Cryogenian magmatism along the north-western margin of Laurentia: Plume or Rift?

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Abstract

Here we present a new U-Pb baddeleyite ID-TIMS age of 713.7 ± 0.9 Ma on the Tatonduk dykes, which occur as a mafic swarm near the Yukon-Alaska border in the Proterozoic Tatonduk inlier. The dykes are considered to be equivalent to the Pleasant Creek Volcanics, a stack of basaltic to intermediate flows that lie above a major erosional disconformity and immediately beneath iron formation-bearing Sturtian glacial deposits correlated with the early Cryogenian Rapitan Group. Hence, the Tatonduk dykes were emplaced during the Sturtian snowball Earth event and contribute to the growing body of geochronological data that indicate its onset ca. 717 Ma. Furthermore, this age provides direct evidence for the syn-glacial origin of Sturtian iron formation in the Tatonduk inlier. Considering their apparent overlap with what is inferred to represent the Franklin Large Igneous Province (LIP) of northern Canada, the Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk dykes might logically be considered a far-flung component of the Franklin Large Igneous Province. However, they occur in an actively extending environment >1200 km from the plume head on Melville Island and do not obviously align with the Franklin dyke trend. Furthermore, major, trace and isotopic data on the Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk dykes reveal a composition that is entirely unique from the Franklin LIP and most
likely reflect melting of potassic- and trace element-enriched sub-continental lithospheric Mantle. These volcanics and dykes highlight the complexity in defining what constitutes a LIP. The Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk dykes either represent a non-plume end-member composition of the Franklin LIP, or more likely, rift volcanics associated with extension along the actively extending margin of north-west Laurentia. Although the plume and rifting may be geodynamically linked, this interpretation suggests that this new age on the Tatonduk dykes does not constrain the timing of Franklin magmatism.

Keywords: Franklin Large Igneous Province, Cryogenian, Shoshonites, Snowball Earth, Rift Volcanics

Introduction

The record of mafic magmatism in northern Laurentia during the late Tonian to early Cryogenian (ca. 730–710 Ma) is dominated by magmatic events associated with the breakup of Rodinia and the emplacement of the Franklin Large Igneous Province (LIP) (Denyszyn et al., 2009b; Macdonald et al., 2010). LIP events are closely associated with continental breakup (Courtillot et al., 1999) and commonly involve the eruption of $10^5$–$10^6$ km$^3$ of mafic magmas over a few million years or less (Sobolev et al., 2011). Where these eruptions take place on a continent, the result can be a massive Continental Flood Basalt (CFB) province that covers $>10^5$ km$^2$ with hundreds to thousands of metres of dominantly mafic lava flows.

Extrusive igneous rocks associated with the Franklin LIP in northern Canada are dominated by basalt to basaltic andesites (i.e., continental tholeiites; Bedard et al., 2016; Dostal et al., 1986), typical of most continental flood basalts (CFBs), and are thought to be derived from a deep-seated mantle plume (Dostal et al., 1986; Rainbird, 1993; Shellnutt et al., 2004).
However, no high temperature picrites have been reported. The Franklin LIP differs from many other examples of LIPs in that magmatism spanned >10 m.y. (based on currently ages; Fig. 1), and possibly as long as 15 m.y. if nearly coeval mafic magmatism in southwestern Siberia (Ernst et al., 2016) records an early phase of the event. The Franklin LIP was emplaced in tropical central Rodinia (Denyszyn et al., 2009b; Fig. 2) and the duration of its emplacement spanned the onset of early Cryogenian Sturtian glaciation (i.e., 717 Ma; Macdonald et al., 2010). It was also an exceptionally large event, with dykes extending > 1200 km from the hypothesized plume head centred on Melville Island (Fig. 2A). Ernst et al., (2008) estimated an original surface area of 2.2×10^6 km^2 for the Franklin LIP, but if Kikiktak basalts of the North Slope block of Arctic Alaska (Cox et al., 2015) and Siberian mafic intrusions also record the Franklin LIP, its original areal extent may have been much greater (Cox et al., 2016b).
Figure 1. Temporal distribution of U-Pb zircon and baddeleyite ages on magmatic rocks in N-NE Laurentia broadly related to the Franklin Large Igneous Province (Denyszyn et al., 2009a), along with additional ages from NW Laurentia and Siberia that are tentatively ascribed to the Franklin event (Cox et al., 2016b; Ernst et al., 2016). Sources radiometric ages: a (Denyszyn et al., 2009b), b (Denyszyn et al., 2009a), c (Heaman et al., 1992), recalculated from Macdonald and Wordsworth (2017), d (Pehrsson and Buchan, 1999), e (Macdonald et al., 2010), f (Cox et al., 2015), g (Ernst and Soderlund, 2012), h,i (Ariskin et al., 2013). Age of the onset of Sturtian glaciation from Macdonald et al. (2010).
Figure 2. (A) Distribution of Franklin aged magmatism across Canada. Star denotes focal point of radial Franklin dykes - considered the approximate centre of the mantle plume source. (1) (Denyszyn et al., 2009a) (2) (Denyszyn et al., 2009b) (3) (Pehrsson and Buchan, 1999) (4) (Halls et al., 2010) (5) (Macdonald et al., 2010) (6) (Cox et al., 2015) (7) (Heaman et al., 1992) (8) this study. (B) Paleogeographic reconstruction from Merdith et. al., (2017) at ~ 750 Ma. A-A, Afif-Abas Terrane; Am, Amazonia; Az, Azania; Ba, Baltica; Be, Borborema; By, Bayuda; Ca, Cathaysia (South China); C, Congo; Ch, Choritis; G, Greenland; H, Hoggar; I, India; K, Kalahari; L, Laurentia; Ma, Mawson; NAC, North Australian Craton; N-B, Nigeria-Benin; NC, North China; Pp, Paranapanema; Ra, Rayner (Antarctica); RDLP, Rio de la Plata; SAC, South Australian Craton; SF, São Francisco; Si, Siberia; SM, Sahara Metacraton; WAC, West African Craton. Shaded grey area is inferred extent of Rodinia and is meant as a guide only. Cratonic crust is coloured by present day geography: North America, red; South America, dark blue; Baltica, green; Siberia, grey; India and the Middle East, light blue; China, yellow; Africa, orange; Australia, crimson; Antarctica, purple.

