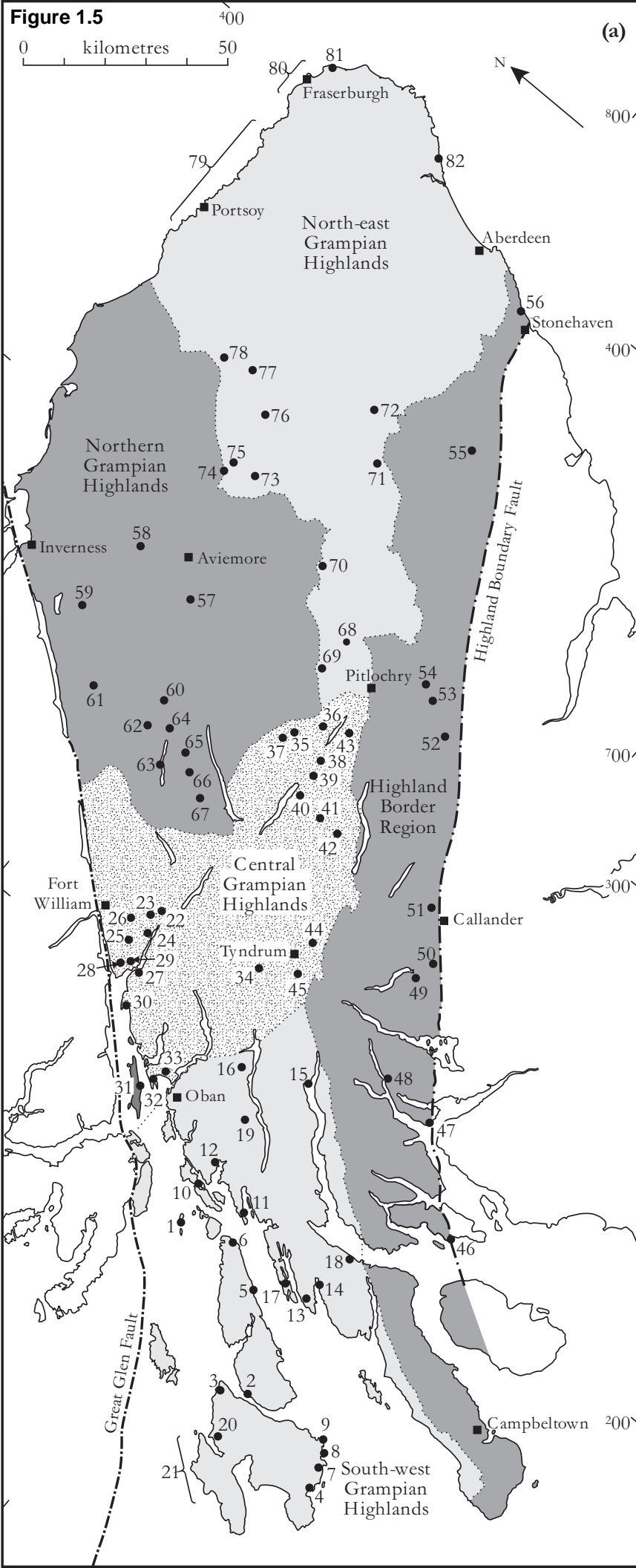


Figure 1.6

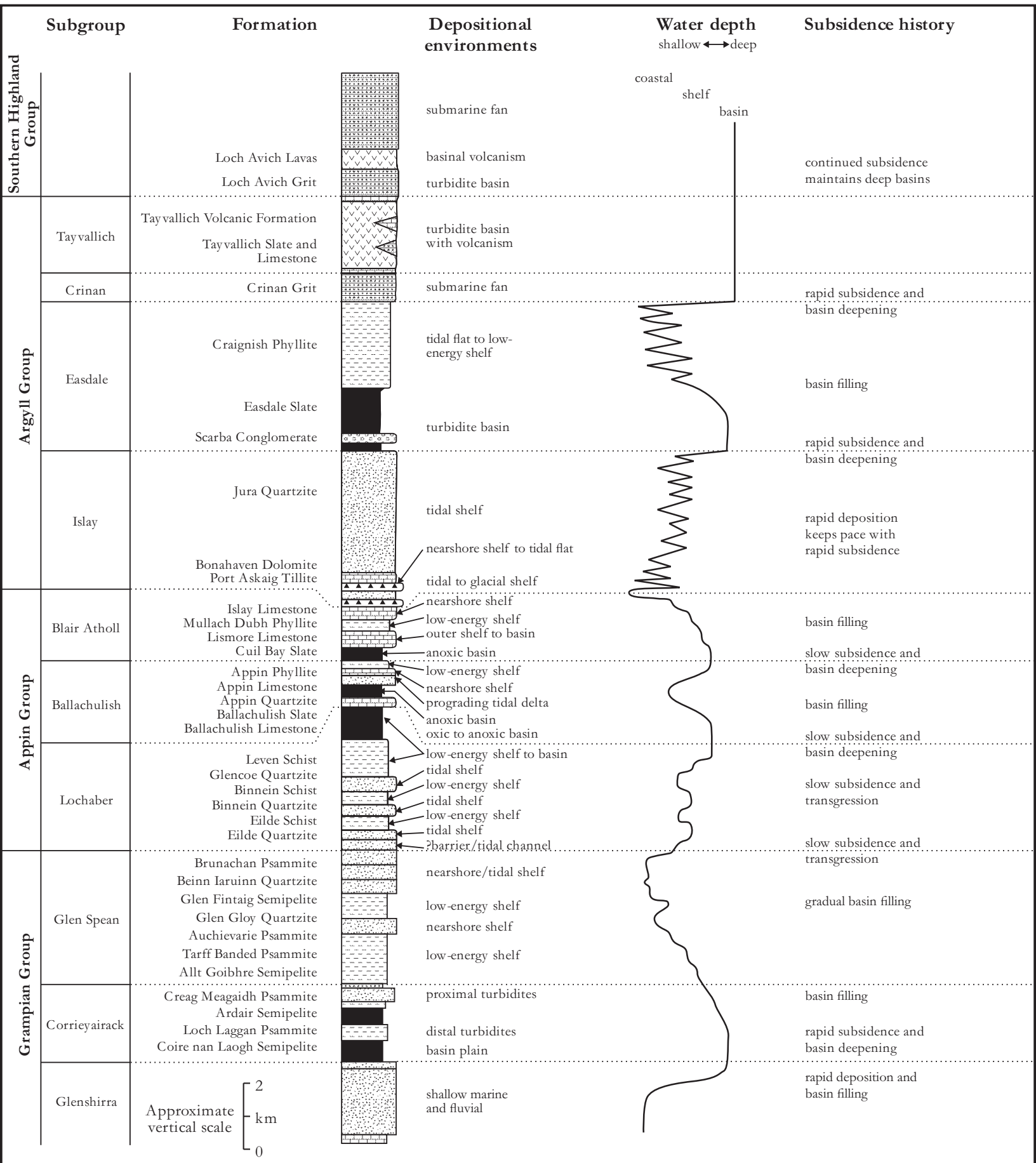
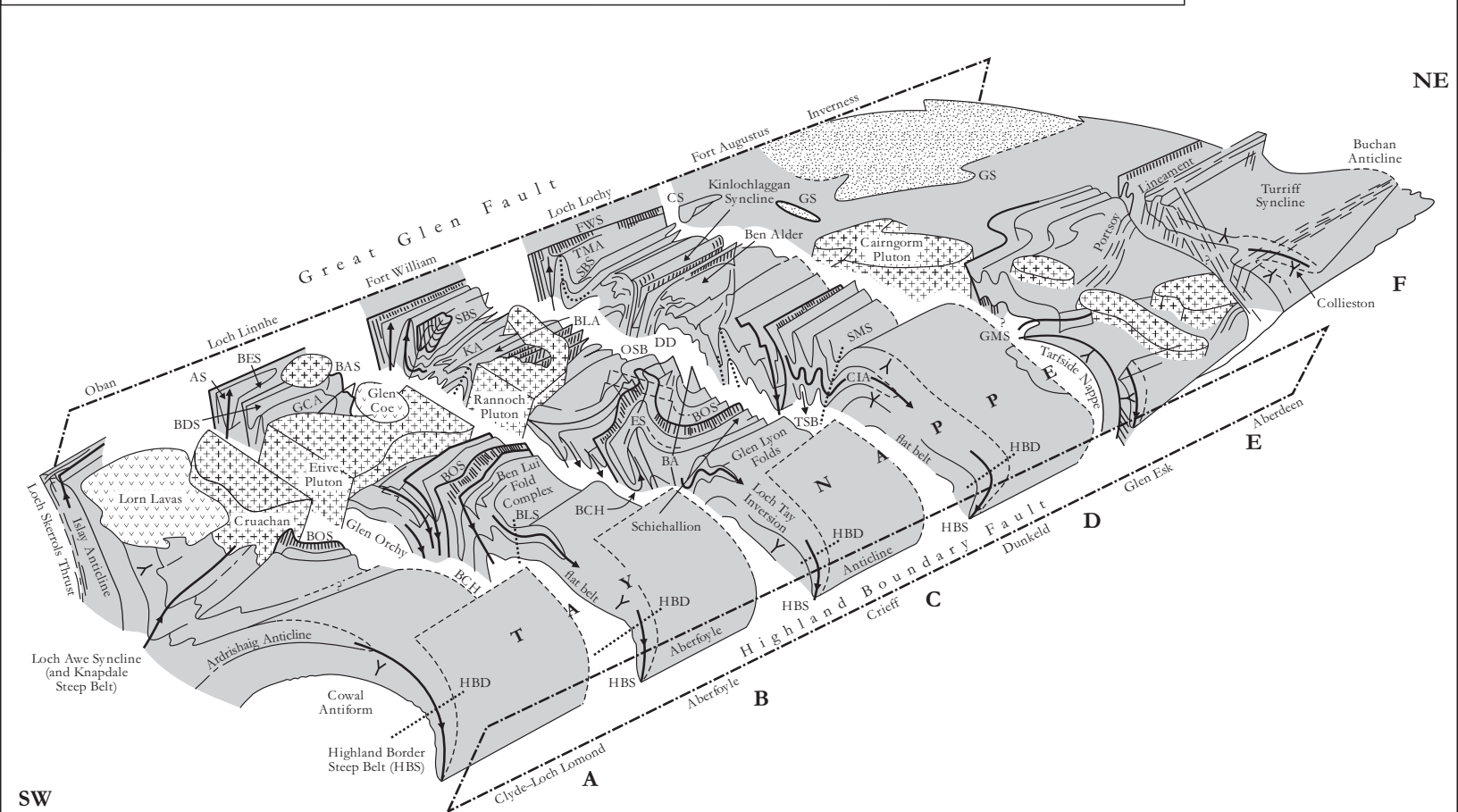
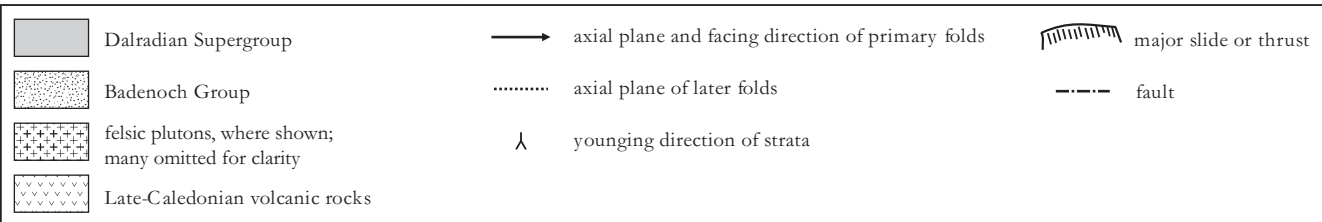


