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Recycling of Continental Crust Captured in Pamir Xenoliths

A Thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the
requirements for the degree Master of Science
in Earth Science

by

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June 2017

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May 2017

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ABSTRACT

Recycling of Continental Crust Captured in Pamir Xenoliths

by

Madeline Ellen Faith Shaffer

Xenoliths that erupted in the SE Pamir of Tajikistan from 1000–1100°C and 90 km depth are exclusively crustal, providing a means of examining what happens to crust that founders into the mantle. $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dating of volcanic minerals indicates an eruption age of 10.0 ± 0.2 Ma. U-Pb + trace-element laser-ablation split stream inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry of zircon shows that the xenoliths were likely derived from the crustal section into which they were intruded: the igneous xenoliths were derived from the Jurassic–Cretaceous Trans-Himalayan Batholith, and the metasedimentary xenoliths are like the stratigraphic section that hosts the Batholith. Recrystallization of these zircons was extensive, yielding a range of dates down to 10 Ma. The zircons show distinct changes in Eu anomaly, Lu/Gd ratio, and Ti concentrations compatible with garnet growth and minimal heating at 22–20 Ma, and then 200–300°C of heating, ~40 km of burial, and alkali–carbonate melt injection at 14–11 Ma. These dramatic changes are interpreted to coincide with foundering of the Pamir lower crust caused by tectonic thickening and northward rollback of the Asian slab. These xenoliths provide our only known record of the physical and chemical changes during the foundering continental crust.

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I. Introduction

Recycling of continental crust into the mantle is among the most-important processes driving the chemical and physical evolution of Earth. Mechanisms of crustal recycling include arc subduction, sediment subduction, continent subduction, subduction erosion, and foundering [e.g., *Hacker et al.*, 2015]. These processes dictate the rates and types of crustal chemical and physical evolution—and even more-fundamental issues such as the secular evolution of continental volume—but are only loosely understood. This limitation has led to a wide range of viewpoints on the efficiency of the recycling process. If, for example, 95% of continental crustal material that is ablated by subduction erosion is returned to the mantle—as suggested by *Scholl and von Huene* [2007]—this process may destroy continental crust as fast as it is produced [*Stern*, 2010], and the eroded material comes from all crustal levels. Alternatively, if crustal material carried into the mantle by subduction erosion undergoes buoyancy-driven fractionation, the mafic material may return to the mantle, and the felsic material may be relaminated to the base of the crust [*Hacker et al.*, 2011; *Hacker et al.*, 2015; *Kelemen and Behn*, 2016].

During the twilight of the geosyncline era and the dawn of the plate-tectonic revolution, *Ringwood and Green* [1966] realized that the basalt→eclogite transformation could drive crustal foundering, and *Armstrong* [1968] suggested that large-scale recycling of continental crust might occur by sediment subduction. Over the next few decades, crustal recycling via the foundering of gravitationally unstable lower portions of arcs [*Herzberg et al.*, 1983; *Arndt and Goldstein*, 1989; *Kay and Kay*, 1991], and via sediment subduction [*Hilde*, 1983] became mainstream concepts. The importance of crustal recycling by subduction erosion was recognized next [*Clift and Vannucchi*, 2004; *Scholl and von Huene*, 2007], and—once the

abundance of ultrahigh-pressure (UHP) terranes became clear [*Ernst*, 2001]—continental foundering and subduction [*Molnar and Gray*, 1979] were recognized as important recycling processes. The most-recent form of crustal recycling that has been suggested is arc subduction [*Tamura et al.*, 2010; *Hacker et al.*, 2011, 2015; *Kelemen & Behn*, 2016].

