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TWO TYPES OF ARCHEAN CONTINENTAL CRUST: PLUME AND PLATE TECTONICS ON EARLY EARTH

MARTIN J. VAN KRANENDONK***

ABSTRACT. Over 4.5 billion years, Earth has evolved from a molten ball to a cooler planet with large continental plates, but how and when continents grew and plate tectonics started remain poorly understood. In this paper, I review the evidence that 3.5 Ga continental nuclei in Australia formed as thick volcanic plateaux over hot, upwelling mantle and survived due to contemporaneous development of a thick, buoyant, unsubductable mantle root. This type of crust is distinct from, but complementary to, high-grade gneiss terranes that formed through arc-accretion tectonics on what is envisaged as a vigorously convecting early Earth with small plates. Thus, it is proposed that two types of crust formed on early Earth, in much the same way as in modern Earth, but with distinct differences resulting from a hotter Archean mantle. A remaining question of how plate tectonics was initiated on Earth is investigated, using an analogy with Artemis Corona on Venus.

Key words: Archean, tectonics, continental crust, plumes, plates, subduction

INTRODUCTION

It has long been recognized that high-grade gneiss terranes (HGTs) and low-grade granite-greenstone terranes (GGTs) represent distinct types of Archean crust, identified on the basis of distinct rock types, structural styles, and metamorphic grade (Windley and Bridgwater, 1971). Whereas HGTs contained evidence of a horizontal tectonic regime (Bridgwater and others, 1974), GGTs were interpreted to be dominated by evidence for vertical tectonics (Macgregor, 1951; Anhaeusser, 1984; Hickman, 1984). Windley and Bridgwater (1971) suggested that the two types of crust represented different structural levels of the same crust, although alternative possible relationships include: 1) large greenstone basins formed on gneissic basement; 2) a continental margin model, whereby greenstone terrains developed adjacent to pre-existing protocontinental crust; or 3) collision, involving two unrelated segments of crust (Archibald and others, 1978; Gee and others, 1986; Campbell and Hill, 1988; Myers, 1995; Condie, 1997). More recent studies have shown that the relationship between high-grade and low-grade terrains is non-unique and may involve some, or all, of the above processes (Moser and others, 1996; Percival and others, 1997).

Debate has also focussed on whether modern-style plate tectonic (uniformitarian) processes applied to the growth of Archean continental crust—specifically, through growth in island arcs over subduction zones—or whether the tectonic style was different, dominated by vigorous mantle convection on a hotter early Earth with more buoyant crust, resulting in a more primitive form of tectonics characterized by crustal stretching, rifting and limited ocean opening, with limited sag-subduction, partial melting, and crust-mantle mixing processes (Talbot and Walton, 1973; Burke and

* Geological Survey of Western Australia, 100 Plain Street, East Perth, Western Australia 6004, Australia; e-mail: martin.vankranendonk@dmp.wa.gov.au

** Also at: School of Earth and Environment, The University of Western Australia, 35 Stirling Highway, Crawley, Western Australia 6009 Australia

others, 1976; Kröner, 1981; Bickle, 1986; Hamilton, 2003, 2007a; Stern, 2005). Still others have suggested that plumes may have been less frequent on early Earth and that plate velocities may have been less than today (Korenaga, 2006, 2008a, 2008b), although the only actualistic measurement of Archean plate motions suggests rates up to 5 times faster than modern day (Strik and others, 2003; Blake and others, 2004).

More recently, tectonic models for the growth of Archean GGTs have focused almost exclusively on arc-accretion processes, dominated by evidence from the Superior Province and from models developed for the Barberton Greenstone Belt of the Kaapvaal Craton, South Africa (Card, 1990; de Wit and others, 1992; Moyen and others, 2006; Percival, 2007). Such models have been widely applied to other cratons, with a few important exceptions (Wilson and others, 1995; Chardon and others, 1998; Bédard, 2006). In places where hotspot-related volcanic successions do occur, they are commonly interpreted as either the product of mantle plume-arc interaction within a subduction-accretion framework (Wyman and others, 2002), or allochthonous slices accreted onto the margins of continental crust (Hoffman and Ranalli, 1988; Condie, 1997).

However, a major problem with continental growth solely through arc-accretion is many subduction zones include significant erosion of the over-riding plate and that, in fact, the amount of subduction-erosion is roughly equivalent to the amount of crust added through arc magmatism (Scholl and von Heune, 2007). When combined with the fact that 30 percent of modern crustal growth is through eruption of large igneous provinces—as continental flood basalts and oceanic plateaux (Coffin and Eldholm, 1993)—this leaves open the question as to the relative importance of arc-accretion versus mantle plume-dominated crustal growth over time, particularly in the Archean, when the mantle was up to 250 °C hotter and upwelling mantle plumes would have been more common and produced more voluminous magmatism (Arndt, 2003; Herzberg and others, 2007, 2010).

In this paper, I review the evidence for crust formation processes in the East Pilbara Terrane of the Pilbara Craton, Australia and in the West Greenland part of the North Atlantic Craton, and contend that these represent two different types of crust, formed over upwelling mantle and a proto-subduction zone, respectively. This conclusion is used to suggest that the tectonic style of Paleoproterozoic Earth was similar to modern Earth, with growth of continental crust in two distinct environments relating to plate tectonics driven by convecting mantle. Differences between Archean and modern crust are considered to be the result of differences in mantle potential temperature, size of crustal plates, thickness of oceanic lithosphere, and crustal rheology as a function of higher geothermal gradients and radioactive heat in crustal granites.

EAST PILBARA TERRANE OF THE PILBARA CRATON: A VOLCANIC PLATEAU

The granite-greenstone crust of the Pilbara Craton in Western Australia has been divided into five distinct tectono-stratigraphic terranes, a number of syn- to late-tectonic clastic sedimentary basins, and widespread suites of pre-, syn-, and post-tectonic granitic rocks, as described in more detail elsewhere (fig. 1: Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a).

The 3.52 to 3.23 Ga East Pilbara Terrane (EPT) is the largest, oldest terrane, forming the nucleus of the craton (fig. 2). A key feature of the EPT is a thick (up to 17 km), upward-younging stratigraphy that was deposited in three autochthonous groups collectively referred to as the Pilbara Supergroup. The Pilbara Supergroup is dominated by mafic-ultramafic volcanic rocks that are interbedded with subordinate, but locally thick, accumulations of andesitic to rhyolitic volcanic rocks and thin interflow units of dominantly chemical sedimentary rocks (mostly silicified carbonates) (Van Kranendonk, 2006; Van Kranendonk and others, 2007b). The stratigraphic base of the

