

# 1 **The Effect of Melt Infiltration on Metagranitic Rocks: the** 2 **Snieznik Dome, Bohemian Massif**

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## 16 **ABSTRACT**

17 Highly deformed banded phengite–biotite metagranite from the Snieznik dome in the  
18 Bohemian Massif has been modified locally to have stromatic, schlieren or nebulitic textures  
19 typical of migmatites. This occurred mostly along subvertical deformation zones at eclogite-  
20 facies conditions, at a scale of several centimetres to several metres, mostly parallel to the  
21 foliation. The transition from banded to migmatite types of orthogneiss is marked by an  
22 increase in the amount of phases interstitial along grain boundaries in the dynamically  
23 recrystallized monomineralic feldspar and quartz aggregates, and by increasing consumption  
24 of recrystallized K-feldspar grains by fine-grained plagioclase and quartz, as well as  
25 myrmekite (intergrowth of Pl\_Qz). The new minerals are in textural equilibrium with  
26 phengite. The myrmekite, quartz and feldspars can be coarse-grained (grain size 0.5 cm).  
27 These features are considered to be the result of grain-scale melt infiltration that caused  
28 dissolution–reprecipitation along grain boundaries in the presence of phengite. The  
29 infiltration was pervasive at the grain scale, but localized at hand-specimen to outcrop scales.  
30 All the rock types have the same mineral assemblage of Grt\_Ph\_Bt\_Ttn\_Kfs\_Pl\_Qz6Rt6Ilm;  
31 they have similar garnet, phengite and biotite compositions, and based on mineral equilibria  
32 modelling we infer equilibration at a pressure of 1.5–1.7 GPa and a temperature of 690–740

33 °C. Because the rocks are inferred to be H<sub>2</sub>O-undersaturated and above the temperature  
34 conditions of the wet solidus, infiltration must have involved a hydrous melt, as opposed to  
35 an H<sub>2</sub>O fluid. Stability of melt-bearing mineral assemblages and mineral compositions are  
36 almost independent of the melt proportion in the system, thus explaining the identical  
37 assemblage and mineral compositions observed in all the migmatite types. This precludes  
38 the estimation of the amount of melt infiltrated. Migmatite textures, however, suggest that  
39 variable degrees of melt–rock interaction occurred, being low in the banded migmatite types  
40 and higher in the nebulitic and schlieren types. Retrograde equilibration was largely  
41 restricted to retrograde zoning in phengite, garnet and plagioclase, and crystallization of  
42 biotite around phengite and garnet, presumably in a continuous reaction consuming melt.  
43 This may have occurred down to 0.7–1.0 GPa. According to Sr–Nd isotope data, the  
44 infiltrating melt is probably derived from similar rocks, structurally beneath the observed  
45 ones. The infiltration may have facilitated exhumation of a 2km wide structural domain  
46 from 1.7 to 0.7 GPa, within which are the subvertical deformation zones along which the  
47 infiltration occurred.

48  
49 Key words: orthogneiss migmatite; fluid-assisted melting; eclogite facies; melt percolation;  
50 exhumation

51  
52 INTRODUCTION

53 Classically, partial melting processes have been studied predominantly in metasediments.  
54 However, recently, partial melting processes in granitoids are receiving increasing attention,  
55 especially in areas of subduction to (U)HP conditions. Of particular interest is the role of  
56 melt in strain localization in granitoid crust (Rosenberg & Handy, 2005; Labrousse et al.,  
57 2015; Závada et al., 2018), thus allowing trans-lithospheric exhumation of subducted crust  
58 (Maierová et al., 2018). Detailed petrological and geothermobarometric studies of granite  
59 migmatites are rare (Hasalová et al., 2008b, 2008c), and are missing for HP conditions.  
60 Recognition of the former presence of melt in rocks relies on macroscopic and microscopic  
61 observations (e.g. Brown, 2007; Holness & Sawyer, 2008; Sawyer, 2010). Such observations  
62 in a field-based study led Hasalová et al. (2008a, 2008b, 2008c) to suggest pervasive grain-  
63 scale melt migration as the main melt transport mechanism in metagranitoid rocks, a model

64 recently applied in other field areas (Stuart et al., 2017; Závada et al., 2018). Based on these  
65 studies, grain-scale melt migration is thought to be focused in localized zones of  
66 deformation, thus not necessarily affecting the whole volume of rocks. This is in contrast to a  
67 generally accepted melt transport paradigm for the crust, based mainly on observations in  
68 metasedimentary rocks (e.g. Brown, 2007). This model involves melt drainage to sites of  
69 accumulation, and their interconnection into a network of leucosomes, sills and dykes  
70 through which melt is transported to higher crustal levels to form plutons by channelized  
71 flow (e.g. Brown, 2007). In this model, grain-scale migration is considered only to explain  
72 melt moving from melt-production reaction sites to sites of accumulation (e.g. Sawyer,  
73 2001).

74 To understand where melting occurred on the path of the rocks—on their burial and/or on  
75 their ascent—requires evidence for the presence of a melt to be found and P–T conditions to  
76 be estimated. Such a combined study has rarely been undertaken on metagranitoid rocks  
77 (e.g. Hasalová et al., 2008c; Korhonen et al., 2010). But, for example, mineral equilibria  
78 modelling has been used to trace heating (Schulmann et al., 2008) and exhumation  
79 (Hasalová et al., 2008c) in medium-pressure metagranitic migmatites, or burial and/or  
80 exhumation in high-pressure metagranitic rocks (e.g. Chopin et al., 2012b), or to estimate  
81 melting conditions based on inclusion assemblages in magmatic zircon (Hopkins et al.,  
82 2010). Experimental re-homogenization of former melt inclusions in garnet allowed  
83 estimation of trapping conditions of melt at near UHP peak (Ferrero et al., 2015). The role  
84 of fluids, especially H<sub>2</sub>O, is an important aspect for the melting of rocks. Three major types  
85 of melting have been recognized, leading to melting starting at different P–T conditions and  
86 potentially to very different amounts of melt produced. In the presence of fluid, crustal rocks  
87 will undergo an abrupt transition from fluid-present to melt-present at the wet- or H<sub>2</sub>O-  
88 saturated solidus, through a process of fluid-present melting (e.g. Huang & Wyllie, 1981;  
89 Hermann & Spandler, 2008; Hermann & Rubatto, 2014). In this development, fluid is used  
90 to mean an H<sub>2</sub>O-rich hydrous phase, not including melt. The amount of melt produced is  
91 only a few per cent, as the amount of fluid, for example in the pores of a rock, is limited (e.g.  
92 White et al., 2001). If fluid is not present, melting will occur at appropriate elevated  
93 temperatures by the breakdown of hydrous minerals in reactions referred to as dehydration  
94 melting (e.g. Clemens & Vielzeuf, 1987; Auzanneau et al., 2006; Masotta et al., 2018). The

95 most important dehydration reactions in quartzo-feldspathic rocks involve white mica and  
96 biotite (Huang & Wyllie, 1981; Auzanneau et al., 2006; Hermann & Rubatto, 2014), and the  
97 amount of melt that can be formed is proportional to the volume of these minerals  
98 consumed.