The Pleasant Creek Volcanics and associated Tatonduk Dykes (hereafter referred jointly as the Tatonduk suite) of the Tatonduk inlier (Fig. 3) are a well-preserved mafic to andesitic suite that occurs stratigraphically below what are now recognized to be Sturtian–age glacial deposits and associated iron formation (Macdonald et al., 2009; Macdonald et al., 2010; Rooney et al., 2014; Strauss et al., 2013). Whereas previous unpublished K-Ar ages on these dykes yielded middle Ediacaran ages (Van Kooten et al., 1997), the occurrence of the Pleasant Creek Volcanics beneath Cryogenian strata and the fact that the dykes cross-cut Tonian strata indicate that both the lavas and dykes are equivalent and must be late Tonian to early Cryogenian in age (Macdonald et al., 2010; Macdonald et al., 2011). Importantly, because the volcanics rest above a major unconformity that truncates carbonates of the underlying Fifteenmile Group but appear to be transitional into the overlying Rapitan Group glacial deposits, we infer that the flows post-date onset of the Sturtian glaciation.
Figure 3. Schematic lithostratigraphic correlation middle Tonian to Ediacaran strata across four Proterozoic inliers spanning Yukon, modified from Macdonald et al. (in press) and references therein. H.C. = Hay Creek Group; Rap. = Rapitan; P.C. = Pleasant Creek Volcanics; E.C. = Eagle Creek Formation; L.D. = Little Dal Group; MMSG = Mackenzie Mountains Supergroup; Cu-cap = Copper Cap Formation; Thund. = Thundercloud Formation; S.K. = Stone Knife Formation; Silver. = Silverberry Formation T.S. = Ten Stone Formation; S.S. = Snail Spring Formation. Note that the thick Mount Harper Group, which records the late Tonian in the Coal Creek Inlier, is entirely absent in the Tatonduk Inlier, where the basal Cryogenian unconformity places the Pleasant Creek Volcanics directly on upper Fifteenmile Group rocks. Previously published radiometric ages from Macdonald et al. (2010, in press), Rooney et al (2014, 2015), Strauss et al. (2014), Baldwin et al., (2016), Milton et al. (2017), Jefferson and Parrish (1989).
Figure 4. Regional map of the Tatonduk Inlier showing the distribution of Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk Dykes.
Here we present a new $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ID-TIMS baddeleyite age of $713.7 \pm 0.9$ Ma on the Tatonduk Dykes, along with new petrographic and geochemical analyses on both the dykes and associated flows of the Pleasant Creek Volcanics. Although this mafic suite temporally overlaps the Franklin LIP, its compositions are distinct from those of the Franklin CFB, including associated radiating dyke swarms, sills and major volcanic flows. Specifically, the Tatonduk suite appears to represent melting of metasomatized sub-continental lithospheric mantle (SCLM). We propose that these rocks represent one end member in a continuum between Continental Flood Basalt (CFB) magmatism associated with the core of the Franklin LIP and younger rift-related volcanism that influenced a massive area of northern Laurentia during protracted break-up of the Rodinia supercontinent (Macdonald et al., 2017).

Regional Geology

Proterozoic rocks of the Yukon block outcrop in a series of inliers that span central Yukon in northwestern Canada: the Wernecke, Hart River, Coal Creek, and Tatonduk inliers (Fig. 3). These inliers comprise Proterozoic strata that have historically been subdivided into three sequences (A, B, C; Rainbird et al., 1996). Sequence A strata include the ca. 1.6 Ga Wernecke Supergroup. Sequence B includes Tonian-aged strata of the Mackenzie Mountain Supergroup, and Sequence C strata include the latest Tonian to early Paleozoic Windermere Supergroup (Fig. 3). Latest Tonian to earliest Cryogenian volcanic rocks and associated dykes occur in both the Coal Creek and Tatonduk inliers. A detailed discussion of ages and stratigraphic and tectonic context of the Mount Harper Volcanics in the Coal Creek inlier are given in Macdonald et al. (this volume). Recently acquired paleomagnetic data on the Mount Harper Volcanics imply that the Yukon block has rotated $55^\circ$ counterclockwise relative to autochthonous Laurentia, most likely contemporaneous with deposition of Sequence C (Eyster et
al., 2017). Rotation of the Yukon block, along with development of Sequence C basins, was likely linked to long-lived strike-slip displacement along the Cordilleran margin (Eyster et al., 2017; Strauss et al., 2015) preceding full opening of the margin and initiation of a passive margin in the latest Ediacaran to early Cambrian (Colpron et al., 2002; Macdonald et al., this volume).

The Tatonduk inlier is the westernmost of the inliers and straddles the Yukon-Alaska border (Fig. 3). Here, strata of what were previously assigned to the upper part of the Lower Tindir Group (Young, 1982) were reassigned by Macdonald et al. (2011) to the Fifteenmile Group, which unconformably overlies older strata inferred to be the equivalent of the Pinguicula Group (formerly included in the lower part of the Lower Tindir Group). The Fifteenmile Group is in turn unconformably overlain by the Cryogenian Pleasant Creek Volcanics, Rapitan Group, and Hay Creek Group. These, together with the Ediacaran, informal “Upper Group” (Macdonald et al., this volume), were previously ascribed to the Upper Tindir Group (Young, 1982). The late Tonian (ca. 755–717 Ma) Mount Harper Group, which is prominent in the Coal Creek inlier, is entirely absent in the Tatonduk inlier, such that the basal Cryogenian disconformity here represents a significant depositional hiatus.