Figure 1.7



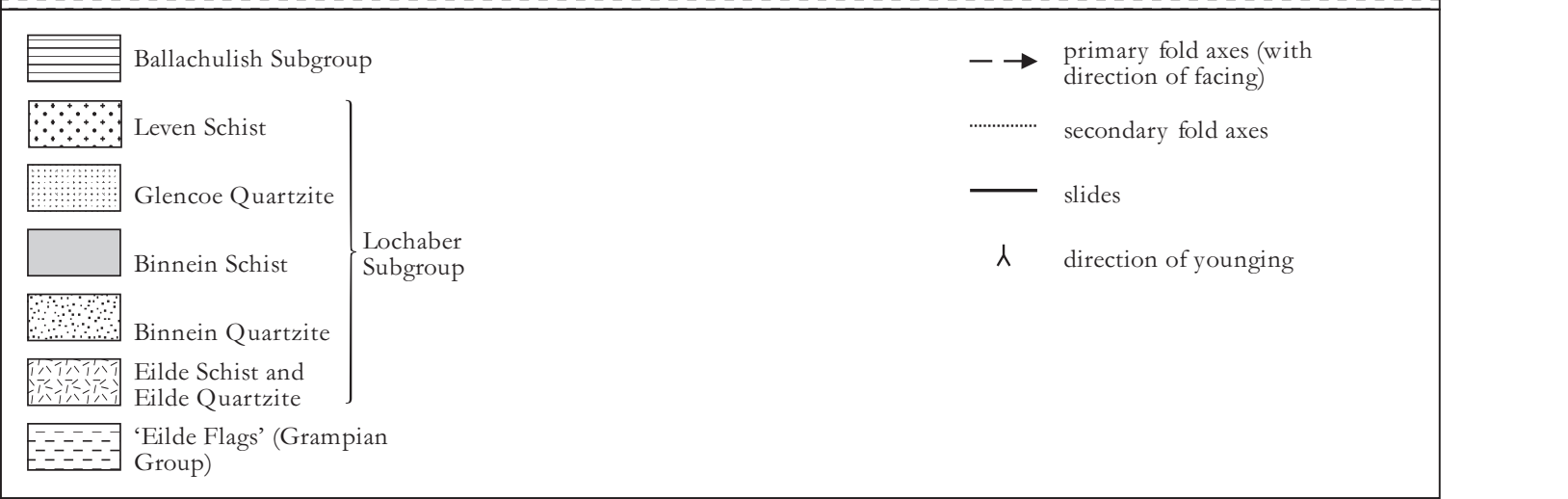
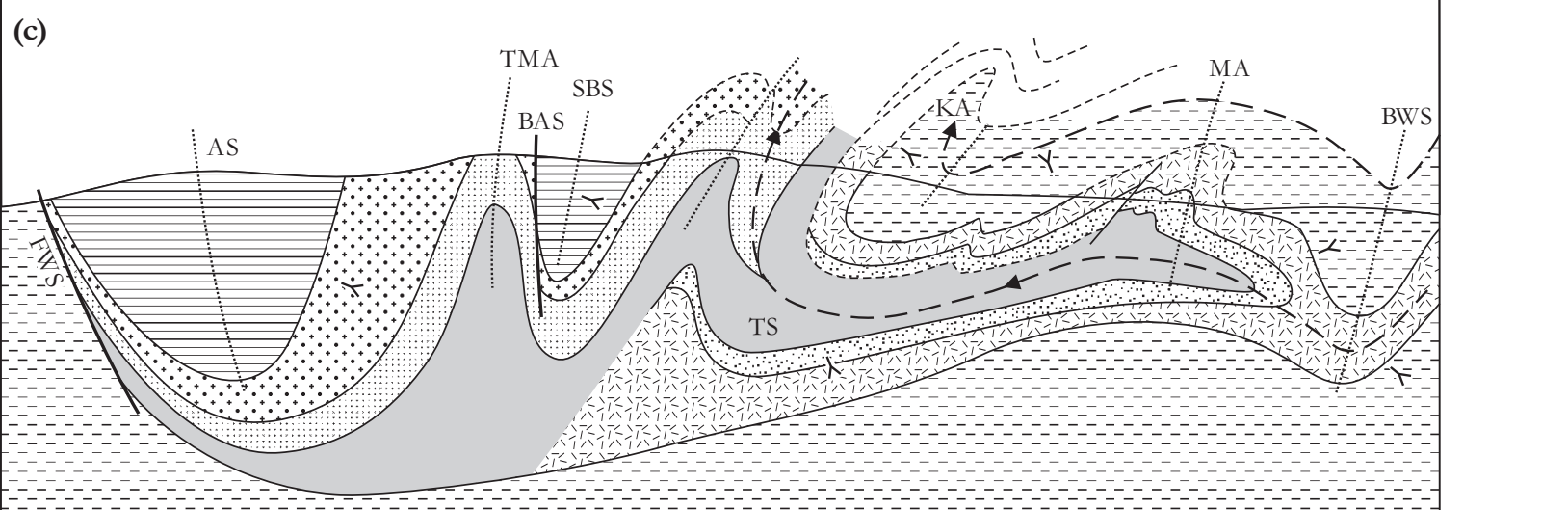
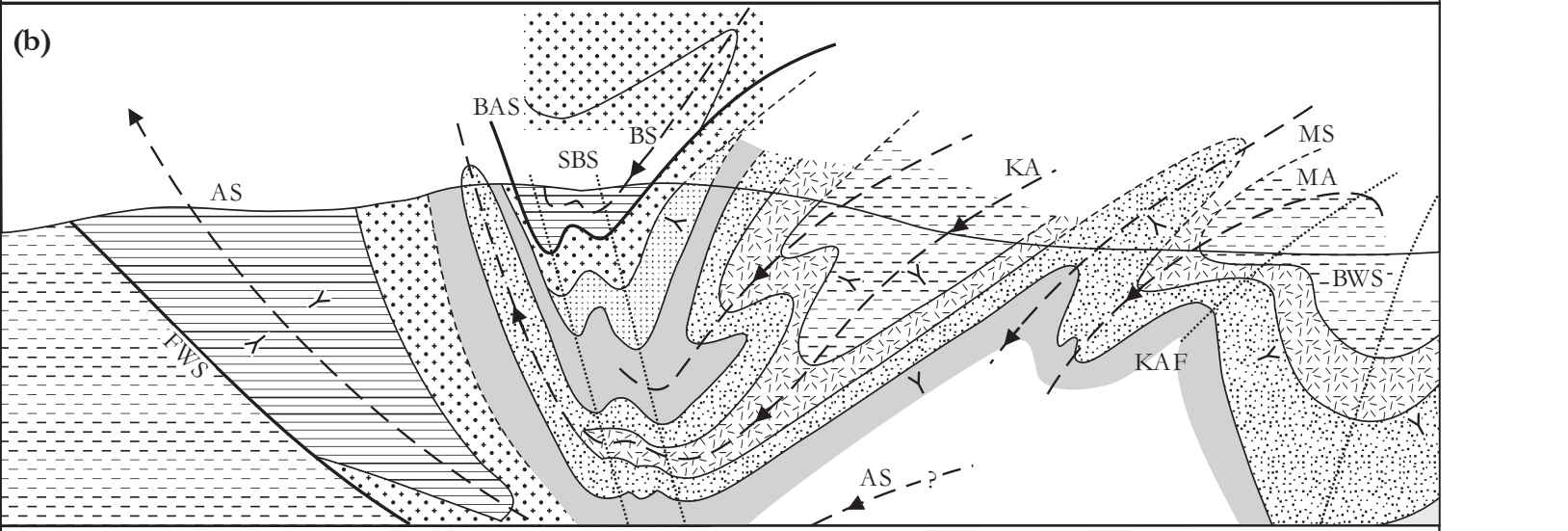
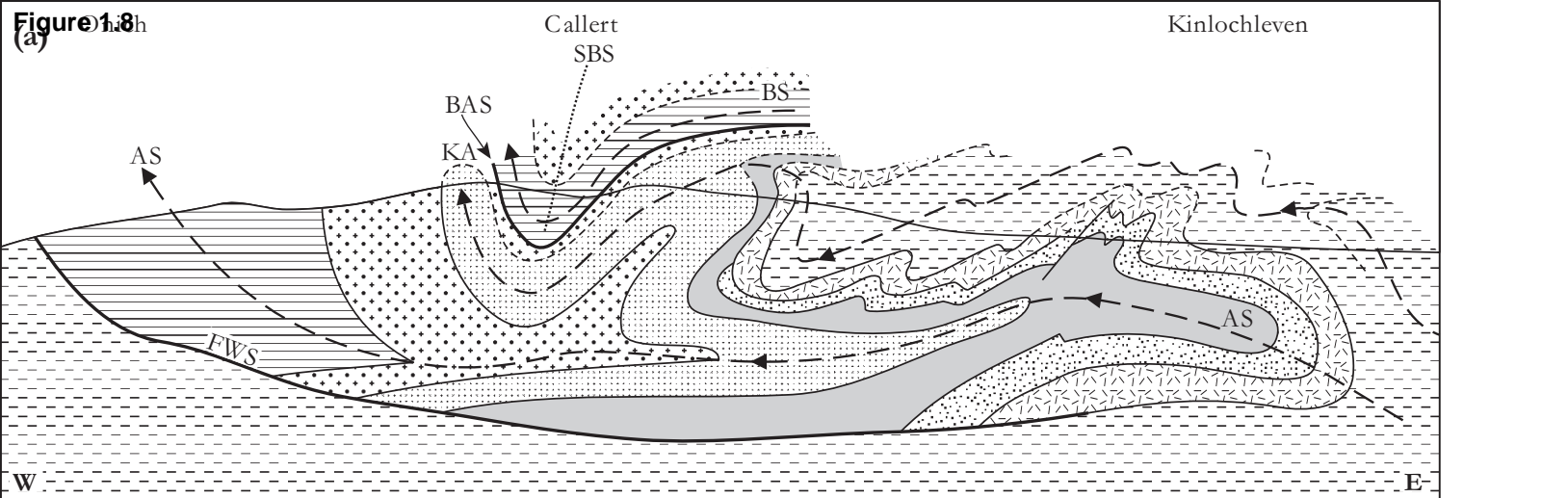


