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Subduction or sagduction? Ambiguity in constraining the origin of ultramafic–mafic bodies in the Archean crust of NW Scotland

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The Lewisian Complex of NW Scotland is a fragment of the North Atlantic Craton. It
3 comprises mostly Archean tonalite–trondhjemite–granodiorite (TTG) orthogneisses that were
4 variably metamorphosed and reworked in the late Neoproterozoic to Palaeoproterozoic. Within
5 the granulite facies central region of the mainland Lewisian Complex, discontinuous belts
6 composed of ultramafic–mafic rocks and structurally overlying garnet–biotite gneiss (brown
7 gneiss) are spatially associated with steeply-inclined amphibolite facies shear zones that have
8 been interpreted as terrane boundaries. Interpretation of the primary chemical composition of
9 these rocks is complicated by partial melting and melt loss during granulite facies
10 metamorphism, and contamination with melts derived from the adjacent migmatitic TTG host
11 rocks. Notwithstanding, the composition of the layered ultramafic–mafic rocks is suggestive
12 of a protolith formed by differentiation of tholeiitic magma, where the ultramafic portions of
13 these bodies represent the metamorphosed cumulates and the mafic portions the
14 metamorphosed fractionated liquids. Although the composition of the brown gneiss does not
15 clearly discriminate the protolith, it most likely represents a metamorphosed sedimentary or
16 volcano-sedimentary sequence. For Archean rocks, particularly those metamorphosed to
17 granulite facies, the geochemical characteristics typically used for discrimination of
18 paleotectonic environments are neither strictly appropriate nor clearly diagnostic. Many of
19 the rocks in the Lewisian Complex have ‘arc-like’ trace element signatures. These signatures
20 are interpreted to reflect derivation from hydrated enriched mantle and, in the case of the
21 TTG gneisses, partial melting of amphibolite source rocks containing garnet and a Ti-rich
22 phase, probably rutile. However, it is becoming increasingly recognized that in Archean
23 rocks such signatures may not be unique to a subduction environment but may relate to
24 processes such as delamination and dripping. Consequently, it is unclear whether the
25 Lewisian ultramafic–mafic rocks and brown gneisses represent products of plate margin or

26 intraplate magmatism. Although a subduction-related origin is possible, we propose that an
27 intraplate origin is equally plausible. If the second alternative is correct, the ultramafic–mafic
28 rocks and brown gneisses may represent the remnants of intracratonic greenstone belts that
29 sank into the deep crust due to their density contrast with the underlying partially molten low
30 viscosity TTG orthogneisses.

31

32

33 **1. Introduction**

34

35 Archean cratons are predominantly composed of lower-grade granite–greenstone belts
36 and higher-grade grey gneiss terrains that may represent the upper and lower levels of ancient
37 continental crust (Windley and Bridgewater, 1971). In an alternative view, the high-grade
38 gneiss complexes and granite–greenstone belts have been interpreted as the ancient analogues
39 of modern active continental margins and back-arcs, respectively (Windley and Smith, 1976).
40 These different interpretations persist to the present day and are reflected in the ‘subduction
41 versus sagduction’ controversy for the formation of particular fragments of Archean crust,
42 such as the Barberton granite–greenstone belt (e.g., Kisters et al., 2003, 2010; Van
43 Kranendonk et al., 2014; Brown, 2015; Cutts et al., 2015).

44 Greenstone belts are linear to irregular in shape and generally synformal in structure,
45 comprising volcano-sedimentary successions (De Wit and Ashwal, 1997) that are surrounded
46 by dome-like composite batholiths of gneiss and granite (McGregor, 1951; Anhaeusser,
47 1975, 2014). Although lithologically complex and diverse in detail, greenstone belts are
48 dominated by (metamorphosed) basalt with other volcanic rocks ranging in composition from
49 ultramafic (komatiite) to felsic (dacite–rhyolite) and various sedimentary rocks that generally
50 become more abundant at shallower levels (Condie, 1994; De Wit and Ashwal, 1997;

51 Eriksson et al., 1997; Sylvester et al., 1997; Anhaeusser, 2014). Layered ultramafic–mafic
52 bodies may occur near the base of greenstone belts (Anhaeusser, 1975, 2001, 2014), which
53 has led some to interpret greenstone belts as dismembered fragments of obducted Archean
54 oceanic crust (ophiolites) and hence as evidence of subduction (De Wit et al., 1987; Kusky,
55 1990; Furnes et al., 2009; Hickman, 2012).

56 Grey gneiss terrains are dominated by felsic orthogneisses metamorphosed at
57 amphibolite to granulite facies, of which most (~70–75 vol.%) are tonalitic, trondhjemitic or
58 granodioritic (TTG) in composition (Moyen, 2011; Moyen and Martin, 2012). Commonly,
59 grey gneiss terrains include highly deformed layered ultramafic–mafic bodies and
60 supracrustal belts dominated by metavolcanic rocks. This association of rock types has been
61 interpreted by some to result from the dismemberment of oceanic island arcs formed at
62 convergent plate margins (e.g. Polat et al., 2015).

63 Although the archetypical dome-and-basin structure of Archean upper crust has been
64 regarded to be the result of polyphase folding during subhorizontal shortening (i.e. accretion;
65 e.g. Myers & Watkins, 1985; Blewett et al., 2002), this structure is more commonly
66 interpreted to reflect sinking, or ‘sagduction’ (Goodwin and Smith, 1980), of the overlying
67 greenstones and diapiric rise of gneisses and granitic plutons (Anhaeusser, 1975, 2014; Brun,
68 1980; Brun et al., 1981; Ramsay, 1989; Bouhallier et al., 1995; Kisters & Anhaeusser, 1995;
69 Chardon et al., 1996, 1998; Collins et al., 1998; Bremond d’Ars et al., 1999; Marshak, 1999;
70 Wellman, 2000; Sandiford et al., 2004; Van Kranendonk et al., 2004, 2014; Parmenter et al.,
71 2006; Robin and Bailey 2009; Thebaud and Rey 2013; François et al., 2014; Gapais et al.,
72 2014; Brown, 2015; Sizova et al., 2015). In many cases, rocks within grey gneiss terrains
73 have undergone polyphase deformation coeval with high-grade metamorphism at
74 suprasolidus conditions (Horie et al., 2011; Johnson et al., 2012, 2013). As a result,
75 establishing the relationship between the different lithological components, the origin of their

76 protoliths and the tectonic style poses challenges. However, if the dome-and-basin structure
77 of low-grade (greenschist to amphibolite facies) granite–greenstone terrains does reflect
78 diapirism and sagduction, then the disrupted remnants of the sinking greenstone belts might
79 be expected to occur in high-grade (amphibolite to granulite facies) gneiss terrains that
80 represent deeper levels in the Archean crust.

81 The evidence for subduction in the early Earth is based to a large degree on the ‘arc-
82 like’ geochemical signature preserved by many Archean volcanic rocks. Such signatures
83 indicate the rocks were derived from fluid-fluxed melting of mantle enriched in large-ion
84 lithophile elements (LILE) but depleted in high field-strength elements (HFSE), which is
85 commonly interpreted to record dehydration and/or partial melting of the downgoing slab and
86 concomitant enrichment of the overlying mantle wedge during subduction (e.g. Tatsumi,
87 2005; Jenner et al., 2009). However, it is becoming increasingly recognised that ‘arc-like’
88 signatures may be generated in other geodynamic scenarios (Pearce, 2008; van Hunen and
89 Moyaen, 2012) in which hydrated and enriched supracrustal material (e.g. sediment) is
90 transferred to the upper mantle. Recent geodynamic models for the early Earth, when the
91 mantle was much hotter, suggest that such non-uniformitarian scenarios are plausible
92 alternatives to subduction (Johnson et al., 2014; Sizova et al., 2015).

93 We use field observations combined with bulk-rock major oxide and trace element
94 compositional data to examine the origin of ultramafic–mafic–supracrustal bodies from the
95 Lewisian Complex of NW Scotland. An origin by subduction–accretion (‘horizontal
96 tectonics’) or by partial convective overturn (‘vertical tectonics’) is permissible within the
97 limitations of the data and the context of our current understanding of Archean crustal
98 dynamics. In these circumstances, resolution of the origin of the rocks comprising Archean
99 high-grade gneiss terrains may only be possible using geodynamic modelling informed by the
100 available geological data.

101

102

103 **2. Geological setting**

104

105 The Lewisian Complex of NW Scotland is a classic Precambrian high-grade grey
106 gneiss terrain. The rocks are mostly orthogneisses with Mesoarchean to Neoproterozoic
107 ages that record a protracted history of magmatism, deformation and metamorphism spanning
108 more than a billion years (Kinny et al., 2005; Wheeler et al., 2010; Goodenough et al., 2013;
109 Crowley et al., 2015; Macdonald et al., 2015; Mason et al., 2015). The complex is dominated
110 by TTG gneisses within which occur abundant bodies of metamorphosed ultramafic–mafic
111 rocks and, locally, mica- and garnet-rich gneisses (Peach et al., 1907). The ultramafic–mafic
112 bodies range in shape and size from layered units several hundred metres across and several
113 kilometres in length to smaller metre-scale sheets and pods a few centimetres in diameter
114 (e.g. Bowes et al., 1964; Davies 1974; Sills et al., 1982; Rollinson & Fowler, 1987; Johnson
115 et al., 2012).

116 On the mainland, the Lewisian Complex comprises a granulite facies central region
117 bounded by regions to the north and south that record mainly amphibolite facies conditions
118 (Peach et al., 1907; Sutton and Watson, 1951; Fig. 1). Traditionally, the central region has
119 been interpreted to represent the deeper levels of a once-contiguous crustal block (e.g.
120 Sheraton et al., 1973; Park and Tarney, 1987). However, more recently, based on
121 geochronological studies, it has been proposed that the Lewisian Complex represents several
122 discrete crustal blocks (terranes) bounded by major shear zones, although the number of
123 terranes, the position of the terrane boundaries and the timing of their assembly is debated
124 (Kinny and Friend, 1997; Park et al., 2001; Kinny et al., 2005; Park, 2005; Goodenough et
125 al., 2010, 2013). To avoid any genetic connotations, we hereafter refer to the different

126 mainland ‘terranes’, as documented in Kinny et al. (2005), as ‘blocks’, following the usage of
127 Crowley et al. (2015).

128 In this section we review information pertaining to rocks in the central region
129 (comprising the Gruinard block in the south and the Assynt block in the north; Love et al.,
130 2004; Fig. 1) and describe the relationship between the northern part of the central region
131 (Assynt block) and the northern region (Rhiconich block; Kinny et al., 2005) across the
132 Laxford Shear Zone (Goodenough et al., 2010, 2013), where abundant large ultramafic–mafic
133 bodies and associated supracrustal rocks have been mapped in detail (BGS map sheets NC14
134 and NC24; Davies, 1976; see Fig. 2). Temporal constraints are summarised in Fig. 3. These
135 provides a foundation for the following two sections in which we provide details of the field
136 relations and chemical compositions of the ultramafic–mafic bodies and supracrustal rocks
137 occurring within the central region.

138

139 *2.1. Central region—protoliths and granulite facies (Badcallian) metamorphism*

140

141 Away from shear zones, central region TTG gneisses are characterised by a shallow-
142 to moderate-dipping gneissosity and recumbent tight-to-isoclinal folds (Wheeler et al., 2010).
143 The TTG gneisses preserve anhydrous (two pyroxene) mineral assemblages related to the
144 granulite facies metamorphic event (Badcallian; Park, 1970), which are variably overprinted
145 by amphibolite facies assemblages in which clinopyroxene and orthopyroxene are replaced
146 by hornblende and biotite, respectively.

147 Metabasic rocks preserve a variety of granulite facies mineral assemblages, with
148 many containing, in addition to pyroxenes and plagioclase, brown (Ti-rich) hornblende
149 and/or abundant garnet as part of the peak metamorphic mineral assemblage. Ultramafic
150 rocks are characterised by peak assemblages containing olivine, orthopyroxene,

151 clinopyroxene, brown hornblende and spinel, whose relative proportions vary (Johnson and
152 White, 2011). The mineral assemblages in this range of rock types are consistent with peak
153 metamorphic conditions of $P = 0.8\text{--}1.2$ GPa at T of >900 °C (Barnicoat, 1983; Cartwright
154 and Barnicoat, 1987; Sills and Rollinson, 1987; Johnson and White, 2011; Zirkler et al.,
155 2012; Johnson et al., 2013). Plagioclase, orthopyroxene and magnetite coronae replacing
156 garnet in metabasic rocks are interpreted to record limited near-isothermal retrograde
157 decompression to $0.7\text{--}0.9$ GPa (Johnson & White, 2011). The absence of garnet in
158 metamorphosed ultramafic rocks, and the lack of evidence for its presence during prograde
159 metamorphism, suggests the rocks did not reach pressures higher than those recorded at the
160 metamorphic peak. Combined, these data are consistent with $P\text{--}T$ paths that are tight
161 clockwise loops in which peak T coincided with peak P (Johnson and White, 2011, fig. 5b).