99 Fluid-present and dehydration melting are effectively closed-system processes, with the melt  
100 produced without addition of fluid or melt from outside the rock being melted. Open-  
101 system processes can also be involved in melting, with addition of fluid or melt to a rock (for  
102 granitoid examples see Collins et al., 1989; Pognante, 1992; Jung et al., 2009; Sawyer, 2010;  
103 for a review see Weinberg & Hasalová, 2015). These are termed fluid fluxed melting and  
104 melt-fluxed melting, respectively. Fluid-fluxed melting is associated with near wet-solidus  
105 conditions where fluid can gain access to rocks from or via rocks that are below their solidus  
106 (e.g. White et al., 2005). The amount of melt produced depends on the amount of H<sub>2</sub>O  
107 added and can therefore be very high (e.g. White et al., 2005; Hasalová et al., 2008c;  
108 Ganzhorn et al., 2016). This process is recognized by high degrees of melting in otherwise  
109 near wet-solidus rocks. At temperatures above the wet solvus it is difficult to envisage fluid  
110 addition. If open-system processes are involved then melt addition and/or melt advection  
111 are required (e.g. Greenfield et al., 1996; Sawyer, 1998; Milord et al., 2001; Hasalová et al.,  
112 2008c; Collins et al., 2016; Stuart et al., 2017), giving rise to melt-fluxed melting. Here, we  
113 study granitic migmatites cropping out in the vicinity of eclogite boudins and HP  
114 metagranitic rocks within the continental subduction wedge of the Bohemian Massif. This is  
115 an ideal site for studying melt-related processes in granitoid rocks at high pressure. Field  
116 studies document evidence for the transition to migmatite and the relation of migmatite  
117 formation to deformation fabrics. Grain-scale textural characteristics are used to consider  
118 the possible melt migration process. The P–T conditions of melting are estimated. Forward-  
119 modelling of equilibrium mineral assemblages is used to assess whether the migmatite  
120 formation occurred through dehydration melting, or fluid-fluxed or melt-fluxed melting.

## 121 GEOLOGICAL SETTING

### 122 Tectonic setting

123 The Orlica–Sněžník dome (OSD) in the NE part of the Bohemian Massif has a general

124 structure of a mantled dome, occurring in the Orlica and Sněžnik mountain ranges (in  
125 Czech, the Orlické and Kralický Sněžník mountain ranges; Fig. 1) (Chopin et al., 2012a;  
126 Mazur et al., 2012). The dome is composed of a granitoid derived gneissic core containing  
127 boudins of eclogite and high-pressure granulite with Cambro-Ordovician protoliths (Kröner  
128 et al., 2001; Bröcker et al., 2010; Mazur et al., 2010) and belts of metamorphosed volcano-  
129 sedimentary rocks with Neoproterozoic to Ordovician ages (Jastrzebski et al., 2010; Mazur et  
130 al., 2012). The high-grade gneissic core is mantled by medium- to low-grade metamorphic  
131 rock units composed of Proterozoic schists, slates, volcanic rocks and Cambro-Ordovician  
132 rift sequences (Kröner et al., 2000; Mazur & Aleksandrowski, 2001; Štípská et al., 2001).  
133 The compilation of pressure–temperature–time–deformation (P–T–t–D) data allows  
134 formulation of an evolutionary model (Chopin et al., 2012a). This involves Late Devonian  
135 subduction of the Cambro-Ordovician oceanic crust and passive margin followed by  
136 underthrusting of buoyant felsic crust that resulted in its stacking beneath dense upper plate  
137 rocks (Mazur et al., 2012), a process called ‘relamination’ (e.g. Hacker et al., 2011; Maierová  
138 et al., 2014, 2018). The continental rocks were subducted to asthenospheric depths as  
139 testified by evidence for (U)HP eclogite- and granulite-facies conditions (Bröcker & Klemm,  
140 1996; Kryza et al., 1996; Klemm & Bröcker, 1999; Jedlicka & Faryad, 2017), whereas the  
141 middle crustal rocks achieved amphibolite facies conditions (Murtezi, 2006; Jastrzebski,  
142 2009; Skrzypek et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2014; Jastrzebski et al., 2019). The subduction–  
143 relamination stage was followed by crustal-scale Early Carboniferous doming when the  
144 lower crustal rocks were exhumed to middle crust levels along vertical deformation zones  
145 (Štípská et al., 2004, 2012) in the cores of antiformal sub-domes. The growth of the dome,  
146 60km across, was associated with unroofing and sliding of the upper plate crustal rocks  
147 along localized extensional detachments, thus enhancing final exhumation of the buoyant  
148 HP core (e.g. Skrzypek et al., 2011b; Maierová et al., 2014). The vertical extrusion of the  
149 dome was accompanied by intrusions of kilometer-scale granitoid dykes emplaced along  
150 both axial-planar zones of sub-domes and detachment fabrics (Parry et al., 1997; Lehmann  
151 et al., 2013; Závada et al., 2017). The dynamics of doming is attributed to the combined  
152 effect of continuous accumulation of crustal material above a west-dipping subduction zone  
153 (Chopin et al., 2012a; Mazur et al., 2012), and opposite indentation of a continental buttress  
154 from the east (Schulmann & Gayer, 2000; Štípská et al., 2006; Košuličová & Štípská, 2007).

155 The subduction to exhumation processes operated in the period between 360 and 330Ma  
156 (Steltenpohl et al., 1993; Lange et al., 2005a, 2005b; Anczkiewicz et al., 2007; Bröcker et al.,  
157 2009, 2010; Skrzypek et al., 2017).

### 158 The metagranitic rocks in the Orlica–Śnieżnik dome

159 The core of the dome is dominated by metagranitic rocks, classically subdivided into two  
160 types, named according to the type localities: (1) the coarse-grained augen to banded  
161 Śnieżnik type; (2) the mylonite, ultramylonite and migmatite Gieraltow type (Fig. 1) (e.g.  
162 Fischer, 1936; Don et al., 1990; Chopin et al., 2012a, 2012b). Although there is discussion  
163 about the origin and age of these rock types (Redlińska-Marczyńska et al., 2016), most of the  
164 studies interpret the textural variations as resulting from different degrees of deformation,  
165 metamorphism and anatexis of the same Cambrian granite protolith (Kröner et al., 2001;  
166 Lange et al., 2002, 2005a; Bröcker et al., 2009; Chopin et al., 2012b). The mylonitic and  
167 migmatitic varieties are associated with eclogite and granulite, whereas the augen-type  
168 dominated domains were deformed and metamorphosed together with adjacent  
169 amphibolite-facies metasedimentary rocks. Consequently, the metamorphic conditions of  
170 different types of gneiss reveal contrasting P–T conditions. For instance, Bröcker & Klemd  
171 (1996) inferred conditions of 2.8 GPa for a gneiss at a contact with eclogite. Combined  
172 petrological and microstructural study interpreted a sample sequence from a strain gradient  
173 close to the eclogite belt as reflecting different stages of prograde metamorphism (Chopin et  
174 al., 2012b), as follows. The least deformed augen orthogneiss represents a solid-state low-  
175 strain domain equilibrated at 1.2–1.5 GPa, 600–670°C. Progressive localization of strain in  
176 the mylonitic gneiss during burial, possibly accompanied by partial melting, was coeval with  
177 equilibration at 1.9 GPa, 700–770°C. A melt inclusion study from a felsic granulite showed  
178 trapping conditions for melt at 2.7 GPa, 875°C, suggesting near UHP conditions of melting  
179 (Ferrero et al., 2015). In contrast, the orthogneiss in direct ductile structural continuity with  
180 hanging-wall paragneiss was metamorphosed at 0.8 GPa, 600°C (Jastrzebski et al., 2019).  
181 These petrological studies indicate that the orthogneiss experienced a variable degree of  
182 deformation and burial within a continental subduction wedge.

