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1	Characterizing the continental basement of the Central Andes: constraints
2	from Bolivian crustal xenoliths
3	
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17	ABSTRACT
18	Critical to understanding the development of active continental margins is knowledge of
19	the crustal basement on which magmatic arcs are built. This study reports results from
20	a whole rock geochemical and zircon U-Pb geochronological study of a suite of crustal
21	xenoliths from the Bolivian Altiplano, Central Andes that provide new insight into the
22	evolution and composition of the continental basement beneath the region. The
23	xenoliths are hosted in Plio-Pleistocene trachyandesitic/dacitic lavas which erupted
24	from monogenetic volcanic centres in the Andean back-arc region and comprise both
25	igneous and metamorphic lithologies including diorites, microgranites, gneisses, garnet-

mica schists, granulites, quartzites, and dacites. The xenolith suite exhibits significant 26 Sr-isotopic heterogeneity with values extending from 0.7105 to 0.7368. Pb isotopic 27 signatures reflect the crustal domains previously constrained from scattered exposures 28 29 of basement rocks throughout the region. Ion microprobe U-Pb dating of cores and rims from zircon separates from two of the sampled xenoliths reveal predominant Early 30 Phanerozoic age peaks (c. 500 Ma; population 1), Late Mesoproterozoic (1.0-1.2 Ga; 31 population 2) and Palaeoproterozoic (1.7-1.9 Ga; population 3). Populations 1 and 2 are 32 well-documented throughout the Andes and correspond to periods of supercontinent 33 34 formation (e.g. Rodinia at c. 1.0 Ga) and break-up. Population 3, poorly represented in the zircon record of the Andes as a whole, may record geological events during the 35 construction of the Palaeoproterozoic Amazonian craton. The presence of the three age 36 peaks in the zircon record of a single crustal xenolith demonstrates the important role 37 of crustal recycling in the construction of the modern day Andean margin. The 38 character of the xenoliths and their detrital zircon record is also inconsistent with 39 current understanding of the eastern extent of the Arequipa-Antofalla Basement (AAB) 40 block beneath the Bolivian Altiplano. 41

42

### 43 INTRODUCTION

The basement to continental arcs deserves study for two principal reasons; 1) its composition and structure dictate the potential effects on continental arc magmas as they ascend through, and differentiate within, the crust, e.g. enriched LILE, depleted HFSE, Davidson et al. 2005), and 2) the composition, ages and structures are key to determining the geological and plate tectonic development of an active continental margin.

Although it is generally recognized that the western margin of South America has been thetype example of an active continental margin for most of the Phanerozoic at least, to date,

51 incomplete knowledge of the continental crust in the Central Andes, hampers our efforts to 52 constrain and refine both palaeo-plate reconstruction models (e.g. Dalziel, 1997; Loewy et al., 2004) and the extent of crust-mantle interaction in Central Andean magmas (e.g. 53 54 Sørensen and Holm, 2008; Mamani et al., 2010). Current tectonic models for the Neoproterozoic and early Palaeozoic history of the western margin of the South American 55 continent have proposed a collision between the eastern Laurentian Craton and the western 56 margin of Gondwana, of which modern-day South America was a part (Cordani et al., 2005). 57 Fundamental to refining these models and associated terrane maps is knowledge of the 58 59 continental crust, yet surface exposures of the Central Andean basement are rare due to the lack of tectonically-driven exhumation of basement rocks across the Altiplano region and the 60 extensive Tertiary sedimentary sequences that blanket the region today. Many geochemical 61 62 studies of volcanic rocks throughout the Central Andes have invoked the variable role of the continental crust during the petrogenesis of magmatic rocks across the region in order to 63 account for the geochemical differences observed within and between magmas 64 erupted/emplaced along and across strike of the active arc (Davidson et al., 1991; Wörner et 65 al., 1992; Aitcheson et al., 1995; Davidson and de Silva, 1995; Caffe et al., 2002). The 66 compositions of potential crustal contaminants however remain poorly constrained. 67

Studies of crustal xenoliths brought to the surface by ascending magmas during the most 68 69 recent phase of volcanism (Plio-Pleistocene) have the potential to provide a unique cross 70 section of the continental basement that will provide additional constraints to regional tectonic models and offer new insights to the composition of the Central Andean crust. The 71 crustal xenoliths that are the focus of this research represent a region of the Central Andes 72 73 where the continental basement has not previously been sampled through studies of surface exposures and/or drill cores. Thus, the objectives of this study are threefold; (1) to present 74 long sought after compositions for the crustal components in Central Andean magmas; (2) to 75

contribute geochronological constraints on the evolution of the western margin of the South
American continent to explore the roles of crustal recycling in construction of the Central
Andean basement; and (3) to help constrain existing basement terrane models for this region
of the Andes.

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# 81 GEOLOGIC SETTING AND PREVIOUS WORK

This study focuses on a suite of entrained crustal xenoliths hosted in Plio-Pleistocene lavas which have erupted from two monogenetic centres at Pampas Aullagas (PA; 19°S, 67°W) and Quillacas (QL; 19°S, 66°W) on the Bolivian Altiplano (Fig 1a, b). Both centres consist of several lava flows which have erupted along NW-SE trending faults and form part of a lineament of minor volcanic centres which runs subparallel to the volcanic front (Davidson and de Silva, 1995).