162 With the exception of ultramafic and rare calc-silicate rocks, granulite facies
163 metamorphism resulted in extensive partial melting and loss of melt (Johnson et al., 2012,
164 2013). Central region TTG gneisses show a distinctive depletion of large ion lithophile and
165 other mobile elements relative to rocks from the northern and southern regions (e.g. Sheraton
166 et al., 1973; Johnson et al., 2013, fig. 2). This depletion was related to the high-grade
167 metamorphism (Moorbath et al., 1969), with removal of mobile elements via the loss of
168 partial melt (O'Hara and Yarwood, 1978; Pride and Muecke, 1980, 1982; Cohen et al., 1991;
169 Johnson et al., 2012, 2013), although some of the differences reflect heterogeneities in the
170 original source composition (Rollinson and Tarney, 2005; Rollinson, 2012; Hughes et al.,
171 2014).

172 Around Scourie, Badcall and Kylestrome (Assynt block; Fig. 1), based on SHRIMP
173 U–Pb dating of zircon, the TTG gneisses have protolith (crystallisation) ages as old as *c.*
174 $3.03\text{--}2.96$ Ga (Friend and Kinny, 1995; Kinny and Friend, 1997), consistent with Sm–Nd
175 systematics (Hamilton et al., 1979). However, based on SIMS, SHRIMP and TIMS U–Pb

176 dating on zircon, younger protolith ages of *c.* 2.86–2.85 Ga have been suggested for some
177 gneisses within the Assynt block (Whitehouse and Kemp, 2010; Goodenough et al., 2013;
178 Crowley et al., 2015; Figs 2,3), which are similar to ages of *c.* 2.86–2.79 Ga inferred for
179 gneisses further south within the Gruinard block (Whitehouse et al., 1997; Corfu et al., 1998;
180 Love et al., 2004; Fig. 1).

181 The peak of Badcallian metamorphism in the Assynt block is inferred by some to
182 have occurred at *c.* 2.8–2.7 Ga (Fig. 3), based on TIMS U–Pb data from zircon (Corfu et al.,
183 1994) and *in situ* SIMS Pb–Pb data from a monazite inclusion in garnet (Zhu et al., 1997).
184 Others place the peak of high-grade metamorphism in the Assynt block at *c.* 2.49–2.48 Ga,
185 based on SHRIMP U–Pb data from zircon in the area north of Lochinver (Friend and Kinny,
186 1995; Kinny and Friend, 1997; Figs 1, 3). Corfu (2007) interprets these two groups of ages as
187 recording separate metamorphic events, which he correlated with the Badcallian and Inverian
188 (see below), respectively. Notwithstanding these interpretations, several studies have
189 indicated that samples of TTG gneiss from the Assynt block show a smear of zircon ages
190 along concordia between *c.* 3.0 and 2.5 Ga, in which individual metamorphic events are
191 difficult to identify (e.g. Whitehouse and Kemp, 2010), possibly reflecting variable Pb loss
192 from zircon during deformation and/or protracted cooling (e.g. Ashwal et al., 1999;
193 MacDonald et al., 2013). In a recent study using a technique involving partial dissolution of
194 thermally annealed morphologically complex zircon grains analysed by ID–TIMS, Crowley
195 et al. (2015) provide evidence in support of two high-grade metamorphic events in the Assynt
196 block, at *c.* 2.7 Ga and *c.* 2.5 Ga.

197 The peak of granulite facies metamorphism in the strongly retrogressed gneisses
198 further south in the central region, within the Gruinard block, is considered to have occurred
199 at *c.* 2.73 Ga (TIMS and SHRIMP U–Pb on zircon; Corfu et al., 1998; Love et al., 2004), with
200 no evidence for any later (*c.* 2.5 Ga) high-grade event. This led Corfu et al. (1998) to argue

201 that the Assynt and Gruinard blocks expose different levels of a once-contiguous crustal
202 fragment, and Love et al. (2004) to suggest that the Assynt and Gruinard blocks represent
203 discrete terranes.

204

205 *2.2. Post-Badcallian evolution and the relationship between the central and northern regions*

206

207 At the northern margin of the central region is the Laxford Shear Zone (LSZ), a
208 several kilometre wide WNW-trending, steeply south-dipping ductile shear zone involving
209 complex polyphase deformation and metamorphism that has been proposed to be an early
210 Proterozoic terrane boundary (Kinny and Friend, 1997; Friend and Kinny, 2001; Kinny et al.,
211 2005; Goodenough et al., 2010, 2013; Fig. 2). Within the LSZ and throughout the central
212 region, reworking of the granulite-facies gneisses is related to two separate post-Badcallian
213 tectonometamorphic events (Goodenough et al., 2010; Wheeler et al., 2010).

214 A series of steep NW–SE- to WNW–ESE-trending shear zones (Evans and Lambert,
215 1974; Coward and Park, 1987; Wheeler, 2007) is inferred to have developed during the
216 Inverian event (Evans 1965). Inverian metamorphism was associated with pervasive
217 retrogression of granulite facies assemblages, but only limited partial melting and
218 magmatism. These Inverian shear zones contain kinematic indicators consistent with
219 dominant bulk horizontal shortening (thrusting) with a small dextral component (Beach et al.,
220 1974; Coward and Park, 1987) that could explain juxtaposition of the central region
221 granulites over the lower-grade rocks of the northern region (Coward 1984, 1990; Wheeler et
222 al., 2010) and, furthermore, could have provided a potential source of the fluid required for
223 retrogression (Beach, 1980). P – T estimates for the Inverian event are 500–625 °C and 0.50–
224 0.65 GPa (Sills, 1983; Cartwright et al., 1985; Sills and Rollinson, 1987; Zirkler et al., 2012).

225 Pegmatites in the Lochinver and Scourie areas have been dated at *c.* 2.48 Ga (TIMS
226 U–Pb on zircon, Corfu et al., 1994; *in situ* SIMS Pb–Pb on monazite, Zhu et al., 1997).
227 Goodenough et al. (2013) report LA–ICPMS U–Pb ages from zircons within a folded and
228 foliated microgranite from Tarbet of 2.48 Ga and 1.76 Ga, which they interpret to date
229 metamorphism correlated with the Inverian and Laxfordian events (see below), respectively
230 (Fig. 3).

231 Inverian deformation and metamorphism was followed by emplacement of a suite of
232 mafic and ultramafic dykes (the Scourie Dykes; Peach et al., 1907; Sutton and Watson,
233 1951). Most of the dykes were intruded in the interval 2.42–2.37 Ga (U–Pb baddeleyite and
234 zircon ages, Davies and Heaman, 2014; Fig. 3) and are inferred to have been derived largely
235 from partial melting of metasomatically-enriched sub-continental mantle lithosphere (Hughes
236 et al., 2014). Hughes and co-workers suggest this enrichment may be related to subduction
237 during the late Archean.

238 Post-Scourie Dyke reworking associated with amphibolite facies metamorphism is
239 related to the late Paleoproterozoic Laxfordian event (Sutton and Watson, 1951; Goodenough
240 et al., 2010). In the central region, north of Scourie (Assynt block), retrogressed granulites are
241 cut by discrete metre-scale E–W-trending shear zones that deform and offset the Scourie
242 Dykes (Beach et al., 1974; Coward, 1990). These shear zones increase in abundance and
243 swing into a NW–SE orientation approaching the LSZ. Coward (1990) interpreted the large-
244 scale structures to indicate early Laxfordian dextral thrusting, although this deformation may
245 have been Inverian in age (Goodenough et al., 2010). Later sinistral extension (Beach et al.,
246 1974) was interpreted by Coward (1990) as due to Laxfordian reactivation of earlier
247 structures. Fluid ingress along amphibolite facies Laxfordian shear zones led to the
248 generation and intrusion of voluminous granite as dykes, and metasomatic alteration of both
249 Scourie Dykes and the TTG gneisses (Beach and Fyfe, 1972; Beach, 1973, 1976, 1980).

250 Zircon from a pre- to syn-Laxfordian granite from Ben Stack yielded an LA-ICP-
251 MS U-Pb age of 1.88 ± 0.2 Ga whereas those from an undeformed (post-Laxfordian) granitic
252 pegmatite from Badnabay gave an ID-TIMS U-Pb age of 1.77 ± 0.001 Ga (Goodenough et
253 al., 2013). A SHRIMP U-Pb zircon age of 1.854 ± 0.13 Ga was obtained from a composite
254 granite-pegmatite sheet just to the north of the LSZ (Friend and Kinny, 2001).

255

256 2.3. Layered ultramafic-mafic bodies and metasedimentary rocks

257

258 Layered ultramafic-mafic bodies, some several hundred metres in thickness, are
259 widely distributed across the central region, together constituting perhaps 5–10% of the total
260 outcrop (e.g. Peach et al., 1907; O'Hara 1961; Bowes et al., 1964; Davies, 1974; Sills et al.,
261 1982; Burton et al., 2000; Johnson et al., 2012; Fig. 2). Although generally sheet-like, the
262 larger layered bodies define open to isoclinal, upright to near-recumbent synforms (Davies,
263 1974; Cartwright et al., 1985), the cores of which are locally occupied by quartzo-feldspathic
264 garnet-biotite gneiss (hereafter brown gneiss; Sutton and Watson, 1951). In the literature
265 these brown gneisses have been interpreted as sedimentary in origin (e.g. Beach, 1974;
266 Cartwright et al., 1985; Cartwright and Barnicoat, 1987), but they could be volcanogenic
267 (discussed below); in either case, the spatial relationship suggests that the synforms are
268 synclines (Davies, 1974).

269 At their margins most of the ultramafic-mafic bodies are steeply inclined and appear
270 to be concordant with an intense steeply dipping fabric in the surrounding TTG gneisses that
271 is most intense at the contact with these bodies. These steeply dipping gneisses are
272 retrogressed to amphibolite facies, meaning that the marginal shear zones are Inverian (or
273 Laxfordian or a combination of both events) by definition (Evans, 1965), although the time at
274 which this steep fabric originally formed is uncertain.

275 The most extensive outcrops of layered ultramafic–mafic rocks and brown gneisses
276 occur in the north of the central region, towards the southern margin of the LSZ, where these
277 lithologies define a tightly folded belt up to a kilometre or more in width and extending for
278 more than 12 km along strike (Davies, 1974; Goodenough et al., 2010; Fig. 2). In addition,
279 layered ultramafic–mafic bodies crop out throughout the central region, particularly good
280 examples occurring on the flanks of Ben Strome (north-east of Kylesku) and close to the
281 villages of Scourie, Drumbeg and Achiltibuie (e.g. O’Hara, 1961; Bowes et al., 1964; Sills et
282 al., 1982; Johnson et al., 2012; Figs 1 and 2). Furthermore, smaller ultramafic and mafic
283 bodies are ubiquitous within the central region granulites, occurring as disrupted sheets and
284 pods several metres across down to centimetre-size remnants. The large ultramafic–mafic
285 bodies have major oxide, trace element and isotopic compositions suggesting they were
286 derived from MgO-rich (15–20 wt %) tholeiitic melts (Sills et al., 1982; Burton et al., 2000).

287 Mafic and ultramafic rocks have Sm–Nd whole rock ages of *c.* 3.0–2.7 Ga (e.g.
288 Whitehouse, 1989; Cohen et al., 1991; Whitehouse et al., 1996; Fig. 3); an age of $2.707 \pm$
289 0.052 Ga is interpreted as the time of igneous differentiation of the ultramafic–mafic bodies
290 (Cohen et al., 1991). Ultramafic–mafic rocks yield a Re–Os age of 2.686 ± 0.15 Ga (MSWD
291 = 1.43 and initial $^{187}\text{Os}/^{188}\text{Os}=0.10940 \pm 0.00076$; Burton et al., 2000), interpreted by these
292 authors as the time of emplacement of the ultramafic–mafic bodies. However, there is
293 evidence for post-emplacement perturbation of both Sm–Nd and Re–Os isotopic systems
294 (Whitehouse et al., 1997; Burton et al., 2000). Zircon in a hornblendite from the Gruinard
295 block with a SIUMS U–Pb age of *c.* 2.8 Ga is interpreted to date metamorphism (Whitehouse
296 et al., 1997).