Figure 1.9

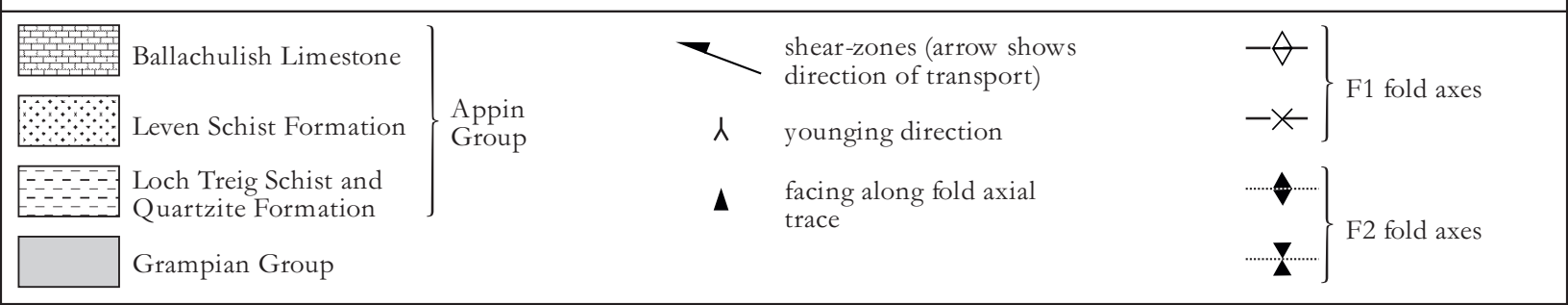
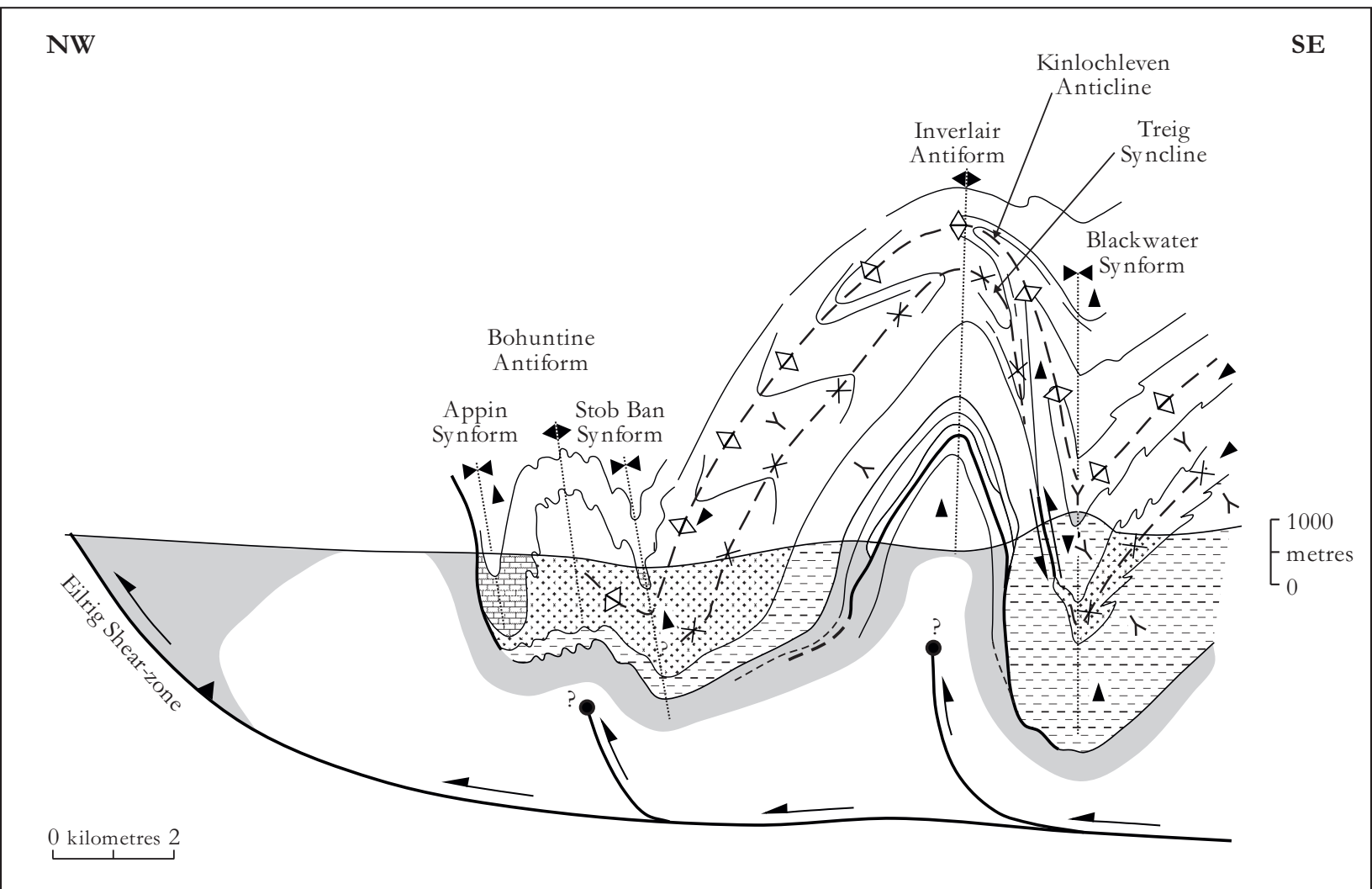