The Pleasant Creek Volcanics occur directly above this disconformity and comprise a succession up to 330 m thick of basaltic to intermediate massive, pillowed lava flows, and volcanoclastic breccia (Young, 1982; Macdonald et al., this volume). The Pleasant Creek Volcanics are locally overlain by or interfinger with glaciomarine rocks of the Rapitan Group (Young, 1982). Due to poor exposure, the exact nature of this relationship is difficult to determine. Regionally, all of these units are unconformably overlain by breccia of the Hay Group (Macdonald et al., this volume). Although the contact between the Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Rapitan Group is nowhere exposed, clasts derived from the underlying Pleasant Creek Volcanics
occur in the lowermost Rapitan strata (Macdonald et al., this volume). These strata dominantly consist of finely laminated mudstone and siltstone with scattered lonestones and dropstones and prominent intervals of hematitic siltstone and jaspilitic iron formation (Cox et al., 2016a; Young, 1982; Macdonald et al., this volume). Paleocurrents in the Rapitan Group and stratigraphic geometries indicate a west-facing margin (in current coordinates; Young, 1982).

The Pleasant Creek Volcanics are considered equivalent to the Tatonduk dykes, which cross-cut the Fifteenmile Group strata and form a roughly north-south dyke swarm over an area of ~200 km² to the north of the Yukon Thrust (Fig. 3). Arcuate folding of the dykes is thought to be related to Jurassic displacement on the Yukon thrust. The original unfolded orientation of the dykes is unclear, but in present coordinates, it could range anywhere from 310° to 30°. Taking into consideration the apparent 55° counterclockwise rotation of the Yukon block relative to autochtonous Laurentia (Eyster et al., 2017), it is unlikely that the original dyke swarm paralleled the trend of the Franklin dyke swarm.

**Petrography of the Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk Dykes**

High MgO samples are characterized by euhedral to subhedral olivine (Fig. 4A-B), euhedral to subhedral clinopyroxene and sub-ophitic plagioclase laths (Fig. 4C-D). Minor phases include orthopyroxene, Fe-Ti oxides and rutile. Low MgO samples contain phenocrystic clinopyroxene (Fig. 4G), abundant plagioclase found as a groundmass mesh (Fig. 4G) and very fine-grained biotite (Fig. 4F). Volcanic samples contain glass along with glomeroporphyritic plagioclase and olivine (Fig. 4H-I). Mineral relationships suggest a crystallizing sequence of olivine, followed by clinopyroxene and plagioclase then biotite.
Figure 5 (A-B) Phenocrystic olivine including hopper varieties and clinopyroxene crystals with sub-ophitic plagioclase laths (x-polar). (C) Clinopyroxene and sub-ophitic plagioclase laths in a dark indistinguishable groundmass (x-polar). (D) Large clinopyroxene and sub-ophitic plagioclase laths. (E) Infilled vesicle surrounded by plagioclase, clinopyroxene and very fine grained biotite (x-polar). (F) Subhedral biotite (p-polar). (G) Large plagioclase, glass and glomeroporphyritic plagioclase and olivine. (H) Zoned plagioclase and glass.

Geochronology

Five baddeleyite crystals were analyzed from sample TI11-010, a course grained basaltic dyke (Table X, Fig. 6). Calculated weights were estimated using photomicrographs of selected grains, and are between 0.1 and 0.3 µg, with calculated U concentrations between 96 and 250 ppm. Th/U ratios are typically low in baddeleyite, and these analyses indicated Th/U ratios between 0.03 and 0.04, with one at 0.21. All data are concordant and the oldest four analyses form a coherent age cluster (Fig. 6) with one younger analysis, indicating the effect of Pb loss for that crystal. The coherence of the four older data argues against disturbance and Pb loss and
support our interpretation of the crystallization age corresponding to the older cluster. The weighted-mean $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age is presented here as the low abundance and relatedly larger analytical uncertainties in the measurement of $^{207}\text{Pb}$ and $^{235}\text{U}$ means that more meaningful age data are provided by the $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ system. The weighted mean $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age of the older four analyses is $713.7 \pm 0.9$ Ma ($2\sigma$, MSWD = 0.13, n = 4), taken as the preferred age for dyke crystallization.

![Concordia plot](image)

*Figure 6. Concordia plot of U-Pb data for Tatonduk dyke sample T111-010. Dashed ellipse denotes datum not included in the weighted-mean $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age.*

**Geochemistry**

The Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk Dykes range in composition from basalt through andesite, but the majority have K$_2$O concentrations that classify them as shoshonites (Fig. 7A) The most primitive composition observed has an MgO content of ~9%, and Mg# are elevated across all compositions, ranging from 72 at basaltic compositions to 58 at andesitic compositions (Fig. 7B). Major element cross plots show broadly coherent major element
variations, and Fe and Ti show little to no enrichment with decreasing Mg, typical of calc-alkaline magmatism (Fig. 8). Aluminum concentrations are invariant and average 15%, indicating that Al was buffered with respect to the crystallisation of plagioclase.

Figure 7. (A) K₂O vs. Na₂O showing potassic enrichment into the field of shoshonitic compositions. (B) Mg# vs. SiO₂ revealing the high Mg# across all compositions.
Figure 8. Major element cation plots along with mineral compositions. Blue field are the compositions produced via fractional crystallization of a water-saturated melt between 0.1 to 5 kb. Black line is the liquid line of descent for anhydrous fractional crystallization at 0.1 kb. Compositions were calculated using alphaMELTS (Smith and Asimow, 2005). Ol = Olivine, Pi = Pigeonite, Au = Augite, Bi = Biotite, ph = phlogopite, En = Enstatite, Di = Diopside, Py = Pyroxene, Pyr = Pyrope, Or = Orthoclase, Al = Albite, An = Anorthite.