297 U–Pb zircon ages from samples of brown gneiss (LA-MC-ICP-MS and ID-TIMS,
298 Goodenough et al., 2013) and a rare white-mica gneiss (LA-MC-ICP-MS, Zirkler et al.,
299 2012) give a spread of ages along concordia from *c.* 2.8 to *c.* 2.5 Ga. Whether the data from

300 these putative metasedimentary rocks reflect detrital zircon grains older than *c.* 2.7 Ga and a
301 smear of metamorphic ages between two high-grade metamorphic events at *c.* 2.7 and *c.* 2.5
302 Ga, or a smear of detrital grains derived from protoliths older than 2.5 Ga followed by high
303 grade metamorphism at *c.* 2.5 Ga, is unclear. An in situ SIMS Pb–Pb age of 2526 ± 8 Ma
304 from a monazite included within garnet in an aluminous metasedimentary rock from north of
305 Scourie is interpreted by Zhu et al. (1997) to date a second granulite facies metamorphic
306 event.

307

308

309 **3. Field relations of the layered ultramafic–mafic bodies and metasedimentary rocks**

310

311 Notwithstanding that the large ultramafic–mafic bodies are bounded by steeply
312 dipping amphibolite facies shear zones, several of the bodies preserve pristine granulite facies
313 mineral assemblages in their core (O’Hara 1961, 1965; Johnson et al., 2012). While the
314 igneous origin of these bodies is not disputed, whether the commonly observed mineralogical
315 layering is a primary magmatic feature and whether apparent current and wedge cumulate
316 mineral ‘bedding’ reflect magma chamber processes have been matters of vigorous debate
317 (Bowes et al., 1964, 1966; O’Hara, 1965, 1966). Well exposed layered sequences of
318 ultramafic and mafic rocks occur near Scourie, Drumbeg, Achiltibuie and Ben Strome, as
319 well as in the southern part of the steeply dipping LSZ, in particular on Gorm Chnoc (Bowes
320 et al., 1964; Davies, 1974; Sills et al., 1982; Fig. 2).

321 Although there are local complexities and repetition of rock types that could be either
322 primary or due to post-emplacement deformation, the generalized sequence (Fig. 4a,b)
323 comprises metamorphosed layered ultramafic rocks (hornblende-bearing metapyroxenites
324 and metaperidotites mainly composed of assemblages of olivine, clinopyroxene,

325 orthopyroxene, hornblende, spinel and magnetite) at or near the base overlain by medium- to
326 coarse-grained hornblende-bearing two-pyroxene mafic rocks (mainly composed of
327 assemblages of plagioclase, clinopyroxene, hornblende and orthopyroxene with or without
328 garnet). In some instances the mafic rocks may be subdivided into a coarse-grained,
329 plagioclase-deficient but garnet-rich lower unit overlain by a medium- to coarse-grained
330 upper unit containing little or no garnet but a higher proportion of plagioclase. Where such a
331 relationship exists, the change from one variant to the other is gradational. In some examples,
332 felsic layers near the top of the sequence have been termed anorthosite and interpreted as
333 primary, produced by fractionation of the mafic magmas (Bowes et al., 1964; Davies, 1974).
334 In other cases, these felsic layers have been interpreted as intrusive (Weaver and Tarney,
335 1980), corresponding to crystallised melt derived from anatexis of the metabasic rocks
336 (Johnson et al., 2012).

337 Individual ultramafic–mafic bodies commonly preserve only a portion of the
338 succession described above, in many cases due to subsequent faulting/shearing. However, in
339 all of the larger layered bodies mafic rocks are dominant. Although ultramafic rocks may
340 constitute up to a third of some bodies by area (e.g. in the body near Drumbeg; Fig. 1; Bowes
341 et al., 1964), in many cases ultramafic rocks are absent.

342 Where exposed, brown gneisses commonly occur within synclinal cores of the larger
343 ultramafic–mafic bodies at the highest structural levels, although similar lithologies may
344 occur as highly strained units enclosed within the felsic orthogneisses. The most extensive
345 exposures of brown gneiss occur in the southern part of the LSZ (Davies, 1974; Fig. 2), in the
346 core of the Cnoc an t' Sidhean body SE of Stoer (Cartwright et al., 1985; Cartwright and
347 Barnicoat 1986; Zirkler et al., 2012; Fig. 1) and around 1 km NNW of Scourie (Beach, 1974;
348 Zhu et al., 1997; Fig. 1 and 2). The brown gneisses contain garnet, biotite and/or hornblende,
349 plagioclase, quartz and accessory minerals, in which the proportion of mafic to felsic

350 minerals varies widely. They range in composition from hornblende-rich metaluminous
351 variants to peraluminous biotite-rich sillimanite- and kyanite-bearing gneisses that lack
352 hornblende. In situ partial melting and two phases of garnet growth suggest the brown
353 gneisses were metamorphosed to granulite facies then experienced extensive amphibolite
354 facies (probably Inverian) retrogression (Zirkler et al., 2012).

355 Steeply-inclined shear zones at the margins of the ultramafic–mafic bodies in the
356 southern part of the LSZ are characterised by amphibolite-facies mineral assemblages and a
357 strong S- to SE-plunging stretching lineation which, in appropriate rocks, is defined by
358 elongate garnet porphyroblasts, attesting to intense post-Badcallian deformation. In close
359 proximity to the ultramafic–mafic bodies, the TTG gneisses are also strongly retrogressed,
360 comprising assemblages including plagioclase, quartz, green hornblende, biotite and epidote.

361

362

363 4. Geochemistry

364

365 Major and trace element concentrations were determined for 29 metabasic rocks
366 (from Johnson et al., 2012), 14 ultramafic rocks, 17 brown gneisses (from Zirkler et al., 2012
367 and new data; only 9 samples analysed for trace elements), 12 felsic sheets interpreted to
368 have been derived from partial melting of the metabasic rocks (from Johnson et al., 2012),
369 and 17 retrogressed (hornblende- and/or biotite-bearing) TTG gneisses collected from within
370 50 metres of a large ultramafic–mafic body. The metabasic rocks are subdivided into those
371 that contain little or no garnet (n=14; hereafter garnet-poor metabasic rocks) and those that
372 contain abundant garnet (n=15; hereafter garnet-rich metabasic rocks). Analytical procedures
373 follow Johnson et al. (2012) and Zirkler et al. (2012). The full geochemical dataset is
374 available in the Supplementary Data.

375 Included for comparison in the figures and discussion below are the compositions of
376 (i) komatiites ($n > 200$) from greenstone belts within the Superior Province and North
377 Atlantic craton using appropriate analyses from the GEOROC database ([http://georoc.mpch-](http://georoc.mpch-mainz.gwdg.de/)
378 [mainz.gwdg.de/](http://georoc.mpch-mainz.gwdg.de/)); (ii) Archean (meta)basalts ($n = 72$) from greenstone belts from the Superior
379 and North Atlantic cratons [hereafter SNAC basalts; data from Kerrich et al. (1999) – Mg- to
380 Fe-tholeiitic basalts from the Superior Province; Polat (2009) – tholeiitic and transitional
381 alkaline basalts from the Superior Province; Ordóñez-Calderón et al. (2011) – mafic
382 amphibolites from SW Greenland interpreted as metamorphosed basalts produced in a
383 subduction environment]; (iii) the major element compositions of 14 Archean non-arc basalts
384 considered to represent near-primary partial melts of fertile mantle sample KR-4003
385 (Walther, 1998; Herzberg et al., 2010); (iv) the composition of mid ocean ridge basalt
386 (MORB) according to Hofmann (1988) and Sun and McDonough (1989), the latter of which
387 has a major element composition that is practically indistinguishable from the mean
388 composition of ‘ALL MORB’ determined by Gale et al. (2013); and, (v) garnet–biotite
389 gneisses from the Storø greenstone belt, SW Greenland (Ordóñez-Calderón et al., 2011) that
390 are petrographically similar to the brown gneisses. Also shown are the mean compositions of
391 olivine (ol) and clinopyroxene (cu) from a typical metamorphosed ultramafic rock (SC03)
392 and clinopyroxene (cm) from a typical garnetiferous mafic rock (SC01) as measured by
393 EPMA (Johnson and White, 2011; unpublished data). Both these samples are from near
394 Scourie in the Assynt block (Fig. 1).

395

396 4.1. Major oxides

397 Figure 5 shows the concentration of selected major oxides and X_{Mg} [molar
398 $MgO/(MgO/FeO)$] plotted against MgO (wt%), on which the average compositions of all
399 mafic rocks, metamorphosed ultramafic rocks and the Archean non-arc basalts are shown for

400 reference. The metamorphosed ultramafic rocks contain 41–50 wt% SiO₂ and 32–19 wt%
401 MgO, and have X_{Mg} of 0.76–0.84. A linear trend is evident for most oxides that projects close
402 to the mean composition of olivine in the ultramafic sample SC03 at its high MgO end and
403 close to the average composition of the Archean non-arc basalts at its low MgO end. SiO₂,
404 TiO₂, Al₂O₃, CaO, Na₂O and MnO (not shown) are all negatively correlated against MgO
405 (Fig. 5). The average composition of the ultramafic rocks is similar to the most MgO-rich of
406 the Archean non-arc basalts, which together define a compositional trend for several oxides
407 (SiO₂, Al₂O₃, FeO and CaO) when plotted against MgO that is considered to be a function of
408 the temperature and degree of partial melting of the mantle, both of which increase with
409 increasing MgO (e.g. Herzberg et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2014).

410 All analysed mafic rocks are olivine normative (6–20 vol.%) except three garnet-poor
411 samples that contain minor (<2.5 vol.%) normative quartz. Although there is considerable
412 compositional spread and overlap, and few clear compositional trends, the variation diagrams
413 show that the garnet-poor and garnet-rich metabasic rocks exhibit some compositional
414 differences. In general, garnet-poor samples have higher SiO₂ and Na₂O and lower FeO and
415 Al₂O₃ contents compared to garnet-rich samples (Fig. 5; Johnson et al., 2012). A weak linear
416 trend evident in the plot of MgO vs Al₂O₃, defined largely by the garnet-rich metabasic rocks,
417 extends towards the average compositions of clinopyroxene at its low Al₂O₃, high MgO end.
418 The overall compositional range of the mafic rocks is similar to the SNAC basalts, although
419 several are relatively depleted in SiO₂, Na₂O, TiO₂ and K₂O and slightly enriched in MgO,
420 CaO and possibly FeO. The X_{Mg} of the metabasic rocks varies widely from 0.34–0.74, similar
421 to that recorded by the SNAC basalts. Compared to MORB, the average of all mafic rocks
422 contains similar concentrations of MgO, CaO and Al₂O₃, but is moderately to strongly
423 depleted in Na₂O, TiO₂ and SiO₂ and slightly enriched in K₂O.

424 The brown gneisses have major oxide compositions that are generally
425 indistinguishable from those of the retrogressed TTG gneisses and felsic sheets, although
426 some samples are relatively enriched in FeO and MnO (not shown) and depleted in Na₂O.
427 The brown gneisses, TTG gneisses and felsic sheets together define a linear trend for many of
428 the major oxides (excluding TiO₂) that broadly projects towards the average of the mafic
429 rocks and MORB at higher MgO and lower SiO₂, although there is significant scatter in
430 Al₂O₃, Na₂O and K₂O.

431 Figure 6a shows the composition of the ultramafic and mafic rocks plotted on an
432 AFM diagram (A = Na₂O + K₂O; F = total Fe expressed as FeO; M = MgO). Most have low
433 total alkali contents and define a trend of strong enrichment in Fe that is characteristic of
434 tholeiitic magmas. Although it is unclear which, if any, of the rocks are volcanic, Fig. 6b
435 shows the compositions of the metabasic rocks and brown gneisses plotted on the total alkalis
436 versus silica (TAS) diagram (Le Maitre et al., 2002). The mafic rocks generally lie within the
437 basalt field, with four of the garnet-rich and one of the garnet-poor samples plotting within
438 the picobasalt field, and two of the garnet-poor samples within the basaltic andesite field. In
439 the TAS diagram, the brown gneisses plot across a range of fields from basalt to rhyolite,
440 with most plotting in the fields of andesite and dacite (Fig. 6b).

441

442 4.2. Trace elements

443

444 The primitive mantle normalised trace element compositions of the main rock types
445 are shown in Fig. 7 in which elements are ordered from left to right by increasing
446 compatibility in oceanic basalts (Hofmann, 1988). Data for the felsic sheets are given in
447 Johnson et al. (2012).

448 The ultramafic rocks mostly have flat patterns for the more compatible trace elements
449 with concentrations that are around 1–3 times primitive mantle values (Fig. 7a). All samples
450 contain concentrations of Cs and Rb that are around an order of magnitude higher than
451 primitive mantle; K and light rare earth element (LREE) contents are highly variable. A small
452 negative Ti anomaly is evident and several samples have concentrations of Nb and Ta similar
453 to, or below, primitive mantle values.