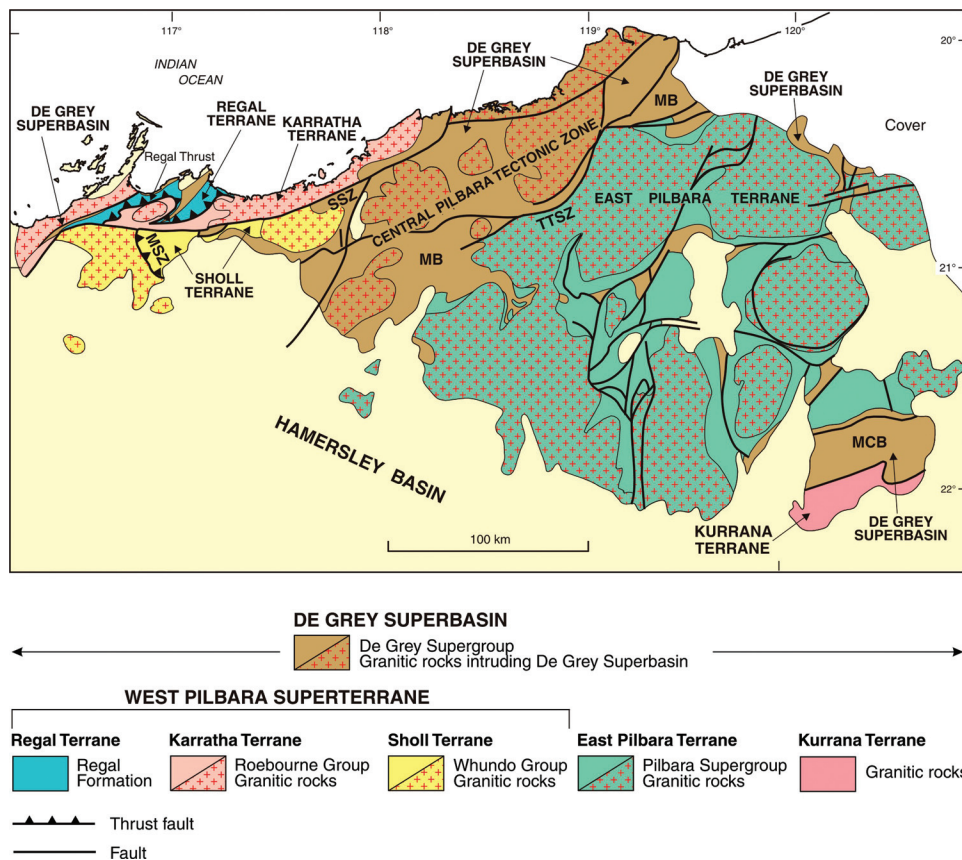


Fig. 1. Simplified geological map of the Pilbara Craton, showing terranes and major structures (from Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a). MB = Mallina basin; MCB = Mosquito Creek basin; MSZ = Maitland Shear Zone; SSZ = Sholl Shear Zone; TTSZ = Tabba Tabba Shear Zone.

two younger groups of the supergroup is marked by thick successions of mature to supermature clastic sedimentary rocks, including up to 1 km of cross-bedded quartz-rich sandstone that was derived, at least in part, through weathering and erosion of older continental basement up to 3602 Ma (Nelson, 1998; Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a). The base of the oldest group is everywhere an intrusive contact with younger granitic rocks, but data from inherited zircon, Nd-isotopic studies, and geochemical studies of granitic rocks indicate the involvement of older, at least in part, sialic, crust in the generation of even the oldest volcanic and granitic rocks (Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a; Smithies and others, 2009; Tessalina and others, 2010).

Rocks of the Pilbara Supergroup are preserved in (generally) steeply-dipping, synclinal greenstone belts that wrap around broad (average 60 km diameter), ovoid granitic domes (fig. 2: Van Kranendonk and others, 2002, 2004). The domes are composed of a variety of granitic rocks of different age and composition, ranging from 3.46 Ga tonalite-trondhjemite-granodiorite (TTG) to 2.85 Ga Sn-Ta-Li-bearing syenogranite (Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a, 2007b). Each of the domes contains a different proportion of the different age granitic suites, but all domes preserve the older components along their outer rind and successively younger components

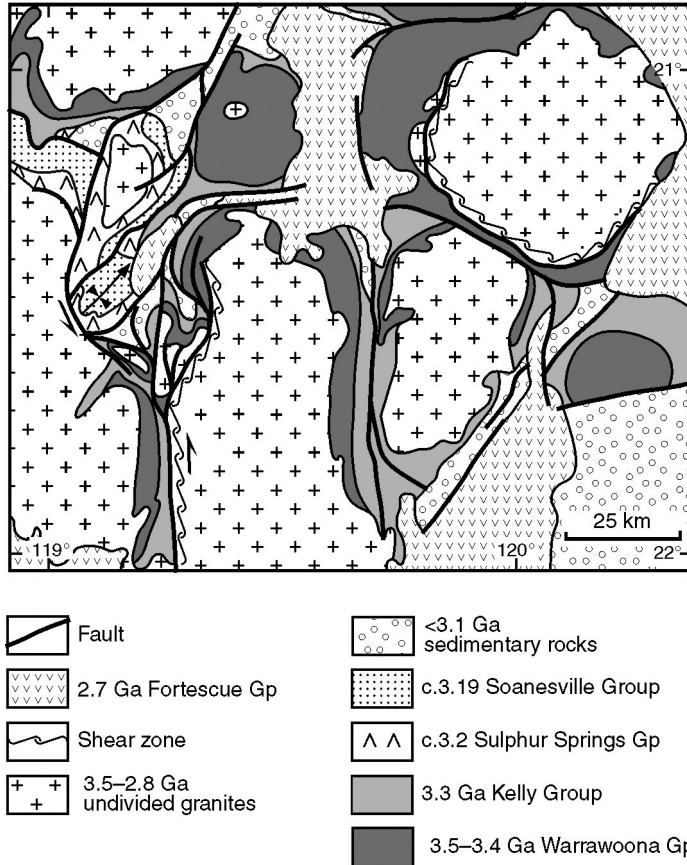


Fig. 2. Simplified geological map of the East Pilbara Terrane of the Pilbara Craton, showing the broad granite dome-and-greenstone keel architecture and distribution of the main volcano-sedimentary units.

progressively nearer to their core (Hickman, 1984; Van Kranendonk and others, 2002, 2004). An exception is the North Pole Dome, where a syn-volcanic laccolith occupies the core of moderately- to steeply-dipping greenstones (Blewett and others, 2004; Van Kranendonk and others, 2004, 2008).

The EPT has been interpreted to represent a long-lived volcanic plateau, built on a substrate of at least partly sialic older crust, analogous to the Kerguelen plateau (Van Kranendonk and Pirajno, 2004; Champion and Smithies, 2007; Van Kranendonk and others, 2007b). In these models, crust formation is interpreted to have involved melting of (dis?)continuously upwelling, hot mantle in the absence of arc-accretion tectonics to form a thick basaltic crust. Cyclical eruption, burial and partial melting of basaltic crust led to the formation of multiple generations of granitic rocks from 3.53 to 3.24 Ga and the development of thick continental lithosphere underlain by a melt-depleted, buoyant residual mantle keel (fig. 3: Champion and Smithies, 2007; Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a; Smithies and others, 2009). It was only after this crust had formed that the craton was affected by modern-style plate tectonics, including rifting at 3.2 Ga, and the subsequent generation of an intra-oceanic arc (3.12 Ga) and collisional orogeny (3.07 Ga: Smith and others, 1998; Smithies and others, 2005b; Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a, 2010).