From a trace element perspective, the lavas and dykes are enriched in large ion lithophile elements (LILE) and light rare earth elements (LREE: La-Ce-Pr) and have flat middle rare earth element (MREE) concentrations (Fig. 9A). The heavy rare earth elements (HREE), which are
sensitive to residual garnet, are distinctly unfractonated, with low Sr/Y (Ave. = 4.78) and (La/Yb)$_N$ (Ave. = 5.2) ratios indicative of melts that did form in equilibrium with residual garnet. Pronounced Ti and Nb depletions are evident, are largely invariant, and are difficult to reconcile with either crustal assimilation or mixing (Fig. 9B-C). Isotopically, these lavas and dykes are highly evolved with average $\varepsilon_{Nd}(t=713)$ compositions of -10.9. Similar to Nb anomalies, the evolved isotopic character is largely decoupled from variations in incompatible element abundances (Fig. 9D). Considering the unfractonated MORB-like Nd and Sm concentrations (Fig. 9A), these isotopic enrichments must be old to allow for the significant ingrowth of radiogenic Nd.

Figure 9. (A) Trace element plot normalized to N-MORB composition of Sun and McDonough (1989). (B and C) Ti anomaly ($Ti^*$) and Nb anomaly ($Nb^*$) where $Nb^* = Nb_N / \sqrt{U_N \times La_N}$ and $Ti^* = Ti_N / \sqrt{Eu_N \times Gd_N}$ and $N$ subscript denotes that all elemental concentrations have been normalized to bulk earth (CHUR). Dashed red lines are assimilation and fractional crystallization models based on a fractionating mineral assemblage of 11% olivine, 30% plagioclase and 60 % clinopyroxene resulting in bulk distribution coefficients of: $D_{Ol} = 0.254$, $D_{Pl} = 0.127$, $D_{U} = 0.027$, $D_{Gd} = 0.31$, $D_{Eu} = 0.92$, $D_{La} = 1.20$. $R$ values are the ratio of assimilation to fractional crystallization. The mineral assemblage was determined from alphaMELTS modelling (Smith and Asimow, 2005). Dashed black line is simple mixing with the upper continental crust. N-MORB = Normal Mid Ocean.
Ridge Basalt, OIB = Ocean Island Basalt, PM = Primitive Mantle and are from Sun and McDonough (1989). UCC = Upper Continental Crust and LCC = Lower Continental Crust and are from Taylor and McLennan (1995). (D) Epsilon Nd ($\varepsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$) vs. La with $\varepsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ calculated at 713 Ma.

**Petrogenesis**

The spectrum of observed major element compositions along with the observed mineralogy are most consistent with low pressure fractional crystallisation of a water-rich melt resulting in a fractional crystallisation sequence of olivine $\rightarrow$ clinopyroxene + plagioclase $\rightarrow$ clinopyroxene + plagioclase + biotite. Calculated phase diagrams for the parental and evolved melt supports this crystallisation sequence illustrating that primitive compositions will fractionate olivine then co-crystallise clinopyroxene and plagioclase (Fig. 10A), while the more evolved compositions should crystallise clinopyroxene, plagioclase and late biotite (Fig. 10B).
While the suite as a whole spans the spectrum of basalts to andesites, the andesites in particular have relatively high Mg#. Notable examples of high Mg# andesites include *sensu stricto* boninites (Crawford et al., 1989) as well as low-silica adakites (Castillo, 2006; Kelemen et al., 2013). It is generally thought that high Mg# andesites cannot be formed by melting of fertile mantle followed by protracted assimilation and/or fractional crystallization. For example, Kushiro (1969) showed experimentally that anhydrous melting of lherzolite could not produce a primary andesite. Furthermore, the addition of water had the effect of higher SiO$_2$ but with MgO offset lower than their anhydrous equivalents. Consequently, high Mg# andesites could not be obtained. This result has also been shown in more complex systems incorporating the effects of
CO₂ as well as H₂O (Liu et al., 2006). Falloon and Danyushevsky (2000) showed that melting of hydrated harzburgite at low pressures could produce a high Mg# andesite (*sensu stricto* boninites) while low-silica adakites are generated by melting of a mafic precursor followed by reaction with and melting of peridotite (Rapp et al., 1999; Rapp and Watson, 1995).

The Tatonduk suite of high Mg# andesites does not fit into the above categories; low Sr/Y and low (La/Yb)_N ratios are inconsistent with low-silica adakites, whereas the lack of a U-shaped REE profile (Cameron et al., 1983; Hickey and Frey, 1982; Kim and Jacobi, 2002) and a coherent liquid line of descent from basalts distinguishes them from boninites. Wood and Turner (2009) more recently showed that melting of hydrated depleted peridotite will produce high Mg# parental liquids (picrites), with both MgO and SiO₂ increasing in tandem with increasing unsaturation of peridotite in clinopyroxene, up to pressures of at least 6kb. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the most primitive composition observed in the Tatonduk suite (Mg# = 72 / Fo88) would seem to be in equilibrium with a peridotitic assemblage at ~5kb (Fig. 10A). Consequently the primary melt for the Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk Dykes may be a result of the relatively low pressure melting of hydrated depleted peridotite.