454 Relative to SNAC basalts and MORB (light and dark grey fields in Fig. 7c and d,
455 respectively), almost all metabasic rocks (those with high P_2O_5 contents are excluded;
456 Johnson et al., 2012) are weakly to strongly depleted in Hf, Zr and Ti, and several of the
457 garnet-poor samples and many of the garnet-rich samples are moderately to strongly depleted
458 in Th, U, Nb and Ta (Fig. 7b,c). All mafic rocks show highly variable LILE concentrations
459 (Cs, Rb, Ba, K) that are elevated relative to MORB but similar to the range recorded by
460 SNAC basalts (Fig. 7b,c).

461 The brown gneisses (Fig. 7d) have trace element compositions similar to the
462 retrogressed TTG gneisses (Fig. 7e), although the former show greater variation in Hf and Zr,
463 less variation in heavy rare earth element (HREE) contents and are marginally less depleted
464 in Ti. Relative to petrographically similar garnet–biotite gneisses from the Storø greenstone
465 belt, SW Greenland (Ordóñez-Calderón et al., 2011; grey field in Fig. 7d), a majority of
466 brown gneiss samples are depleted in Cs, Rb, Th, U, Nb, Ta and Zr but enriched in Sr. Felsic
467 sheets within the ultramafic–mafic bodies have trace element compositions similar to
468 proximal TTG gneisses, although many show some relative depletion in Nb, Ta, Ti and Y
469 (Johnson et al., 2012).

470 Figure 4c shows REE abundances normalised to CI chondrite of McDonough and Sun
471 (1995), in which the plots are arranged in the simplified stratigraphic order described
472 previously. Ultramafic rocks have REE abundances ≤ 10 times chondrite values (cf. Sills et

473 al., 1982) and flat patterns in which $(La/Lu)_N = 1-2$, except three samples with higher LREE
474 concentrations and moderately fractionated patterns (Fig. 4c).

475 Garnet-rich mafic rocks have significantly lower LREE concentrations than garnet-
476 poor variants (Fig. 4c). Several garnet-rich samples are LREE depleted [$(La/Sm)_N < 1$] with
477 flat middle to heavy REE patterns, others have $(La/Lu)_N > 1$ (Johnson et al., 2012). A small
478 positive Eu anomaly (Eu/Eu^* up to 1.5) occurs in three samples. In comparison, garnet-poor
479 mafic rocks have a wider range of REE abundances. Although all samples have flat middle to
480 heavy REE patterns, there are two compositional groups apparent, one with flat LREE
481 patterns and another showing pronounced LREE enrichment [$(La/Sm)_N$ up to 3.5; Fig. 4c].
482 Both small positive and negative Eu anomalies occur ($Eu/Eu^* = 0.6-1.4$), although the
483 majority are negative (Johnson et al., 2012).

484 The retrogressed host TTG gneisses have steep REE patterns [mean $(La/Lu)_N$ of 41]
485 and exhibit pronounced LREE enrichment with $(La/Sm)_N$ of 3-8. Most samples show a
486 positive Eu anomaly in which the magnitude of Eu/Eu^* (up to 2.8) is inversely correlated
487 with overall REE abundance. The brown gneisses have moderately fractionated REE patterns
488 [$(La/Lu)_N = 2-42$] and a relative enrichment of LREE to HREE, in which $(La/Sm)_N = 2.5-6.3$
489 and $(Gd/Lu)_N = 1.0-3.8$. Samples exhibit small Eu anomalies that are both positive and
490 negative ($Eu/Eu^* = 0.8-1.8$). The concentration of HREE in the brown gneisses is similar to
491 the metabasic rocks and, in general, significantly higher than in the TTG gneisses.

492

493

494 5. Discussion

495

496 Within the central region of the mainland Lewisian Complex, the rocks record
497 evidence of polyphase deformation and at least three phases of granulite to amphibolite facies

498 metamorphism, including partial melting of most rocks, during a tectono-metamorphic
499 evolution spanning around a billion years. The field relationships and igneous, structural,
500 metamorphic and geochemical (including isotopic) information preserved in the rocks reflect
501 this complicated, long-lived high-temperature tectonic evolution. As a result, the early (pre-
502 Badcallian to Badcallian) structural evolution is difficult or impossible to unravel and the
503 compositional data as it pertains to the origin and early evolution of the rocks is ambiguous.
504 Such a situation is not unique to the Lewisian Complex, but is a common feature of Archean
505 high-grade grey gneiss terrains (e.g. West Greenland, Nutman et al., 2013, 2015), leading to
506 inherent ambiguity in constraining the geodynamic regime responsible for the origin of these
507 terrains.

508

509 *5.1. The nature of the protoliths*

510

511 *5.1.1. Major oxide compositions*

512 Sills et al. (1982) proposed that the composition of the ultramafic and mafic rocks
513 could be explained by fractionation via crystal settling of dominantly olivine and pyroxene
514 from a high MgO 'komatiitic' mantle-derived (tholeiitic) melt, a conclusion supported by the
515 whole rock major oxide data presented here. Plotted against MgO content, the
516 metamorphosed ultramafic rocks define a broad trend between the average composition of
517 olivine from a typical metamorphosed ultramafic rock and the average composition of
518 Archean non-arc basalts (Fig. 5). The mafic rocks show considerable scatter for the major
519 oxides. This likely reflects a complex combination of igneous processes (mainly olivine- and
520 clinopyroxene-dominated fractional crystallisation of the primary magmas), and high-grade
521 metamorphic processes (partial melting and melt loss from the mafic rocks, and possible
522 contamination by TTG host rocks and melts derived therefrom; Johnson et al., 2012, 2013).

523 Notwithstanding, the average compositions of the metamorphosed ultramafic rocks, the mafic
524 rocks and the Archean non-arc basalts define a broadly co-linear trend for all major oxides,
525 except SiO_2 and Na_2O (see below). This relationship suggests a possible genetic link between
526 the ultramafic rocks, mafic rocks and a magma similar in composition to an average of the
527 Archean non-arc basalts. On this basis we propose that the metamorphosed ultramafic rocks
528 could represent the earliest cumulate material whereas the evolving melt could have
529 fractionated to form the range of mafic compositions (cf. Sills et al., 1982).

530 Most ultramafic and mafic rocks contain brown (Ti-rich) hornblende interpreted to
531 have been stable at the metamorphic peak (Johnson et al., 2012). This indicates that these
532 rocks were hydrated prior to granulite facies metamorphism. Whether the primary magmas
533 from which these rocks crystallised were hydrated, or whether the H_2O was introduced
534 subsequently, is uncertain. However, the observation that brown hornblende is apparently
535 evenly distributed throughout the ultramafic–mafic rocks rather than developed only at the
536 margins of the large ultramafic–mafic bodies and/or along planar structures that might record
537 channelized fluid influx, suggests the primary magmas may have been hydrous and were
538 derived from a hydrated mantle source.

539 The marked depletion in TiO_2 in the rocks relative to primitive mantle compositions
540 (Fig. 7) likely reflects characteristics of the mantle source. However, the overall enrichment
541 of the garnet-poor mafic rocks in SiO_2 and Na_2O and depletion in Al_2O_3 relative to the
542 garnet-rich samples may suggest that the latter comprise a higher proportion of the cumulate
543 and retained less trapped melt than the former prior to solidification. This interpretation is
544 consistent with the simplified stratigraphic sequence shown in Fig. 4a. Although we follow
545 Sills et al. (1982) and Johnson et al. (2012) in interpreting most of the mafic rocks as
546 metamorphosed intrusive rocks (i.e. metagabbros), is it possible that some of the garnet-poor
547 mafic rocks, particularly those occurring near the structural tops of the large ultramafic–mafic

548 bodies, were extrusive (i.e. metabasalt).

549 Concentrations of SiO_2 , Na_2O and K_2O in the mafic rocks are on average depleted
550 relative to SNAC basalts, as illustrated in Fig. 8. This feature conforms to a general model of
551 partial melting of amphibolite whereby the mafic rocks are residual after extraction of melt,
552 in which melt compositions are consistent with the felsic sheets (Johnson et al., 2012; Fig. 5).
553 Depletion of SiO_2 and Na_2O by melting of the metabasic rocks explains the nonconformity of
554 these major oxides with the fractionation trend discussed above.

555

556 *5.1.2. Trace element compositions*

557 During the past forty years geochemical methods have been developed to enable
558 discrimination among tectonically defined magma types for volcanic rocks, in particular
559 basalts (e.g. Pearce and Cann, 1973; Pearce and Peate, 1995; Pearce, 2008). Such
560 discrimination has proven particularly useful where the magma source cannot be
561 unambiguously deduced using other methods, for example in the case of ophiolites (Pearce,
562 2008, 2014b). However, the ability to correctly discriminate samples from mid-ocean ridges,
563 island arcs and ocean islands using binary and ternary diagrams has been assessed as no
564 better than 60% (Snow, 2006), and the use of these diagrams at all in discrimination of
565 magma type has been challenged (Li et al., 2015). This calls into question whether such
566 diagrams should be used in assessing the tectonic setting of Archean greenstones (Pearce,
567 2008; Condie, 2015).

568 In this study it is unclear which, if any, of the samples might have had the volcanic
569 protoliths that are generally required for geochemical discrimination of magma type.

570 Furthermore, the extent to which trace element data may be used to elucidate tectonic
571 environments in rocks that have undergone strong modification by magmatic and
572 metamorphic fractionation, as well as probable contamination with their host rocks, is

573 questionable (Pearce, 2008, 2014a; Rollinson and Gravestock, 2012). Although many trace
574 elements may be considered immobile during high-temperature subsolidus metamorphism
575 and hydrothermal alteration, most have mineral/melt distribution coefficients that are far
576 from unity, leading to significant modification of trace element compositions as a result of
577 crystal settling and/or partial melting and melt loss (Fig. 8). Notwithstanding, the trace
578 element compositions may be useful in interpreting some aspects of source characteristics
579 (Condie, 2015).

580 The brown gneisses show significant depletion in most LILE compared to
581 petrographically similar garnet–biotite gneisses from SW Greenland (Ordóñez-Calderón et
582 al., 2011; Fig. 7a), consistent with partial melting and melt loss (Cartwright and Barnicoat,
583 1987; Zirkler et al., 2012). The trace element composition of the brown gneisses is broadly
584 similar to that of the TTG gneisses (Fig. 7), except for the HREE contents, which are similar
585 to the mafic rocks but mostly higher than in the TTG gneisses (Fig. 4c). This indicates that
586 the brown gneisses cannot have been formed solely from the TTG gneisses.

587 For the garnet–biotite gneisses and associated quartz-rich rocks from southern West
588 Greenland, the petrogenetic interpretation preferred by Ordóñez-Calderón et al. (2011) is that
589 some represent metamorphosed altered basaltic rocks (greenstones) whereas the bulk are
590 metamorphosed siliciclastic rocks derived by erosion of a mixture of felsic and mafic igneous
591 rocks. However, these authors acknowledge ambiguity in their interpretation. The brown
592 gneisses in the central region of the Lewisian complex are similarly enigmatic. Their
593 protoliths could conceivably have been: (i) sedimentary rocks derived by erosion of both the
594 TTG-dominated crust and associated ultramafic–mafic complexes prior to the granulite facies
595 metamorphism; (ii) erupted (volcanic) equivalents of the mafic to felsic plutonic rocks; (iii)
596 orthogneisses metasomatised during the prograde granulite facies metamorphism; or (iv) one
597 or more combinations of the origins suggested in (i) to (iii). Based on the general spatial and

598 stratigraphic distribution of the brown gneisses (Fig. 2) and the rounded nature of the zircons
599 (Zirkler et al., 2012; Goodenough et al., 2013), the interpretation preferred here is that most
600 of the brown gneisses represent metamorphosed sedimentary or volcano-sedimentary rocks.