Based on previous studies, the PA and QL centres are located on the Arequipa-Antofalla 88 Basement (AAB) block (Fig. 1c; Loewy et al., 2004; Ramos, 2008; Chew et al., 2011). This 89 90 crustal block can be divided into the northern Arequipa Massif, described as the bestpreserved basement inlier throughout the central Andes (Ramos, 2008), and the southern 91 Antofalla basement block. Collectively they are comprised of three distinct domains based 92 Pb-isotopic signatures (after Loewy et al., 2004) the Northern (Arequipa) and the Central and 93 Southern (Antofalla) Domains. These domains young to the south and are exposed 94 95 intermittently along the Arica embayment (Fig. 1c). Western Bolivia and southern Peru are underlain by the Northern Domain that consists of Palaeoproterozoic (2.02-1.79 Ga) 96 intrusions that were later metamorphosed between 1.82 and 1.79 Ga (Loewy et al., 2004). 97 98 The oldest rocks in the Central Domain are constrained to Mesoproterozoic age with crystallisation of migmatites and orthogneisses at ~1.25 Ga and ~1.21 Ga respectively. The 99 Central and Northern Domains subsequently underwent metamorphism between 1.20 and 100

101 0.94 Ga, whereas the Southern Domain in northern Chile and north-western Argentina is composed of Ordovician rocks and experienced metamorphism at 440 Ma (Loewy et al., 102 2004). To the east of the AAB lies the cratonic nucleus of South America, the Amazonian 103 104 Craton which consists of several Archaean and Proterozoic domains (Chew et al., 2011). Several workers inferred an allochthonous origin for the AAB and have suggested that it 105 accreted to the South American margin at the time of the Sunsás Orogeny during assembly of 106 Rodinia (1.2-1 Ga: Loewy et al., 2004; Chew et al., 2007a; Ramos, 2008). The continental 107 basement between the AAB and Amazonian Craton is poorly characterised at this latitude in 108 109 the Central Andes (Fig. 1c) due to limited tectonic activity and recent sedimentation (identified as "metamorphic basement and Ordovician clastic platform deposits" by Ramos, 110 2008). Volcano-sedimentary sequences deposited after 320 Ma, and which were subsequently 111 112 metamorphosed (310 Ma), have been identified to the north of the study area in the Eastern Peruvian Andes (Cardona et al. 2009). 113

Basement surface exposure in Bolivia is constrained to a single outcrop at Cerro Uyarani on 114 the Western Altiplano (18°30'S, 68°40'W, Fig. 1c) where granulites, charnockites and rare 115 amphibolites with early Proterozoic protoliths have been identified (Wörner et al., 2000). 116 Evernden et al. (1977) reported clasts of red gneiss (K-Ar age of 647 Ma) and granite within 117 the Azurita Conglomerate ~200 km south of La Paz which are inferred to have been derived 118 from western Bolivia. These clasts, in addition to those found in the Mauri formation near 119 120 Berenguela, western Bolivia, were found to be Mesoproterozoic in age and characteristic of the northern part of the AAB (Loewy et al., 2004). The location of the PA and QL centres 121 and the entrained xenoliths within erupted lavas will therefore allow characterisation of the 122 123 continental basement in a region of the Central Andes where surface exposure is rare and will provide constraints on the eastward extent of the AAB basement block. 124

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#### 126 ANALYTICAL PROCEDURES

Rock powders were produced from rock chips free of weathered material. Sr-Nd isotopic 127 analyses were determined on a multicollector VG mass spectrometer (TIMS) at the 128 129 University of Califormia, Los Angeles (UCLA, see Davidson and de Silva, 1995). Additional Sr, Nd and also Pb isotopic compostions were measured on a plasma ionization 130 multicollector mass spectrometer (PIMMS) using the ThermoElectron Neptune instrument at 131 the Arthur Holmes Isotope Geology Laboratory (AHIGL), part of NCIET, at Durham 132 University, UK. Electron microprobe analyses of biotites and garnets were undertaken at the 133 134 School of Geosciences, University of Edinburgh using the CAMECA SX100 instrument. Secondary ionization mass spectrometry (SIMS) analyses for U-Pb ages in zircons were 135 performed at the UCLA Department of Earth and Space Sciences using a CAMECA ims1270 136 137 ion microprobe (SIMS). Sample preparation for each of the analytical techniques, details of standards run throughout this study and all whole rock sample data are provided in the 138 supplementary material. Results from SIMS analyses are presented in Tables 1 and 2. 139

Corresponding major and trace element data are presented in the supplementary material. 140 Major element and selected trace element abundances were determined by XRF at the 141 University of Edinburgh using the Panalytical PW2404 wavelength-dispersive sequential X-142 ray spectrometer. Additional trace element concentrations were measured at NCIET 143 (Northern Centre of Isotopic and Elemental Tracing) at Durham University, UK by 144 145 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICPMS) on a Perkin Elmer-Sciex Elan 6000. Where reported, Zr (ppm) data is XRF data due to the difficulty of dissolving zircon 146 encountered during dissolution of whole rocks powders for ICPMS analysis. For this reason, 147 148 no Hf data are reported

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150 **GEOCHEMISTRY** 

151 The xenolith suite consists of eight lithologies of which average modal mineralogical152 abundances are presented in Fig. 2 and key characteristics are described here.