Figure 1.10

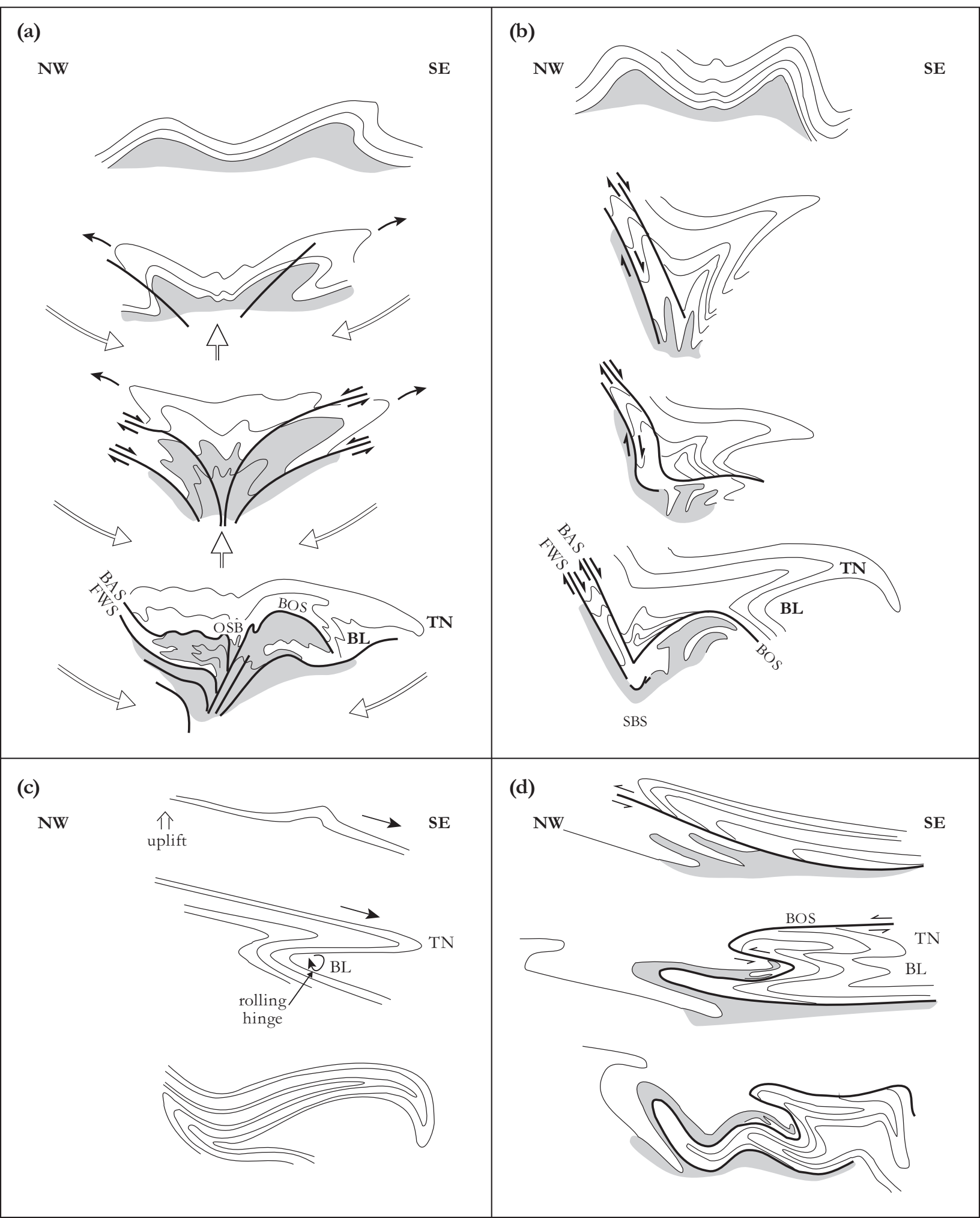


Figure 1.11

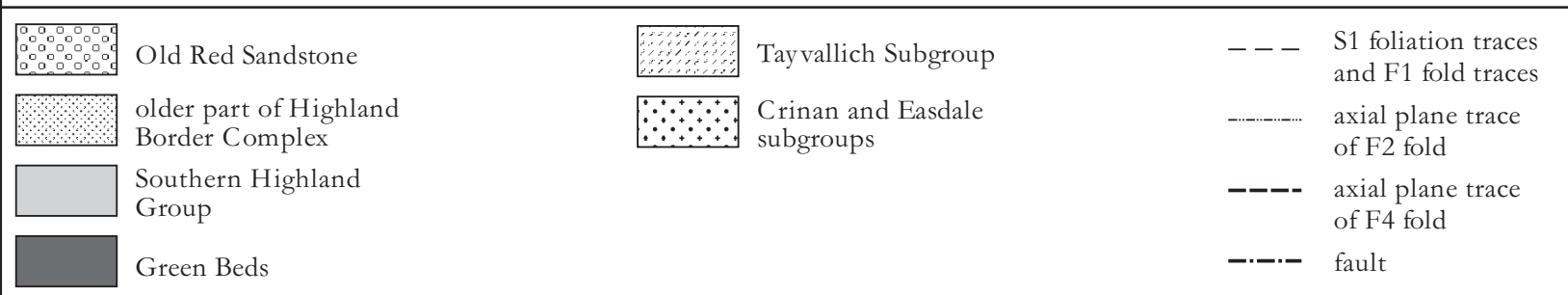
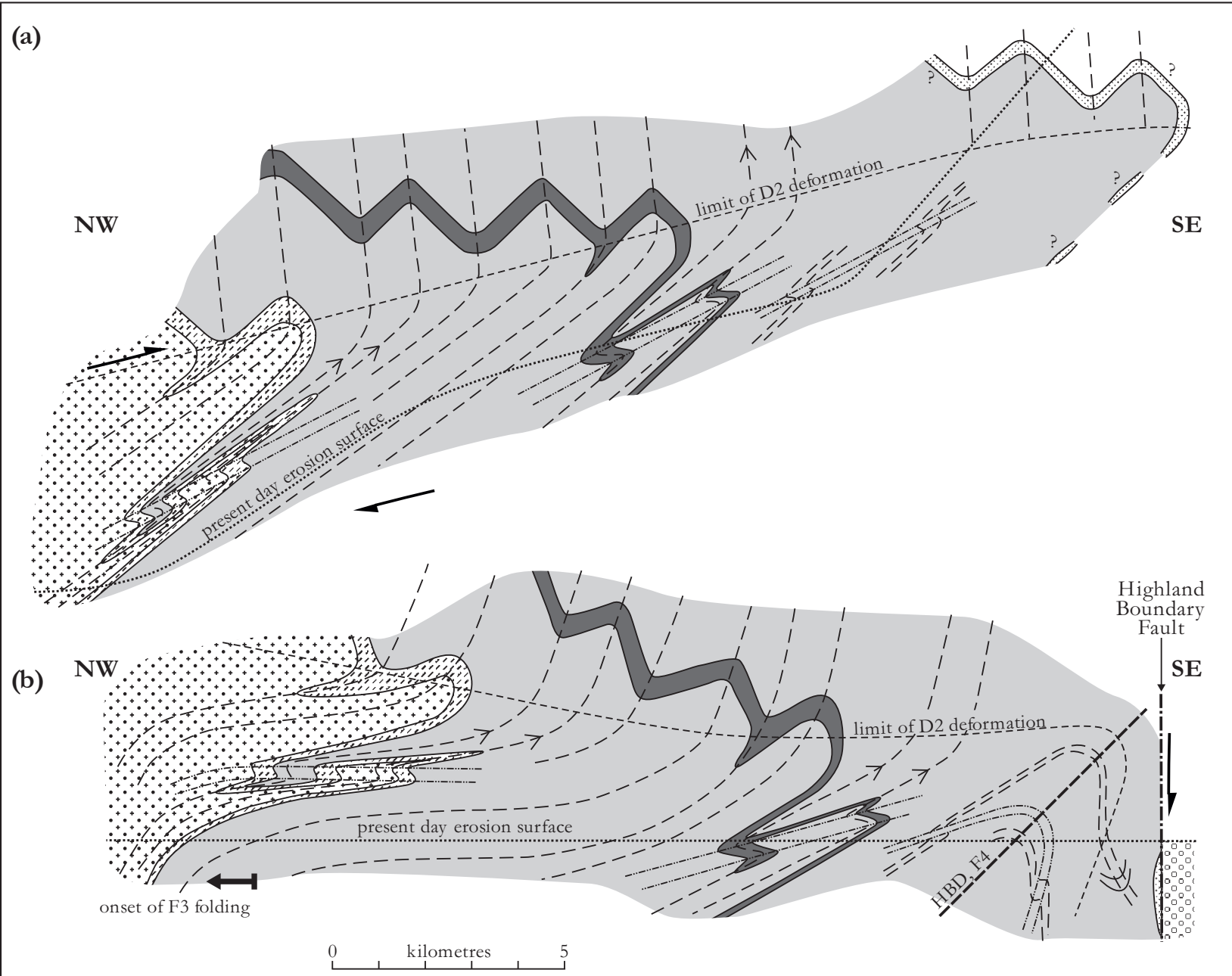