These crustal recycling processes are of supreme interest for understanding the evolution of Earth for many reasons:

- Selective removal of dense material changes the composition of Earth's crust, leading to secular variation in composition, or long-term chemical differentiation. Such changes have implications for the thickness, thermal structure, radioactivity profile, and velocity structure of the crust [*Herzberg et al.*, 1983; *Arndt and Goldstein*, 1989; *Kay and Kay*, 1991; *Jull and Kelemen*, 2001; *Behn and Kelemen*, 2006; *Kukkonen et al.*, 2008; *Hacker et al.*, 2011; *Lee*, 2014].
- Introduction of differentiated crust into the mantle produces local chemical heterogeneities in the mantle that may drive or affect melting, or enhance or diminish chemical buoyancy and thus gravity-driven motion [*Allègre and Turcotte*, 1986; *Arndt and Goldstein*, 1989; *Kay and Kay*, 1991; *Lee*, 2014].
- Continental crust is almost everywhere thinner than 50 km, suggesting that crust thicker than this is gravitationally unstable [*Anderson*, 2005] or weak [*Sandiford*, 2xxx].
- Changes in plate-scale forces resulting from the removal of dense material from the lithosphere can induce changes in plate motions [*Molnar et al.*, 1993].
- Intracontinental subduction may be an integral part of continental orogeny [*Burtman and Molnar*, 1993].

II. The Importance of Xenoliths

Our understanding of crustal recycling comes chiefly from i) geodynamic models [e.g., *Gerya and Meilick, 2011*], ii) large-scale box models that use isotopic systems to quantify recycling rates [*Coltice et al., 2000; Simon and Lécuyer, 2005*]; iii) exposed arc rocks, from which one can infer the magnitude and timescale of lower crustal foundering [*Kelemen et al., 2003; Ducea et al., 2013*]; iv) geophysical images of foundering material [*Zandt and Carrigan, 1993*]; and v) xenoliths, which provide snapshots of processes at depth. Among these techniques, xenoliths provide our only actual samples of the materials and the physical and chemical processes involved in crustal recycling, and constitute our only way to verify or “ground truth” inferences made from geodynamic models, box models, exposed arcs, and geophysical images. For example, xenoliths provided the spectacular record of foundering of the Sierra Nevada arc lower crust and upper mantle [*Ducea and Saleeby, 1996; Chin et al., 2013*], and the foundation for interpreting seismic wavespeeds as images of the recycling process [*Zandt and Carrigan, 1993*]. Despite the tremendous insight that xenoliths afford our understanding of crustal recycling, essentially all xenoliths from mantle depths are mafic or ultramafic, save two localities: one in the Pamir [*Lutkov, 2003, 2005; Hacker et al., 2005*] and one in Tibet [*Chan et al., 2009*]. These unusual xenoliths thus present a unique opportunity to understand the chemical and physical processes that attend crustal recycling.

III. Geological Setting

The Pamir are the northwestern extent of Earth’s largest, archetypal continent-collision zone, the Cenozoic India–Eurasia orogenic belt (**Fig. 1**). The collision zone has an extensive history [e.g. *Burtman and Molnar, 1993; Schwab et al., 2004; Schmidt et al., 2011*;

Robinson, 2015; Kufner et al., 2016] that includes at least three postulated Cenozoic foundering events: two breakoffs of the subducting Indian slab [*Negredo et al., 2007; Replumaz et al., 2010; DeCelles et al., 2011*], and one event involving foundering of the Asian slab [*Kufner et al., 2016*] and/or lower crust [*Hacker et al., 2005; Gordon et al., 2012; Schmidt et al., 2011*].

A few dozen meter- to decameter-scale diatremes, volcanic necks and shallow dikes pierce the surface of the southeastern Pamir Plateau. Known as the Dunkeldik suite, these volcanic rocks range from ultrapotassic tephrite to tephriphonolite [*Malz, 2011*], syenite and carbonatite, and locally carry abundant cm- to dm-sized xenoliths [*Dmitriev, 1976; Lutkov, 2003; Lutkov, 2005*]. The xenoliths are extremely unusual: they are crustal rocks metamorphosed at ultrahigh temperature (>1000°C) and mantle depth (90 km) [*Ducea et al., 2003; Hacker et al., 2005; Gordon et al., 2012*]. Apart from a single occurrence of much smaller—but otherwise similar—xenoliths in southern Tibet [*Chan et al., 2009*], these xenoliths are one-of-a-kind: no other continental-crust xenoliths from such high pressures and temperatures are known. They alone can tell us what happens during the recycling of continental crust.