153

### 154 Major and trace elements

Sampled diorites are the most mafic of the sampled suite ranging from 52.7 to 57.7  $SiO_2$  at 155 higher MgO (2.8-5.7);  $Fe_2O_3$  (7.2-8.4) and  $K_2O$  (2.6-6.9) than the majority of the other 156 xenoliths. These samples also exhibit some of the highest Cr and Ni abundances. They are 157 characterised by abundant hornblende, plagioclase and biotite with biotite displaying 158 159 alteration to orthopyroxene, consistent with biotite breakdown (plus melt). Microgranitic and dacitic xenoliths are characterised by plagioclase, biotite  $\pm$  alkali feldspar and up to 60% 160 quartz. Samples consistently display very similar major element chemical signatures over a 161 restricted range of SiO<sub>2</sub> (66.7 to 69.3) and high Na<sub>2</sub>O + K<sub>2</sub>O at ~8 wt. %. The remaining 162 xenoliths show high Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> contents which, coupled with the high abundance of aluminous 163 164 minerals (garnet, sillimanite, biotite) indicate the aluminous nature of the probable pelitic protoliths. Specifically, gneisses and garnet-mica schists are characterised by regular 165 alternating layers of biotite-sillimanite ± garnet melanosomes and quartzofeldspathic 166 167 leucosomes. Sampled garnets in the mica-schists are almandine (Py15Alm70Gr5Sp10-Py<sub>16</sub>Alm<sub>76</sub>Gr<sub>4</sub>Sp<sub>4</sub>) as would be expected of garnet produced during regional metamorphism 168 of argillaceous sediments (i.e. a pelitic protolith, Deer et al., 1992). A few of the sampled 169 170 granulites and gneisses show evidence for partial melting in the form of quenched glass (estimated at  $\leq 2$  vol. % where present), which is interpreted as having formed during 171 entrainment of the xenoliths within their host lavas. Within the glass phase, very fine grained 172 (<200 µm) acicular crystals of anatase (TiO<sub>2</sub>) are present (McLeod et al., 2012). Subsequent 173 (partial) extraction of this melt phase during entrainment is likely to have contributed to the 174

high percentage of residual quartz and high bulk SiO<sub>2</sub> contents (up to 88 wt. %) observed in
these particular samples.

Dacites and microgranites display LILE enrichment (e.g. Rb, Ba) and exhibit broadly similar enrichment signatures from Ba through to Sm. There are notable peaks at U, K and Pb and troughs at Nb-Ta and Sr. The majority of xenoliths have Sm/Nd ~0.2 (see supplementary information, Fig. i.) similar to that of the upper (and middle) continental crust (Rudnick and Gao, 2003). The majority of samples, to a greater or lesser degree, exhibit a negative Eu anomaly which is again, akin to REE patterns of the upper (and middle) continental crust (Rudnick and Fountain, 1995; Rudnick and Gao, 2003).

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# 185 Sr-Nd-Pb isotopes

186 18 xenoliths were chosen for Sr-Nd isotopic analysis. Fig. 3a shows the xenoliths and the Sr-Nd isotope compositional fields for sampled crustal basement rocks in neighbouring Chile 187 and Argentina. The xenoliths overlap compositions from previous basement studies, exhibit 188 slightly higher <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr at lower <sup>143</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd but do not extend to the extreme <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr values 189 of Palaeozoic Argentinian gneisses. Fig. 3b shows the variation in <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr signatures of 190 recent (<60 Ma) volcanic rocks erupted along the Andean Cordillera. Regional variation is 191 attributed to the difference in continental crustal composition, age and thickness: Mafic, 192 Cretaceous and younger between 50 km (recent mapping of the Moho by the European Space 193 Agency) and 70 km (from gravity data; Feininger and Seguin, 1983) thick in the NVZ; 194 Palaeozoic with mafic and felsic components and up to 40 km thick in the SVZ (Hildreth and 195 Moorbath, 1988); Proterozoic and younger, predominantly felsic and thick, up to 80 km (e.g. 196 Thorpe and Francis, 1979; Zandt et al., 1994) in the CVZ. Volcanic rocks in the Central 197 Andes extend to more crust-like <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr compositions than in the northern and southern 198 zones but not to the extremely high <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr of the crustal xenoliths of this study or those of 199

crustal rocks from the Central Andes previously investigated (Fig. 3). 20 xenoliths were 200 chosen for Pb isotopic analysis. The microgranites are relatively non-radiogenic with 201 characteristically low Pb isotopic ratios at <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb <17.77; <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb <15.61; and 202  $^{208}$ Pb/ $^{204}$ Pb <38.49 (Fig. 4a, b). The remaining xenoliths exhibit  $^{206}$ Pb/ $^{204}$ Pb values from 18.17 203 to 18.93; <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb values from 15.64 to 15.69; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb values from 38.66-39.46, which 204 fall near upper crustal evolution trends. Aside from adding to the limited knowledge on the 205 compositions of the rock types which comprise the Central Andean continental basement, the 206 geochemical database presented here offers much needed constraints on the crustal 207 component(s) involved during petrogenesis of Central Andean magmas, a process which has 208 been, and is currently, extensively investigated and modelled (Davidson and de Silva, 1992; 209 210 1995; Sørensen and Holm, 2008; Mamani et al., 2010; Kay et al., 2010; Caffe et al., 2012).

211

### 212 Geochronology

Zircon is a useful mineral for U-Pb geochronology as it has a closure temperature in excess of typical zircon dissolution temperatures for continental crustal compositions (Cherniak and Watson, 2001), and it is physically and chemically robust, incorporating U and Th but little (if any) common Pb. <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>235</sup>U and <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>238</sup>U ion microprobe data on U-Pb concordia plots for 64 interior and rim analyses from 31 zircon crystals derived from two xenoliths of this study are presented on figures 5a and b and in Tables 1 and 2.