Figure 1.12

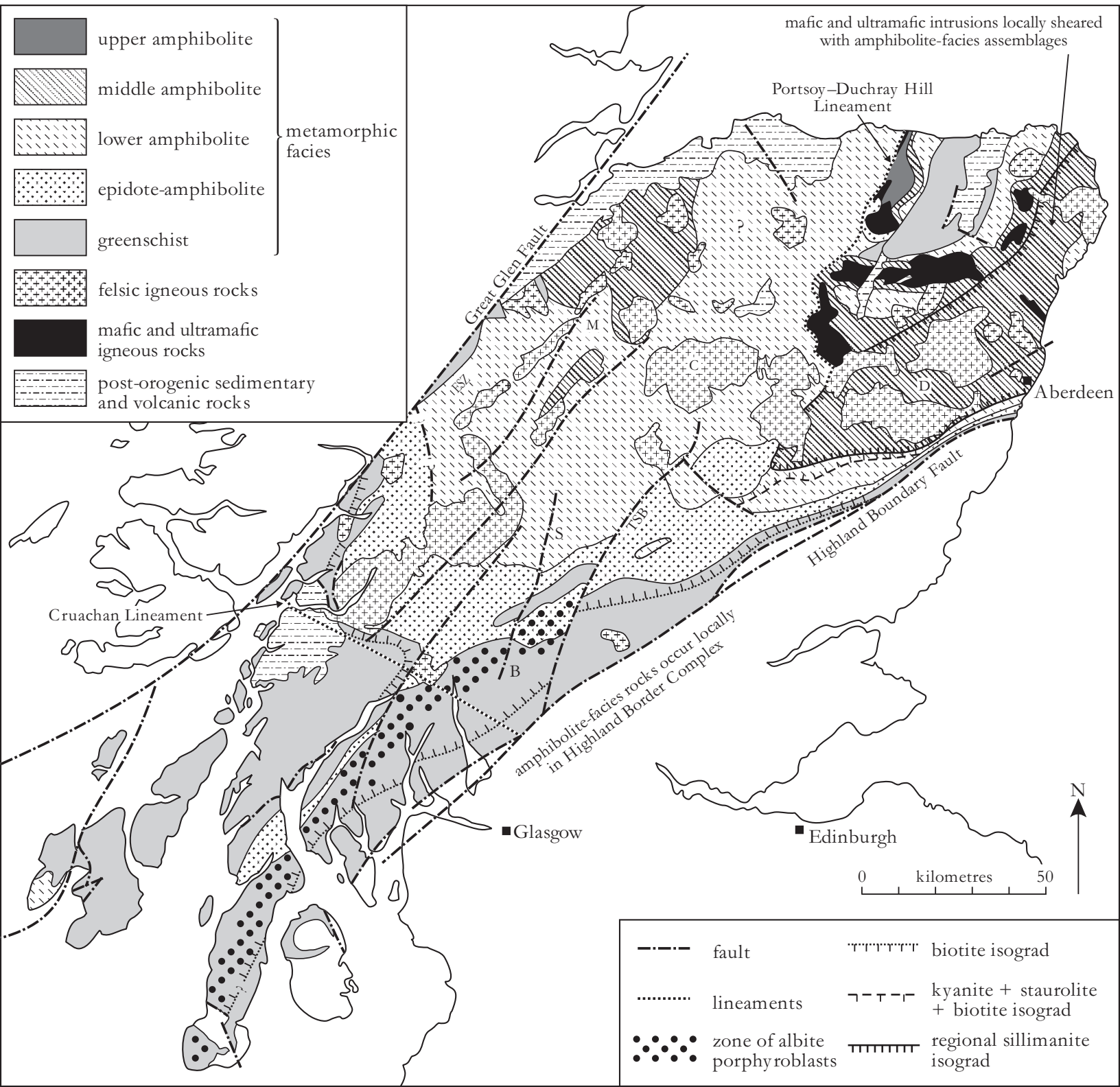


Figure 1.13

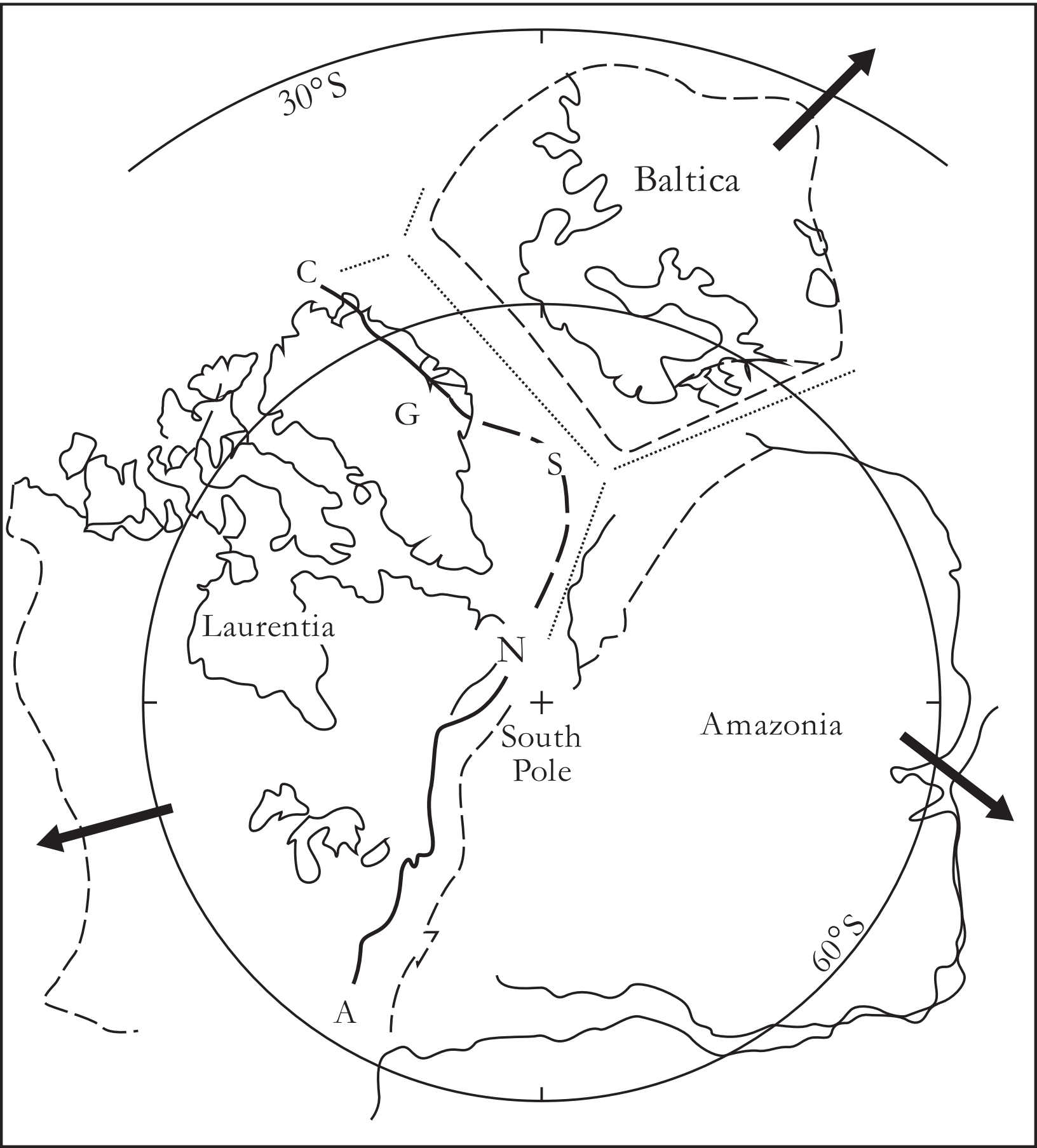
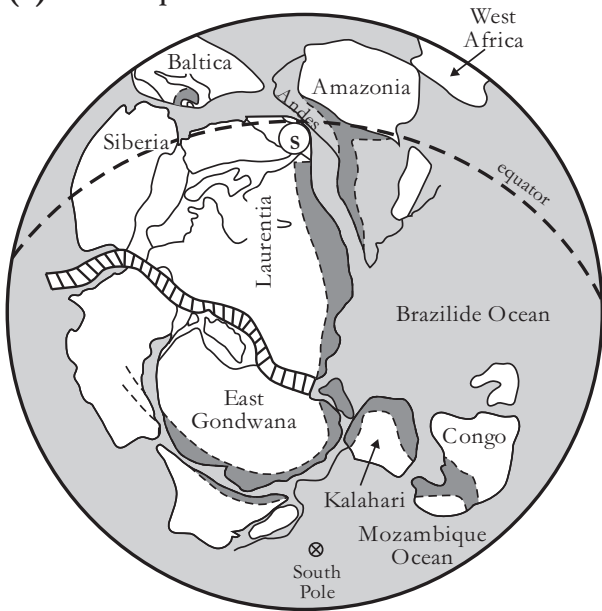
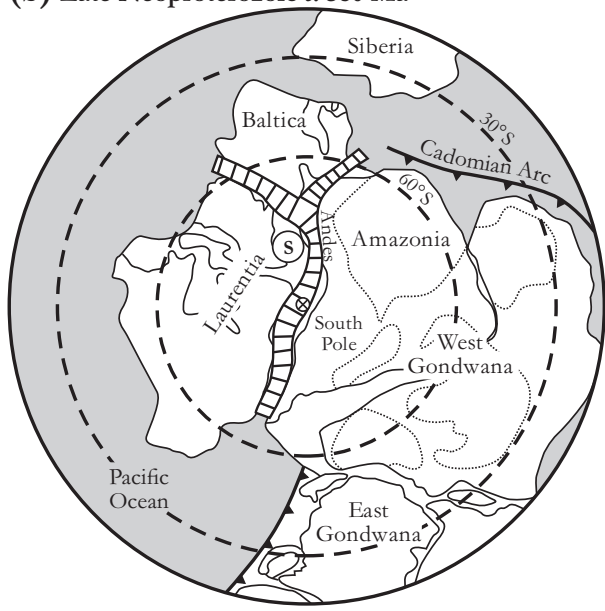