These Pamir xenoliths are especially valuable for four reasons. 1) Unlike crustal rocks that were subducted to mantle depths and exhumed in ultrahigh-pressure metamorphic terrains, the xenoliths preserve fresh minerals and textures developed at extreme mantle conditions. 2) Because the xenoliths were erupted only 10 Myr ago [this study, *Ducea et al., 2003*], geophysical investigations of the Pamir crust and mantle [*Mechie et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 2013; Sippl et al., 2013*] help place the formation and eruption of the xenoliths in a geodynamic context not possible in older orogenic belts. 3) The xenoliths were erupted near

high-grade gneiss domes composed of the same rock types (**Fig. 1**) [Gordon *et al.*, 2012], which evolved coevally with the xenoliths and were exhumed shortly after the xenoliths were erupted [Schmidt *et al.*, 2011; Stübner *et al.*, 2013b; Hacker *et al.*, in press]. These gneiss domes can be used as a reference for the type of crust from which the xenoliths might have been derived prior to foundering. 4) The xenoliths are large and contain large and abundant U- and Th-bearing accessory minerals that can be used to establish timing of events [Ducea *et al.*, 2003; Kooijman *et al.*, 2017].

Here we use zircon to quantify the chronology of P-T conditions experienced by the xenoliths *before and during this foundering event*. This study seeks to: i) define the P-T and metasomatic evolution of crustal xenoliths during a recycling event; ii) reconstruct the series of events that led to foundering via delamination beneath the Pamir; iii) estimate the size of the foundered material and its rate of foundering; and iv) discuss the implications for the late Cenozoic evolution of the Pamir.

IV. Xenolith Description

The Pamir xenolith suite used for this study includes 85 eclogite- and granulite-facies rocks ranging in composition from basalt to granodiorite to pelite, plus phlogopite–garnet pyroxenite and websterite [Lutkov, 2003; Lutkov, 2005]. Our sample collection consists of 29% mafic igneous rocks, 18% pelitic, 10% ultramafic, 41% intermediate-composition quartzofeldspathic rocks of igneous or sedimentary provenance, and 2 minettes. The volcanic host rock is strongly enriched in LILE (e.g., 7–8 wt% K₂O and La = 1000x chondrite) and depleted in HFSE (with arc-type Nb, Ta, and Ti anomalies) [Malz, 2011]. Its major- and trace-element compositions suggest low degrees of melting of phlogopite-bearing garnet

lherzolite at ~4 GPa (130 km depth) in the presence of ~10% “sediment” component [Malz, 2011].

Major-element thermobarometry, pseudosections, and oxygen-isotope thermometry indicate that the granulite-facies xenoliths reached temperatures of ~875–1000°C and pressures of ~1.8–2.3 GPa, and the eclogite-facies rocks reached ~1000–1100°C and ~2.5–2.8 GPa [Hacker *et al.*, 2005; Gordon *et al.*, 2012] (**Fig. 2**). These pressures equate to depths of 65–80 km and 85–95 km; the eclogite-facies rocks were certainly erupted from depths well below the present-day Moho (60–70 km; Mechie *et al.*, 2012), and the peak pressures suggest that the granulite-facies rocks likely were as well. The hottest xenoliths have textures indicating melt injection (represented now by crystallized K-feldspar + ternary carbonate), dehydration melting of biotite, and growth of eclogite-facies minerals in the presence of melt [Hacker *et al.*, 2005].