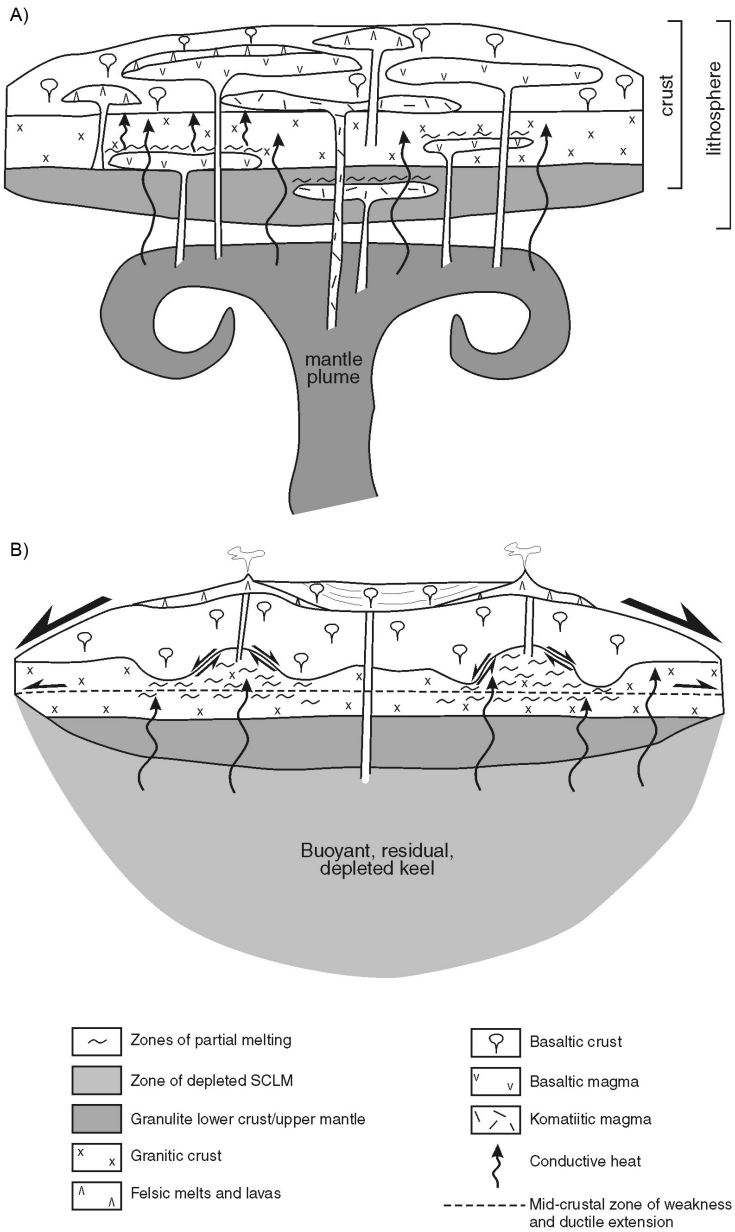


Fig. 3. Schematic model of formation of the East Pilbara Terrane as a thick oceanic plateau, resulting from multiple episodes of mantle melting, riding on a keel of highly depleted subcontinental mantle lithosphere (from Van Kranendonk and others, 2007b): (A) formation of a thick crustal plateau resulting from upwelling mantle melts, built on a substrate of older crust (x = older mafic and TTG crust; ~ = granitic partial melts; pillows = basaltic lavas; v = mafic sills; ^ = felsic magmas; fleck = ultramafic magmas); (B) magmatic overthickening results in internal melting and differentiation of the crust, extensional collapse across a mid-crustal detachment (dashed line with arrows), and the formation of dome-and-keel geometry: a buoyant, but depleted, subcontinental lithospheric keel arises from extensive mantle melting and stabilizes the craton.



Fig. 4. View of a kilometre-scale recumbent isoclinal fold from the Fiskenaasset region of West Greenland. Photograph courtesy of John Myers.

NORTH ATLANTIC CRATON: SUBDUCTION-ACCRETION TYPE CRUST

The West Greenland part of the North Atlantic Craton (NAC) consists of a “sea” of tonalitic gneisses with sparsely distributed and generally highly dismembered slivers of greenstones and layered anorthosite-gabbro intrusions (Bridgwater and others, 1974; Myers, 1984; Windley and Garde, 2009). Early researchers observed that the TTG had been emplaced as sheets into supracrustal rocks during periods of thrusting and large-scale recumbent isoclinal folding that predated, and accompanied, crustal thickening (fig. 4; Myers, 1976, 1984).

Detailed mapping and geochronology has shown that the apparently monotonous high-grade gneisses are derived from several distinct tectono-stratigraphic terranes, ranging from Eo- to Neoproterozoic in age and assembled during at least two main tectonic episodes in the Paleoproterozoic and Neoproterozoic (Nutman and others, 1989, 2002, 2007, 2009; Crowley and others, 2002; Hanmer and Greene, 2002). Each of the lithotectonic terranes has unique crustal histories, distinct supracrustal assemblages, and different metamorphic grade (fig. 5A; Friend and others, 1988; Nutman and others, 1989). Terranes are separated by thin mylonite zones that, together with the terranes themselves, have been affected by recumbent isoclinal folds and later upright folds associated with Neoproterozoic orogeny (fig. 5B). More recently, it has been discovered that even the best preserved and largest remnant of supracrustal rocks at Isua consists of two lithologically and geochronologically distinct packages, each of which is intruded by TTG of different age and separated by a thin zone of mylonitic metasedimentary rocks (Nutman and others, 2002, 2009).

TESTS OF THE MODEL

If the two types of crust described above actually derive from distinct tectonic processes, as suggested, then they should contain unique features that match a set of predictive criteria derived from the tectonic models. Specifically, each type of crust should have distinctive types, compositions, and isotopic characteristics of supracrustal rocks, geochemical signatures of granitic rocks, structural styles, metamorphism, and composition of the sub-continental mantle lithosphere. Each of these criteria is assessed individually below.

Supracrustal Sequences

Supracrustal successions in plateau-type crust are predicted to consist predominantly of mantle-derived melts, which may show evidence of crustal contamination but