601 Accepting the caveats discussed above concerning binary discrimination diagrams,
602 the composition of the brown gneisses is compared with similar rocks from southern West
603 Greenland, and the mafic rocks (which may or may not approximate liquid compositions)
604 with the SNAC basalts on three popular discrimination diagrams (Fig. 9). On the Ti/Y vs
605 Nb/Y diagram the brown gneisses plot in fields ranging from basalt to rhyolite/dacite, similar
606 to the garnet–biotite gneisses from Greenland (Fig. 9a), whereas most of the mafic rocks plot
607 within the basalt field, with the remainder plotting within the basaltic andesite/andesite field
608 at higher Ti. Excluding those non-basaltic samples (i.e. those with $\text{SiO}_2 > 60$ wt%), on the
609 Th/Yb vs Nb/Yb diagram (Fig. 9b) the brown gneisses are scattered, with three of the four
610 samples plotting close to or below the MORB–ocean island basalt (OIB) array. By contrast,
611 the Greenland samples plot in the field of continental arc rocks above the MORB–OIB array
612 at high Nb/Yb (Pearce, 2008). The mafic rocks show no coherent trend in Fig. 9b; several
613 samples plot below the MORB–OIB array, consistent with partial melting and melt loss. On
614 the Nb/Y vs TiO_2/Yb diagram (Fig. 9c) the four low-silica brown gneisses lie in or below the
615 MORB array, with three plotting close to the composition of E–MORB, although this proxy
616 is not considered effective for fingerprinting Archean tectonic settings (Pearce 2008). Most of
617 the mafic rocks also plot in the MORB array and many plot close to the composition of N–
618 MORB.

619 A pronounced depletion in Nb, Ta and Ti is a characteristic geochemical signature of
620 rocks from the Lewisian Complex (Fowler, 1986; Rollinson, 1996) and is seen in all samples
621 in this study (Fig. 7). Several of the ultramafic rocks have concentrations of Nb and Ta that
622 are lower than primitive mantle values (Fig. 7a), the mafic rocks are depleted relative to

623 SNAC basalts and MORB (Fig. 7b,c; Fig. 8; Johnson et al., 2012), the brown gneisses are
624 depleted relative to similar rocks in Greenland (Fig. 7d) and the proximal TTG gneisses (Fig.
625 7e; discussed in detail below). This ‘arc-like’ signature may be interpreted to reflect the
626 presence of rutile in the source rocks at depth, a feature that is commonly invoked to indicate
627 formation in a subduction environment (e.g. Moyen, 2011).

628 Central region TTG gneisses have the high SiO₂, Na/K, Sr/Y and depleted HREE
629 signatures that characterise most sodic Archean TTGs worldwide, consistent with an
630 interpretation that most TTGs equilibrated with a garnet- and clinopyroxene-bearing (with or
631 without hornblende) residue that lacked plagioclase (Moyen, 2011). Moreover, TTG gneisses
632 from the central region show a pronounced depletion in Ta, Nb and Ti relative to an average
633 sodic TTG composition (Johnson et al., 2013, fig. 2), suggesting their source rocks also
634 contained rutile. A common hypothesis is the TTG gneisses formed by partial melting of
635 garnet- and rutile-bearing amphibolites or eclogites in a subducting slab (e.g. Drummond and
636 Defant, 1990; Martin, 1999; Rapp et al., 2003). However, the presence of garnet- and rutile-
637 bearing residual source rocks that exhausted plagioclase does not necessarily mean that those
638 source rocks were eclogites or that the source rocks were stable at eclogite facies pressures
639 (e.g. Johnson et al., 2014). Both experiments (Qian and Hermann, 2013; Zhang et al., 2013)
640 and phase equilibria modelling (Johnson et al., 2014) show that suitable garnet- and rutile-
641 bearing residues can be produced at pressures of 1.5 GPa or less. In addition, geochemical
642 and experimental data suggest that most TTGs, including those from the Lewisian Complex,
643 were derived from a LILE-enriched source similar to oceanic plateau basalts, and are unlikely
644 to have been derived from anatexis of MORB in a subduction zone setting (Martin et al.,
645 2014).

646 Negative anomalies in Nb, Ta and Ti as well as an enrichment in Th, LREE and other
647 LILE are recorded in younger (Palaeoproterozoic) rocks of the Scourie Dyke swarm and

648 mantle xenoliths that sample the sub-continental mantle lithosphere underlying the Lewisian
649 Complex (Hughes et al., 2014). Trace element modelling led Hughes and co-workers to
650 conclude that the sub-continental mantle lithosphere was metasomatised by devolatilisation
651 of a subducting slab during the Archean and/or had interacted with carbonatitic melts.
652 Although subduction is one way of getting hydrated material into the mantle, it is not the only
653 plausible mechanism. Bédard (2006) suggested that TTG magmas may be generated at the
654 base of thick plateau-like units of hydrated basaltic crust. In his model, the dense garnet- and
655 hornblende-bearing residues delaminated, refertilising the sub-continental mantle lithosphere
656 and triggering additional melting (see also Bédard et al., 2003, 2013). Geodynamic models
657 that consider higher mantle temperatures appropriate to the Archean and incorporate
658 calculated phase equilibria and experimentally determined melting relations have
659 demonstrated the plausibility of this alternative mechanism of mantle refertilisation (Johnson
660 et al., 2014; Sizova et al., 2015). In summary, similar to other regions, the trace element
661 composition of rocks from the central region of the Lewisian Complex does not allow
662 unambiguous discrimination of the tectonic setting in which the rocks formed (cf. Pearce,
663 2014a).

664

665 *5.2. Field and metamorphic evidence*

666

667 Large kilometre- to decametre-scale layered ultramafic–mafic bodies within the
668 central region of the Lewisian Complex are distinct from smaller ultramafic and mafic sheet-
669 like and podiform bodies that are ubiquitous at outcrop scale throughout the central region.
670 The difference is not just in scale (the layered bodies are larger by an order of magnitude or
671 more), but also in the fact that many of the metabasic rocks in the layered bodies contain

672 abundant garnet, whereas the smaller sheet-like bodies do not. Nonetheless, the large
673 ultramafic–mafic bodies could be genetically related to these smaller bodies.

674 Based on field evidence from Badcall (Fig. 1), Rollinson and Windley (1980)
675 suggested that the TTG gneisses intruded, and therefore post-dated, the layered ultramafic–
676 mafic bodies (their figure 1), an interpretation followed by Rollinson and Gravestock (2012).
677 During the course of this work we have found no convincing evidence in the field, at Badcall
678 or elsewhere, to support this interpretation (although the mafic rocks are commonly cross-cut
679 by bodies of tonalite–trondhjemite derived from partial melting of the mafic rocks and TTG
680 gneisses; Johnson et al., 2010). In addition, this relative age relationship contradicts the
681 isotopic age data, much of which suggests that the TTG gneisses are older than the mafic–
682 ultramafic rocks (Whitehouse, 1989; Cohen et al., 1991; Friend and Kinny, 1995;
683 Whitehouse et al., 1996; Kinny and Friend, 1997; Burton et al., 2000; Fig. 3).

684 The large layered ultramafic–mafic bodies are bounded by steeply dipping shear
685 zones. Furthermore, some of these bodies are spatially associated with brown gneisses of
686 probable supracrustal origin. The folded and disrupted belt of layered ultramafic–mafic
687 bodies and brown gneisses in the south of the LSZ shows a broadly symmetrical distribution
688 of rock types (Fig. 2). If this belt represents lateral accretion due to closure of an ocean basin
689 via asymmetric (one-sided) subduction, then the metamorphosed equivalents of other
690 lithologies typically associated with active margins (e.g. ophiolites, mélanges/olistostromes,
691 cherts, banded iron formations (BIF), black shales, carbonate rocks, etc.), are notably lacking
692 in the central region. Although such lithological associations diagnostic of subduction–
693 accretion do occur in the mainland Lewisian Complex, forming the Loch Maree Group
694 within the southern region (Park et al., 2001), these protoliths are significantly younger (c.
695 2.0 Ga; O’Nions et al., 1983; Whitehouse et al. 1997) than those in the central region, and
696 record Paleoproterozoic, not Archean, processes (Park et al., 2001; Mason, 2015).

697 Assuming the brown gneisses represent supracrustal rocks, the spatial relationship
698 between the brown gneisses and several ultramafic–mafic bodies requires burial of these
699 lithologies from the near surface to depths exceeding 25 km prior to or during granulite facies
700 metamorphism. Folding of the ultramafic–mafic belts and associated supracrustal rocks is
701 considered by Davies (1976) to have occurred during the Archean prior to the peak of
702 Badcallian metamorphism. Thus, the geometry of both the belt of ultramafic–mafic bodies
703 and supracrustal rocks in the southern LSZ, as well as more isolated ultramafic–mafic bodies,
704 could be interpreted in terms of pre- to syn-Badcallian gravity-driven sinking (sagduction) of
705 the dense ultramafic–mafic bodies (and structurally-overlying supracrustal rocks) into the
706 underlying less dense and less viscous partially molten TTG gneisses (cf. Anhaeusser, 1975;
707 Brun, 1980; Brun et al., 1981; Ramsay, 1989; Bouhallier et al., 1995; Kisters & Anhaeusser,
708 1995; Chardon et al., 1996, 1998; Collins et al., 1998; Bremond d’Ars et al., 1999; Marshak,
709 1999; Wellman, 2000; Sandiford et al., 2004; Van Kranendonk et al., 2004, 2014; Parmenter
710 et al., 2006; Robin and Bailey 2009; Thebaud and Rey 2013; François et al., 2014; Sizova et
711 al., 2015).

712 Based on mineral equilibria modelling, there is no evidence that the ultramafic–mafic
713 rocks reached pressures significantly higher than the inferred Badcallian metamorphic peak
714 (Johnson and White, 2011). The implied clockwise P – T path, in which peak T and P coincide
715 (Johnson & White, 2011, fig. 5b), is similar to those modelled for Archean sagduction
716 (François et al., 2014), the results of which suggest the process is rapid and occurs within a
717 few million years. The apparent thermal gradient of ~ 925 °C/GPa lies within the range for
718 Precambrian granulite–ultrahigh temperature metamorphism (750–1500 °C/GPa) but well
719 above that for Precambrian eclogite–high pressure granulite metamorphism (350–750
720 °C/GPa) that has been interpreted to record the start of Archean subduction (Brown, 2014).
721 Furthermore, Phanerozoic subduction–accretion is associated with more hairpin-like

722 clockwise P – T paths in which the pressure peak coincided with or preceded the temperature
723 peak (e.g. Liou et al, 2014). There is no evidence for regional blueschist or eclogite facies
724 metamorphism in the central region that is a signature of late Neoproterozoic and
725 Phanerozoic subduction. If it is confirmed that fragments of garnet pyroxenite in the
726 ultramafic–mafic bodies reached eclogite facies, as reported by Sajeev et al. (2013), an origin
727 as entrained deep-seated remnants of delaminating lower crust is a plausible explanation
728 (Sizova et al., 2015).

729 Although primary (early) structural relationships have been destroyed by the intense
730 polyphase ductile deformation, some of the smaller metre- to centimetre-scale ultramafic and
731 mafic sheet-like bodies that are ubiquitous within the central region could represent disrupted
732 dykes through which the original greenstone belt magmas were supplied from depth. Also,
733 the geochemistry of these smaller bodies is likely to reflect interaction with the suprasolidus
734 (melt-bearing) host TTG gneisses, as suggested by the variable REE chemistry of
735 clinopyroxene from ultramafic rocks preserved at different scales (Rollinson and Gravestock,
736 2012).

737 Sinking of the large layered ultramafic–mafic bodies and associated supracrustal
738 rocks during the Archean prior to or synchronous with Badcallian granulite facies
739 metamorphism would have given rise to structures with steeply dipping foliations and
740 lineations at their margins (Collins et al., 1998; Marshak, 1999; Van Kranendonk et al., 2004;
741 Parmenter et al., 2006; Lin and Beakhouse, 2013; Thébaud and Rey, 2013), perhaps
742 consistent with the initial (pre- to syn-Badcallian) development of the shear zones that occur
743 at the margins of these bodies. However, subsequently these structures would have acted as
744 strong foci for deformation and fluid flow, in agreement with the strong localisation of strain
745 and retrogression during the subsequent Inverian and Laxfordian events, which caused
746 extensive overprinting of pre- to syn-granulite facies deformation and mineral assemblages.

747 A strong S- to SE-plunging stretching lineation defined by garnet is common at the margins
748 of the large ultramafic–mafic bodies, attesting to intense post-Badcallian deformation of
749 these bodies. Despite the fact that unambiguous evidence is absent due to successive
750 overprinting deformations, the shear zones spatially associated with the ultramafic–mafic
751 bodies may represent early (Badcallian) structures that were subsequently reactivated by
752 Inverian and Laxfordian deformation.

753 Although the fundamental driving force for sagduction of greenstone belts is the
754 negative buoyancy of the denser ultramafic and mafic rocks ($\rho > 3.0 \text{ gcm}^{-3}$) relative to
755 underlying felsic orthogneisses ($\rho \sim 2.7 \text{ gcm}^{-3}$), it is thermal weakening of the basement and a
756 low viscosity in the immediately underlying mantle that control the process (Sandiford et al.,
757 2004; Thebaud and Rey 2013; Johnson et al., 2014). The dynamic requirements for
758 sagduction were evidently met in many greenstone belts (Anhaeusser 1975; Brun 1980; Brun
759 et al., 1981; Bouhallier et al., 1995; Chardon et al., 1996, 1998; Collins et al., 1998;
760 Parmenter et al., 2006; Robin and Bailey 2009; Wellman, 2000) and sagduction plausibly
761 could have occurred in the central region of the Lewisian Complex, particularly as the
762 basement rocks at depth were at temperatures in excess of 900 °C and partially molten
763 (Johnson et al., 2013).