183 The metamorphic conditions and the relation of migmatite formation to the structural  
184 succession remain controversial. For example, Turniak et al. (2000) considered the

185 migmatite formation as a HT–LP event incompatible with eclogite boudins. Similarly, [Lange](#)  
186 [et al. \(2002\)](#) suggested that the migmatite formation overprinted the strain gradient and  
187 therefore is syn- to posttectonic. In contrast, [Chopin et al. \(2012b\)](#) interpreted melting as  
188 syntectonic with continental subduction. The age of anatexis of  $\sim 340\text{--}360\text{Ma}$  was  
189 determined from zircon rims in metagranitic migmatites ([Turniak et al., 2000](#); [Lange et al.,](#)  
190 [2005a](#)) and on zircon in leucosomes and granitoid mobilizates ([Štípská et al., 2004](#); [Bröcker](#)  
191 [et al., 2009](#)).

## 192 ANALYTICAL METHODS

### 193 Analytical methods for Sr–Nd isotopic composition

194 Strontium and neodymium isotopic compositions were obtained at the Czech Geological  
195 Survey. Samples were dissolved using a combined HF–HCl–HNO<sub>3</sub> digestion. Strontium and  
196 rare earth element (REE) fraction were isolated from the bulk matrix by ion-exchange  
197 chromatography techniques using AG 50W-X8 resin (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc.). The  
198 Sr.spec resin (Triskem Intl.) was used for purification of the Sr fraction ([Pin et al., 2014](#)), the  
199 Nd cut was purified using Ln resin (Triskem Intl.; [Pin & Zalduegui, 1997](#)). Isotopic analyses  
200 were performed on a Triton Plus (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.) thermal ionization mass  
201 spectrometer in static mode using a single Ta and double Re filament assembly for Sr and  
202 Nd, respectively. The  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  ratios were corrected for mass fractionation to  
203  $^{146}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.7219$  and  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios assuming  $^{86}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr} = 0.1194$ . External  
204 reproducibility and measurement accuracy was demonstrated by repeated analyses of the  
205 NBS 987 [ $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.7102536 + 0.000018$  (2 $\sigma$ , n.54)] and JNdi-1 [ $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} =$   
206  $0.5120996 + 0.000010$  (2 $\sigma$ , n.33)] reference materials (see [Jochum et al., 2005](#)).

207 The Rb, Sr, Sm and Nd concentrations were obtained by inductively coupled plasma mass  
208 spectrometry (ICPMS). The decay constants applied to age-correct the isotopic ratios are  
209 from [Steiger & Jäger \(1977\)](#) (Sr) and [Lugmair & Marti \(1978\)](#) (Nd). The  $\epsilon$  values and  
210 singlestage CHUR Nd model ages were obtained using the Bulk Earth parameters of  
211 [Jacobsen & Wasserburg \(1980\)](#); the two-stage Depleted Mantle Nd model ages (T) were  
212 calculated after [Liew & Hofmann \(1988\)](#). The Sr–Nd isotopic data for the studied  
213 metagranitic migmatites are listed in [Table 1](#).

## 214 Analytical methods for mineral compositions

215 Mineral analyses and compositional maps were obtained by electron probe microanalysis  
216 (EPMA) using a JXA-8530F by JEOL with a field emission gun electron source, at the  
217 Institute of Petrology and Structural Geology, Charles University, Prague, Czech Republic.  
218 The operating conditions were accelerating voltage 15 kV and beam current 30 nA in focused  
219 beam mode for spot analyses of garnet and titanite, 15 kV and 20 nA with beam defocused to  
220 5 mm for spot analyses of micas and feldspars, and 20 kV and 80 nA for element mapping.  
221 Representative analyses are given in [Tables 2–7](#).

## 222 Field relations and metagranite textures and Sr–Nd isotopes in the study area

### 223 *Field relations and metagranite textures*

224 The focus of the study is an ~2 km wide belt of metagranite around an eclogite-bearing belt  
225 in the central part of the OSD. It is dominated by narrow-banded and mylonitic rock types  
226 that can be both migmatitic and non-migmatitic, and alternate with other migmatitic types,  
227 as specified below. These metagranite rock types pass to the east and to the west into thick-  
228 banded and coarse-augen non-migmatite types. Field relations and textural types of the  
229 metagranite with the most pronounced migmatite textures were studied in a series of  
230 outcrops located to the west of the eclogite-bearing belt ([Fig. 1](#)). They involve rare augen and  
231 banded types, and metagranite with nebulitic, patchy and schlieren textures ([Figs 2 and 3](#)).  
232 We use the term banded type I where the bands of recrystallized quartz, plagioclase and/or  
233 K-feldspar have sharp boundaries and appear macroscopically monomineralic ([Figs 2a and](#)  
234 [3c](#)); the term banded type II is used where the recrystallized K-feldspar bands appear  
235 macroscopically monomineralic, but have diffuse boundaries, and bands of quartz and  
236 plagioclase are ill defined ([Figs 2b, e and 3a, b](#)). We use the term nebulitic for nearly  
237 homogeneous distribution of phases without obvious macroscopically identified preferred  
238 mineral orientation, in places resembling a fine-grained granite ([Figs 2c, e and 3a–c, e](#));  
239 patchy for irregular distribution of predominantly felsic domains ([Fig. 3a](#)); and schlieren for  
240 types with polymineralic or monomineralic bands elongated parallel to foliation within a  
241 nearly isotropic matrix ([Figs 2d, e and 3a, b, d](#)). In most metasedimentary migmatites (e.g.  
242 [Milord et al., 2001](#)), the schlieren are dominated by biotite, but in the metagranite



243 migmatites studied, the schlieren are composed mostly of felsic minerals, the remnants of K-  
244 feldspar-rich bands and of quartz-rich domains (Figs 2d, e and 3b).  
245 Two deformation fabrics are recognized in the area. The first fabric is seen as a  
246 subhorizontal foliation S<sub>1</sub>, which is folded into centimetre- to metre-scale open to isoclinal  
247 folds with north–south-trending subvertical axial planes (Fig. 2e). The second fabric is a new  
248 vertical north–south-trending foliation S<sub>2</sub>, parallel to the north– south-trending subvertical  
249 axial planes. The subhorizontal foliation S<sub>1</sub> is defined by augen or bands of recrystallized K-  
250 feldspar, quartz and plagioclase, progressively passing through banded orthogneiss to  
251 macroscopically isotropic orthogneiss across the strain gradient. A similar textural sequence  
252 was described by Chopin et al. (2012b). In the folded banded orthogneiss, the  
253 monomineralic bands are commonly narrower in the limbs than in the hinges. This implies  
254 that the vertical fabric results from post-buckle flattening (Fig. 2e). Ultimately, the banded  
255 orthogneiss in the F<sub>2</sub> limbs commonly passes gradually, on a centimetre-scale, from narrow-  
256 banded into patchy, schlieren and nebulitic types (Fig. 2e). The rock structure therefore  
257 shows a crenulation cleavage, where the banded orthogneiss is progressively transformed  
258 into various types of migmatite in high-strain zones parallel to the axial planes of the F<sub>2</sub>  
259 folds. The boundaries between the migmatite types are commonly gradational, on a scale of  
260 several centimetres, parallel to the subvertical zones. The internal structure of the S<sub>2</sub>  
261 foliation in the migmatite types is defined by orientation of polymineralic bands, schlieren  
262 and locally by quartzo-feldspathic patches. In the nebulitic orthogneiss the macroscopic  
263 foliation is illdefined, but on scale of a several centimetres it locally contains schlieren or  
264 ‘ghosts’ of banded orthogneiss layering parallel to the regional S<sub>2</sub> fabric (Fig. 2e).