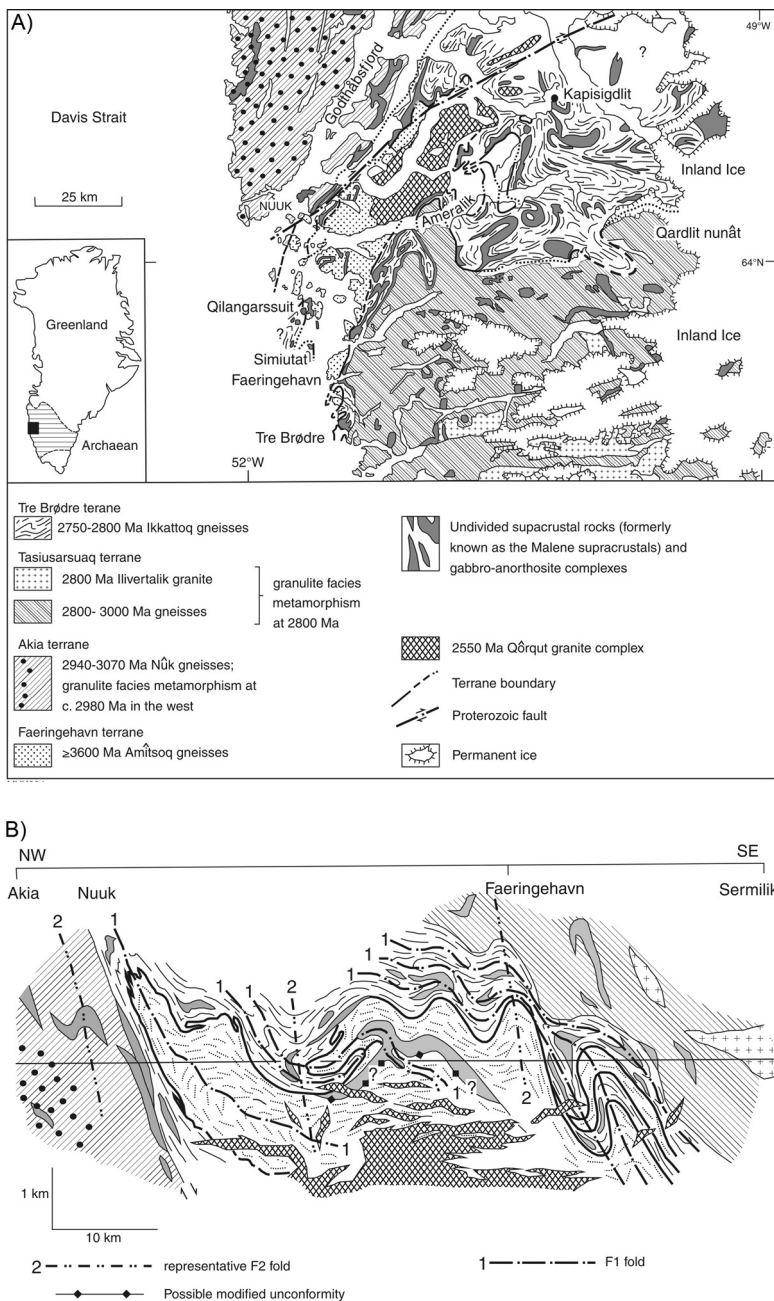


Fig. 5. (A) Geological map of part of the North Atlantic Craton in West Greenland, showing the division of high-grade gneisses into distinct litho-tectonic terranes. (B) Cross-section through the West Greenland terranes, showing large-scale thrusting and recumbent isoclinal folding formed during late Archean terrane amalgamation (Reproduced from Fig. 1 of Nutman and others (1989) with permission of American Geophysical Union).

contain no evidence of a subduction-modified mantle source. These rocks are also predicted to show autochthonous relationships, and they may contain stable platform successions. Crust formed through subduction-accretion processes, on the other hand, is predicted to contain supracrustal rocks that show evidence for allochthonous relationships between packages with different ages, contain deep marine sedimentary rocks, and have geochemical evidence for derivation of volcanic rocks from a variety of sources, including slices of MORB and basaltic and/or andesitic to rhyolitic volcanics derived from a subduction-modified source (for example, arc and/or suprasubduction zone sequences). Upper crustal sections may also contain ophiolites and syn-orogenic clastic successions, such as turbiditic accretionary complexes, foreland basins, *et cetera*.

Analysis of EPT supracrustal rocks shows that they are demonstrably autochthonous and consist of predominantly mantle-derived volcanic rocks interbedded with deep-marine chemical sedimentary rocks. The succession also includes thick (up to 1 km) units of mature and supermature clastic sedimentary rocks that locally form part of a subaerial to submarine platform succession (Van Kranendonk, 2007b). Geochemical analysis shows that the bulk of the volcanic rocks are typical Archean tholeiitic to komatiitic basalts, with lesser amounts of komatiite (Smithies and others, 2007). The bulk of these rocks, regardless of stratigraphic position, are similar to plateau-like basalts and are distinct from MORB in having slightly elevated light rare earth element profiles and evidence for crustal contamination, but they contain no evidence of derivation from a subduction-modified source (Green and others, 2000; Arndt and others, 2001; Van Kranendonk and Pirajno, 2004; Smithies and others, 2005a). Data from inherited zircon and Nd-isotopic studies indicate the involvement of older, at least in part sialic, crust in the generation of even the oldest volcanics (Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a; Tessalina and others, 2010). Basaltic rocks from throughout the supergroup, interbedded at a scale of meters to 100s of meters, show geochemical evidence of derivation from two distinct sources including continually replenished, fertile mantle, and a mantle source region that became progressively more depleted over time (Smithies and others, 2005a). Calc-alkaline andesitic to rhyolitic volcanic sequences in the lower part of the succession were derived from fractionation of tholeiitic magma affected by contamination by older felsic crust, as well as by coeval TTG magmas derived from melting of older, enriched basalts at a range of depths within the crust (Champion and Smithies, 2007; Smithies and others, 2009). Felsic volcanic units higher up in the succession were derived from partial melting of older felsic crust and/or basalt (Jahn and others, 1981; Smithies and others, 2007).

Supracrustal rocks in the subduction-accretion type crust of the North Atlantic Craton include deep-marine banded iron-formation and basaltic rocks with MORB-like compositions, as well as boninitic geochemical signatures, the latter of which has been used to suggest formation in an intra-oceanic arc setting (Polat and others, 2002; Jenner and others, 2009). Furnes and others (2007a, 2007b) have suggested that the Isua supracrustal rocks include components of an ophiolite, although this is controversial (Nutman and Friend, 2007; Hamilton, 2007b). Nevertheless, an oceanic setting for at least some of the basaltic rocks is strongly supported by the widespread distribution of dismembered, layered calcic anorthositic complexes, which are considered to be part of oceanic crust (Weaver and others, 1981). In addition to the evidence for oceanic-type crust, Nutman and others (2009) have recognized juvenile arc-type volcanic rocks. In summary, the presence of MORB-like and boninitic mafic volcanic rocks, combined with juvenile arc-type volcanic rocks, is fully consistent with an arc-accretion setting for the formation of the North Atlantic Craton.

Granitic Rocks

Granitic rocks in subduction-accretion type crust are predicted to consist largely of subduction-derived TTG, derived from high-pressure melting of basalt and emplaced

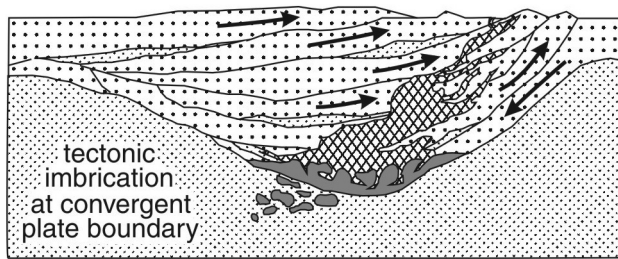


Fig. 6. Schematic model of shallow subduction/crustal imbrication in the formation of the West Greenland crust. Heavy stipple = undivided mafic crust; medium stipple = mantle and peridotite entrained in the crust; hatched pattern = TTG; grey shade = melted zone rich in residual garnet and clinopyroxene; arrows denote direction of tectonic transport. (Modified slightly from Fig. 3.3-13 of Nutman and others (2007) with permission of Elsevier).

prior to, and synchronous with, collision. A more limited amount of syn- to late-orogenic, potassic granites are also expected as a result of TTG melting during crustal thickening, which may be emplaced across terrane boundaries. Plateau-type crust, on the other hand, is predicted to consist of granitic rocks derived from infracrustal melting processes, first of basaltic crust, and subsequently of basalt and granitic rocks, and then granitic rocks only, as the crust progressively differentiates through multiple melting episodes. This process should result in progressively more highly fractionated granites through time.