The quoted temperatures are quite high for crustal rocks and presumably reflect a combination of conductive heating and magma injection prior to eruption; they do not reflect heating during eruption because the length scales of elemental zoning in the minerals are incompatible with the short duration of the eruption (1–10 days) [Hacker *et al.*, 2005]. The pressures quoted for the eclogite-facies rocks were derived from net-transfer reactions with both positive and negative Clapeyron slopes and cannot be artifacts of inaccurate temperature determinations [Hacker *et al.*, 2005; Gordon *et al.*, 2012].

The first LA-ICP-MS dataset on the xenoliths [Ducea *et al.*, 2003]—constituting of 19 zircons analyzed in two thin sections—revealed that one xenolith is a Cretaceous igneous rock and a second was derived from Eocene sediment. These data require that the Pamir xenoliths were derived from Asian crust and *not* Indian crust, as the latter lacks Cretaceous

magmatic rocks. It is a strong argument against derivation of the xenoliths by subduction erosion because the leading edge of the upper plate (in Pakistan and India) is an accreted slice of *India* [Hodges, 2000; Yin and Harrison, 2000]. The xenoliths more likely reached mantle depths by foundering of Asian crust or intracontinental subduction of Asian crust [Hacker et al., 2005; Kufner et al., 2016]. Furthermore, Gordon et al. [2012] noted that most of the xenoliths are compositionally similar to the Pamir Barrovian domes, implying that the xenoliths may represent foundered Pamir lower crust [Gordon et al., 2012].

The Pamir have widespread gneiss domes that expose high-grade Cenozoic rocks with bulk compositions and igneous, detrital, and metamorphic mineral dates similar to those of the xenoliths [Robinson et al., 2004; Robinson et al., 2007; Schmidt et al., 2011; Stearns et al., 2013; Stübner et al., 2013a; Stübner et al., 2013b; Rutte et al., 2017a; Rutte et al., 2017b]. The dome nearest the xenolith site, Shakh dara dome (**Fig. 1**), is dominated by Cretaceous plutonic rocks intruded into a Paleozoic clastic-dominated sedimentary section. Monazite, zircon, titanite, and garnet dates indicate that prograde metamorphism associated with crustal thickening in that dome began at 30 Ma and peaked around 16 Ma [Schmidt et al., 2011; Stearns et al., 2013; Stübner et al., 2013b; Hacker et al., in review]. The thickening (**Fig. 3**) led to the development of migmatitic gneisses (700–825°C and ~1.4–1.6 GPa; **Fig. 2**) [Schmidt et al., 2011; Hacker et al., in press] and may have contributed to a gravitationally unstable root. At 12 Ma—just prior to the xenoliths’ eruption—exhumation of the gneiss domes began, reaching the surface by ~3 Ma (**Fig. 3.3**) [Stübner et al., 2013a; Stübner et al., 2013b]. The dome exhumation and the foundering of the Pamir xenoliths may have been coeval processes resulting from crustal thickening—with the base of the crust recycling into the mantle and partially erupted as xenoliths, and the middle–lower crust rising to the

surface. The P-T evolution of the xenoliths addresses the timing of these events, and reveals a coeval process of exhumation and foundering.

A. Petrography

The xenoliths contain mineral assemblages of garnet + alkali feldspar + quartz + rutile ± phlogopite (**Fig. 4A-C**) [Lutkov, 2003; Lutkov *et al.*, 2005; Hacker *et al.*, 2005; Gordon *et al.*, 2012]. Xenoliths with significant kyanite and/or quartz (and detrital zircon; see below) are inferred to be metasedimentary. Xenoliths with high clinopyroxene/feldspar ratios range from quartz monzonite to granodiorite to tonalite in composition; more-mafic rocks (that lack inherited zircon; see below) are most likely igneous, whereas the more-felsic quartzofeldspathic rocks (some of which have inherited zircon) may have igneous or sedimentary protoliths. Most of the minerals are interpreted to be refractory remains after extensive melt extraction, but phlogopite, K-feldspar, and ternary Fe-Mg-Ca carbonate in some rocks may have been magmatically injected prior to eruption (**Fig. 4D**).