Evidence for a major-element depleted source is also apparent, for example, in comparisons of these lavas and dykes with mid-ocean ridge basalts (MORB) at a common 8% MgO. This comparison shows that this suite of lavas and dykes has comparatively high SiO₂, low CaO, low Na₂O and high Mg#. Low FeO and low TiO₂ are also apparent but likely reflect the combination of a depleted source and the calc-alkaline nature of the suite. Given a lherzolite source for MORB (Workman and Hart, 2005), such systematic differences are consistent with a mantle source depleted in major elements (Klein and Langmuir, 1987; Turner and Hawkesworth, 1995), as would be expected with undersaturation of clinopyroxene in the mantle source.
We suggest that the high Mg# character of this suite is a direct result of the primary melt being derived from a peridotite that was undersaturated in clinopyroxene. Furthermore, the development of high-Mg# andesites is a direct result of this initial high Mg# primary melt followed by the fractionation of a low Mg# gabbroic assemblage (Fig. 11), dominated by plagioclase and clinopyroxene ± biotite.
In contrast to the major element depletion, enrichment in K$_2$O, LILE, LREE and an evolved isotopic character are also apparent (Table 1, Fig. 9A). The invariant isotopic character and Nb anomalies (Fig. 9B-D) indicate only a minor role for upper crustal assimilation or mixing, despite significant LILE and LREE enrichment (Fig. 9A). This conclusion is supported by trace element modeling, which shows that assimilation of continental crust is incompatible with the observed trace element compositions (Fig. 9B-C).

Due to the lack of upper crustal assimilation involved in the petrogenesis of the Tatonduk suite, characteristics such as K$_2$O and trace element enrichment, large Nb and Ti depletions, along with a highly evolved isotopic character, must be related to the composition of the mantle source. Fractionation and assimilation from either a trace element-depleted or enriched source along a typical mantle array cannot produce the observed compositions (Fig. 12). Th/Yb and
Nb/Yb relationships (Fig. 12), combined with the requirement for significant ingrowth of radiogenic Nd would suggest early trace element enrichment of the mantle source followed by melting at 713 Ma. The age of this trace element enrichment is possibly constrained by a Nd/Sm pseudochron age of 1437 ± 23 (Fig. 13).

Figure 12. Th/Yb and Nb/Yb systematics after Pearce (2008). Grey dots are compositions of typical CFB while light blue dots are shoshonites. Dashed red lines are assimilation and fractional crystallization models based on a fractionating mineral assemblage of 11% olivine, 30% plagioclase and 60% clinopyroxene assimilating UCC (r = 0.9). UCC = Upper Continental Crust (Taylor and McLennan, 1995), OIB = Ocean Island Basalt, E-MORB = Enriched Mid Ocean Ridge Basalt, N-MORB = Normal Mid Ocean Ridge Basalt (Sun and McDonough, 1989), DMM = Depleted MORB Mantle (Workman and Hart, 2005), SC = Subduction component, AFC = Assimilation and Fractional Crystallisation, FC = Fractional Crystallisation, ME = Mantle Enrichment. CFB and shoshonite data is from the Earthchem database (http://earthchem.org).
Figure 13. $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ vs. $^{147}\text{Sm}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ at 0, 713 and 1437 Ma. The flat regression of the data at 1437 Ma corresponds to the calculated present day isochron age.
Igneous rocks associated with the Franklin LIP in northern Canada are dominated by basalt to basaltic andesites (i.e. continental tholeiites) (Bedard et al., 2016; Dostal et al., 1986), typical of most continental flood basalts and can be found as major flows, dykes and sills on Victoria Island (Bedard et al., 2016; Dostal et al., 1986), major flows in Arctic Alaska (Cox et al., 2015), along with numerous sills (e.g., Shelnutt et al., 2004) and dykes throughout northern mainland Canada and Greenland (Denyszyn et al., 2009a; Denyszyn et al., 2009b).

We use Ni/Mg and Sc/Fe ratios to explore similarities and differences between the Franklin LIP and the Tatonduk suite. Whereas both ratios are affected by assimilation and fractional crystallisation, magmatic rocks formed in different tectonic settings are delineated by this approach (Fig. 14A) because the ratios reflect differing mantle sources and degrees of partial melting. For example, Ni/Mg ratios are strongly governed by the modal abundance of olivine in the melt source and the contribution of olivine to the melt because olivine has a greater affinity for Ni than orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene, garnet or spinel. Generally, high Ni/Mg ratios in primitive melts reflect either a greater contribution of olivine to the melt (through higher degrees of melting or melting of harzburgite) or melting of garnet pyroxenite (Sobolev et al., 2005).

In contrast to Ni, Sc is incompatible in olivine and orthopyroxene and strongly compatible in garnet and clinopyroxene. As highlighted by Milidragovic and Francis (2016), Sc/Fe ratios are effective in discriminating between spinel and garnet peridotitic sources. When used in conjunction with Ni/Mg, three mantle end-members may be defined: spinel peridotite (high Sc/Fe, low Ni/Mg), garnet peridotite (low Sc/Fe, low Ni/Mg) and garnet pyroxenite (low Sc/Fe, high Ni/Mg). A fourth harzburgitic end-member may also be envisaged, which because it is depleted in iron and has a high modal abundance of olivine, would generate moderately high
Ni/Mg and moderately high Sc/Fe in harzburgite-derived basalts. These relationships control the distribution of basalts from differing tectonic settings as seen in Fig. 14A.

Figure 13 B-C shows that Ni/Mg and Sc/Fe ratios of both the Franklin CFB Tatonduk suite display significant variability, much of which can be explained by assimilation and fractional crystallisation. However, differences in Ni/Mg and Sc/Fe ratios persist even at primitive compositions, which suggests that much of these differences are inherited feature from their respective mantle sources. Back-calculation along their respective liquid lines of descent highlights these differences (Fig. 14A-B-C). The Pleasant Creek Lavas and Tatonduk Dykes are characterised by high Ni/Mg and moderately high Sc/Fe, suggesting derivation from a harzburgitic source. Considering their enrichment in potassium and trace elements and evolved isotopic signatures, we argue the likely harzburgitic source was metasomatised Laurentian sub-continental lithospheric mantle. In contrast, the basal Franklin lavas and flood cycle lavas define endmembers between spinel lherzolite and garnet lherzolite, consistent with the polybaric melting within the plume source envisaged for these CFB—fertile asthenospheric mantle.