Detailed investigations of granitic rocks from the NAC have shown them to be predominantly TTG in composition and derived from melting of basalt at subcrustal depths, most likely within some form of subduction zone (Drummond and Defant, 1990; Rapp and others, 1991). Geochronological evidence shows that whereas some TTG components were emplaced prior to terrane amalgamation, the bulk of TTG were emplaced during thrusting and recumbent isoclinal folding (fig. 6: Myers, 1976, 1984; Nutman and others, 1989, 1999, 2002). Limited volumes of more potassic granitic rocks accompanied episodes of crustal reworking and crosscut terrane boundaries (fig. 5B: Baadsgaard and others, 1986; Nutman and others, 1989).

In the EPT, granitic rocks accompanied periods of mafic-ultramafic through felsic volcanism and show a demonstrable, progressive change in composition through time, from TTG to more potassic compositions (Hickman, 1984; Bickle and others, 1989, 1993). Detailed geochemical studies show that the earliest syn-volcanic TTG (3.49-3.42 Ga) derive from infracrustal partial melting of LREE-enriched basalt + older TTG, rather than high-pressure melting of basalt (Bickle and others, 1993; Smithies and others, 2009), and that both these older, as well as younger TTG (3.32-3.22 Ga), derive from melting across a range of depths *within* the crust (Champion and Smithies, 2007). Younger granites evolve to progressively more fractionated compositions through time (including A-type granites with rapakivi textures at 3.24 Ga: Brauhart, ms, 1999; Van Kranendonk, 2000) as a result of repeated partial melting of older granitic crust (Smithies and others, 2003). The different age granitic suites of the EPT are similar across the different domes, even though the proportions of the suites differ between the domes (Van Kranendonk and others, 2002). Combined, these observations show that granite genesis in the EPT resulted from infracrustal processes, derived ultimately from heat emanating from the mantle, without the influence of subduction-accretion processes.

Structural Geology

Perhaps the most distinctive difference between the two types of crust should be manifest in their structural style, with subduction-accretion type crust dominated by

evidence for strong horizontal shortening, and plateau-type crust affected by—if anything—evidence for extension *during* crust formation and compressional deformation *after* crust formation.

The North Atlantic Craton contains widespread evidence for very large-scale horizontal translation of crust, exemplified by the presence of kilometer-scale recumbent isoclinal folds (fig. 4: Myers, 1984). Whereas some have postulated that flat-lying structures such as these may arise from the vertical collapse of weak crust (for example, Sandiford, 1989; Harris and others, 2002; Bédard, 2006), this process does not account for the presence of litho-tectonic terranes, nor the widespread and voluminous presence of syn-tectonic, juvenile TTG; rather, any syn-tectonic granitic rocks that arise as a result of collapse of weak crust should be more potassic in composition and derive from remelting of the weakened, older continental crust.

In the EPT, the structural style is dominated by the large-scale granite dome-and-greenstone keel geometry, which has been well documented as having arisen through punctuated intervals of partial convective overturn (PCO) between a newly erupted, thick, dense greenstone cover sequence and partially molten, more buoyant, granitic middle crust, driven by a combination of conductive heat from mantle plumes, radiogenic heat from early TTG, and the thermal insulating effects of the newly erupted greenstones (fig. 7: Hickman, 1984; Collins, 1989; Collins and others, 1998; Rey and others, 2003; Sandiford and others, 2004; Van Kranendonk and others, 2004; Bodorkos and Sandiford, 2006). Whereas previous studies suggested an earlier episode of Alpine-style crustal thickening (Bickle and others, 1985) followed by dome formation as extensional core complexes (Zegers and others, 1996, 2001), more detailed mapping has shown that the former resulted from *local* compression within the restraining bend of a late (c. 2.94 Ga) transpressional shear zone and the latter to be a false construct resulting from incomplete mapping (Hickman and Van Kranendonk, 2004; Van Kranendonk and others, 2004). Rather, geochronological and stratigraphic studies have shown that the greenstones are everywhere the right way up, upward-younging, and at low metamorphic grade, thereby precluding tectonic stacking through horizontal tectonics (Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a, 2007b). Indeed, studies have now shown that deposition of the volcano-sedimentary succession was accommodated by extension in developing basins with lateral accumulation of the supracrustal succession as a series of off-lapping units (Nijman and others, 1998; Nijman and deVries, 2004; Van Kranendonk and others, 2004, 2008). It is only well after the crust of the EPT had formed (3.52–3.22 Ga) that it then experienced plate tectonics, including rifting at 3.2 Ga and much younger compressional deformation resulting from terrane accretion and far-field stresses at 3.07 to 2.93 Ga (Van Kranendonk and others, 2007a, 2010).

Metamorphism

Accreting margins and collisional orogens are marked by high-pressure (P), low-to moderate-temperature (T), clockwise P-T paths and may contain terranes with different P-T conditions and histories, whereas terranes undergoing extension are characterized by low-P, high-T, anticlockwise P-T paths (England and Thompson, 1984; Thompson, 1989).

The characteristic hallmarks of subduction-accretion are found in the metamorphic history of the NAC, including rock with granulite-facies assemblages and clockwise P-T paths (Wells, 1979; Griffin and others, 1980; Riciputi and others, 1990), as well as tectonically juxtaposed litho-tectonic terranes that have different metamorphic assemblages and histories (Nutman and others, 1989). Estimated P-T conditions from granulite terranes indicate that the crust had been buried to 30 km depth during what has been widely interpreted as a period of crustal doubling through orogeny (Myers, 1976, 1984; Windley and Garde, 2009).

In contrast, the EPT is characterised by low-P, contact-style metamorphism, with isograds distributed concentrically around the large granite domes and varying from high-temperature (amphibolite facies) adjacent to the domes to low grade away from the domes (to prehnite-pumpellyite facies: Hickman, 1984). Ar-Ar dating of the contact metamorphic aureole around the Shaw Granitic Complex shows that the assemblages formed throughout the entire history of the terrane, over hundreds of millions of years (3.49-2.72 Ga: Zegers and others, 1999). When combined with the stratigraphic evidence of offlapping supracrustal successions, the contact-style distribution of assemblages, regional low pressure metamorphic conditions, and long duration of mineral assemblage formation, they indicate that metamorphism resulted from heat emanating from granite domes during episodes of PCO (fig. 7: Warren and Ellis, 1996; Collins and Van Kranendonk, 1999; Van Kranendonk and others, 2002, 2004). Local conditions of moderate-P metamorphism (4-6 kbars; Bickle and others, 1985; Delor and others, 1991) are restricted to the uplifted, strongly sheared margins of granite domes and are consistent with models of PCO (Mareschal and West, 1980; Collins and Van Kranendonk, 1999; Van Kranendonk and others, 2004).