The two minette xenoliths (DK28 and DK36) are porphyries, with phenocrysts of alkali-feldspar and high-Ti phlogopite set in a carbonate groundmass with accessory apatite and zircon (cf. *Rock, 1980*; **Fig. 4F**). DK28 contains one 500 µm garnet surrounded by a 50 µm corona of clinopyroxene (**Fig. 4E**) that may be a xenocryst.

V. Methods

Zircon from 30 eclogite-facies xenoliths was analyzed in thin section for U-Pb dates and REE-Ti concentrations to reconstruct the foundering process. Zircon was first located and labeled in thin section using back-scattered electron (BSE) imaging on an FEI Quanta 400f

scanning electron microscope. The zircons were then imaged with cathodoluminescence (CL) to reveal zoning and internal textures. Inclusions in zircon were investigated by BSE and energy-dispersive spectrometry on the FEI instrument; carbonate inclusions were subsequently analyzed by wavelength-dispersive spectrometry on a Cameca SX-100 electron-probe micro-analyzer. U-Pb dates and REE-Ti concentrations were measured using LASS (laser-ablation split-stream inductively coupled-plasma mass spectrometry) [Kylander-Clark *et al.*, 2013]; the laser spots were 15 μm in diameter, the laser fluence was 100% of 3 mJ, and the laser repetition rate was 4 Hz. BSE + CL images were used to guide placement of the laser beam into specific zircon compositional zones to minimize mechanical mixing. Zircon 91500 [Wiedenbeck *et al.*, 1995] was used as the primary U-Pb reference material, and GJ1 zircon [Jackson *et al.*, 2004] was used as a secondary U-Pb reference material to assess accuracy. For elemental concentrations, GJ1 [Liu *et al.*, 2010] was employed as the primary reference material, and unknown elemental concentrations were normalized to a Zr concentration of 43.1 wt%. For quality control, the reference material 91500 was used as a secondary standard and yielded concentrations within 10% of published values. The raw U-Pb and trace-element data were reduced using Iolite version 2.5 [Paton *et al.*, 2011]. All analyses were conducted at the University of California, Santa Barbara.

A total of 1521 zircon spots were analyzed from 30 thin sections (**Table 1**). The data from each ablation spot were assessed with particular care to identify which data came from homogeneous zircon, and which did not. Data that i) show downhole zoning, ii) came from spots straddling more than one CL zone, iii) are strongly discordant, or iv) have low $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ ratios were rejected from the dataset. The data were also screened to remove non-zircon analyses by removing those with unusual LREE or Ti abundances. The fewest data

were rejected from the non-pelite xenolith zircon cores, and the most were rejected from metasedimentary xenolith zircon cores, chiefly because the former are larger and less recrystallized. Conversely, relatively few data from the metasedimentary zircon rims were discarded compared to the non-pelite xenoliths. The final dataset consists of 1119 analyses.

Following *Rubatto* [2002], *Kelly and Harley* [2005], *Timms* [2011], and *Taylor et al.* [2015], pressure was determined qualitatively by observing changes in two aspects of zircon trace-element composition: i) Eu/Eu* related to plagioclase stability, and ii) HREE slope—expressed as a Lu/Gd ratio—related to garnet stability. The expectation is that foundering of the xenoliths caused i) plagioclase breakdown that released Eu that could be consumed by zircon, and ii) garnet growth that reduced the amount of HREE that could be incorporated in zircon.

Temperature was determined from zircon Ti concentration using the *Ferry and Watson* [2007] calibration with its approximate pressure dependence of 50°C/GPa; the *Hofmann et al.* [2014] calibration yields temperatures on average 43°C hotter. Temperatures were calculated for equilibration at both 1 GPa and 2 GPa. All the rocks contain the saturating phases quartz and rutile, and pseudosection calculations indicate that rutile was stable in most of the xenoliths at >1.2 GPa. Even if rutile was not present during the low-pressure evolution of the xenoliths, the reduced a_{TiO_2} afforded by the presence of ilmenite [*Ghent and Stout*, 1984] or titanite [*Kapp et al.*, 2009] has a minor effect on temperature (<50°C).