It is evident that the major, trace and isotopic differences between the Franklin CFB and suite are not merely a consequence of calc-alkaline versus tholeiitic fractionation trends but reflect different mantle sources.
Figure 14. (A) 10000 x Ni/Mg vs. 10000 x Sc/Fe. Fields are calculated from kernel density estimates of ocean island basalts (OIB), continental flood basalts (CFB) and continental arcs (Arcs) from the EarthChem database (http://www.earthchem.org). MORB data is from Jenner and O’Neill (2012). Filled squares and circles are the estimates of 10000 x Ni/Mg and 10000 x Sc/Fe calculated at 16% Mg for each respective volcanic suite. (B) 10000 x Sc/Fe vs. Mg defining liquid line of descent for the Franklin basalt lavas (black squares and black line), Franklin flood cycle 1 and 2 (grey squares and grey line) and the Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk Dykes (blue circles and blue line). (C) 10000 x Ni/Mg vs. Mg defining liquid line of descent for the...
Late Tonian–Cryogenian Magmatism in Yukon

The 713.7 ± 0.9 Ma Tatonduk suite represents but one of a series of latest Tonian to middle Cryogenian magmatic events along the Cordilleran margin, spanning from the Tatonduk inlier to central Idaho. For example, the nearby Mount Harper Volcanics in the late Tonian Mount Harper Group in the Coal Creek inlier (Fig. 3) are well dated; along with flows in the overlying Eagle Creek Formation of the Rapitan Group, magmatism spanned from >718.1 to 716.5 Ma (Fig. 3; Macdonald et al., this volume). The Mount Harper Volcanics represent the culmination of a stretching event that began > 750 Ma and presumably influenced the whole of the Yukon block. The ca. 750–717 Ma Callison Lake Formation and its equivalent Coates Lake Group in the Mackenzie Mountains (Fig. 3) were both deposited in discrete, normal fault-bound basins, likely the product of a long-lived strike system that might have influenced the entire western margin of Laurentia from the late Tonian until the middle Ediacaran (Strauss et al., 2015). The overlying Seela Pass Formation records alluvial fan deposition on the hanging wall of the north-dipping Mount Harper Fault (Mustard, 1991; Mustard and Roots, 1997) and is transitional above with the Mount Harper Volcanics. Hence the ca. 718.1–716.5 Ma calc-alkaline magmatism (Fig. 15) in the Coak Creek inlier is robustly linked to a continental-rift setting.
Like the Mount Harper Volcanics, the the Tatonduk suite rocks fall on a distinctly calc-alkaline trend, rather than the more typical continental tholeiite trend typical of continental floods basalts such as the Franklin CFB (Fig. 15). Tatonduk magmatism is most parsimoniously interpreted to be the product of decompression melting of a metasomatized subcontinental mantle lithosphere, which implies that the magmatism was linked to continental extension. Whereas stratigraphic evidence of rifting coeval with volcanism is less straightforward in the Tatonduk inlier than in the Coal Creek inlier, the complete absence of strata equivalent to the late Tonian Mount Harper Group and significant erosional truncation of the underlying Fifteenmile Group in the Tatonduk inlier is consistent with local block rotation and uplift. Furthermore, the inferred w-facing basin margin during deposition of the Rapitan Group parallels the broad N-S trend of the Tatonduk dykes (Fig. 4). The implication is that the orientation of the Tatonduk dykes was the result of E-W extension (present day co-ordinates) rather than domal uplift and a radiating stress field expected of a mantle plume.

Figure 15.
We do not preclude a role for the Franklin plume in the petrogenesis of the Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk dykes (or Mount Harper Volcanic Complex), as it is plausible that the Franklin plume may have contributed heat to melt Laurentian sub-continental lithospheric mantle. However, we suggest that in the case of the Pleasant Creek Volcanics and Tatonduk dykes, the parsimonious explanation is that melting is related to decompression melting of metasomatised mantle during east-west extension along the western Laurentian margin.

**Conclusions**

Although their 713.7 ± 0.9 Ma age is similar to other mafic suites associated with the Franklin plume event (Fig. 1), the Tatonduk dykes and Pleasant Creek Volcanics are >1200 km from the plume head hypothesized for the Franklin CFB. They also do not obviously align with the Franklin dyke trend, even considering likely 55º counterclockwise rotation of the Yukon block in the Cryogenian to early Ediacaran (Eyster et al., 2017). Major, trace and isotopic data on the Tatonduk suite further reveal a composition that is entirely unique from the Franklin CFB and most likely reflects melting of potassic- and trace element-enriched Sub-Continental Lithospheric Mantle. We interpret this magmatism to be the product of decompression melting as the result of continental extension in the Yukon block, consistent with similar aged calc-alkaline magmatism and normal faulting in the Coal Creek inlier to the east (Macdonald et al., this volume). Whereas a link to emplacement of the massive Franklin LIP and its associated effect on continental break-up cannot be ruled out, this study highlights the complexity in defining what constitutes a LIP. Indeed, the overlap in ages between plume- and rift-related magmatism in northern Canada may contribute to the apparent anonymously long duration for the Franklin LIP as compared to better studied Phanerozoic examples (Macdonald and Wordsworth, 2017).
The Tatonduk magmatic suite also provides another example of early Cryogenian magmatism that yield consistent age constraints for the onset of Sturtian glaciation with those from the Coal Creek Inlier (Macdonald et al., 2010; this volume). Furthermore, the age and stratigraphic relationship of the Pleasant Creek Volcanics provides a maximum age constraint on the timing of deposition of Sturtian-age iron formation that is similar to constraints from the Mackenzie Mountains (Baldwin et al., 2016) and further allies the this iron formation to widespread mafic magmatism at this time.