Figure 1.14

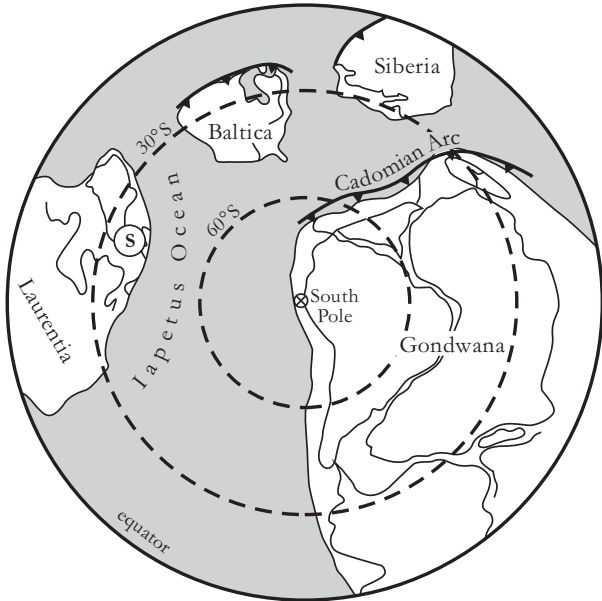
(a) Mid Neoproterozoic *c.* 750 Ma



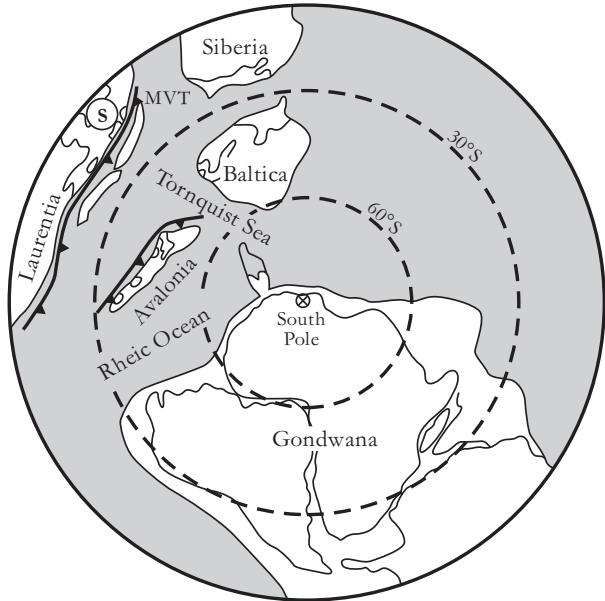
(b) Late Neoproterozoic *c.* 580 Ma



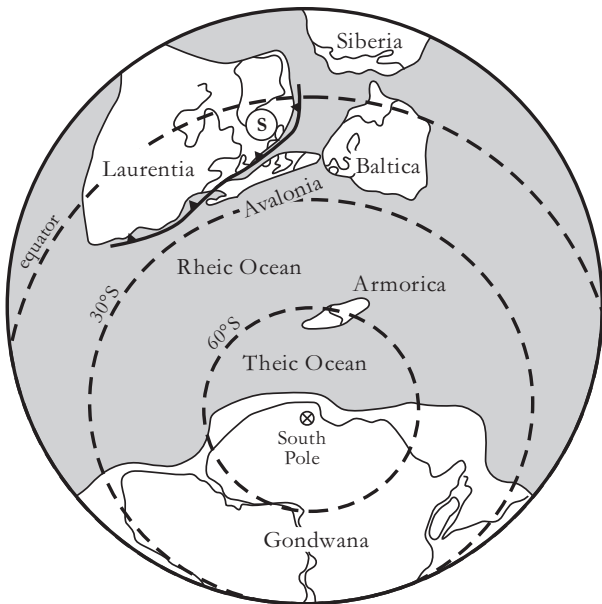
(c) Early Cambrian *c.* 540 Ma



(d) Mid Ordovician *c.* 470 Ma



(e) Early Silurian *c.* 440 Ma



(f) Mid Silurian *c.* 425 Ma

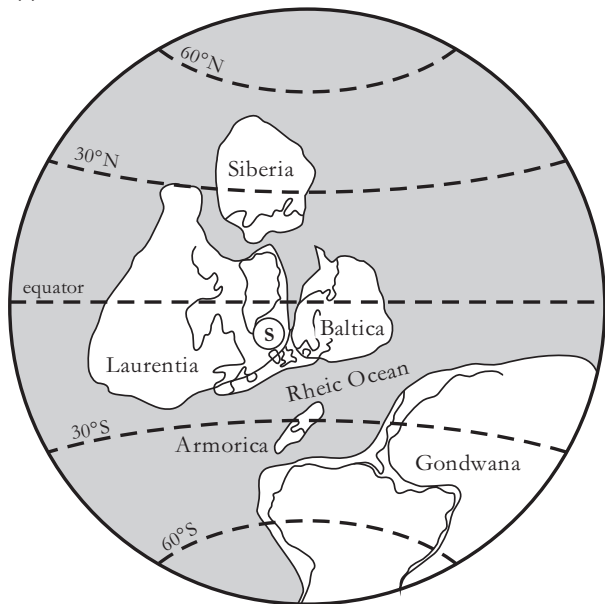


Figure 1.15

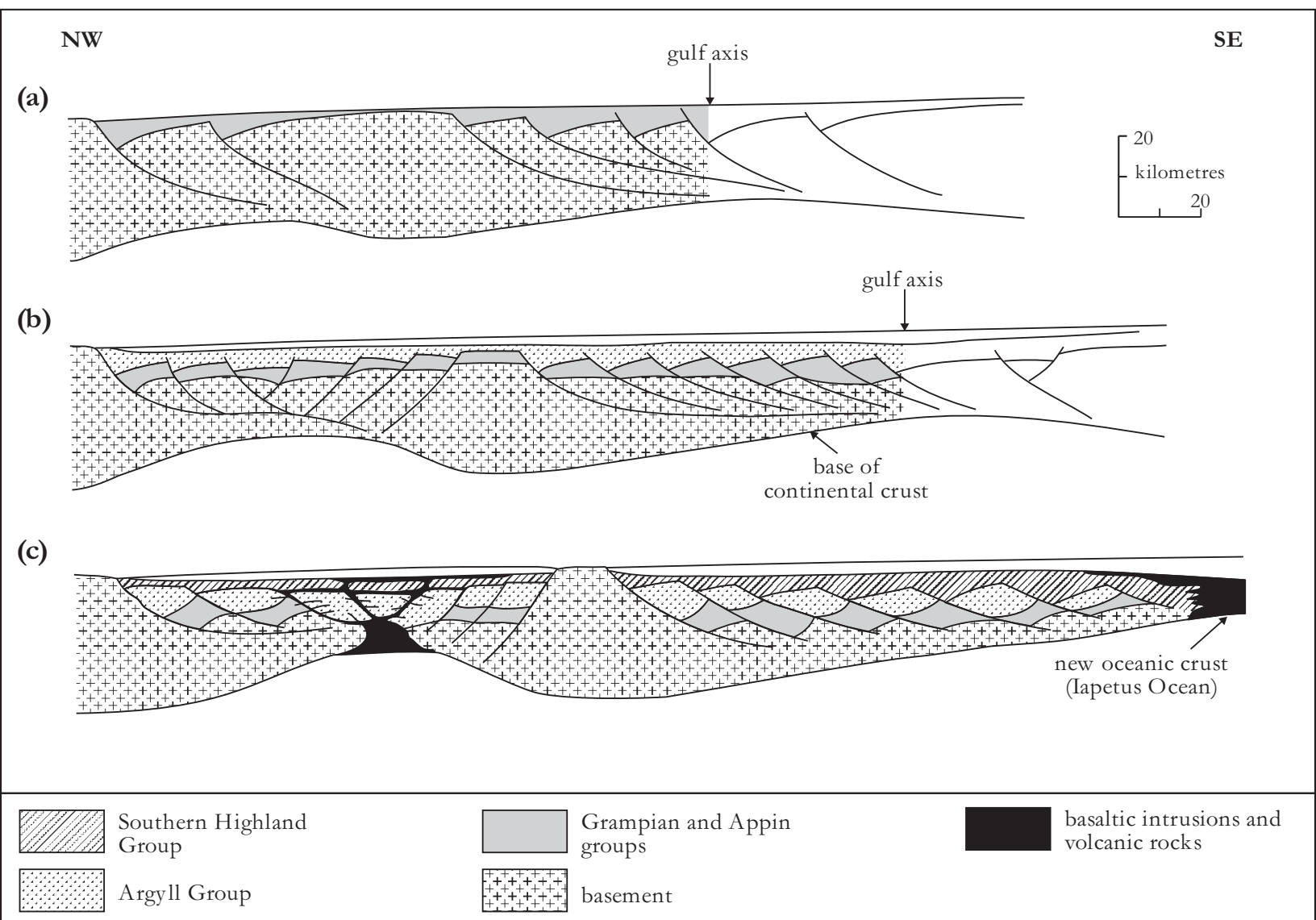
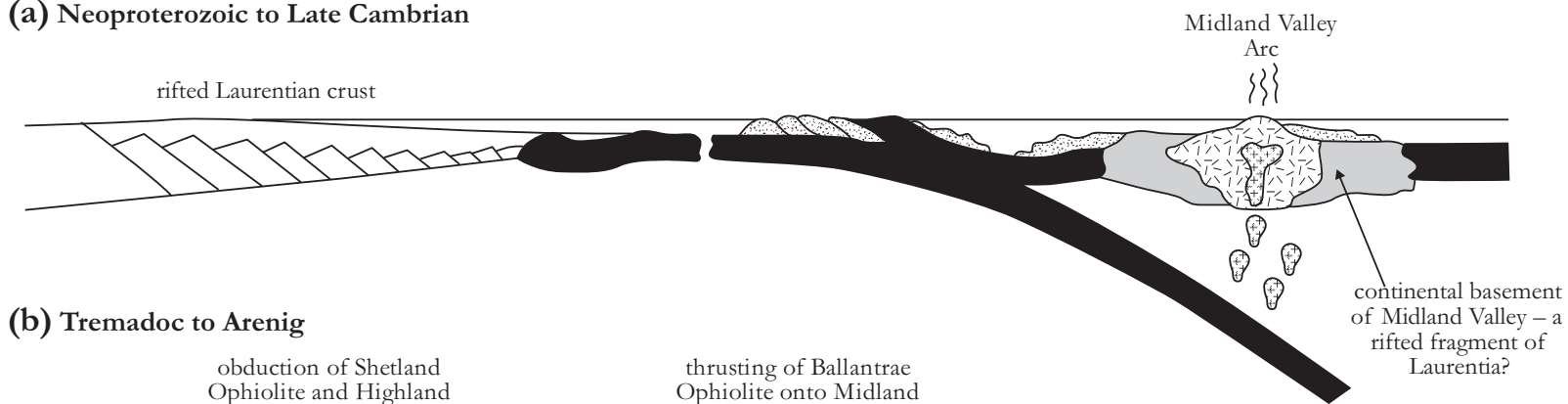
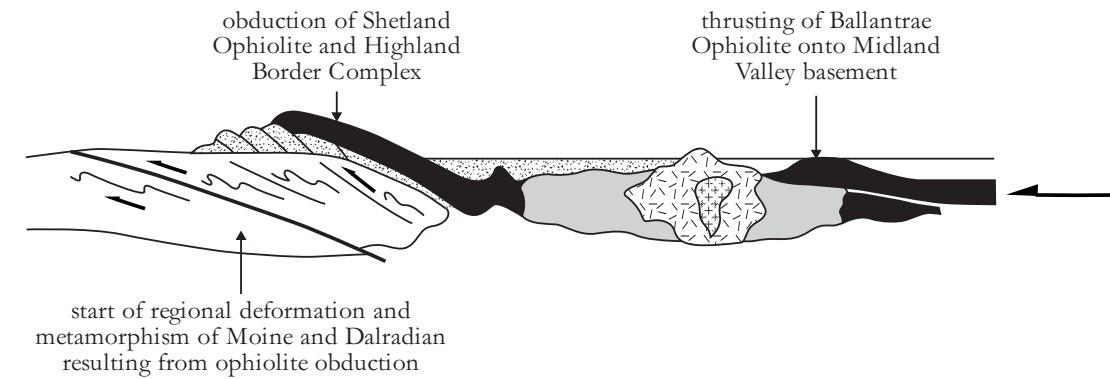