$^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dating was completed at Stanford University via stepwise degassing in a resistance furnace. The results were calculated using the decay-constant data and monitor ages of *Renne et al.* (2010).

VI. Results

A. $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ geochronology

Phlogopite, leucite, and amphibole from the host volcanic rock, a porphyritic fergusonite [Dmitriev, 1976], yielded a weighted mean $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ date of $10.03 \pm 0.23/-0.12$ Ma, at 97.9% confidence. This is interpreted as the eruption age of the Dunkeldik ultrapotassic magmatic suite.

B. Zircon Zoning

Each thin section contains 5–60 zircons. The zircons are 50 to 200 μm in diameter, chiefly anhedral, and occur as matrix grains and inclusions—the latter hosted almost exclusively in garnet. They have different types of CL zoning, including oscillatory zoning, ghost zoning, flat-CL response, and metamict zones [Corfu *et al.*, 2003]. The zircons in the pelite xenoliths typically have small (5–15 μm diameter) cores with large (>25 μm wide) CL-flat rims (**Fig. 5E–H**). Zircons in non-pelite xenoliths have large (40–100 μm diameter) oscillatory zoned cores with thin (micron-scale) flat-CL rims (**Fig. 5A–D**). In nearly all rocks, the oscillatory zoning in the zircon cores is variably replaced by irregularly shaped domains with either CL-flat (**Fig. 5C**) or ghost zoning (**Fig. 5D**); some of these replacement domains are preferentially developed along cracks or specific crystal sectors (**Fig. 5C**). We interpret the oscillatory zoning to be igneous and the other types of zoning to be metamorphic—realizing that the “metamorphic” zoning was likely produced above the solidus in the presence of a mixed silicate–carbonatite fluid/melt [Hacker *et al.*, 2005]. Zircons from the minette xenoliths are large (~100 μm average) and have complex oscillatory zoning reminiscent of

kimberlitic zircon [Corfu *et al.*, 2003] (**Fig. 5I–L**). Sample DK25—an igneous sample—contains some zircon similar to that in the minettes.

C. U-Pb Zircon geochronology

The measured U-Pb isotopic ratios, uncorrected for common Pb, are summarized **Table 1** and **Figure 6**; the complete data suite is presented in **Supplemental Figure 1**. Data from matrix zircon are shown in black, and data from zircon included in other minerals (almost exclusively garnet) are red. Some data are concordant, and some are not. Some data are clearly discordant because of the presence of common Pb, whereas other data indicate the presence of inherited components (assuming the composition of common Pb is not unusual); the latter are green.

The concordant dates range from 159 ± 6 Ma to 10 Ma. The oldest concordant dates in a majority of samples are 159–107 Ma; almost universally, these Jurassic–Cretaceous dates come from zircon cores (**Fig.5**). Discordant isotopic ratios derived from zircon cores and indicative of inherited zircon are present in six samples; their upper intercept dates (projected from 10 Ma) range from 1691 Ma to 405 Ma. Additional similar zircon may be obscured by the presence of common Pb.

The Miocene dates come almost exclusively from zircon rims (the youngest date from a zircon included in garnet is 12 Ma). In the non-minette xenoliths, these dates are 15.8 ± 0.7 Ma to 10.6 ± 0.4 Ma, but in many of these samples—particularly those with large datasets—the Miocene dates form a slightly older cluster (shown as “mean dates” in **Figure 6** and **Supplement Figure 1**) of 14.9 Ma to 13.7 Ma

Minette xenolith zircon (as well as zircon with similar shapes and zoning from DK25) yield dates solely between 12 Ma and 10 Ma, with single populations yielding intercept dates of 10.9 ± 0.1 Ma to 10.4 ± 0.1 Ma (**Figure 7**).