#### 265 *Sr–Nd isotopes*

266 To attempt to decipher the genetic link between rock types, Sr–Nd isotope values were  
267 measured in five rock samples: in the banded type II, banded type II to schlieren, nebulitic to  
268 schlieren and nebulitic (Fig. 4, Table 1). All initial isotopic ratios are recalculated to 340 Ma,  
269 the age of migmatite formation (Lange et al., 2005a). All rock types reveal relatively similar,  
270 negative  $\epsilon_{340}$  Nd values between –4.6 and –6.7. The two metagranite samples (banded type  
271 II and banded type II to schlieren) show most negative  $\epsilon_{340}$  Nd values of –6.4 and –6.2. The  
272 data correspond to fairly uniform two-stage Nd depleted-mantle model ages (TDM Nd .

273 1.42–1.56 Ga), which are consistent with other orthogneiss occurrences in the Bohemian  
274 Massif. Initial Sr ratios are similar for all metagranite types, ranging from 0.7236 to 0.7258.  
275 These values concur with previously published data (Kröner et al., 2001; Lange et al., 2005a)

## 276 PETROGRAPHY AND MINERAL CHEMISTRY

277 Seventy thin sections were studied, from which we show petrographic and mineral chemistry  
278 data from six representative samples collected at locality S841 (50°13'56.6"N, 16°45'16.2"E;  
279 location of the thin sections is indicated in Fig. 3, and representative mineral analyses are  
280 presented in Tables 2–7). The textures and petrography are documented in Figs 5 and 6, and  
281 typical garnet, phengite and biotite compositions are shown in Figs 7 and 8. Trends in  
282 mineral composition or zoning in the text are marked with '>', and '-' designates a range of  
283 mineral compositions; p.f.u. is per formula unit. We use white mica (Wm) where we refer to  
284 a diagram or to the rocks, because in diagrams and in rocks the composition of white mica  
285 changes continuously from phengite to muscovite. We use phengite (Ph) where the observed  
286 white mica has phengitic composition and where we refer to the observed HP mineral  
287 assemblage. Abbreviations for mineral endmembers are alm = Fe/(Ca + Fe + Mg + Mn), py  
288 = Mg/(Ca + Fe + Mg + Mn), grs = Ca/(Ca + Fe + Mg + Mn), sps = Mn/(Ca + Fe + Mg + Mn),  
289 XFe = Fe/(Fe + Mg), an = Ca/(Ca + Na + K), and ab = Na/(Ca + Na + K).

### 290 Microstructures

291 The mineral assemblage in all rock types is K-feldspar, plagioclase, quartz, phengite, biotite,  
292 garnet and titanite. Accessory minerals are apatite, zircon, ilmenite and rutile. The major  
293 difference between the metagranite types is the spatial distribution of felsic phases and  
294 micas. In the banded type I rocks, K-feldspar and quartz form monomineralic layers of  
295 recrystallized grains, which alternate with plagioclase-rich bands (Fig. 5a) that have  
296 numerous interstitial white mica and some biotite at grain boundaries. White mica  
297 associated with biotite also forms bands or aggregates arranged subparallel to the foliation.  
298 These features are typical of solid-state mylonitization of granite (Schulmann et al., 2008).  
299 The microstructure of the banded type II orthogneiss is characterized by the K-feldspar  
300 bands having interstitial cusped quartz, plagioclase droplets and myrmekite-like aggregates  
301 along the grain boundaries (Figs 5b, e–h and 6a). Similarly, interstitial plagioclase and K-

302 feldspar with typically low dihedral angles  $<30^\circ$  occur in the quartz bands. With increasing  
303 proportion of interstitial phases, the originally monomineralic bands appear as  
304 polycrystalline aggregates, rich in K-feldspar, whereas the plagioclase- and quartz-rich bands  
305 are ill-defined. K-feldspar grains show cusped-lobate boundaries with respect to plagioclase  
306 and quartz, as well as myrmekite-like aggregates (Fig. 6a), the grain size of which increases  
307 from the contact of K-feldspar to the matrix. There, it appears as an equigranular aggregate  
308 of plagioclase and quartz. In the schlieren and patchy rock types, it is sometimes possible to  
309 define K-feldspar, quartz-rich and mica-rich domains within a matrix characterized by a  
310 nearly homogeneous distribution of phases (Fig. 5c). In the nebulitic rock types, the  
311 distribution of the felsic phases and micas is nearly homogeneous (Fig. 5d). Large K-  
312 feldspar, plagioclase and quartz grains (up to 0.5 cm in diameter) occur in places in some  
313 schlieren, patchy and nebulitic types, and in places contain inclusions of  
314 phengite (Figs 5d and 6b).

#### 315 Textural relations of phengite, biotite, garnet, rutile, titanite and ilmenite

316 In the banded types of metagranite, phengite associated with biotite tends to appear in bands  
317 or elongated aggregates parallel to the  $S_2$  foliation, whereas in the schlieren, patchy and  
318 nebulitic types, it forms randomly distributed large flakes (Fig. 6a–c). In all the types,  
319 phengite is found also at contacts with K-feldspar, quartz, plagioclase and myrmekite (Fig.  
320 6a and b), and locally it is included in large K-feldspar, plagioclase or quartz grains (Fig. 6b).  
321 These microstructural changes are associated with destruction of monomineralic banding  
322 and with coarsening, and these microstructural changes occurred in the presence of  
323 phengite. In places, phengite crystals tend to be larger than biotite crystals (Fig. 6c). The  
324 phengite grains commonly have small to large biotite grains at their margins or along their  
325 cleavage, and in places appear in crystallographic continuity with biotite (Fig. 6c and d).  
326 These features suggest biotite formation at the expense of phengite. Garnet ( $<2$  vol. %) is  
327 small (up to 500  $\mu\text{m}$ ), has irregular shapes and commonly is fragmented (Figs 6c and 7).  
328 Garnet occurs at contacts with K-feldspar, plagioclase, quartz and biotite. Some garnets are  
329 surrounded by clusters of biotite, suggesting that these biotites formed at the expense of  
330 garnet (Fig. 6c). Titanite appears as clusters or individual grains associated with, or included  
331 in, phengite and biotite, and also as individual grains in the quartzofeldspathic matrix.

332 Titanite cores commonly contain rutile, whereas the rims are locally surrounded by ilmenite  
333 (Fig. 6e), suggesting the crystallization succession rutile to titanite to ilmenite.