Figure 1.16

(a) Neoproterozoic to Late Cambrian



(b) Tremadoc to Arenig



(c) Arenig to Llanvirn

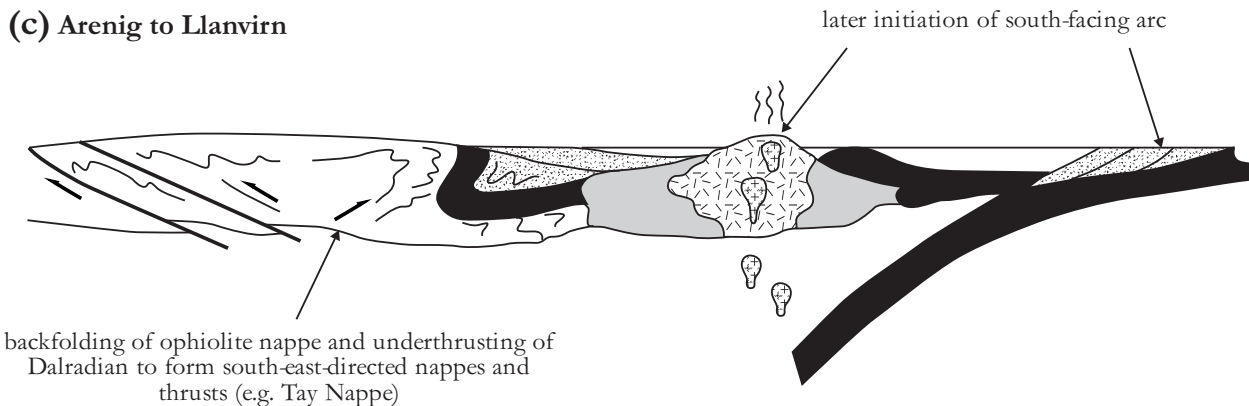


Figure 1.17

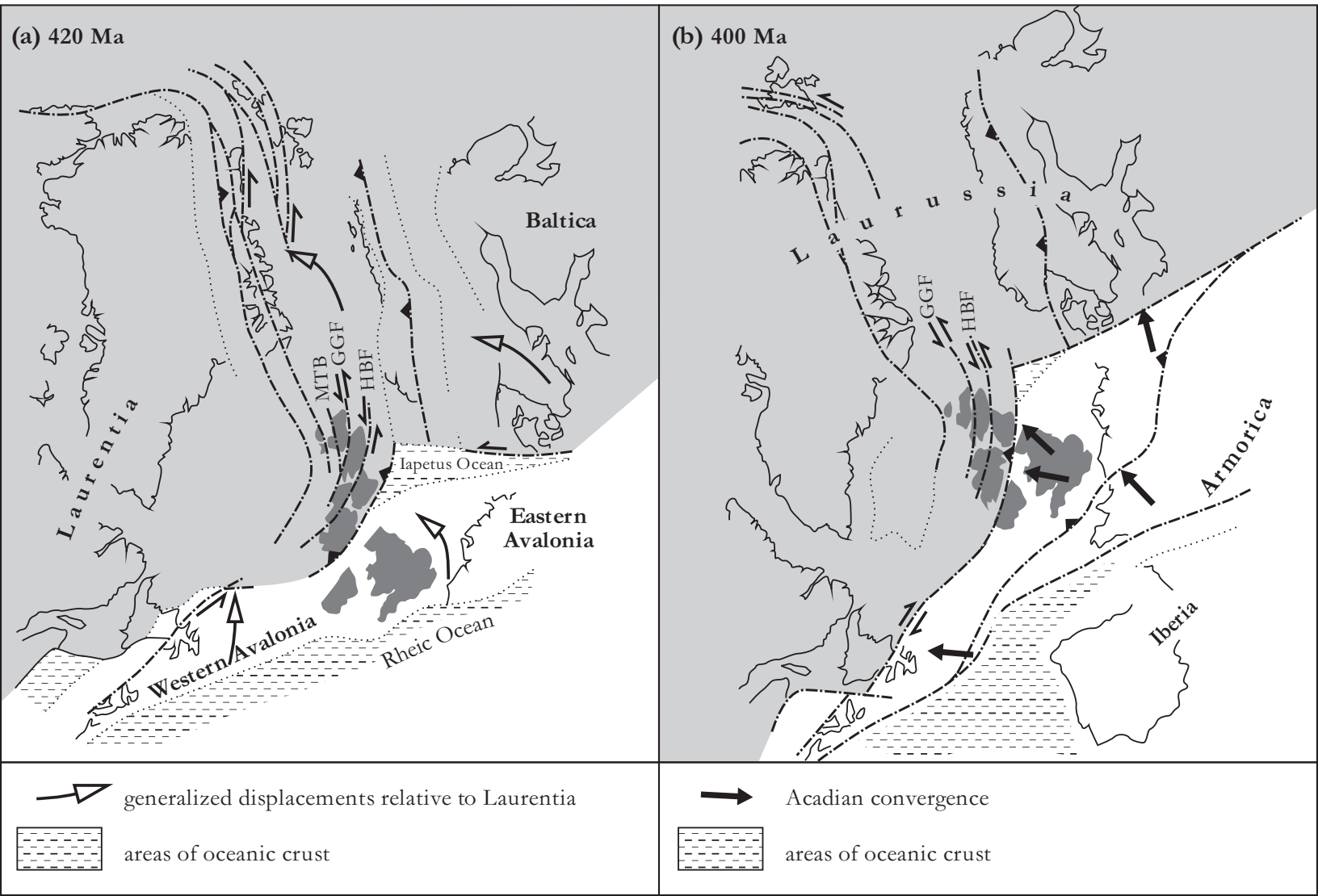
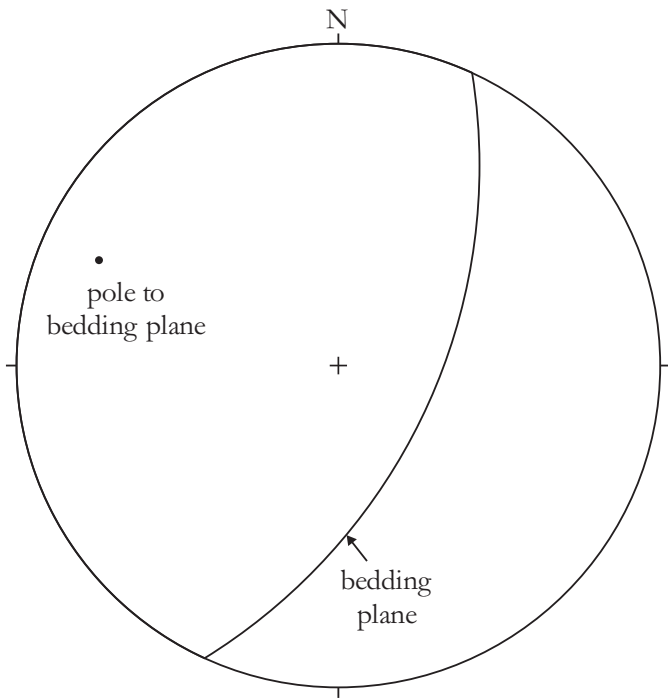
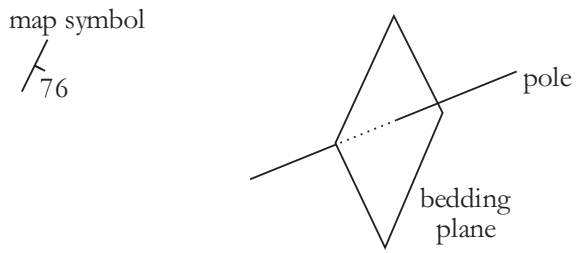
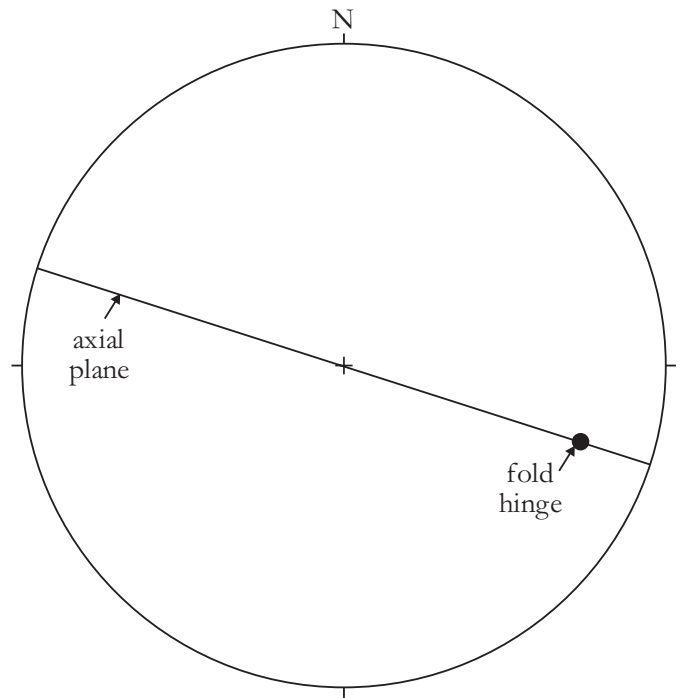
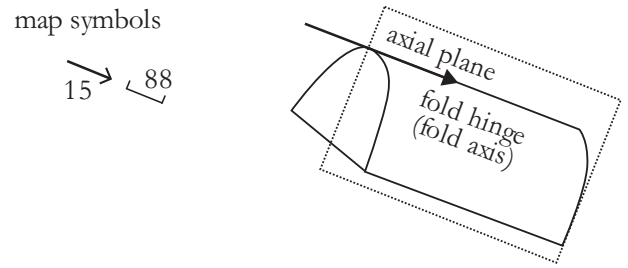


Figure G.1

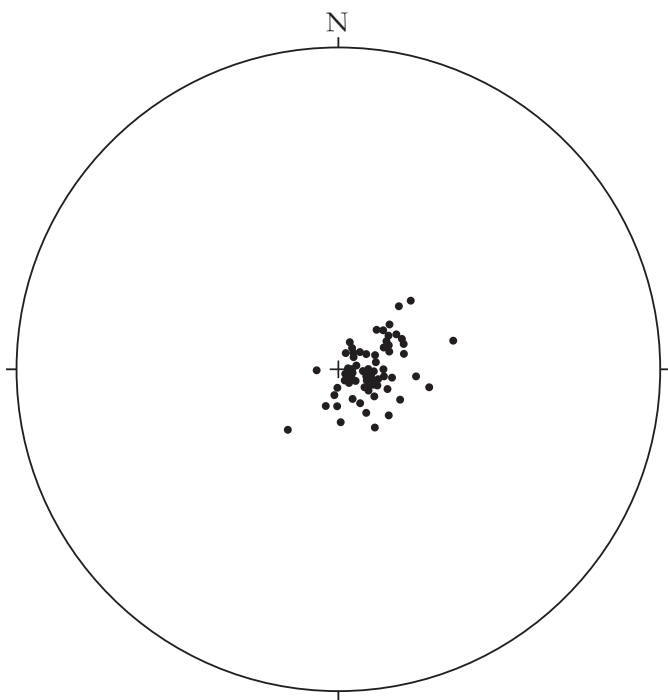
(a) Measured strike and dip of plane = N 019° E, 76° SE,
or more simply 019°76SE



(b) Axial plane of fold; 280°88N
Fold hinge plunges at 15° to 102°



(c)



(d)