From sample BC93PAX14 (garnet-sillimanite granulite), three ages were discordant, likely reflecting Pb loss from the system. From 34 concordant ages, the oldest ages cluster at 1857  $\pm$ 17 Ma and the youngest at 380  $\pm$  14 Ma. The oldest ages define a small peak from ~1.7 to ~1.9 Ga with one age at 1611  $\pm$  21 Ma. A prominent age population is present between ~1.0 and ~1.2 Ga and the most significant population of Ordovician ages (11) is present between 439  $\pm$  13 Ma and 487  $\pm$  14 Ma (see inset graph in Fig. 5a). Additionally, two analyses yielded

upper Devonian ages of 385  $\pm$  11 Ma and 380  $\pm$  14 Ma (<sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>238</sup>U). The zircons analysed 225 from sample BC10QSX107 (garnet granulite) yield predominantly concordant ages with 226 significant age peaks from approximately 1.7 to 1.9 Ga and 1.0 to 1.2 Ga (see inset graph in 227 228 Fig. 5b). A third clustering of ages is present between  $417 \pm 17$  Ma and  $495 \pm 17$  Ma. Five ages fall outside these populations with three showing late Neoproterozoic ages (average 653 229  $\pm$  56 Ma) and two normally discordant analyses exhibiting early Palaeoproterozoic ages 230  $(2178 \pm 7 \text{ Ma and } 2503 \pm 10 \text{ Ma})$ . Thus, of the 64 ages yielded from the two chosen samples, 231 59 are concordant from which three age peaks at c. 500 (population 1), 1.0-1.2 (population 2) 232 233 and 1.7-1.9 Ga (population 3) can be identified.

There is no systematic age relationship between the sampled zircons as rim ages differ between grains hosted in the same crustal xenolith. Age data constrains a minimum age of *c*. 420 Ma and *c*. 380 Ma for the garnet granulite and the garnet-sillimanite granulite respectively. This clearly demonstrates the detrital origin of the zircons and indicates that the sampled xenoliths may have originally been post Devonian sediments. Core-rim age relationships also vary between grains within the same xenolith implying that the zircon population may represent derivation from numerous source regions (see Tables 1 and 2).

241

#### 242 **DISCUSSION**

### 243 Insight into basement domains as inferred from bulk Pb isotopes and Nd model ages

From previous work, the location of the volcanic centres at PA and QL are inferred to have erupted through the Arequipa-Antofalla basement (AAB) block (Fig. 1c; e.g. Ramos, 1988; 2008). The evolutionary history of this basement block will be discussed in detail later. In relation to three previously identified crustal domains within the AAB block (after Loewy et al., 2004), the Pb-isotopic compositions of the xenoliths plot mainly in the Central Domain which stretches from ~18°S to ~22°S consistent with the location of PA and QL (figures 6a

and b). A subset of samples display relatively radiogenic <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb signatures akin to those 250 of the Northern Domain present north of ~18°S to ~14°S and that incorporates the 251 Precambrian Arequipa Massif. This suggests one of several possibilities; 1) local 252 compositional heterogeneity with respect to <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb within the Central Domain, 2) 253 involvement of crustal basement to the east of the Arequipa-Antofalla basement where the 254 continental crust is uncharacterised, or 3) the domain boundary between the Northern and 255 Central Domain is much more complex and extends further south than thought. Previous 256 work on the Pb-isotopic composition of the continental basement in this region supports a 257 258 complex transition between the northern and central domains (Wörner et al., 1992; de Silva et al., 1993; Davidson and de Silva, 1995); a shallow southward-dipping, complexly interleaved 259 inter-crustal domain boundary has been suggested to exist beneath the PA and QL centres 260 261 thus both domains may be sampled by vertical conduits.

In terms of <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb vs. <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb all samples are distinct from the Southern Domain 262 which is present south of  $\sim 22^{\circ}$ S in Chile and Argentina. Fig. 6c shows Pb isotopic data from 263 this study combined with data from previous Central Andean studies on basement rocks 264 (Tosdal, 1996; Wörner et al., 2000; Loewy et al., 2004). All sampled xenoliths follow the 265 Arequipa-Brazilian Shield trend, above the Stacey and Kramers (1975) bulk crustal evolution 266 curve and just above the Pb isotopic evolution curve at  $\mu$ =10. All sampled basement rocks 267 from the Central Andes, including the xenoliths of this study, fall distinctly outside the Pb 268 269 isotopic domain of Laurentian crust at  $\mu$ =9.3 to which Argentinian Precordillera rocks have been found to show affinity (Thomas et al., 2002). This excludes the role of any Laurentian 270 crust (either as reworked crustal material or as protoliths) in the genesis of the continental 271 272 crust in this region of the Central Andes.

273 Calculated xenolith  $\varepsilon$ Nd values range from -7.5 to -15.8. Calculated T<sub>DM</sub> ages for the 274 sampled xenolith suite form a continuous range from 2.6 to 1.0 Ga, with a peak at *c*. 1.9 Ga