### 334 Mineral chemistry

335 Garnet composition in all rock types is dominated by almandine and grossular with minor  
336 pyrope and spessartine components. Some of the core regions are chemically homogeneous.  
337 The garnet rims are zoned with increasing almandine content, decreasing grossular content  
338 and XFe, and commonly with slightly decreasing or nearly constant spessartine and slightly  
339 increasing or nearly constant pyrope contents. The most common compositions in cores are  
340 grso.40–0.45, almo.48–0.55, pyo .01–0.02, spso.01–0.02, XFe 0.96–0.98 and at rims grso.25–  
341 0.35, almo.60–0.65, pyo.03–0.08, spso.01–0.04, XFe 0.90–0.92 (Fig. 7). Some garnet crystals  
342 show rims and/or narrow, crack-like zones or patches that interrupt the main zoning  
343 patterns. In these zones, spessartine, almandine and pyrope contents are higher and  
344 grossular content is lower compared with the composition of the host garnet, and the  
345 individual endmember values can reach grso.18, almo.68, pyo.09, spso.25, XFe 0.87. When  
346 garnet is fragmented, garnet zoning is cut through the core region and there is no zoning  
347 towards the fragmented edges, even at contact with biotite (Fig. 7c and e).

348 Phengite shows in all rock types zoning from core to rim, with decreasing Si, Ti and  
349 increasing XFe (Fig. 8a). The most phengitic mica with Si = 3.40 p.f.u. is included in large K-  
350 feldspar grains; matrix phengite core composition ranges are Si = 3.27–3.40 p.f.u., Ti = 0.02–  
351 0.10 p.f.u. and XFe = 0.47–0.55, exceptionally XFe = 0.66–0.70. The rim compositions are Si  
352 = 3.10–3.25 p.f.u., Ti = 0.01–0.08 p.f.u. and XFe = 0.50–0.70, exceptionally 0.80.

353 Matrix biotite has similar composition to biotite at contacts or in crystallographic continuity  
354 with phengite with XFe = 0.65–0.75, Ti = 0.10–0.25 p.f.u. and Mn = 0.00– 0.03 p.f.u. (Fig.  
355 8b). In contact with, or in close proximity to, garnet, biotite XFe and Mn contents tend to be  
356 higher and Ti contents tends to be lower than for matrix biotite (XFe = 0.72–0.82, Ti = 0.00–  
357 0.13 p.f.u., Mn = 0.02–0.03 p.f.u.).

358 Plagioclase included with phengite in K-feldspar blasts is albite (an = 0.06–0.10); cores of  
359 matrix plagioclase tend to be albite (an = 0.05–0.10) whereas rims are oligoclase (an = 0.10–  
360 0.23). Anorthite content in plagioclase in myrmekite varies between 0.14 and 0.23.

361 K-feldspar has negligible anorthite content and cores tend to be more rich in albite (ab =

362 0.08–0.13) compared with rims ( $ab = 0.01–0.10$ ).

### 363 Interpretation of petrography and mineral compositions

364 Petrography and mineral composition are summarized and the significant features are  
365 interpreted, to give context to the modelling in the subsequent mineral equilibria section.  
366 The major difference between the metagranite types is the spatial distribution of felsic  
367 phases, which is characterized by the following features: (1) monomineralic layers of  
368 recrystallized K-feldspar, quartz and plagioclase in the banded type I orthogneiss; (2) the  
369 occurrence of few interstitial phases in the originally monomineralic layers of the banded  
370 type II orthogneiss; (3) the increasing amount of interstitial phases in the schlieren and  
371 patchy rock types; (4) the nearly homogeneous distribution of phases in the nebulitic rock  
372 type. The occurrence of interstitial grains and cusped forms of feldspar are regarded as a  
373 result of dissolution–reprecipitation, promoted by the presence of melt and possibly also by  
374 crystallization from melt (Sawyer, 2001; Hasalová et al., 2008b; Holness & Sawyer, 2008;  
375 Závada et al., 2018). The higher amount of interstitial phases leads to the progressive  
376 disappearance of monomineralic banding from the banded type I orthogneiss, through the  
377 banded type II orthogneiss to schlieren, patchy and nebulitic migmatite, and is thus  
378 interpreted as a result of more pronounced dissolution–reprecipitation and possibly also  
379 crystallization from melt (Hasalová et al., 2008b). It is not implied that this sequence of  
380 increased textural modification relates to the amount of melt that the rocks contained at one  
381 time. The minerals that reprecipitated or crystallized from melt probably relate to the  
382 cumulative effect of the textural modification in the presence of melt.

383 The main characteristics of the metagranitic migmatite involve virtually the same mineral  
384 assemblage garnet+phengite+biotite+titanite+K-feldspar+plagioclase+quartz in all the  
385 studied textural types, with very similar mineral compositional trends. Phengite occurs in all  
386 the studied types, and is texturally stable with interstitial plagioclase and quartz in K-  
387 feldspar-rich bands (Fig. 6a). Phengite and albite occur as inclusions in coarse K-feldspar  
388 and quartz grains, where phengite has the highest measured Si (3.40 p.f.u.), indicating that  
389 both minerals were protected from late re-equilibration (Fig. 6b). The microstructural  
390 criteria for the presence of crystallized melt as discussed, with the presence of phengite and  
391 albite, indicate melt-assisted textural changes in migmatites at HP conditions.

392 Garnet element mapping shows the presence of fracture-like zones through the garnet cores  
393 that have diffuse boundaries and composition corresponding to the intermediate zone in  
394 garnet (e.g. [Fig. 7c](#)). Such areas may represent ‘fractures’ where garnet re-equilibrated with a  
395 melt-present assemblage, whereas core compositions may still partly reflect prograde garnet  
396 growth. This diffuse zoning contrasts with sharp zoning in areas where garnet is next to  
397 biotite, indicating that diffusion rate and therefore also temperature was lower when  
398 biotite grew at the expense of garnet compared with the temperature of the garnet diffuse  
399 zoning and fracture-like zone formation.

400 The retrograde textural features involve growth of biotite around phengite and along its  
401 cleavage, and local replacement of phengite in crystallographic continuity ([Fig. 6d](#)). Biotite is  
402 clustered around garnet, which also indicates replacement of garnet by biotite ([Fig. 6c](#)).

#### 403 FORWARD PHASE DIAGRAM MODELLING

404 A forward phase diagram modelling approach was used to calculate the mineral assemblages  
405 and mineral compositions that might have equilibrated in metagranite. We aim to find the  
406 conditions that allow for the presence of granitic melt in the field of phengite stability, as  
407 well as the conditions under which the observed migmatite formation and migmatite  
408 textural variation occurred. However, modelling of anatexis of quartzofeldspathic rocks at  
409 eclogite-facies conditions requires discussion of (1) the stability of clinopyroxene and (2)  
410 whether the granitic melt model can be used, given that it was not calibrated specifically for  
411 high-pressure conditions.