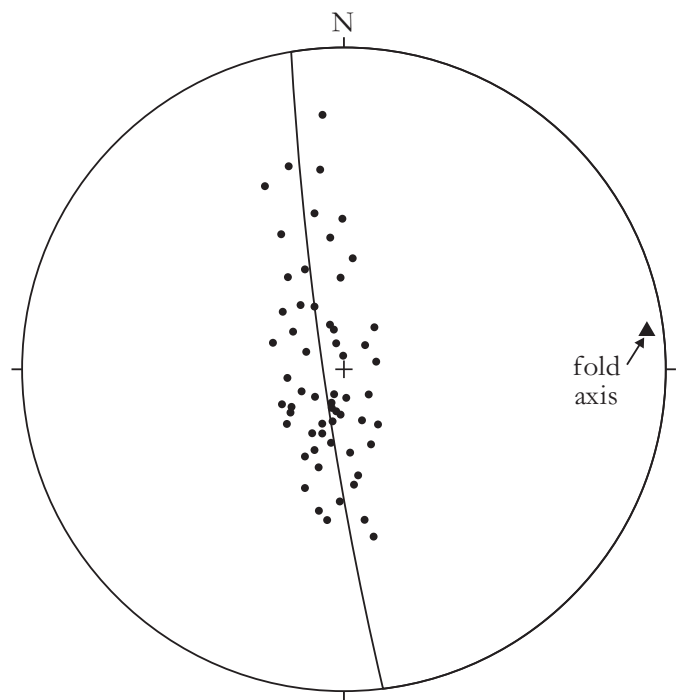


Figure G.2

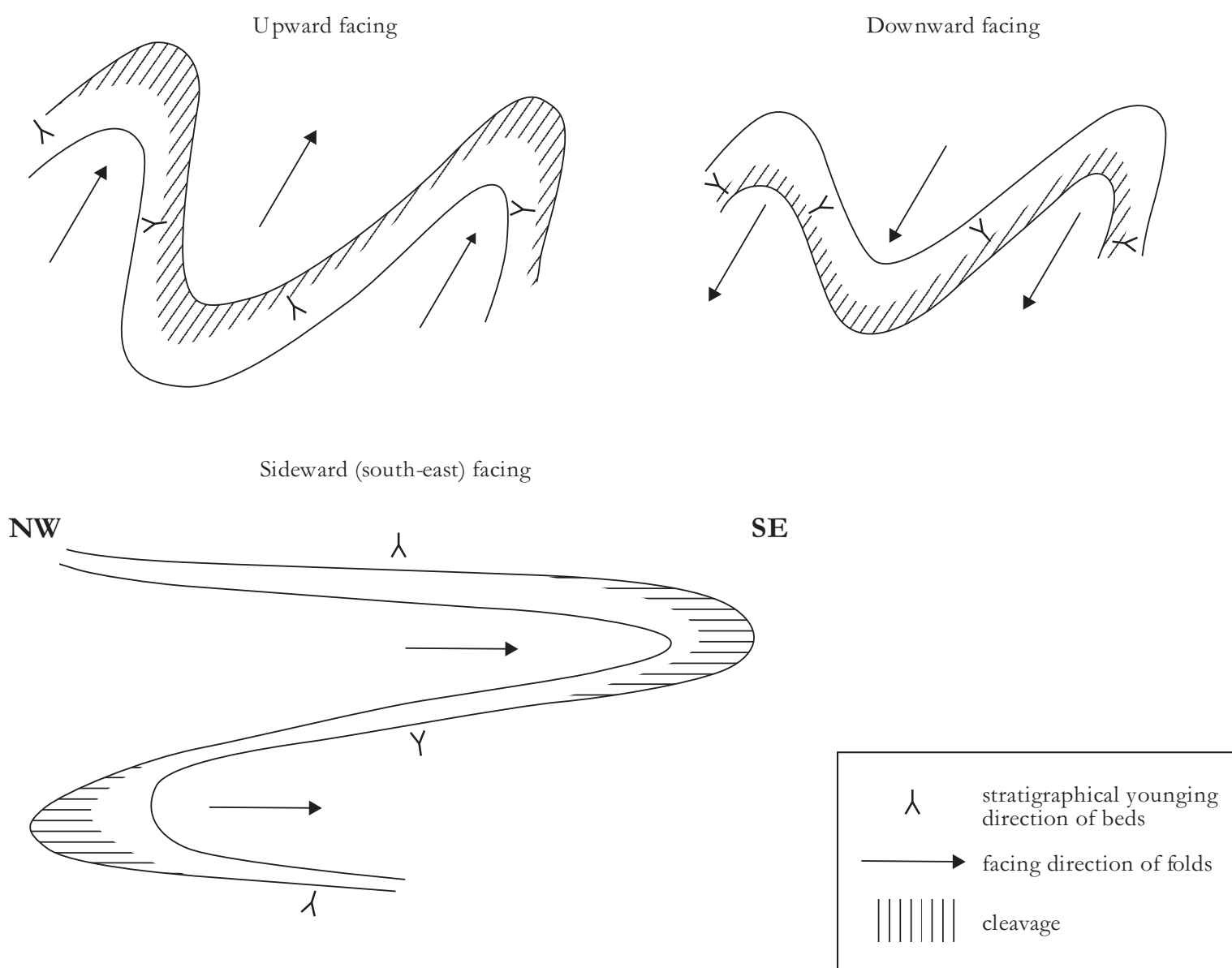
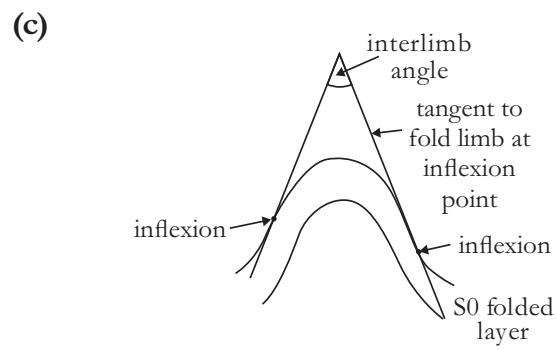
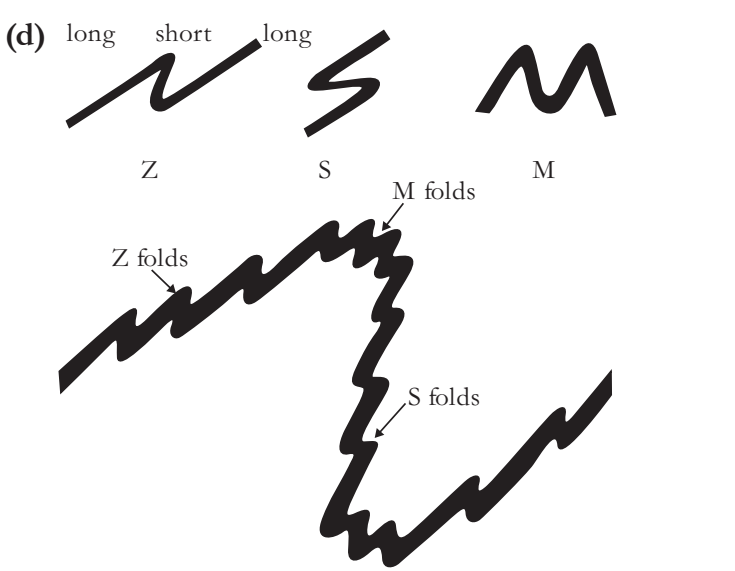
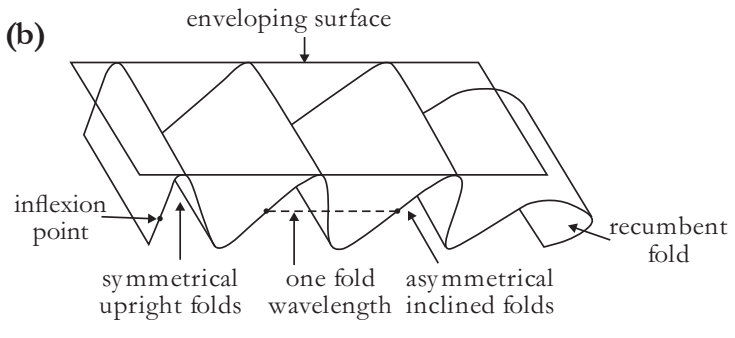
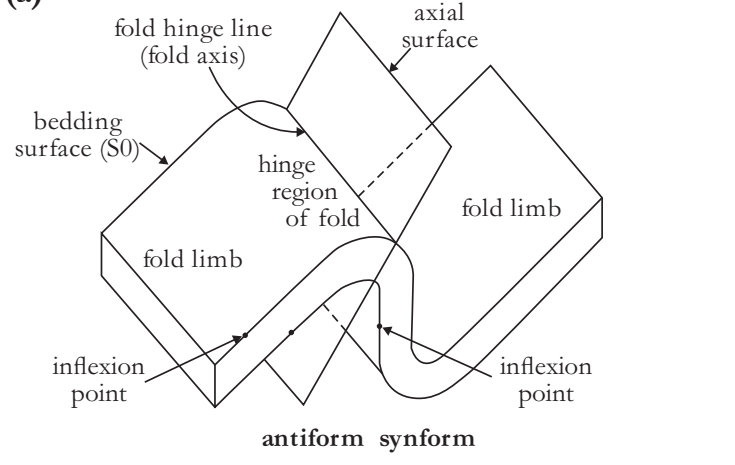


Figure G.3



Interlimb angles	Fold tightness
180°–120°	gentle
120°–70°	open
70°–30°	close
30°–0°	tight
0°	isoclinal

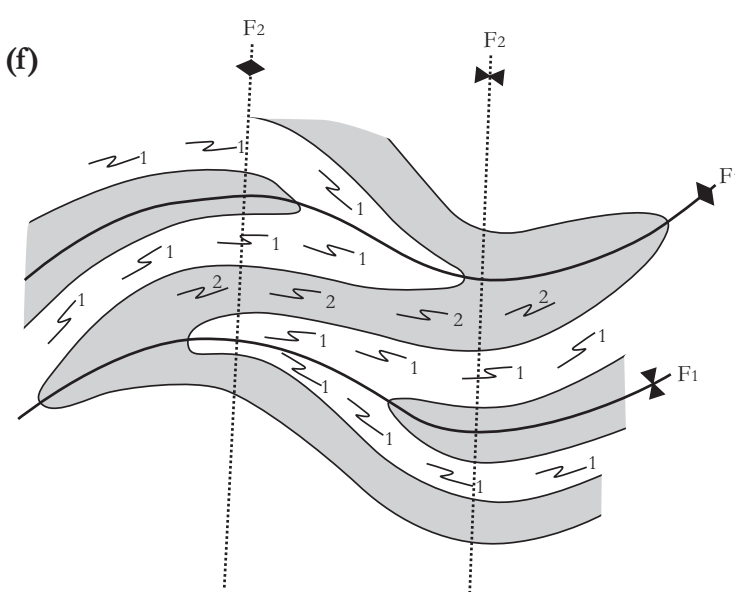
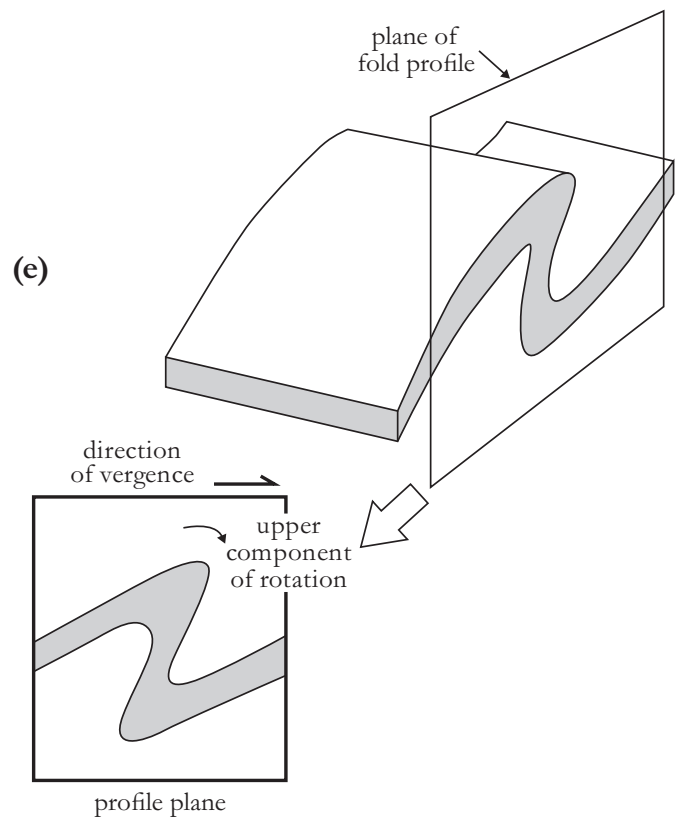


Figure G.4