764 The ultramafic–mafic bodies could conceivably represent the metamorphosed
765 equivalents of: accreted oceanic crust, lower crustal underplates, a single disrupted large
766 layered intrusion emplaced into felsic crust, multiple layered intrusions of a similar age,
767 multiple layered intrusions of variable age, differentiated intrusions near the base of a
768 greenstone belt, or interlayered komatiitic and basaltic lava flows near the base of a
769 greenstone belt. The brown gneisses may represent (volcano) sedimentary rocks from higher
770 crustal levels. If the rocks do represent the sunken remnants of dense upper crust, at some

771 point the downward motion of the greenstone belts was arrested. Why would this have
772 happened?

773 The ultramafic–mafic bodies, metasedimentary rocks and host TTG gneisses record
774 similar peak T and P conditions (Johnson and White 2011; Zirkler et al., 2012; Johnson et al.,
775 2013), which implies they were present together in the deep crust close to the Badcallian
776 metamorphic peak. One possible explanation for the arrested downward flow of the
777 greenstones is stiffening of the crust at depth. If prograde melt production and drainage from
778 the fertile TTGs ceased during sagduction of the greenstones as the metamorphic peak was
779 approached and as heat flow declined, the residual TTG crust could have become
780 significantly more viscous halting the sinking greenstones.

781 The dynamic plausibility of these processes requires evaluation using 2D and 3D
782 geodynamic modelling. However, a recent study by Sizova et al. (2015) modelling
783 Eoarchean–Mesoarchean geodynamics (at appropriate mantle temperatures) makes
784 predictions that can explain the variety and complexity of the Archean geological record.
785 These include formation of a pristine granite–greenstone-like crust with dome-and-keel
786 geometry formed over delaminating–upwelling mantle, followed by the development of
787 reworked (accreted) crust that is subjected to both strong horizontal shortening and vertical
788 tectonics processes, which are terminated by short-lived subduction events. These non-
789 uniformitarian models predict the formation of voluminous TTG-like magmas and ultimately
790 produce discrete, shear-zone bounded crustal terranes that resemble the architecture of the
791 Archean rocks within mainland Lewisian Complex.

792

793 *5.3. Future work*

794 Like other areas of Archean crust, unravelling the complexities recorded in the rocks
795 of the Lewisian Complex to reveal their geodynamic evolution is difficult, not least because,

796 despite a large volume of data, the geochemical and geochronological data are ambiguous.
797 Finding some consensus on the absolute timing of ‘events’ may lie in analysing Sm–Nd and
798 Lu–Hf isotopic composition of garnet and/or U–Pb analysis of zircon/baddeleyite within the
799 mafic rocks. Resolving whether the various crustal blocks are disrupted then reassembled
800 fragments of a single lithosphere unit or are exotic terranes may be resolved using Hf (and
801 other) isotopic measurements of accessory minerals; the acquisition of such data is becoming
802 increasingly faster and cost-effective. In addition, a detailed knowledge of the spatial
803 distribution of Badcallian metamorphic conditions may inform the nature of the proposed
804 terrane boundaries and the potential presence (or otherwise) of belts of rocks recording both
805 higher and lower than average apparent thermal gradients that are a signature of subduction.
806 This requires phase equilibria modelling of tens or hundreds of samples. More detailed
807 mapping of the ultramafic–mafic bodies, brown gneisses and host rocks may provide some
808 information on their early (pre- to syn-Badcallian kinematic history), although subsequent
809 deformation may have destroyed this evidence throughout the Lewisian Complex.

810

811

812 **6. Conclusions**

813

814 The field evidence relating to the large ultramafic–mafic bodies, in particular as it
815 relates to the early structural evolution, has been overprinted by subsequent events and is
816 equivocal. The composition of the rocks is highly variable, probably as a consequence of
817 magmatic differentiation in layered intrusive complexes, subsequent melting during
818 ultrahigh-temperature metamorphism and interaction with neighbouring rocks and partial
819 melts derived therefrom. As a result the geochemical characteristics are not clearly diagnostic
820 of magmatic process or tectonic setting. The ‘arc-like’ signature exhibited by many Archean

821 rocks is not unique to a subduction–accretion environment; there are other mechanisms of
822 enriching mantle source rocks that are perhaps more plausible at the higher temperatures that
823 would have characterised the Archean. Although a subduction origin is possible, we suggest
824 that the layered kilometre- to decametre-scale ultramafic–mafic bodies and associated
825 supracrustal rocks might be the remnants of greenstone belts that sank into partially molten
826 TTG-dominated crust. Whether similar ultramafic–mafic complexes in other high-grade
827 gneiss terrains represent evidence of subduction or were intracratonic should be re-evaluated
828 on a case-by-case basis. However, the possibility that Archean cratonic fragments, which
829 commonly comprise a collage of discrete terranes, could have been produced in a non-plate
830 tectonic scenario is becoming increasingly hard to dismiss (Bédard et al., 2013; Johnson et al.,
831 2014; Bédard and Harris, 2014; Sizova et al., 2015; cf. Polat et al., 2015).

832

833

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835

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839

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1277 **Figure captions**

1278

1279 **Fig. 1.** A simplified geological map of the mainland Lewisian Complex of northwest
1280 Scotland. The complex is traditionally subdivided into a granulite facies central region
1281 bounded by the mainly amphibolite facies northern and southern regions. The more recent
1282 terrane-based nomenclature is also shown (the Gruinard and Assynt terranes in the center,
1283 with the Rhiconich terrane to the north and the Gairloch, Ialltaig and Rona terranes to the
1284 south; Kinny et al., 2005). The position of key localities discussed in the text is indicated.

1285

1286 **Fig. 2.** (a) Geological map, reproduced with permission of the BGS (Innovation agreement
1287 IPR/156–04CL), showing the distribution of the main rocks types in the northwestern part of
1288 the central region (Assynt block), across the Laxford Shear Zone (LSZ) and into the
1289 southwesternmost part of the northern region (Rhiconich block). The map is based on recent
1290 BGS mapping with the location of additional ultramafic–mafic bodies from fig. 1 of Davies
1291 (1976) superimposed (dashed boundaries). The boundaries of the LSZ (approximate positions
1292 shown by the two thick dotted grey lines) trend WNW–ESE and pass through the middle of
1293 Loch Laxford in the north and 2–3 km northeast of Scourie in the south, where the strain
1294 gradient declines and the strain becomes localized in discrete shear zones. The precise
1295 junction between the central and northern regions is unclear. West and south of the Laxford
1296 granites, a prominent belt of large layered ultramafic–mafic bodies is spatially associated
1297 with brown gneisses that occur in synformal cores. By contrast, many of the more isolated
1298 layered bodies, for instance around Scourie, have no clear association with brown gneiss. The
1299 schematic cross-section (b), redrafted from Davies (1976), was drawn along the line A–B
1300 indicated on the map.

1301

1302 **Fig. 3.** Timeline based on data cited in the main text summarising the age constraints on
1303 Archean to Paleoproterozoic ‘events’ within the central region of the mainland Lewisian
1304 Complex.

1305

1306 **Fig. 4.** (a) Generalized stratigraphy of the layered ultramafic–mafic bodies and associated
1307 supracrustal rocks; (b) Field photographs of typical occurrences of the various units shown in
1308 (a); (c) Chondrite-normalised REE patterns of the various units shown in (a) and (b). In (c),
1309 the grey background field for the brown gneisses shows the range of compositions of
1310 petrographically similar garnet–biotite gneisses from the Storø greenstone belt, SW
1311 Greenland (Ordóñez-Calderón et al., 2011). The grey background field for the ultramafic
1312 rocks shows the range of REE compositions for ~200 komatiites from greenstone belts in the
1313 Superior Province taken from the GEOROC database (<http://georoc.mpch-mainz.gwdg.de/>).

1314

1315 **Fig. 5.** Variation diagrams showing major oxide compositions of the main lithologies plotted
1316 against MgO (as wt%). The compositions of Archean non-arc basalts, Archean basalts from
1317 the Superior and North Atlantic cratons (SNAC basalts), N-MORB and fertile mantle
1318 composition KR-4003 are shown for reference, along with the average composition of
1319 olivine (ol) and clinopyroxene (cu) from a metamorphosed ultramafic rock and of
1320 clinopyroxene (cm) from a metabasic rock – see main text for further details.

1321

1322 **Fig. 6.** (a) AFM diagram showing the boundaries between the tholeiitic and calc-alkaline
1323 fields proposed by Kuno (1968) and Irvine and Baragar (1971). The ultramafic and metabasic
1324 rocks define a low-alkali trend with strong enrichment in Fe that is characteristic of tholeiitic
1325 magmas. (b) TAS diagram showing the compositions of the metabasic rocks and brown
1326 gneisses.

1327

1328 **Fig. 7.** Representative trace element compositions of the main lithologies normalised to
1329 primitive mantle values of McDonough & Sun (1995). The grey areas show the fields for
1330 particular reference compositions described in the text.

1331

1332 **Fig. 8.** Change in the major (Si to K as oxides) and trace element composition of the average
1333 metabasic rock relative to the average SNAC basalt. Many of these features (e.g. a depletion
1334 in K, Na and most trace elements) are consistent with partial melting and melt loss. Others
1335 (e.g. the pronounced depletion in Ti, Nb and Ta) probably reflect source characteristics (e.g.
1336 Rollinson, 2012).

1337

1338 **Fig. 9.** Trace element discrimination diagrams: (a) Nb/Y vs Ti/Y; (b) Nb/Yb vs Th/Yb; (c)
1339 Nb/Yb vs TiO₂/Yb.

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1345 Highlights

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- 1348 • The Lewisian Complex contains large layered ultramafic–mafic bodies and
1349 structurally overlying garnet-biotite gneiss whose origin is unclear
- 1350 • The rocks have ‘arc-like’ geochemical signatures that may not be unique to a
1351 subduction environment
- 1352 • The ultramafic–mafic rocks and brown gneisses may represent the remnants of
1353 intracratonic greenstone belts that sank into the deep crust due to their density contrast
1354 with the underlying partially molten low viscosity TTG orthogneisses