412 Experiments show that jadeite is stable in quartzofeldspathic rocks at (U)HP conditions, so  
413 the very rare presence of clinopyroxene in rocks with quartzofeldspathic compositions in  
414 (U)HP terranes ([Young & Kylander-Clark, 2015](#)) is enigmatic. The common absence of  
415 clinopyroxene in quartzo-feldspathic rocks led to suggestions that quartzo-feldspathic rocks  
416 do not typically equilibrate at (U)HP conditions, or equilibrate but re-equilibrate on  
417 decompression. Many studies argue for non-equilibration ([Young & Kylander-Clark, 2015](#);  
418 [Palin et al., 2017](#)) and explain it by kinetic arguments ([Koons et al., 1987](#)), or by lack of fluid  
419 or deformation ([Rubie, 1986](#)). Samples of granitic orthogneiss studied by ([Chopin et al.](#)  
420 [2012b](#)) occur 1 km to the NE of the study area. These samples contain phengite and Carich  
421 garnet together with dynamically recrystallized feldspar and quartz, indicating that these

422 rocks were highly deformed and equilibrated at HP conditions. The samples from this study  
423 also lack clinopyroxene, and contain phengite and high-Ca garnet together with  
424 recrystallized feldspar and quartz. Therefore, they experienced strong deformation, inferred  
425 to have occurred at high pressure and in the presence of melt, so nonequilibration owing to  
426 the absence of fluid does not explain the absence of clinopyroxene. First, we explore phase  
427 diagrams with clinopyroxene stable, then we assume that clinopyroxene did not nucleate and  
428 phase diagrams are calculated on that basis.

429 The haplogranitic melt model used ([White et al., 2014](#)) is not specifically calibrated for  
430 modelling at highpressure conditions. However, it has been used successfully to explain  
431 observed mineral equilibria in quartzo-feldspathic rocks at HP-HT conditions ([Štípská et al.,](#)  
432 [2008](#); [Hopkins et al., 2010](#); [Lexa et al., 2011](#); [Nahodilová et al., 2014](#)). Therefore, we also used  
433 the melt model at lower temperature conditions at high pressure and evaluated the results.

434 The wet solidus cannot be calculated with the melt model above 1.2 GPa, therefore for melt-  
435 bearing assemblages we take into account only calculations above the experimentally  
436 determined P–T conditions of the wet solidus (e.g. 600–650°C). The results are used only  
437 below 1.8 GPa and well above the wet solidus. The H<sub>2</sub>O amount was first set to correspond  
438 to crystal-bound H<sub>2</sub>O in micas for the H<sub>2</sub>O-absent assemblage typical of a granite at  
439 MP-MT conditions. With such an amount of H<sub>2</sub>O, a P–T pseudosection was calculated to  
440 discuss stable mineral assemblages and the position of the solidus that would correspond to  
441 metamorphic assemblages and conditions of melting of a granite in a closed system. We  
442 infer that melt or H<sub>2</sub>O generated in deeper and hotter rocks can migrate upwards, therefore  
443 the effect of addition of granitic liquid on mineral equilibria was assessed. In the first  
444 approach an amount of melt is reintegrated into the whole-rock composition to discuss its  
445 influence on mineral equilibria and on the solidus position in a P–T pseudosection. It is  
446 shown that this approach is almost equivalent to just adding H<sub>2</sub>O to the bulk composition.  
447 So, in the second approach the amount of H<sub>2</sub>O, M(H<sub>2</sub>O), is varied, as a proxy for addition  
448 of hydrous granitic melt, and the influence on mineral equilibria and solidus position is  
449 discussed in P–M(H<sub>2</sub>O) and T–M(H<sub>2</sub>O) phase diagrams. Simple addition of H<sub>2</sub>O fluid as a  
450 physical process is excluded as the rocks are at a P–T well above their wet solidus. Results  
451 from each diagram are discussed in the context of the observations on the rocks studied.

452 **Calculation methods**

453 Phase diagrams were calculated using THERMOCALC 3.40 with dataset 6.2 (Holland &  
454 Powell, 2011, 6 February 2012 upgrade) in the system MnO-Na<sub>2</sub>O-CaO-K<sub>2</sub>O-FeO-MgO-  
455 Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-SiO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O-TiO<sub>2</sub>-O (MnNCKFMASHTO). Activity models except for clinopyroxene  
456 (Green et al., 2007) are those used in White et al. (2014); albite, rutile, kyanite, sillimanite,  
457 quartz, titanite, and H<sub>2</sub>O are considered pure endmembers. For calculations, the whole-rock  
458 ICP-MS composition of the banded type II orthogneiss 2E2 was used. The Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was  
459 calculated as a difference from a total iron oxide expressed as Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (ICP-MS) and FeO  
460 determined by dichromate titration (performed in the Bureauveritas Laboratories). The  
461 resulting whole-rock compositions after addition of granitic liquid (first approach) or for  
462 H<sub>2</sub>O variation (second approach) used for calculation are presented as insets in each  
463 diagram, in mole per cent normalized to 100%. Mineral composition isopleths were plotted  
464 for garnet and white mica to discuss the P–T conditions of their equilibration. The diagrams  
465 calculated are used also for the discussion of the evolution of the other metagranite types,  
466 because of their closely similar bulk compositions. Phase diagrams with crystal-bound H<sub>2</sub>O,  
467 stable and metastable with respect to omphacite The H<sub>2</sub>O content was set to 1.70 mol %,  
468 allowing stability of the H<sub>2</sub>O-free and garnet-free assemblage Wm+Bt+Ksp+Pl+Qz+Ilm+Rt  
469 at MP\_MT conditions, representing the major minerals typically stable in a granite. A  
470 calculated phase diagram with omphacite stable (Fig. 9) fails to explain the main assemblage  
471 of the rocks in several ways. It shows stability of omphacite above 1.2 GPa and 600°C, but  
472 there is no evidence of omphacite in the rocks. It does not predict stability of titanite, which  
473 is present in all the rock types. The highest modelled isopleth for Si-in-phengite is Si = 3.30  
474 p.f.u., whereas the measured phengite has up to Si = 3.43 p.f.u.; the highest modelled  
475 grossular isopleth is 40%, which only partly corresponds to up to 45% of grossular measured.  
476 A diagram excluding omphacite, in other words metastable with respect to omphacite (Fig.  
477 10a-d), shows larger stability fields of biotite, and plagioclase and albite are stable to high  
478 pressure. The grossular and Si-in-phengite isopleths increase up pressure within the biotite  
479 stability field. However, the diagram still fails to explain the coexistence of titanite with  
480 phengite. The calculations in the next subsection, involving melt addition, show how the  
481 observed mineral assemblage and mineral compositions can be accounted for. Figure 10a–d



482 can be used to explain part of the prograde path in the fields of Grt–Wm–Bt–Rt–Pl/Ab, with  
483 garnet cores compatible with prograde growth from 1.2 GPa and 600°C to 1.7 GPa and 700–  
484 750°C, explaining also rutile inclusions in titanite, the composition of phengite and the start  
485 of partial melting.

486 P–T diagram with added melt Assuming that melt generated in deeper and hotter rocks can  
487 migrate upwards, the melt composition can be taken from calculations above the Liq-in line  
488 indicated by the star in Fig. 10a and reintegrated in the whole-rock composition. The  
489 resulting P–T phase diagram with 5 mol % of integrated melt is shown in Fig. 10e–h. The  
490 diagram shows the H<sub>2</sub>O-undersaturated solidus at higher pressure compared with the phase  
491 diagram with 1–70 mol % H<sub>2</sub>O, a large stability field of titanite at the HP and LT side of the  
492 diagram, and the titanite–rutile transition running from 600°C, 0.7 GPa to 800°C, 2.1 GPa.  
493 The diagram shows a stability field of Grt–Wm–Bt–Ttn–Pl–Kfs–Liq between 0.8 and 1.9  
494 GPa and 620 and 770°C, corresponding to the observed assemblage. The calculated  
495 compositional isopleths at conditions of 1.5–1.7 GPa and 690–740°C are compatible with the  
496 measured core compositions of garnet and phengite. The trends of zoning to the rims of  
497 garnet and white mica are compatible with decompression through 700°C and 1.0 GPa,  
498 with local equilibration down to the ilmenite stability field.