(with the exception of the garnet mica schist at c. 4.0 Ga and one diorite at c. 2.9 Ga). This is 275 comparable with the range exhibited by Central Andean basement rocks (1.7-2.0 Ga, see 276 compilation by Becchio et al., 2011). T<sub>DM</sub> ages are broadly comparable to T<sub>DM</sub> ages of the 277 Northern and Central Domains of the Arequipa-Antofalla basement that range from 2.3 to 1.9 278 Ga and 2.2 to 1.3 Ga respectively (Loewy et al., 2004).  $T_{\text{DM}}$  ages in the younger Southern 279 Domain range widely from 1.9 to 0.5 Ga. Sample BC93PAX14 (garnet-sillimanite granulite) 280 has a T<sub>DM</sub> age of 2.34 Ga however; multiple analyses for the U-Pb ages in its zircons reveal 281 events at c. 1.8, 1.0 and 0.5 Ga. The crystallisation age of these zircons range from the Late 282 283 Palaeoproterozoic to Early Devonian and clearly demonstrate the role of extensive crustal reworking. Given that the (proto) Andean margin has been an active site of orogenesis and 284 magmatism since at least the mid-Proterozoic (see discussion below) calculated T<sub>DM</sub> ages are 285 286 likely an average age derived from both crustal and mantle sources and thus highlight the role of crustal recycling throughout the history of the western South American margin. 287

288

# 289 Insight into basement domain models from Zircon U-Pb ages

Constraining the evolution of the Central Andean continental basement is challenging due to 290 1) the accretion of several allochthonous and autochthonous tectonic blocks to the South 291 American margin, 2) the fact that each of these blocks has a unique geological history and 3) 292 293 that each will have experienced multiple orogenic events throughout the Phanerozoic. 294 Perhaps more importantly however, is the lack of exposure of Precambrian age basement rocks throughout the modern Central Andean Cordillera. As shown previously, concordant 295 U-Pb zircon ages of this study exhibit three prominent age populations at the late 296 297 Palaeoproterozoic (population 3) late Mesoproterozoic (population 2) and early Phanerozoic (population 1, Fig. 7a). Fig. 7b and c show concordant U-Pb zircon ages from provenance 298 299 and basement studies across the Central Andes and throughout the Andean Cordillera where

300 prominent age peaks are identified at c. 500 Ma (population 1 of this study) and c. 1.1 Ga (population 2) and a scattering of ages exists throughout the Palaeoproterozoic and into the 301 Archean (e.g. Beccio et al., 2011). Despite the comparatively small sample size of this study, 302 303 it is significant that the overall age pattern previously identified throughout the entire Central Andes is imprinted in the zircon record of the two xenoliths selected for analysis. This further 304 attests to extensive crustal recycling, but also speaks to the refractory and reliable nature of 305 zircon as a recorder of crustal evolution. Below we examine the implications of our data for 306 current models of basement domains in the Central Andes. 307

308

# 309 Palaeoproterozoic ages (Population 3)

Material older than ~1.7 Ga is typically lacking from Central Andean U-Pb zircon data sets 310 311 which has led to the suggestion that the Sunsás orogen (1.2 to 0.9 Ga; Grenville age) acted as a topographic barrier preventing the supply of material from the Amazonian craton, which 312 forms the continental "nucleus" of South America (Chew et al., 2007b; 2011). A similar 313 scenario has been invoked for the evolution of Newfoundland and the Appalachian mountain 314 chains (Cawood et al., 2007). The craton is comprised of two Archean and five Proterozoic 315 crustal provinces with crustal growth patterns suggesting that domains young with distance 316 from the cratonic interior, the youngest being the Sunsás (1.28-0.95 Ga) exposed in Eastern 317 Bolivia (see Fig. 1c; Chew et al. 2011). 318

Palaeoproterozoic ages from this study range predominantly from 1.9 to 1.7 Ga with late to mid Mesoproterozoic data (1.7-1.2 Ga) almost completely absent. Similar zircon ages have been identified elsewhere throughout the Andean Cordillera (e.g. Peru, Loewy et al., 2004; Chew et al., 2008). During the mid Palaeoproterozoic, the Trans-Amazonian Belt developed from northern Amazonia to Argentina as a tectonic collage and is understood to have been established by ~1.8 Ga. Following this, a series of tectonic events dominated by postorogenic granitic plutonism, explosive and extrusive volcanism, crustal-scale shearing and rifting associated with the formation of volcano-sedimentary basins occurred from 1.8 to 1.6 Ga (de Almeida et al., 2000). These events could potentially account for the >1600 Ma Palaeoproterozoic ages detected in our study and others, and implies that pre-Mesoproterozoic Amazonian cratonic material was available during the development of the Andean margin. This requires re-examination of the Sunsás orogeny topographic barrier hypothesis.

332

### 333 Mesoproterozoic ages (Population 2)

At approximately 1 Ga a single supercontinental mass, Rodinia, is hypothesised to have 334 existed (McMenamin and McMenamin, 1990). Grenvillian aged belts produced during the 335 336 Mesoproterozoic and hence prior to supercontinent formation exist as scattered fragments 337 across the continents on earth today and have been used to reconstruct the paleogeography of Rodinia (e.g. Hoffman, 1991). This reconstruction, alongside more recent efforts, juxtapose 338 339 the western margin of the Amazonian craton (Palaeoproterozoic to Archean in age) against Laurentia's eastern (Appalachian) margin (e.g. Torsvik, 2003). The Arequipa-Antofalla 340 Basement (AAB) block of the Central Andes (after Loewy et al., 2004) is considered to 341 represent a fragment of a Mesoproterozoic, Grenvillian-aged, orogenic belt which is 342 allochthonous to Amazonia (Ramos, 1988; Dalziel, 1994; Fuck et al., 2008). Its accretion to 343 344 the proto-Andean margin has been proposed at 1000-1300 Ma during the Sunsás orogenic episode and the building of the Rodinian supercontinent implying a major crustal domain 345 boundary separates the two (Wörner et al., 2000; Loewy et al., 2004)). The prominent age 346 347 peak between 1 and 1.2 Ga observed within the sampled zircon suite of this study, and others (Fig, 7) is therefore attributable to the Grenville-aged Sunsás orogenic source associated with 348 the construction of Rodinia and is consistent with an AAB origin. Syn and post tectonic 349

Sunsás related deformation and orogenesis has recently been identified between 1105 and 1014 Ma in zircons derived from intrusive rocks within the Sunsás belt (Chew et al., 2011 and references therein). This age peak coincides extremely well with age peaks derived from numerous other U-Pb detrital zircon studies aimed at reconstructing Rodinia e.g. California, Arizona and the Mojave Province, north-western Mexico (Stewart et al., 2001; Farmer et al., 2005); south-western Africa and Uruguay (Basei et al. 2005); Mongolia (LaiCheng et al., 2007); Scotland, Newfoundland and the Appalachians (Cawood et al., 2007).