SCLM

Another testable prediction is that the proposed different types of Archean crust should contain recognizable differences in their respective pieces of attached subcontinental mantle lithosphere (SCLM). For terranes formed through subduction-accretion, it is predicted that the crust should be underlain by imbricated oceanic lithosphere, metamorphosed to high metamorphic grade (eclogite), and potentially depleted in melt components (for example, Helmstaedt and Gurney, 1995). In contrast, Pilbara plateau-like crust should be underlain by extremely depleted subcontinental mantle lithosphere, with evidence for depletion through episodes of relatively deep mantle melting (for example, Griffin and O'Reilly, 2007a).

Indeed, there is some evidence to support such differences in the SCLM beneath these two types of crust, although more research into these differences is required. On the one hand, Pilbara plateau-like crust is principally underlain by depleted harzburgite, widely regarded as the product of melt depletion of normal mantle, down to considerable depths (Griffin and O'Reilly, 2007a, 2007b). Geochemical data from Pilbara Supergroup basaltic rocks suggest that this buoyant, highly depleted harzburgite keel developed contemporaneously with crust formation, progressively over time, as a result of multiple episodes of plume-derived mafic-ultramafic magmatism (Smithies and others, 2005a; Van Kranendonk and others, 2007b).

On the other hand, mantle samples from kimberlitic rocks cutting through the undisturbed portion of the North Atlantic Craton indicate a less orthopyroxene-rich composition with a mix of peridotitic and eclogitic garnets (Jensen and others, 2005; Wittig and others, 2008a). Significantly, the bulk of SCLM in the North Atlantic Craton was derived through shallow melting events, through processes similar to present-day mechanisms that form young lithosphere in oceanic settings (Wittig and others, 2008b) and distinct from the deep mantle melting events identified in plateau-like crust.

DISCUSSION

Earth was a molten ball at 4.5 Ga, after the giant Moon-forming impact event, and was covered by an initial crust within a few tens to a couple of hundred million years thereafter (for example, Blichert-Toft and Arndt, 1999; Kamber, 2007; Kramers, 2007). Oceans were formed by at least 4.3 Ga (Cavosie and others, 2005) and the early crust was recycled back into the mantle, and continuously resurfaced throughout the period of late heavy meteorite bombardment to ~3.85 Ga, after which time the first large areas of continental crust became preserved (Nutman and others, 1999; Van Kranen-

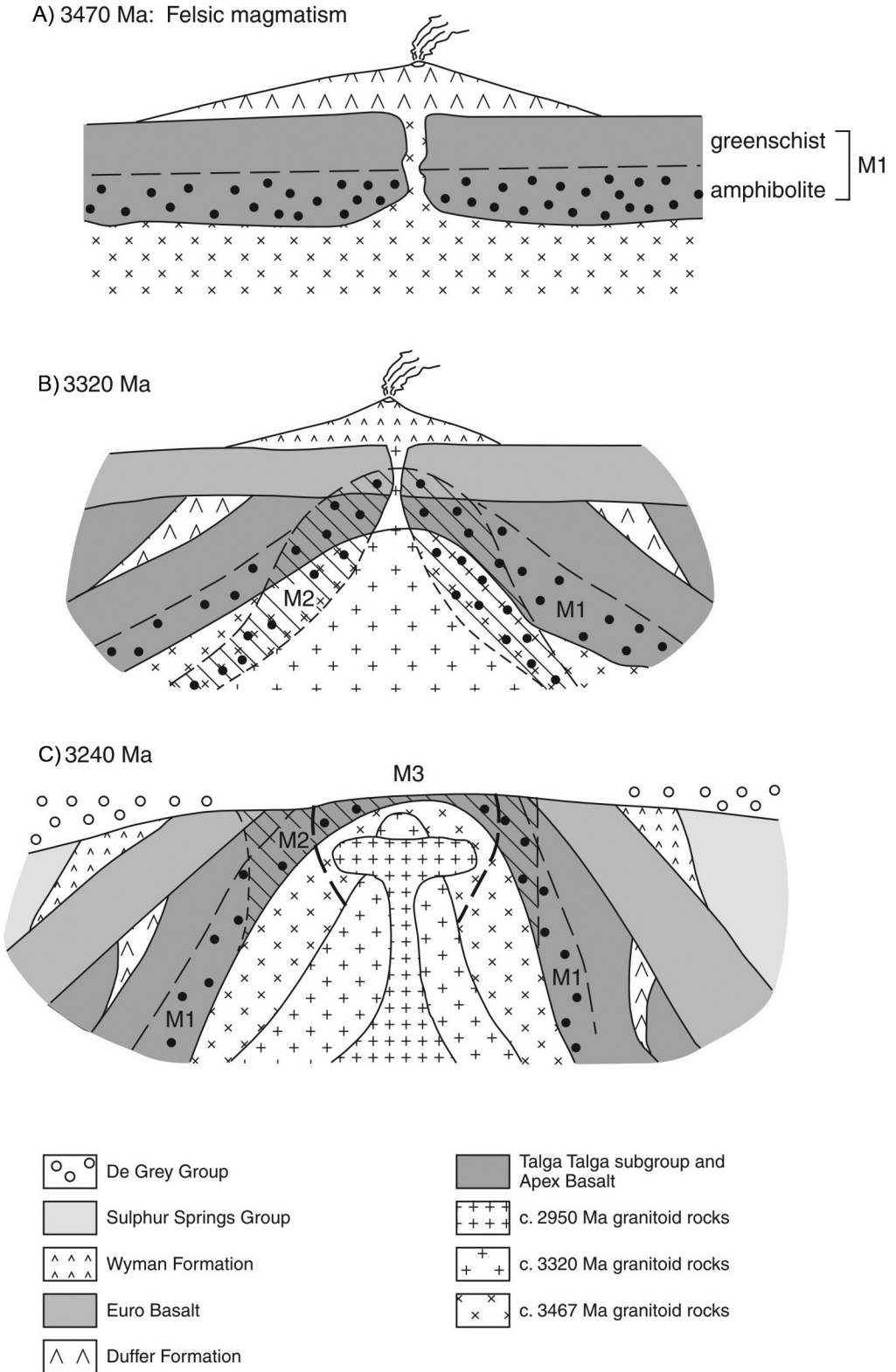


Fig. 7.

donk, 2007). From 3.85 Ga to present day, Earth has undergone a dramatic secular change in mantle heat (for example, Labrosse and Jaupart, 2007; Herzberg and others, 2010) and was accompanied by resultant changes in the tectonic style and composition of continental lithosphere (for example, Rey and others, 2003; Griffin and O'Reilly, 2007a; Chardon and others, 2009), although exactly what types of change this involved in terms of plate tectonics is still uncertain (for example, de Wit and Hart, 1993; Korenaga, 2006, 2008a, 2008b).