D. Trace-element behavior

In the non-minette xenoliths, the zircon cores have REE abundances and patterns with strongly negative Eu/Eu* anomalies and positive HREE slopes (~100-10,000 times chondrite) typical of crustal, magmatic zircon [*Hoskin and Ireland, 2000*] (**Fig. 8**). In contrast, the zircon rims (with a few exceptions in **Figure 8A**) have reduced Eu/Eu* anomalies and flat HREE slopes that are typical of high-pressure metamorphic rocks recrystallized in the presence of garnet and absence of plagioclase [e.g., *Root et al., 2004; Kylander-Clark et al., 2013*]. The minette xenolith zircons are enriched in LREE relative to all the other zircons, and have HREE slopes that are intermediate between the cores and rims of the other xenoliths; xenolith DK25 has zircon cores with REE patterns like the non-minette zircons, and zircon rims with REE patterns similar to the minettes.

The differences in zircon trace-element patterns are correlated with U-Pb date (**Fig.9**). This was first reported by *Kooijman et al. [2017]*, who used a small, preliminary dataset; the different conclusions presented here are based on ten-fold larger dataset. The two-orders-of-magnitude change from HREE-rich to HREE-depleted zircon corresponds with 22–20 Ma U-Pb dates (**Fig. 9A**). The change from a strongly negative Eu anomaly to a less-negative or positive Eu anomaly corresponds to zircon with 14 Ma U-Pb dates (**Fig. 9B**).

The Ti abundances, and Ti-in-zircon temperatures (**Fig. 9C,D**) of inclusion and matrix grains from all xenoliths also show distinct changes with respect to U-Pb date: i) zircon with

dates older than 20 Ma give temperatures of 800–850°C (depending on pressure); ii) zircon with 20–15 Ma dates may be 50°C hotter; zircon with 14–11 Ma dates yield temperatures up to 1150°C (including DK25 and the minettes).

E. Zircon inclusions

Seventy-six mineral inclusions in zircon from 12 samples were studied. The inclusions are 2–30 μm in diameter and typically in zircon cores. The inclusions in all rock types other than minette are dominantly ternary (Ca–Na–K) feldspar, alkali feldspar, and apatite. Igneous-protolith xenolith zircons also have minor quartz, biotite, hornblende, and ternary (Ca–Mg–Fe) carbonate inclusions; metasedimentary zircon also contain kyanite and ternary carbonate. Zircon in the two minette xenoliths and in DK25 contain phlogopite, alkali feldspar, apatite, and ternary carbonate. The ternary carbonates display micron-scale compositional zoning of Mg and Ca (**Fig. 10**), and are all included within Miocene zircon zones. They are compositionally identical in composition to the ternary carbonates reported by *Hacker et al.* [2005], which were interpreted to be derived from unmixing of a carbonate-rich alkalic melt [*Lee & Wyllie*, 1998]. That alkalic melt might have been derived by small degrees of melting of a mantle source metasomatized by unknown processes of unknown age, or it might have been derived by melting of a mechanical mixture of foundering Pamir crust (i.e., the xenoliths or like material) and mantle peridotite.

VII. Discussion

A. U-Pb & Trace-elements

Interpreting trace-element and U-Pb data for zircon at temperatures as high as those experienced by the Pamir xenoliths requires careful consideration. For example, to interpret the Ti concentration and the U-Pb date from a single spot within a zircon as a $T-t$ datum requires that both developed at the same time and that neither has been reset. The Pamir zircons have radii of 20–50 μm and may have been held at a temperature of 800°C for 100 Myr. The characteristic lengthscale, $L_{Ti} = \text{SQRT}(2Dt)$, for Ti diffusion in undamaged zircon for this temperatures and timescale is $\ll 1 \mu\text{m}$ as determined from laboratory data [*Cherniak and Watson, 2007*], implying that the Ti-in-zircon temperatures were not affected by volume diffusion. The same is true for Pb, Yb, and Dy, for which laboratory diffusivities [*Cherniak et al., 1997; Cherniak, 2000*] yield characteristic lengthscales smaller than the zircons in the Pamir xenoliths (**Fig. 11**).