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### 358 Neoproterozoic and Early Phanerozoic ages (Population 1)

Rifting of the Rodinian supercontinent is understood to have been multi-stage and may have 359 occurred as early as ~850 Ma (Torsvik, 2008) with the eventual formation of the Iapetus 360 361 Ocean as Laurentia separated from western Gondwana (Fig. 8). Paleontological evidence for 362 the link between the proto-Andean margin and the Iapetus Ocean is provided by brachiopods in Argentina, Bolivia and Peru (Benedetto, 1998). Remnant basement blocks from the Sierra 363 364 Pampeanas, Argentina, indicate active arc magmatism between 650 and 530 Ma on the western margin of Gondwana during Iapetus times, which is considerably earlier than that 365 recorded on Laurentia (~500 Ma and younger, Chew et al., 2008). Mid-Late Neoproterozoic 366 U-Pb ages from our detrital zircon study (and those of the (Central) Andean record) can be 367 inferred to record the Pampean-Brasiliano orogenic cycle during which a magmatic arc is 368 369 understood to have developed on the proto-Andean margin (0.5-0.7 Ga, Loewy et al., 2004; Chew et al., 2008; Wotzlaw et al., 2011). This orogenic belt is understood to have developed 370 during the assembly of western Gondwana as allochthonous terranes converged on the 371 Amazonian craton (Fig. 8). However, the present day expression of this orogeny in Bolivia 372 (the Tucavaca Belt at  $\sim 16^{\circ}$ S,  $65^{\circ}$ W, see Fig. 1c) is composed of deformed sedimentary 373 sequences and not oceanic lithosphere (Pimentel et al., 1999). A potential source for the Mid-374

Late Neoproterozoic ages in the detrital zircon record of this study may therefore be the Brasília Belt that lies to the northeast of the Tucavaca Belt where syn-collisional and arcrelated (granitoid) magmatism has been dated between 0.9 to 0.63 Ga (Chew et al., 2008).

378 At the onset of the Phanerozoic, the western margin of Gondwana was active (Fig. 8) but the number and associated ages of orogenic events throughout the Palaeozoic is poorly 379 constrained (Chew et al., 2007b). A subduction regime is thought to have been established 380 along the western Gondwana margin during the Cambrian, which defined a convergent 381 tectonic regime between the margins of eastern Laurentia and western Gondwana. At this 382 time, rifted fragments of Laurentian crust are thought to have accreted to the western 383 Gondwana margin as recorded by the Laurentian Precordillera terrane in northwest 384 Argentina, (Fig. 6c, Kay et al., 1996; Thomas et al., 2002). However, involvement of 385 386 Laurentian crust is not recorded in the Pb-isotopic compositions of sampled xenoliths (Fig. 5a, b) suggesting there was limited, if any, accretion of Laurentian derived material to the 387 continental basement of the western South American margin at modern-day latitudes (based 388 on data currently available). 389

Mid Palaeozoic ages recorded in the detrital zircon record of this study (495-380 Ma) could reflect magmatism related to the Famatinian orogeny (*c*. 480 Ma) during which the Iapetus Ocean closed. However, the southern Laurentian margin is thought to have eventually collided with the northern margin of South America meaning that the western margin has remained active since early Palaeozoic times (Thomas and Astini, 2003).

In summary, U-Pb zircon data from crustal xenoliths hosted in Quaternary lavas from the Bolivian Altiplano, supports previous work by indicating the presence of Grenville-aged crustal basement in the Central Andes and the potential derivation of material from the Amazonian craton, Grenville-aged (Sunsás) and Famatinian-aged peaks in the analysed zircon populations implies the availability of these sources to supply material to Palaeozoic 400 strata. Today these belts may form, at least part of, the crust on which the modern day Andean mountain chain is built and may have been buried as recently as the Eocene-401 Oligocene (Chew et al., 2008). The presence of all three age populations within the detrital 402 403 U-Pb zircon record from the same crustal xenolith clearly indicates the important role of crustal recycling during the evolution of the (Central) Andean continental margin. 404 Furthermore, given the lack of a systematic age relationship between the detrital grains 405 sampled by this study and the age constraints emplaced by the youngest observed ages (c.406 420 and 320 Ma), the host xenoliths likely represent post Silurian and/or post Devonian 407 408 sediments. On a separate note, the prominent age peaks of zircon population 2 and 3 found in this study and throughout the Andean Cordillera can also be attributed to significant periods 409 410 of continental crustal growth at 1.9 and 1.2 Ga (c.f. Condie, 1998).