The model presented here suggests that, as with modern Earth, continental crust was formed on early Earth through two distinct, but complementary processes:

1. As thick plateaux over upwelling mantle;
2. At subduction zones, through arc magmatism and terrane accretion.

These two end-member processes support the operation of plate tectonics on an early Earth with a vigorously convecting mantle (for example, Park, 1997). If correct, and plate tectonics operated throughout most of Earth history, then a predictive consequence of the model is that these two types of crust should be present throughout the geological record. And indeed, a number of published examples support the formation of plateau- and subduction-accretion-type crust throughout the geological record. For example, in addition to the Paleoproterozoic Pilbara Craton cited above, examples of plume-generated, plateau-like crust include Mesoarchean crust in the Baltic Shield and Superior Craton (Puchtel and others, 1998; Bédard, 2006), Neoarchean crust in several greenstone belts (for example, Tomlinson and Condie, 2001), Paleoproterozoic crust in the Man Craton, West Africa (Abouchami and others, 1990), and the Phanerozoic Kerguelen and Ontong-Java plateaux (Grégoire and others, 1998; Wallace and others, 2002; Taylor, 2006). Amongst the multitude of Precambrian examples of crust formed through subduction-accretion processes are the Neoarchean development of the Superior Craton (for example Card, 1990; Calvert and others, 1995) and the Paleoproterozoic Trans-Hudson Orogen (for example, Stern and others, 1999) and Fenno-Scandian Shield (Peltonen and Kontinen, 2004). In addition, a plate tectonic/convecting mantle model of early Earth also predicts that there will be hybrid examples of these two end-member crust-forming processes, with plumes erupted onto older continental crust (for example, Bleeker and others, 1999; Polat and others, 2006; Maurice and others, 2009) and accretion of plateau-like crust within subduction-accretion complexes (for example, Polat and others, 1998; Percival, 2007). These examples of diverse and interactive ways of forming Archean continental crust show that each terrane (regardless of age) must be analyzed purely on the basis of its unique geological record and that it is time to abandon the simplistic and polarising debate on whether or not plate tectonics existed on Archean Earth (for example, Stern, 2005; Hamilton, 2007a) and focus instead on the rate of crustal growth (see Hawkesworth and others, 2010), the *relative contribution* of plume *versus* plate tectonics to crust formation, and how these different, but related, processes may influence the prospectivity of Archean continental crust.

How Did Subduction Start?

Two remaining questions in regard to early Earth tectonics are; When and how did plate tectonics start? The answer to the first question may remain unknown due to the paucity of the very early geological record, and the answer to the second question

Fig. 7. Schematic model showing stages in the development of partial convective overturn of the upper and middle crust in the East Pilbara Terrane. Note the internal unconformities between groups, associated with progressive doming and extensional basin formation, and the contact metamorphic aureole around granite domes, arising from multiple, overprinting heating events (M1, M2, M3) associated with episodes of granite emplacement. (Modified from Van Kranendonk and others, 2002).

will rely heavily on the results of increasingly more sophisticated modeling, but this will only succeed to the degree that we understand the physical properties of early Earth (mantle temperature, crustal composition and thickness) and the 4-dimensional geometry-through-time of interacting components of a convecting planetary system.

Previous workers have proposed a number of scenarios for how plate tectonics may have been initiated on early Earth:

- 1) Davies (1992) suggested that tectonics on early Earth was achieved through subcrustal delamination or dripping, whereby crust forms either by thrust accumulation of basalt slices over asymmetrically subducting oceanic mantle lithosphere, or by the same mechanism over symmetrically downgoing zones, or drips;
- 2) Hansen (2007a) postulated that subduction commenced as a result of bolide impact, resulting in mantle upwelling and generation of mafic crust, in turn leading to spreading and subduction;
- 3) Ueda and others (2008) used numerical models to show that subduction can be generated by mantle plumes if they cause critical weakening of the lithosphere;
- 4) Nair and Chacko (2008) suggested that the formation of thick, buoyant oceanic plateaux in the Archean helped to initiate subduction of normal oceanic lithosphere around the margins of the plateaux, which generated voluminous TTG magmas through hydrous partial melting of the subducted slab.

None of these models are satisfactory on their own. Model 1 does not provide mechanisms for the initiation of subduction and it is difficult to imagine how bolide impacts in model 2 could initiate a planet-wide, self-organized system of subduction. Models 3 and 4 contain aspects of interest, although the latter does not accord with the Pilbara and Kaapvaal record of TTG magmatism *accompanying* plateau formation and deriving from a range of depths *within* the crust (Champion and Smithies, 2007).

Previous authors have commented on the difficulty (but not impossibility) of subduction on early Earth, due to the effects of a hotter Archean mantle producing young, thick, and thermally buoyant oceanic lithosphere (Bickle, 1978; Sleep and Windley, 1982; Park, 1997; Davaille and others, 2003; Korenaga, 2006, 2008a, 2008b). Hot upwelling mantle, regardless of the temperature, speed of convection, or size of convection cells, results in either thickening of the crust on a dry planet incapable of plate tectonics, and/or spreading of oceanic lithosphere on a planet lubricated by water (for example, Abbott and Hoffman, 1984). In the latter case, newly formed oceanic crust would necessarily be recycled at zones of intra-oceanic imbrication and subduction, but it may be that a thick, thermally buoyant oceanic lithosphere was able to return to the mantle only in a shallow manner, more akin to underthrusting than modern, steep subduction, with resultant changes in magma composition relative to modern subduction zones (Davies, 1992; Smithies and others, 2003; Martin and others, 2005).

Perhaps the way to overcome the problem of subduction initiation on a planet with a thick, buoyant, oceanic crust is through the influence of large plumes, which perturb the situation and impose a distinctive 3-dimensional geometry to the surface. Studies of our neighboring planets show the dramatic influence that plumes can have on a stationary crust. For example, on Mars, stationary, long-lived mantle melting has produced an enormously thick, elevated crustal welt—the Tharsis Rise—on which Olympus Mons, the largest volcano in the solar system (8 km high) is perched (Smith and others, 1999). The weight of this crustal welt has resulted in a >5000 km diameter set of radiating dikes and the 8 km deep Valles Marineris rift valley (Mège, 2001). On Venus, plume magmatism has also resulted in the creation of thick crust at a range of

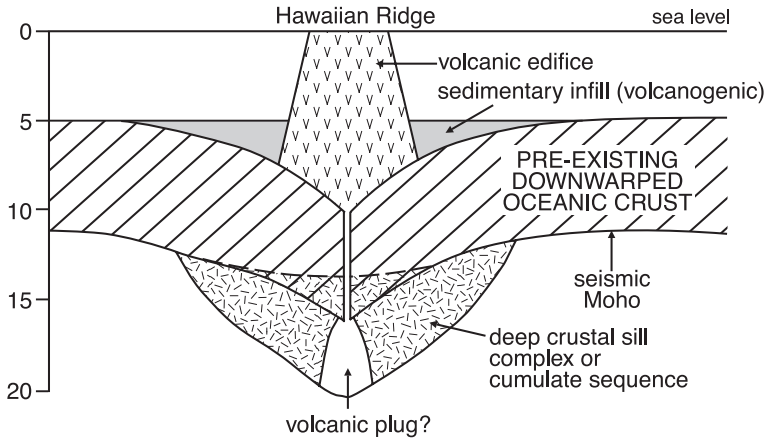


Fig. 8. Schematic model of the crustal structure of the Hawaiian-Emperor chain near the island of Oahu (from Wilson, 1989, after Fig. 6 of Watts and others, 1985).

scales, from tens of kilometers in diameter to elevated crustal welts comprising several merged coronae, 1000s of kilometres long (Squyres and others, 1992).