499 The P–T conditions from the migmatite are compatible with P–T estimates for other  
500 neighbouring rocks such as mylonitic orthogneiss (1.9 GPa, 700–770°C, Chopin et al.,  
501 2012b) and eclogite (2.2 GPa, 700–800°C, Štípská et al., 2012), for which a retrograde path  
502 from 0.9 GPa, 730°C to 0.5–0.6 GPa, 550–650°C was calculated (Bröcker & Klemd, 1996).  
503 This also supports the use of the haplogranitic melt model in the equilibria modelling above  
504 the wet solidus and in the range of 0.5–2.5 GPa.

#### 505 P–M (H<sub>2</sub>O) diagram

506 The dependence of the assemblage and mineral composition on the amount of H<sub>2</sub>O in the  
507 whole-rock composition (taken as a proxy for the amount of H<sub>2</sub>O brought in by the hydrous  
508 granitic melt composition) was tested in a P–M(H<sub>2</sub>O) diagram at T = 730°C (Fig. 11). The  
509 major features of the diagram involve a Liq-in line running from M(H<sub>2</sub>O) = 0.85 and  
510 0.7 GPa to M(H<sub>2</sub>O) = 4.15 and 2.5 GPa. The titanite and rutile stability are dependent on  
511 M(H<sub>2</sub>O) in the Liq-absent fields and are dependent on pressure in the Liq-present fields.

512 Titanite in the Liq-present fields is stable at  $P > 1.5$  GPa and  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O}) > 0.2$ . The compositional  
513 isopleths of Si-in-phengite and grossular and almandine in garnet are mostly dependent on  
514 the  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O})$  in Liq-absent fields, but are almost independent of the  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O})$  in the Liq-  
515 present fields, even if the equivalent amount of melt increases with higher  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O})$ .

516 The diagram shows stability of the observed assemblage Grt–Wm–Bt–Ttn–Pl–Kfs–Liq for  
517  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O}) > 2.05$  over the pressure interval 1.6–1.9 GPa. This is in agreement with results  
518 from the pseudosection where melt was added (Fig. 10e) and shows that using  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O})$   
519 as a proxy works well. The calculated compositional isopleths in this field are in agreement  
520 with most commonly measured core compositions of phengite ( $\text{Si} = 3.40\text{--}3.30$  p.f.u.) and  
521 garnet ( $\text{grs} = 0.45\text{--}0.40$ ,  $\text{alm} = 0.47\text{--}0.53$ ). The independence of the compositional variables  
522 from  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O})$  precludes estimation of the amount of melt in individual rock types and  
523 explains the identical assemblage and very similar mineral compositions in texturally very  
524 different types of migmatites.

525 In Fig. 11, at the estimated P–T of the start of melt infiltration, a horizontal arrow indicates  
526 the effect of the infiltration. The starting position at  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O}) = 1.65$  mol %, indicates an  
527  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  content that allows the stability of the observed mineral assemblage with rutile and  
528 without titanite, as titanite is observed to overgrow rutile. This  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O})$  is reasonable for a  
529 granite, and allows stability of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ -free and garnet-free assemblage Wm–Bt–Ksp–Pl–Qz–Ilm–  
530 Rt at MP\_MT conditions (see Fig. 10). From this starting position, infiltration will increase  
531  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in the mineral assemblage by the growth of white mica from 10 to 15 mol % (not  
532 shown). The arrow then reaches the solidus, which implies the first appearance of melt in the  
533 system. Further along the horizontal arrow, the hydrous mineral proportions do not change,  
534 with the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  increasing in the system by the increase in melt proportion. The position of  
535 any rock along the arrow depends on the amount of melt that the rock contains at the  
536 instant the infiltration of melt proceeds; with no melt in the rock, the rock sits at the solidus.  
537 The vertical part of the arrow represents what happens during decompression if infiltration  
538 continues to occur. The system (rock plus infiltrating melt) remains in the higher  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O})$   
539 part of the diagram above the solidus. In fact, given that melt migration is likely to vary as  
540 decompression occurs, the rock plus melt may lie anywhere from the solidus to the higher  
541  $M(\text{H}_2\text{O})$  part of the diagram. With decompression, the hydration of the rock itself follows  
542 the solidus to lower water content. Ultimately, and not represented in this figure, the final

543 water content of a rock depends on the amount of melt remaining in the rock that  
544 crystallizes there once infiltration ceases. This amount of melt is likely to be unrelated to the  
545 cumulative infiltration that the rock has experienced.

546 The dependence of the assemblage and mineral composition on the amount of H<sub>2</sub>O for Liq-  
547 absent fields and its independence for Liq-present fields is also shown in the T–M(H<sub>2</sub>O)  
548 diagram at P = 1.7 GPa (Fig. 12). The major feature of this diagram is its division by a Liq-in  
549 line running from M(H<sub>2</sub>O) = 0.86 and 800°C to M(H<sub>2</sub>O) = 3.8 and 650°C. The stability of  
550 titanite, rutile and biotite in the Liq-absent fields is dependent mainly on the amount of  
551 H<sub>2</sub>O, whereas in the Liq-present fields it depends mainly on temperature. Similarly, the  
552 mineral compositional isopleths of Si-inphengite and grossular are dependent on M(H<sub>2</sub>O)  
553 in Liq-absent fields, but independent of M(H<sub>2</sub>O) in Liq-present fields, even if the amount of  
554 melt increases with higher M(H<sub>2</sub>O). The observed assemblage Grt–Ph–Bt–Ttn–Pl–Kfs–Liq  
555 is stable for M(H<sub>2</sub>O) > 2.1 mol % H<sub>2</sub>O, and the core mineral compositions of phengite (Si =  
556 3.4–3.3 p.f.u.) and garnet (grs = 0.45–0.40, alm = 0.47–0.53) roughly correspond to a  
557 temperature range of 700–740°C.

## 558 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

559 Metagranitic migmatites occur in the vicinity of eclogite boudins within a continental  
560 subduction wedge exhumed in the form of a mantled gneiss dome in the Bohemian Massif.  
561 Our field study shows that the transition of metagranite to migmatite occurs in localized  
562 zones with a subvertical fabric, which formed by folding and local transposition of a  
563 precursor shallow-dipping fabric (Fig. 2). On the basis of grain-scale modification of the  
564 originally monomineralic bands into polymineralic aggregates, we argue that the cause was  
565 grainscale melt migration through the rocks (Fig. 5). The melt migration, although being  
566 pervasive at a grain scale, varied in intensity on a scale of several centimetres to several  
567 metres.