411

#### 412 Implications for the Arequipa-Antofalla Basement block of the Central Andes.

The U-Pb zircon record of the (Central) Andes in this study complements and enhances previous work that demonstrates the development of the Andean margin from pre-Grenville times to the establishment of the modern-day tectonic regime through a sequence of supercontinent construction, subsequent break up, the docking of exotic crustal terrane blocks and the important role of crustal recycling. Below we evaluate the implications of our work for the Arequipa-Antofalla Basement (AAB) block – the putative local basement to the study area on the Bolivian Altiplano.

From previous work, the AAB block is inferred to underlie the volcanic centres at PA and QL (see Fig. 1c). Early studies of basement inliers in this region suggested the AAB was one coherent basement domain (Ramos, 1988) but more recent work has indicated that the Antofalla Basement is distinct from the northern, nonradiogenic Precambrian Arequipa Massif (Ramos, 2008) despite both exhibiting similar Palaeoproterozoic protoliths ages (c. 425 1900 Ma; Loewy et al., 2004). The Arequipa Massif is characterised by granulites, gneisses, dioritic gneisses, foliated migmatites, mylonites and meta-igneous basic rocks (Ramos, 426 2008). The Antofalla Basement is comparatively radiogenic (Fig. 6a, b) but like the Arequipa 427 428 Massif, exhibits similar high-grade Mesoproterozoic metamorphic ages (e.g. Wasteneys et al., 1995) indicating that the two blocks, at least in part, share a common history. Antofalla 429 rock types preserved in the scattered surface outcrops are dominated by Proterozoic gneisses 430 (orthogneisses, quartz-biotite paragneisses granodioritic orthogneisses, migmatitic gneisses) 431 muscovite schists and amphibolites (Wörner et al., 2000; Loewy et al., 2004). Rifting 432 433 associated with the break-up of Rodinia is inferred to have partially detached the AAB from the Amazonian margin (Fig. 9a in Ramos, 2008) and established a passive margin regime 434 during the Neoproterozoic (the Puncoviscana Basin, see Fig. 1c; Cawood et al., 2001). 435 436 During the Cambrian and preceding the assembly of Gondwana, the tectonic regime changed to one of subduction during which the AAB was re-accreted to Amazonia during the 437 Famatinian orogeny (Ramos, 2008). The distinct Pb isotopic composition of the southern 438 Antofalla (Southern Domain after Loewy et al., 2004) has been attributed to the 439 counterclockwise separation from Gondwana following early Cambrian re-accretion such 440 that, although dominated by an extensional regime, oceanic crust did not develop in the 441 northern Antofalla (Central Domain after Loewy et al., 2004). Ramos (2008) inferred that 442 following cessation of continental rifting, the Antofalla was reaccreted to the continental 443 444 margin again.

445 Cardona et al. (2009) recently studied the Maranón Complex in the Eastern Cordillera of the 446 Peruvian Andes. This complex encompasses all the metamorphic basement rocks of the 447 Eastern Cordillera and is characterised by low to middle-grade metamorphic units in two 448 basins of volcano-sedimentary origin, which are inferred to have developed in an arc-related 449 tectonic regime during the late Palaeozoic. From detrital zircons and stratigraphic age relationships, sedimentation was constrained to 318-300 Ma for the western basin (450-420
Ma in the east). Metamorphism of these deposited sequences, attributed to terrane accretion
or a change in the subduction regime, has been constrained to 300-310 Ma in exposed schists
with evidence for younger granitoid intrusions during the Triassic (Cardona et al., 2009).

454

From our perspective, the youngest detrital zircon age obtained by this study is 380 Ma. 455 This constrains the age of the host garnet-sillimanite granulite xenolith to < c. 380 Ma (< c. 456 420 Ma for the garnet granulite). The high wt. % Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> contents in the majority of the 457 458 sampled xenoliths and the high abundance of aluminous minerals present (garnet, sillimanite, biotite) are indicative of the aluminous nature of potential pelitic protolith(s). Furthermore, 459 the almandine-rich nature of sampled garnets (schists only) can be used to infer garnet growth 460 461 during regional metamorphism of argillaceous sediments (Deer et al., 1992). These observations and constraints present difficulty when attempting to reconcile these xenoliths 462 within the evolutionary history of the AAB given that our observations indicate that 1) the 463 464 Central Domain is predominantly characterised by gneissose lithologies (Loewy et al, 2004) and 2) source regions to the detrital zircons must have been available until at least 380 Ma. 465 This is in contrast to current thinking about the AAB, which is composed predominantly of 466 Proterozoic gneisses (and thus devoid of Phanerozoic material) and only affected by 467 magmatism during the Early Palaeozoic (Loewy et al., 2004). Thus, whilst the sampled 468 469 zircon suite shares a similar U-Pb age record as that observed in the AAB (Fig, 7b), we suggest that the sampled xenoliths of this study are not derived from the continental basement 470 of the AAB. Instead, we infer that the sampled crustal suite represents the meta volcano-471 472 sedimentary continental basement of the Eastern Bolivian Cordillera, the composition of which may be similar to that identified in the Peruvian Eastern Cordillera by Cardona et al. 473

474 (2009). The eastern terrane boundary of the AAB may therefore be further west than inferred475 by previous studies (Fig, 1c).

476

### 477 CONCLUSIONS

The crustal xenoliths from the back-arc region of the modern-day active Central Andean margin reveal significant lithological heterogeneity exists within the continental basement. Measured major and trace element concentrations and Sr-Nd-Pb isotopic compositions place important constraints on the characteristics of the Central Andean crust. The data presented provides an absolute, comprehensive geochemical dataset of potential crustal contaminants for studies of crustal contamination which aim to evaluate the role of the continental crust during petrogenesis of Central Andean magmas.