Acknowledgements
This project was inspired by Charlie Roots, who provided enthusiastic support and guidance to GMC, GPH, and FAM in their projects in the Yukon. GMC’s involvement in this project was supported by a Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC) Vanier Fellowship. GPH acknowledges financial support for this project from the Yukon Geological Survey, NSERC Discovery and Northern Research grants, the Geoscience for Energy and Mapping (GEM2) program, and a Gledden Fellowship from the University of Western Australia.

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heterogeneities during Neoarchean global mantle melting: Geochemica et Cosmochimica
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This study
N–NE Laurentia
NW Laurentia
SW Siberia

Sturtian glaciation
A. Na$_2$O vs. K$_2$O plot showing the Ultra Potassic and Shoshonitic fields. The lines represent K$_2$O/Na$_2$O ratios of 2.0 and 0.5.

B. SiO$_2$ vs. Mg$#$ plot showing the distribution of various rock types, including Picrite, Basalt, Basaltic Andesite, and Andesite.
Water saturated fractional crystallization

High Mg# andesites
Supplementary information for:
Cryogenian magmatism along the north-western margin of Laurentia:

Plume or Rift?

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Sampling Methods

Sampling was conducted over 2 field seasons from traverses across the dykes and from measured sections for the lavas. The measured sections for the lavas is presented in Macdonald et al., (2011) and reproduced in Figure S1. Samples were chosen based on visual inspection with care taken to choose samples exhibiting the least amount of alteration, and specifically for the dykes, displaying no obvious signs of cumulate textures.

Figure S1. Measured sections for the Pleasant Creek Volcanics.
Analytical Methods

**U-Pb ID-TIMS Analysis:**

Baddeleyite crystals were separated using the Wilfley water-shaking table in a technique modified after Söderlund & Johansson (2002). This method, using a pipette to remove a concentrate of small, dense, flat minerals off the Wilfley table, yielded several small baddeleyite grains. No pre-treatment methods were used beyond cleaning the grains with concentrated distilled HNO₃ and HCl and, due to their small size, no chemical separation methods were required. For ID-TIMS analysis, the samples were spiked with an in-house ²⁰⁵Pb-²³⁵U tracer solution, which has been calibrated against SRM981, SRM 982 (for Pb), and CRM 115 (for U), as well as an externally-calibrated U-Pb solution (the JMM solution from the EarthTime consortium). This tracer is regularly checked using “synthetic zircon” solutions that yield U-Pb ages of 500 Ma and 2000 Ma, provided by D. Condon (BGS).

Dissolution and equilibration of spiked single crystals was by vapour transfer of HF, using Teflon microcapsules in a Parr pressure vessel placed in a 200°C oven for six days. The resulting residue was re-dissolved in HCl and H₃PO₄ and placed on an outgassed, zone-refined rhenium single filament with 5µL of silicic acid gel. U–Pb isotope analyses were carried out using a Thermo Triton T1 mass spectrometer, in peak-jumping mode using a secondary electron multiplier. Uranium was measured as an oxide (UO₂). Fractionation and deadtime were monitored using SRM981 and SRM 982. Mass fractionation was 0.02 ± 0.07 %/amu. Data were reduced and plotted using the software packages Tripoli (from CIRDLES.org) and Isoplot (Ludwig, 2009). All uncertainties are reported at 2σ.

The weights of the baddeleyite crystals were calculated from measurements of photomicrographs and estimates of the third dimension. The weights are used to determine U concentration and do not contribute to the age calculation, and an uncertainty of 50% may be attributed to the concentration estimate.

**XRF Analysis:**

Rock samples were first trimmed to remove weathered surfaces and then cut into ~5 cm³ fragments using a diamond-bladed rock saw. The rocks were crushed to rock chips in an iron jaw crusher. The chips where milled in a tungsten carbide mill until the powder could pass through a 75µm mesh. Major and trace element abundances were analyzed by X-ray fluorescence using a Philips PW2400 4kW automated XRF spectrometer system with a rhodium 60 kV end window X-ray tube. Major elements, Cr, Ni and V were analyzed using 32 mm diameter fused beads prepared from a 1:5 sample/lithium tetraborate mixture. Sc, Rb, Sr, Zr, Nb and Y were analyzed using 40mm diameter pressed pellets prepared at a pressure of 20 tons from a mixture of 10g sample powder with 2g Hoechst Wax C Micropowder. Calibration regression lines were prepared using between 15 and 40 International Standard Reference Materials. Corrections for mass absorption effects were applied on concentration values using a combination of alpha coefficients and/or Compton scatter. The accuracy for silica is within 0.5% absolute, and is within 1% for other majors and within 5% for trace elements. Instrument precision is within 0.3% relative, generally within 0.23% relative, and the overall precision for beads and pressed pellets is within 0.5% relative. Results can be found in the electronic supplementary material.
Trace Element Analysis:
Rock samples were first trimmed to remove weathered surfaces and then cut into ~5 cm$^3$ fragments using a diamond-bladed rock saw. The rocks were crushed to rock chips in an iron jaw crusher. The chips where milled in a tungsten carbide mill until the powder could pass through a 75µm mesh. The resulting powder was weighed (~0.02g) into cleaned teflon bombs and dissolved under pressure with a HF-HNO$_3$ mixture. The resulting solutions were evaporated and dissolved again in perchloric acid to facilitate conversion of fluoride salts to chloride salts. The samples were then dissolved in aqua-regia followed by 6N HCl then finally in 6N HNO$_3$. The resulting material was redissolved in 5% HNO$_3$ and analysed for trace elements on a Perkins Elmer quadruple ICP-MS. Results can be found in the supplementary material.