On Earth, the products of such long-lived plume events have generally been dispersed as a result of its moving plates, but plume-derived crustal welts such as Hawaii and Iceland still influence the lithosphere on which they are constructed, deflecting them downwards (fig. 8: Watts and others, 1985). With less mobile crust in the early Archean, and with increased degrees of partial melting from hotter mantle plumes, plume-derived magmatic welts may have been much larger, similar to Artemis Corona on Venus (fig. 9A: Hansen, 2002, 2007b; Bannister, ms, 2006).

In fact, the geometry of Artemis Corona provides a potentially important analogue to how more modern subduction may have commenced on Earth. Artemis Corona is a 1500 km diameter, nearly circular topographic high, formed by melting of deep upwelling mantle and voluminous basaltic eruption (Smrekar and Stofan, 1999). It is encircled by a deep trough and outer rise, and transected by a central rift valley, complete with transform faults (figs. 9B and 9C). Although several different processes have been suggested for the formation of Artemis Corona (Spencer, 2001; Bannister, ms, 2006; Hansen, 2007a), its geometry suggests that it most likely resulted from emplacement, inflation, overflow and extensional collapse of a thick magmatic welt derived from melting of an upwelling mantle plume; such features are common to large plume-derived upwellings (for example, Bailey, 1999; Mège and Ernst, 2001). In this model, continued magmatism led to over-inflation of the corona, and this, combined with conductive heat from the plume, led to gravitational collapse and spreading of its central part (Mège and Ernst, 2001; Rey and others, 2001). The weight of the erupting plume-derived magmatic welt deflected the surrounding crust (lower plate) downward, which is partly compensated for by an outer forebulge (fig. 9C). The geometry displayed by Artemis Corona is nearly identical to that of tectonic plates, spreading centers and subduction zones on Earth, but because the lack of water on Venus severely restricts the degree to which rocks can slide past one another, full-scale plate tectonics never really got going on our sister planet, despite its local inception (Schubert and Sandwell, 1995). On early Earth, however, where it is clear from oxygen isotope studies that water was present since 4.3 Ga (Mojzsis and others, 2001; Peck and others, 2001; Valley and others, 2002; Cavosie and others, 2005), the hydrous alteration and concomitant decrease in rheology of erupted basaltic and ultramafic oceanic crust

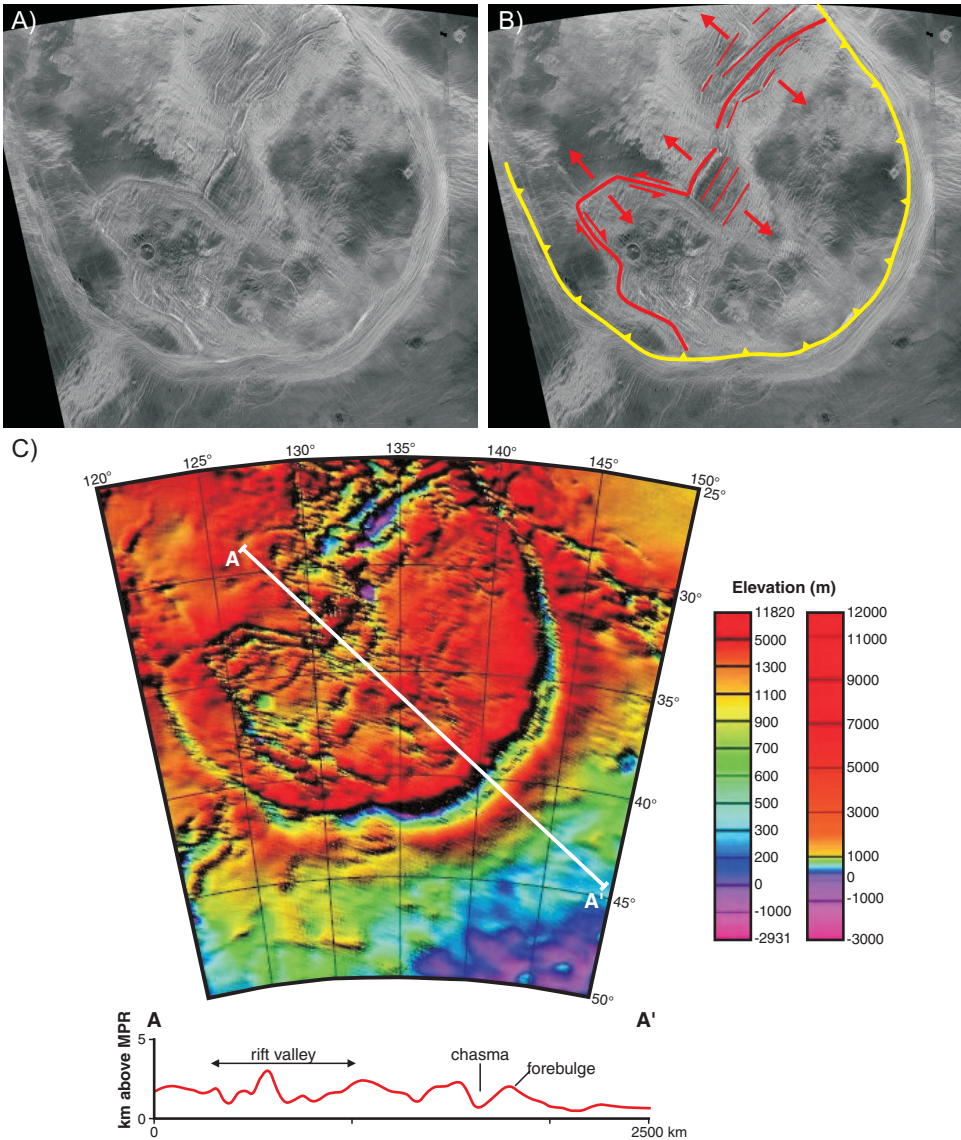


Fig. 9. (A) Synthetic aperture radar (SAR) image of Artemis corona on Venus, diameter 1500 km. (B) Annotated SAR image of Artemis Corona, showing central rift valley (heavy red lines, with symmetrical arrows) and linking transform faults (asymmetric red arrows), possible subduction zone on the inner ring of annular trough (yellow line with teeth on upper plate side). (C) Topographic map and cross-section A-A' of Artemis Corona, showing central rift valley, annular trough (chasma) and outer forebulge. MPR = mean planetary radius. (Modified from Bannister, ms, 2006).

means that under similar conditions as on Venus, the formation of large coronae on Earth may have led to the onset of plate tectonics through the generation of subduction zones along the margins of coronae, lubricated by surface water oceans. The onset of steep subduction would then have generated superposed, arc-like crust along the margins of the plateaux (Smithies and others, 2005b; Nair and Chacko, 2008).

CONCLUSIONS

Evidence is presented in support of the contention that Paleoproterozoic continental crust consists of two distinct types; high-grade gneiss terranes that formed within primitive subduction-accretion zones, and volcanic plateau-type crust that formed over upwelling mantle. Support for two distinct types of crust comes from analysis of supracrustal assemblages, the geochemistry of igneous rock associations, structural geology, metamorphism, and composition of the subcontinental mantle lithosphere. Examples of both types of crust are found throughout the geological record, and the predicted hybrid types of crust resulting from the interaction of these two processes are referred to. The results are used to infer the operation of subduction and plate tectonics on Earth since at least 3.6 Ga and to develop a model for how plate tectonics may have been initiated on early Earth.

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