The sampled xenoliths are entrained within *c*. 2 Ma lavas which erupted from two monogenetic volcanic centres on the Bolivian Altiplano beneath which, based on previous work, the Central Domain of the Precambrian Arequipa-Antofalla Basement (AAB) block is thought to exist. The Pb isotopic characteristics of the xenolith suite overlap the Pb compositions of the Central (and Northern) AAB Domain and are compositionally distinct from Laurentian crust, thus suggesting a limited contribution from Laurentian-derived material, at least in this region of the Central Andes, to the continental basement.

The detrital U-Pb zircon record from two of the xenoliths reveal three populations with age peaks at *c*. 1.8 Ga, *c*. 1.1 Ga and *c*. 0.5 Ga and demonstrate the important role of crustal recycling during the growth of the Central Andean margin. These ages can be reconciled with periods of supercontinent formation, subsequent break-up and active margin magmatism. The core-rim age relationships vary between grains implying numerous sources contributed to the detrital record. The age constraints implied by the detrital record and the aluminous nature of inferred pelitic protoliths indicate that these xenoliths represent post Silurian and/or post 499 Devonian sediments. This interpretation is difficult to reconcile within the evolutionary 500 history of the AAB and suggests these xenoliths are sampling the meta volcano-sedimentary 501 continental basement of the Bolivian Eastern Cordillera. This further implies that the eastern 502 extent of the Proterozoic AAB Central Domain is further west than previously thought.

503

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516

#### 517 FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1a. The four volcanic zones of the Andean Cordillera: NVZ (Northern Volcanic Zone);
CVZ (Central); SVZ (Southern) and AVZ (Austral). Modified from de Silva (1989). b.
Monogenetic volcanic centres on the Bolivian Altiplano (grey circles). Volcanoes of the
Andean arc are represented by black triangles. Modified from Davidson and de Silva (1995).
c. Map showing the three domains, Northern, Central and Southern, of the ArequipaAntofalla Basement (AAB) block of the Central Andes. Field locality at Pampas Aullagas

and Quillacas, indicated by the star symbol, is located at the eastern extent of the CentralDomain. Map is modified from Loewy et al. (2004).

526

527 Fig. 2. Average modal mineralogy of the sampled xenolith lithologies.

528

Fig. 3a. Sr-Nd isotopic compositions of Bolivian xenoliths. Compositional fields for 529 previously studied outcrops of crustal basement throughout the central Andes are also shown. 530 Data sources: James (1982); Lucassen et al. (1999); Lucassen et al. (2001). The Precambrian 531 Charcani Gneiss of Peru (Arequipa Massif, Fig. 1c) plots outwith the compositional field 532 shown at significantly lower  ${}^{143}$ Nd/ ${}^{144}$ Nd (0.5115) and  ${}^{87}$ Sr/ ${}^{86}$ Sr of 0.740 (James, 1982). b. 533 Variation of <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr between Cenozoic (<60 Ma) volcanic rocks of the NVZ, CVZ and SVZ 534 (in 5° latitude bins). Data were compiled from GEOROC, Map is modified from de Silva 535 (1989). Values for MORB after Kelemen et al. (2004); BSE (Bulk Silicate Earth) after 536 DePaolo and Wasserburg (1979). 537

538

Fig. 4a. <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb vs. <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb for crustal xenoliths. b. <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb vs. <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb for
crustal xenoliths. Geochron and upper crustal evolution lines (each tick at 100 Ma intervals)
after Zartman and Haines (1988); Rollinson (1993) respectively.

542

Fig. 5a, b. U-Pb concordia plots for sampled cores and rims of zircons within BC10QSX107
and BC93PAX14. Age shown on inset graph is U-Pb age with the smallest error (see
supplementary information).

546

Fig. 6a, b. Pb isotopic composition of sampled xenoliths plotted alongside the Northern,
Central and Southern crustal domains of the Arequipa-Antofalla basement block of Fig. 1c.

549 Domains are redrawn from Loewy et al. (2004). c.  ${}^{207}$ Pb/ ${}^{204}$ Pb vs.  ${}^{206}$ Pb/ ${}^{204}$ Pb for crustal 550 xenoliths of this study and from previous studies of continental basement rocks in the Central 551 Andes. All samples are distinct from the Laurentian crustal trend at  $\mu$  of ~9.3 along which 552 basement rocks from the Argentinian Precordillera (Southern Andes), plot. Compositional 553 fields redrawn from Wörner et al. (2000).

554

Fig. 7a-c. U-Pb ages from analyses of zircon grains across the Andean Cordillera. Data
sources: Tosdal, R. M. (1996); Goldstein, S. L. (1997); Restrepo-Pace, P. A., et al. (1997);
Rapela, C. W., et al. (1998); Wörner, G., et al., (2000); Cordani, U. G., et al., (2005); Rapela,
C. W., et al., (2007); Chew, D. M., et al. (2008); Collo, G., et al. (2009); Folkes, C. B., et al.
(2011). See also Becchio et al. (2011).

560

Fig. 8. Map showing the separation of Laurentia and Gondwana by the Iapetus Ocean at 550
Ma. AAB: Arequipa-Antofalla Basement; AC: Amazonian Craton; AN: Arabian-Nubian
Shield; ANT: Antarctica; AU: Australia; C-SF: Congo-San-Francisco; C: Colombian
basement; Cu: Cuyania; IN: India; K: Kalahari; LA: Laurentia; RP: Rio de la Plata (see Fig.
1c); U-N: Uweinat-Nile; WA: Western Africa. (Map modified from Cordani et al., 2005).

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