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

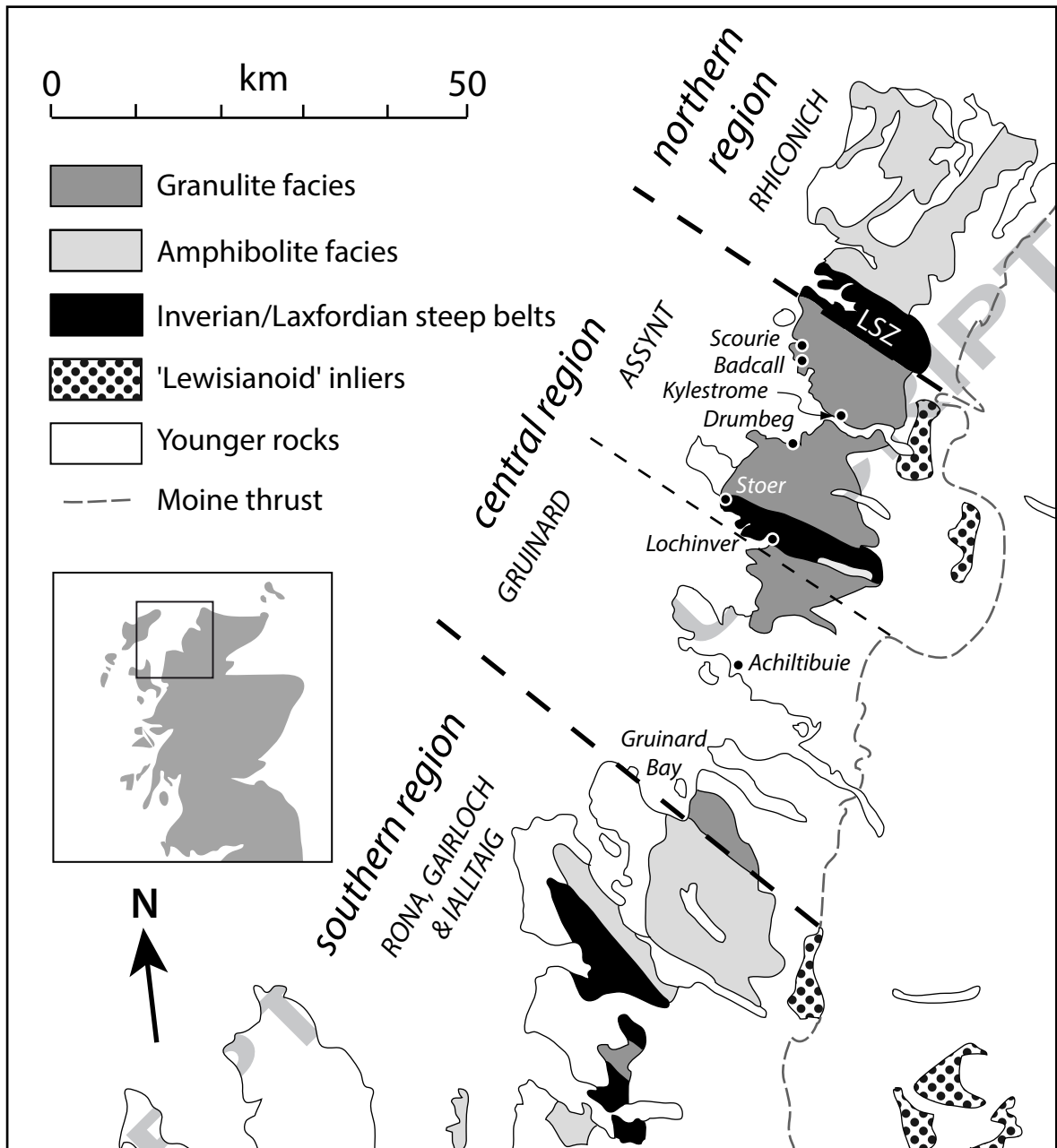


Figure 1

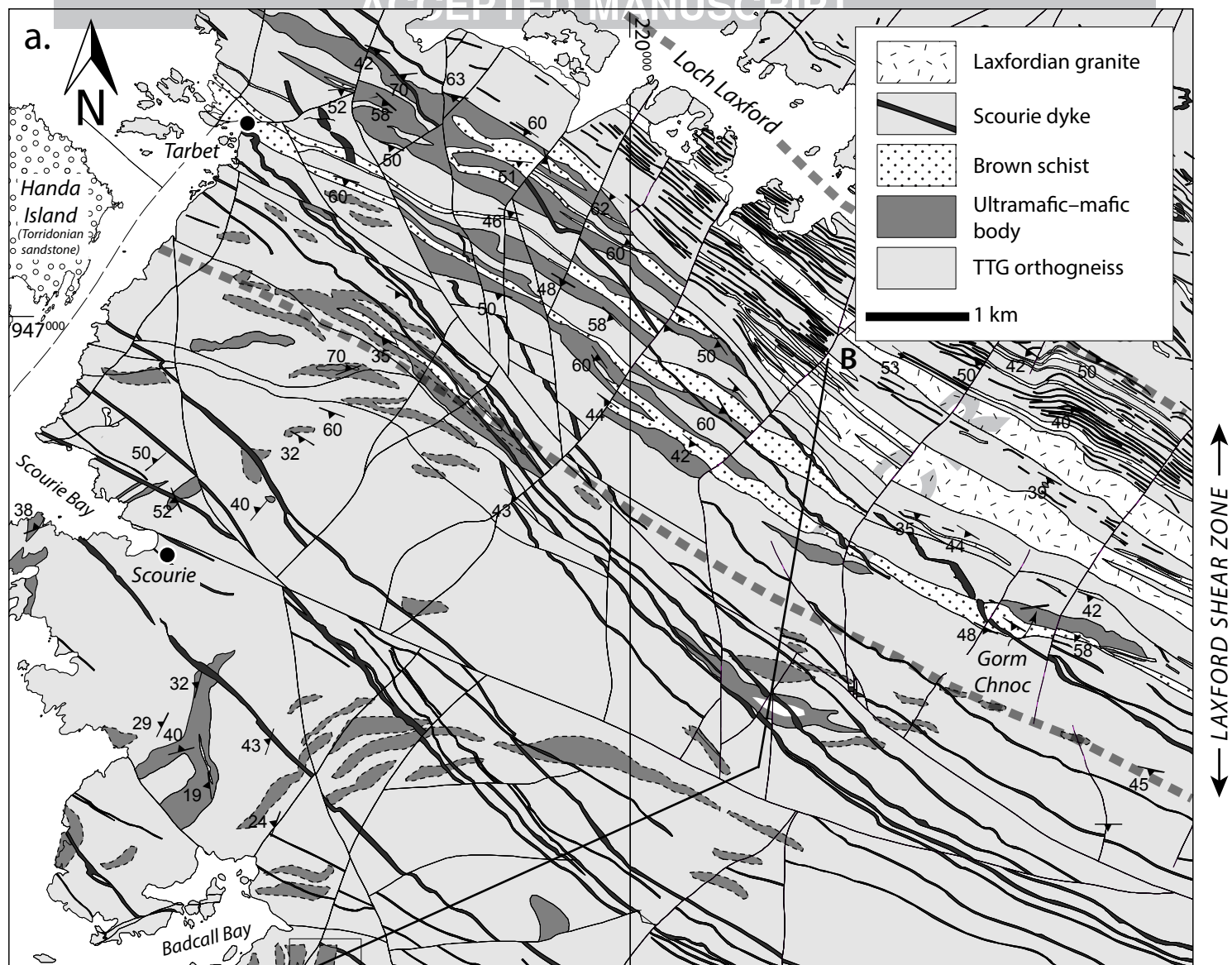


Figure 2

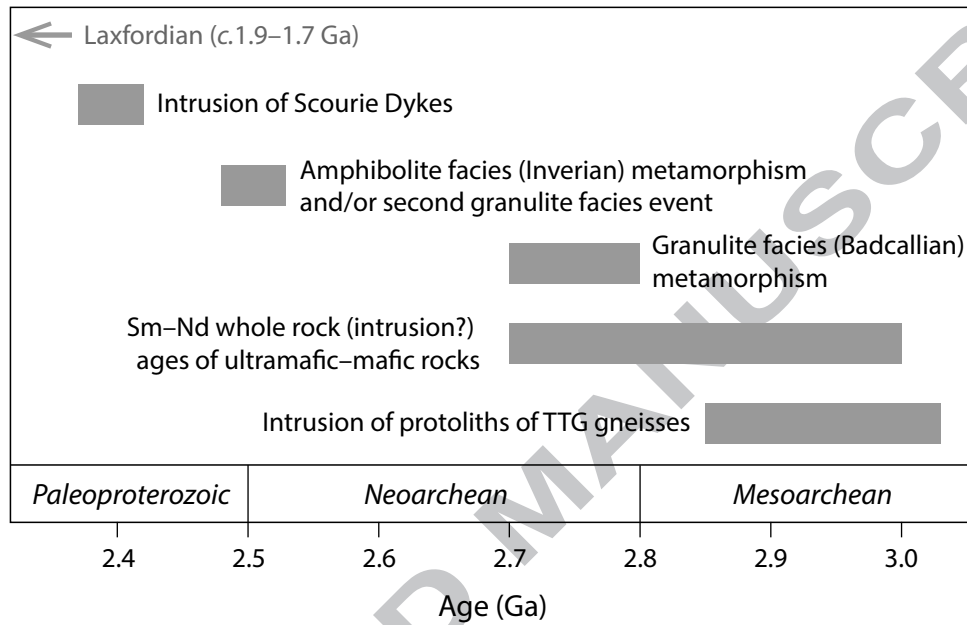


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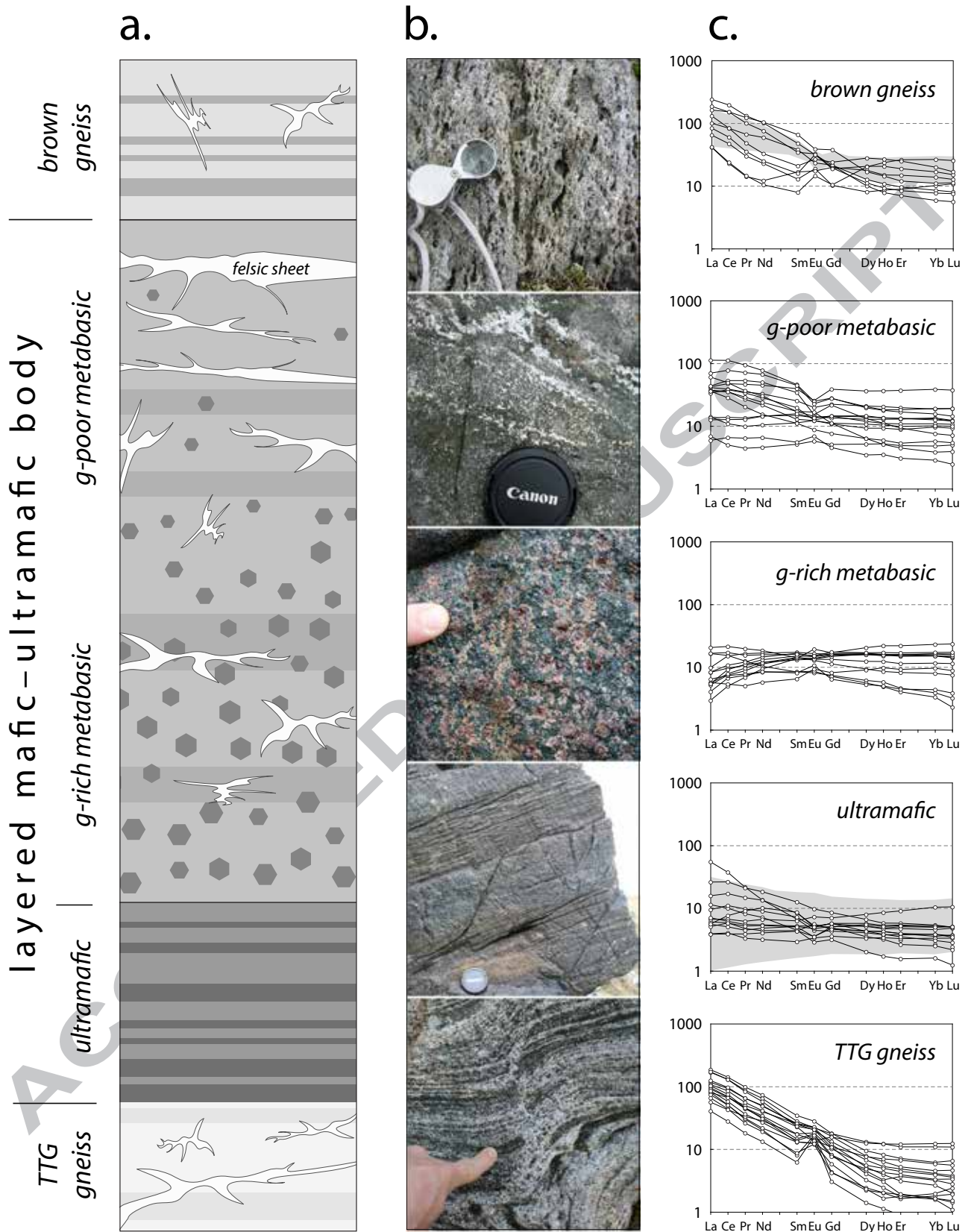