568 Textural variations in the migmatite appear to reflect variable intensity of melt–rock  
569 interaction (Fig. 2). These variations are similar to the migmatite transitions described in  
570 metagranite by Hasalová et al. (2008a, 2008b, 2008c), who also interpreted them to be the  
571 result of pervasive grain-scale melt migration through the rock. Whereas such melt  
572 migration has been advocated to occur in leucosome generation (Sawyer, 2001), it was first

573 considered as a larger scale melt transport mechanism in felsic crust by Hasalová et al.  
574 (2008a, 2008b, 2008c) and Závada et al. (2018). Via forward-modelling of the mineral  
575 assemblages, migmatite formation and the formation of the observed mineral assemblage  
576 Grt+Ph+Bt+Ttn+Kfs+Pl+Qz and mineral compositions are inferred to develop only if H<sub>2</sub>O  
577 was added to the rocks (Fig. 10). Being above the P-T conditions of the wet solidus, the  
578 hydrating fluid must have been a hydrous melt. Melt infiltration occurred at about 1.5–1.7  
579 GPa and 690–740°C and may have continued to occur down to 0.7–1.0 GPa during the  
580 retrograde history. Modelling also shows that the melt-bearing mineral assemblage and  
581 mineral compositions are almost independent of the amount of melt migrating through the  
582 system, thus accounting for virtually identical mineral assemblages and mineral  
583 compositions, independent of the migmatite type, but also hampering estimation of the  
584 amount of melt based on mineral equilibria (Figs 11 and 12).

585 In a larger-scale tectonic context, according to the subduction–relamination–extrusion  
586 model of Chopin et al. (2012a) and Maierová et al. (2014, 2018), the original shallow-  
587 dipping fabric is related to progressive burial. During burial, solid-state deformation and  
588 incipient melting occurred at 1.9 GPa and 700–770°C (Chopin et al., 2012b), whereas  
589 relatively low-strain domains remained melt-free (Fig. 13a and b). The steep fabric is related  
590 to crustal-scale upright folding of the orogenic crustal layers, where the lower crustal HP  
591 rocks are exhumed in cores of crustal-scale antiforms, and by this process the high-pressure  
592 rocks are juxtaposed with mid-crustal rocks that have maximum MP conditions occurring in  
593 crustal-scale synforms (Fig. 13a; see also Štípská et al., 2004, 2012; Chopin et al., 2012a). In  
594 the interior of this granulite–gneiss dome subvertical deformation zones developed, parallel  
595 to an axial planar cleavage. In these zones of high deformation, the mylonitic and migmatitic  
596 rocks were flowing considerably more rapidly towards the Earth’s surface compared with  
597 surrounding rocks (Štípská et al. 2004), while the whole dome was growing en bloc and all  
598 levels were exhuming simultaneously (Štípská et al., 2012). This tectonic scenario is  
599 portrayed in the schematic illustration in Fig. 13a. The extrusion may be enhanced by  
600 delamination of the deeply subducted lithosphere (Willner et al., 2002).

601 In the area studied, migmatites develop along vertical deformation zones associated with  
602 upright folding of prograde shallow-dipping fabrics (Fig. 13a and c). The mineral assemblage  
603 and mineral equilibria modeling of the migmatites suggest melting at 1.5–1.7 GPa and 690–

604 740°C, and partial re-equilibration to 0.7–1.0 GPa, indicating that these zones were melt-  
605 bearing, with melt infiltration during exhumation from 60km to 25km (assuming lithostatic  
606 pressure and density of metagranite 2.8gcm<sup>-3</sup>) (Fig. 13a, c and e). In other words, the  
607 migmatites and the adjacent rocks not being infiltrated by melt were transported from a  
608 deeper structural level of 60km to 25km in a more or less coherent 2 km wide structural  
609 domain in the core of a crustal-scale antiform (Figs 1 and 13a; Štípská et al., 2012). Via the  
610 progression of this deformation zone, the high-pressure metagranites were juxtaposed with  
611 midcrustal rocks occurring in a crustal-scale synform 5 km to the east (Figs 1 and 13a; see  
612 also Štípská et al., 2004, 2012). Therefore, incipient melt infiltration probably already  
613 occurred at a depth of 60km in the shallow-dipping fabric. More significant melt infiltration  
614 occurred during transition to and within the subvertical fabric, starting at a depth of 60 km.  
615 Thus, melt infiltration affected a significantly larger volume of rock in which the subvertical  
616 fabric S<sub>2</sub> was localized, compared with the volume of rock with the shallow-dipping fabric  
617 S<sub>1</sub>, occurring in the low-strain domains of the second deformation (Fig. 13a–c). Melt  
618 infiltration led to a shift of the H<sub>2</sub>O-undersaturated solidus to higher pressure and allowed  
619 the localized zones infiltrated by melt to evolve as melt-bearing (Fig. 13e), whereas the zones  
620 that were not infiltrated by melt evolved as melt-free (Fig. 13d). The source of the hydrous  
621 melt is probably melt lost from similar rocks buried deeper, where they crossed their H<sub>2</sub>O-  
622 undersaturated solidus (Fig. 10a). This is supported by the similarity of the Sr and Nd  
623 isotope characteristics of all the metagranite types, indicating the same protolith and that the  
624 infiltrating melt had its source in similar rocks (Fig. 4). Melt transport was not localized in  
625 leucosomes or a network of dykes, but melt migrated at grain scale. These heterogeneously  
626 developed subvertical melt-bearing zones induced a major rheological weakening  
627 (Rosenberg & Handy, 2005) that promoted further localized deformation and may have  
628 aided exhumation of deeply subducted crust (Závada et al., 2018). In the model presented,  
629 the melt is collected into dykes only at upper crustal levels, where syntectonic granite to  
630 granodiorite sills intruded the interface between high-grade dome and low-grade  
631 metasediments parallel to axial planes of large upright folds or sub-domes (Fig. 13a) (Závada  
632 et al., 2017).

633 SUMMARY

- 634 • Subducted eclogite-facies granitic crust dominated by augen and banded metagranite types  
635 has subvertical localized domains with migmatite textures ranging from stromatic to  
636 schlieren, to patchy and nebulitic.
- 637 • Destruction of mineral banding of metagranites happened through grain-scale melt  
638 migration. Grain-scale melt migration may be a dominant process of melt transfer in  
639 metagranitic migmatites, which is in contrast to a localized melt transport paradigm based  
640 on observations in metasedimentary migmatites.
- 641 • The observed assemblage in all the metagranite migmatite types  
642  $\text{Grt}+\text{Ph}+\text{Bt}+\text{Ttn}+\text{Kfs}+\text{Pl}+\text{Qz}$  is stable in the modeled phase diagrams if  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  or hydrous  
643 melt is added to the whole-rock composition. This implies that melting is not driven by  
644 dehydration melting but by addition of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Being above the P-T conditions of the wet  
645 solidus the hydrating fluid must have been a hydrous melt and the process cannot be called  
646 fluid-fluxed melting but is melt-fluxed melting.
- 647 • Migmatite textures result from variable degree of melt–rock interaction starting at 1.7 GPa  
648 and  $730^\circ\text{C}$  and ending at 0.7–1.0 GPa, implying that the granitic crust underwent melting at  
649 eclogite-facies conditions, which has, so far, rarely been reported.
- 650 • Melt infiltration along steep deformation zones facilitated exhumation of HP rocks in cores  
651 of antiforms.

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