Sm-Nd ID-TIMS Analysis
Sm and Nd concentrations were determined by isotope dilution. Approximately ~ 0.3g of sample powder was spiked with enriched $^{150}$Nd-$^{149}$Sm tracers and dissolved under pressure with a HF-HNO$_3$ mixture in Teflon containers. The resulting solutions were evaporated and dissolved again in perchloric acid to facilitate conversion of fluoride salts to chloride salts. The samples were then dissolved in aqua-regia followed by 6N HCl. Nd and Sm were extracted using a three stage-chemistry procedure. The first stage involved the removal of Fe by passing the sample through columns filled with 200-400 mesh AG1X8 anion exchange resin. Subsequent to the removal of Fe, the REE component was concentrated using columns filled with Eichrom TRU Resin SPS 50-100µm. The third stage purification of the Sm and Nd fractions entailed passing the samples through columns filled with 600 mg of Eichrom LN Resin 100-150µm.

The $^{143}$Nd/$^{144}$Nd and $^{147}$Sm/$^{144}$Nd ratios reported were measured on a Thermo Triton mass spectrometer in the GEOTOP laboratories at Université du Québec à Montréal. Nd and Sm were analyzed using a double filament array with the samples loaded onto outgassed Re filaments, parallel to this was an outgassed Re ionization filament. Nd and Sm samples were measured in dynamic mode, the total combined blank for Sm and Nd is less than 150 pg. The reported Sm and Nd concentrations and the $^{147}$Sm/$^{144}$Nd ratios have less than 0.5% error, corresponding to an error of less than 0.5 ε$_{Nd}$ unit for the initial Nd isotopic composition. $^{146}$Nd/$^{144}$Nd was normalized to 0.7219 for mass fractionation corrections. Repeated measurements of JNdI-1 standard yielded a value of $^{143}$Nd/$^{144}$Nd = 512109 ± 1 (n =20) for the period of the study. This value is within error of the value obtained by Tanaka et al. (2000) of $^{143}$Nd/$^{144}$Nd = 0.512115 ± 7. Repeated measurements of BHVO-2 yielded a value of $^{143}$Nd/$^{144}$Nd = 0.512965 ± 6 (n = 20) for the period of the study. This value is within error of the accepted value of $^{143}$Nd/$^{144}$Nd = 0.51298 ± 12 (Jochum et al., 2005). The chondritic reference values used for ε$_{Nd}$ calculations are; $^{143}$Nd/$^{144}$Nd$_{CHUR}$ = 0.512636, $^{147}$Sm/$^{144}$Nd$_{CHUR}$ = 0.1966, and the decay constant for $^{147}$Sm was assumed to be 6.54 x 10$^{-12}$ a$^{-1}$. 

References


Table S1: U-Pb isotopic data for baddeleyites from the Tatonduk dyke (T10-010; 65.14021 N, 141.00488 W).

| Sample | wt. (μg) | U (ppm) | Pb TOTAL (μg) | Pb c (ppm) | mol% Pb | Tb | Th | \(^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U} \pm \) (%) | \(^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb} \pm \) (%) | \(^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb} \pm \) (%) | \(^{235}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U} \pm \) (%) | \(^{238}\text{U}/^{206}\text{Pb} \pm \) (%) | \(\rho\) | Age (Ma) | ± | Age (Ma) | ± |
|--------|---------|---------|--------------|-----------|--------|----|----|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------|--------|--------|-------------|
| 1      | 0.1     | 49      | 0.3          | 83        | 0.04   | 266 | 0.063308 | 0.88 | 0.17111 | 0.15 | 0.56 | 713.9 | 1.1 | 720.9 | 17.1 |
| 2      | 0.2     | 436     | 3.1          | 61        | 0.03   | 120 | 0.062175 | 5.14 | 1.0027 | 0.42 | 0.99 | 713.1 | 3   | 680   | 109.8 |
| 3      | 0.1     | 100     | 2            | 40        | 0.04   | 54  | 0.061429 | 7.88 | 0.9986 | 0.65 | 0.96 | 713   | 4.6 | 654   | 169  |
| 4      | 0.3     | 250     | 1.1          | 89        | 0.21   | 475 | 0.06368  | 5.49 | 1.0276 | 0.46 | 0.99 | 713.5 | 3.3 | 730.9 | 116.3 |
| 5      | 0.1     | 96      | 1.2          | 47        | 0.04   | 74  | 0.062565 | 5.52 | 0.9947 | 0.49 | 0.92 | 705.7 | 3.4 | 686.5 | 117.8 |

Sample weights are calculated from crystal dimensions and are associated with an arbitrary 50% uncertainty.

\(\text{Pb}} = \text{Total common Pb including analytical blank (0.8±0.3 pg per analysis). Blank composition is: } ^{206}\text{Pb}^{204}\text{Pb} = 18.55 \pm 0.63, ^{207}\text{Pb}^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.50 \pm 0.55, ^{208}\text{Pb}^{204}\text{Pb} = 38.07 \pm 1.56 \text{(all 2σ), and a } ^{206}\text{Pb}^{204}\text{Pb} – ^{207}\text{Pb}^{204}\text{Pb} \text{ correlation of 0.9.}

\(\text{Th/U calculated from radiogenic } ^{208}\text{Pb}^{206}\text{Pb} \text{ and age. Measured isotopic ratios corrected for tracer contribution and mass fractionation (0.02 ± 0.07 %/amu).}

\(\rho\) = error correlation coefficient of radiogenic \(^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U} \text{ vs. } ^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}.

All uncertainties given at 2σ.
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Trace element analysis (ppm):
Table S3. Sm/Nd isotopic analysis.

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