Figure 4

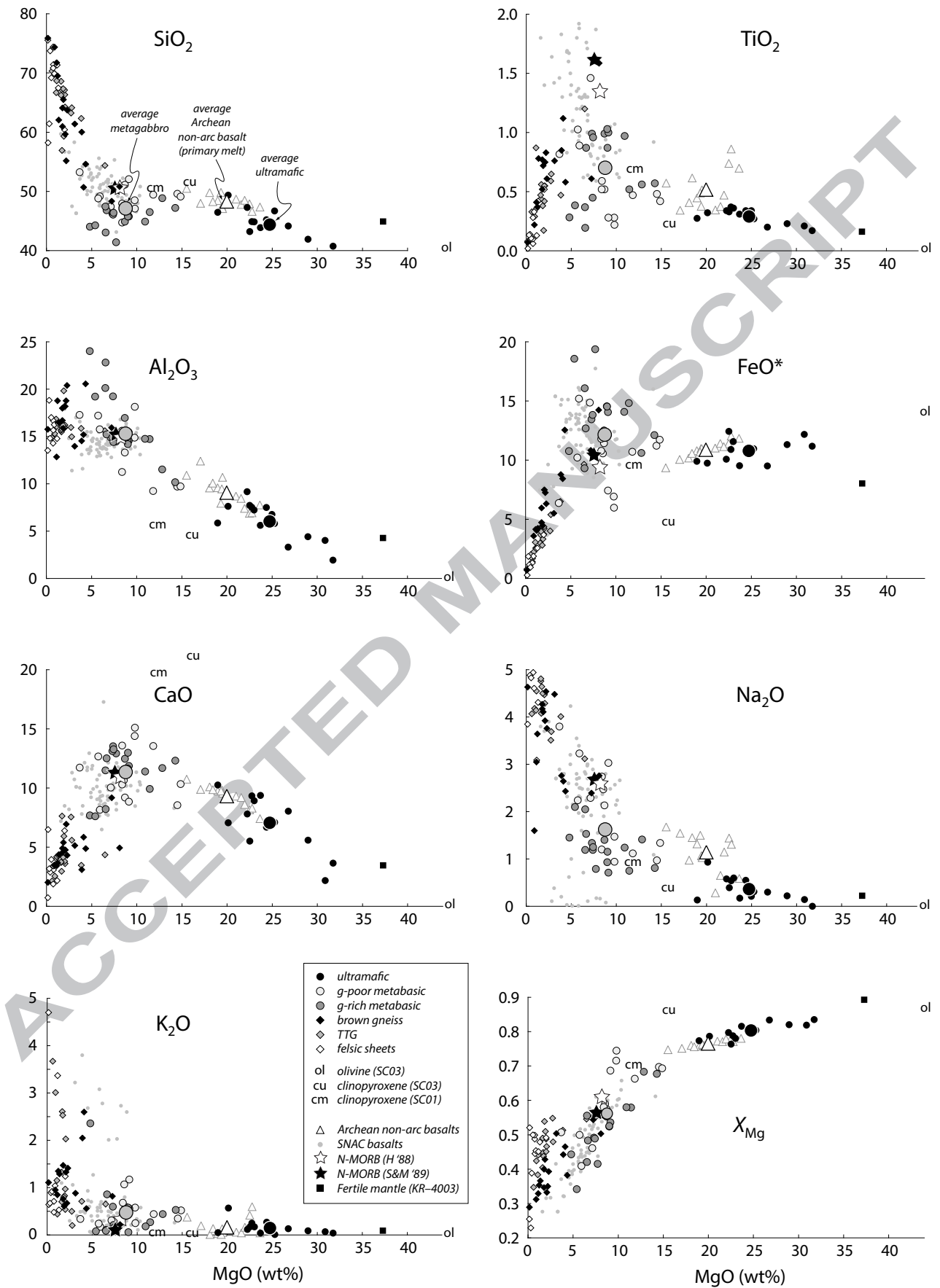


Figure 5

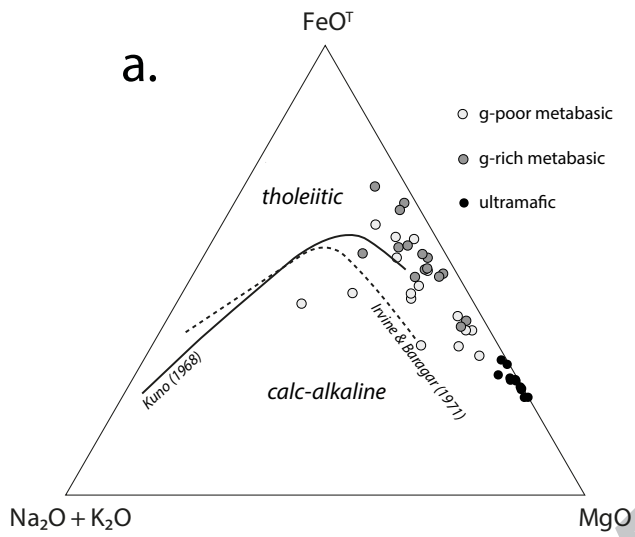


Figure 5

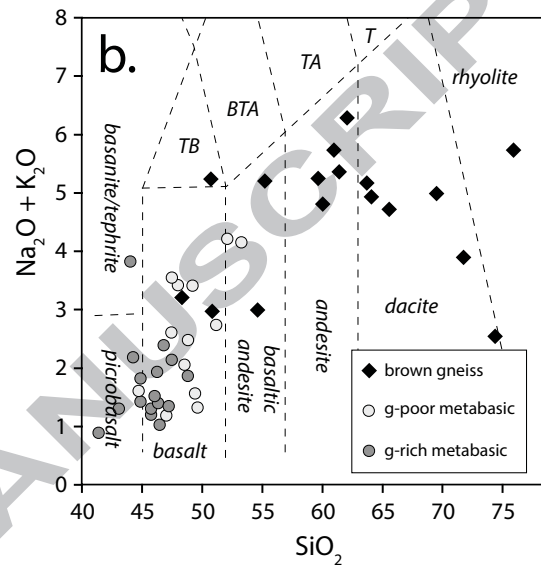


Figure 6

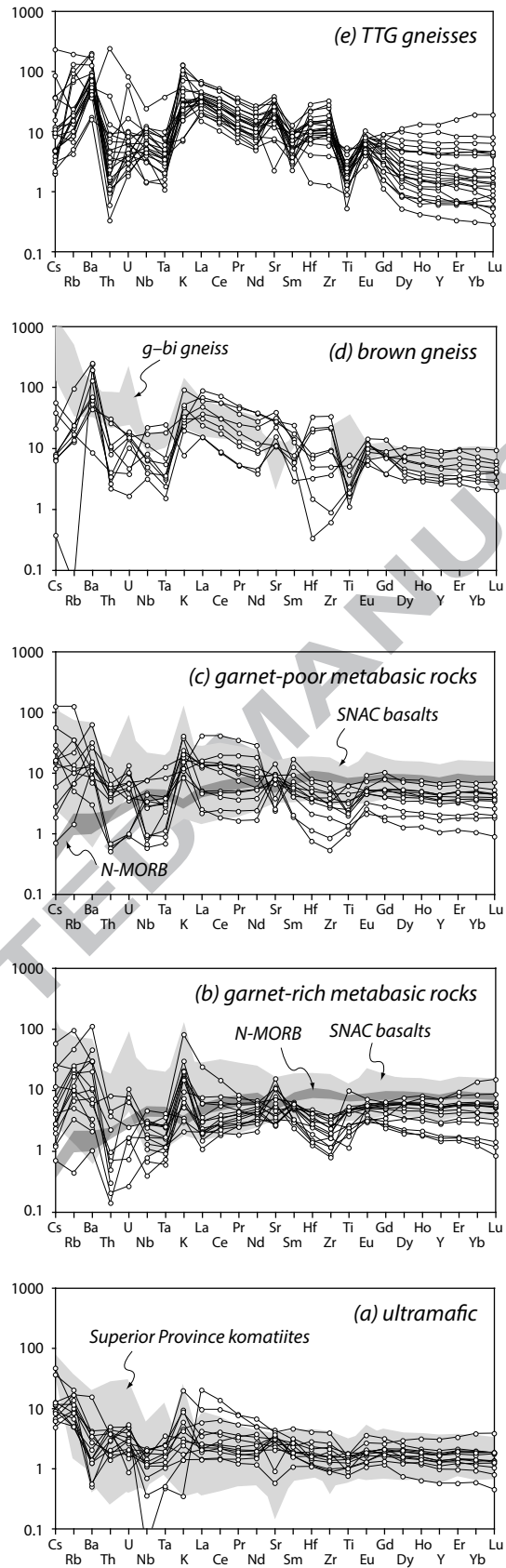


Figure 7

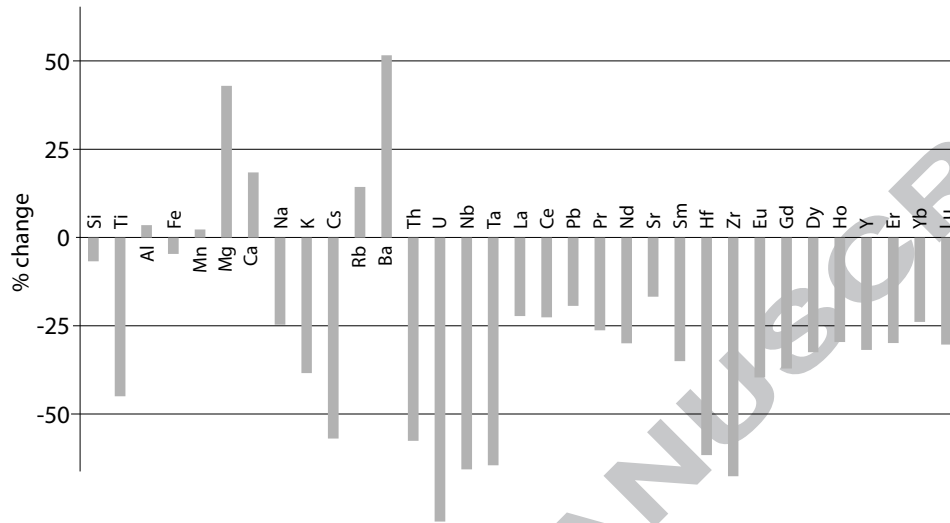


Figure 8

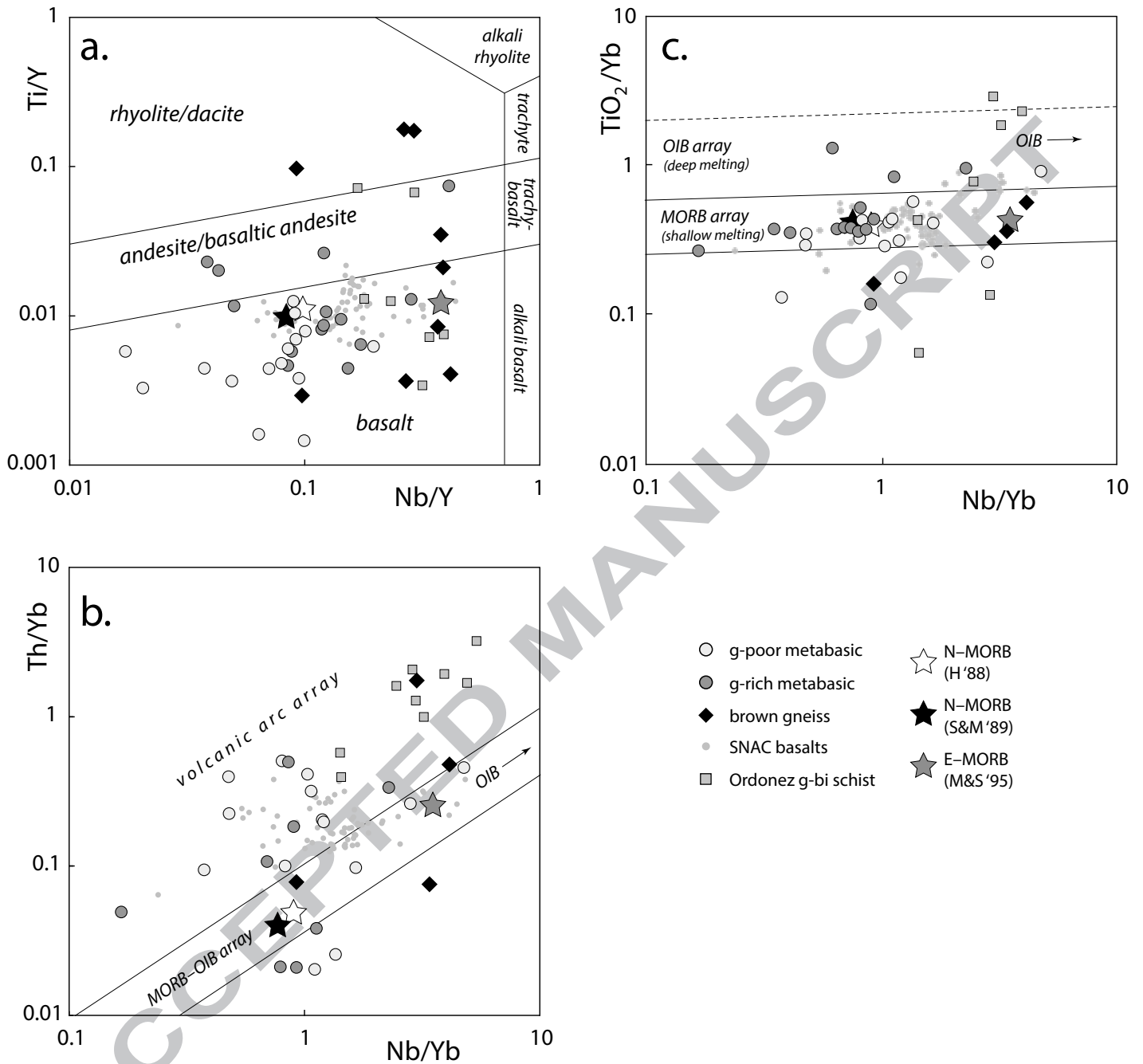


Figure 9