A more serious concern is posed by the high temperatures experienced by the xenoliths in the few million years prior to eruption. The U-Pb–Ti data in **Figure 8** imply that the Pamir zircons experienced temperatures up to 1100°C for 1–4 Myr. These high temperatures are in accord with those inferred for the hottest xenoliths from garnet, clinopyroxene, and feldspar compositions [*Hacker et al., 2005*], meaning that they are not simply the result of 1100°C zircon crystallizing during melt infiltration. The characteristic lengthscale for Ti diffusion at 1000–1100°C and 1–4 Myr is still very small compared to zircon size (**Fig. 11**), implying, again, that the Ti-in-zircon temperatures were not affected by volume diffusion—and therefore are accurate representations of temperatures experienced by the xenoliths. Not so for Pb and Yb, however, which have laboratory diffusivities at these temperatures ~ 3 orders of magnitude faster than Ti, and, consequently, much longer diffusive lengthscales (**Fig. 11**). If the temperature reached 1000–1100°C for 1–4 Myr, the laboratory data indicate $L_{Pb} = 20$ –

250 μm , $L_{\text{Dy}} = 5\text{--}115 \mu\text{m}$ and $L_{\text{Yb}} = 15\text{--}300 \mu\text{m}$, enough to strongly modify U-Pb dates, Dy, and Lu/Dy ratios in zircon cores.

The zircon CL zoning and U-Pb date spot distributions lend additional insight to the question of how to interpret the trace-element + U-Pb data. 1) Some zircons have well-preserved, submicron-scale zoning visible in CL, and the CL-visible boundaries between the older core domains and the younger, Miocene rims are locally sharp. Dy is the main CL-active element in zircon [Mariano, 1989], and L_{Dy} is 5–115 μm for 1000–1100°C and 1–4 Myr (Fig. 11), implying that volume diffusion of Dy should have erased fine-scale CL zoning. 2) Some zircons have old U-Pb core dates and young rim dates, and others have young U-Pb core dates and old rim dates (e.g., Fig. 5d). Moreover, there is no simple relationship between U-Pb date and laser spot position within a grain (Fig. 12). Both of these observations are counter to the expected results of volume diffusion of Pb, particularly if L_{Pb} is 20–250 μm for 1000–1100°C and 1–4 Myr. Thus, the preservation of CL zoning and the heterogeneous preservation of U-Pb dates indicates that either the laboratory data describing volume diffusion do not apply to these zircons [Kramers *et al.*, 2009], or the duration of heating was \ll 1 Myr (Fig. 11).

The CL zoning and U-Pb date distributions in Figure 5 make it clear that—although volume diffusion of Pb may not have been important—some other mechanism caused Pb and Dy mobility in many grains. The mechanism that permitted this *in situ* zircon recrystallization is unknown, but may have involved corrosive mixed silicate–carbonate fluid that invaded portions of zircon that were cracked, contained more crystal defects, or were subject to higher deviatoric stress; all of these are possible in a rock undergoing the type of extreme metamorphism experienced by these xenoliths. Textural evidence of *in situ*

recrystallization is more pronounced in the metasedimentary xenoliths, and may be related to the colder solidi typical of such rocks.

A few zircon included in garnet are older than matrix zircon in the same rock (e.g., DK1 and DK33), indicating that garnet may have effectively shielded the zircon from recrystallization. In general, however, matrix zircon and included zircon do not have different dates, indicating that garnet typically was not an effective shield of zircon. Alternatively, some of the garnet may have grown after the youngest zircon inclusions—i.e., as late as 13 Ma. This last possibility is supported by the presence of major-element zoning in garnet and by the preservation of carbonate with fine-scale zoning in some garnet cores (Fig. 2k in *Hacker et al.* [2005]).

Thus, our interpretation is that the youngest dates in each sample represent the last time zircon either grew *de novo* or underwent *in situ* recrystallization; the most-common time for this was 14–11 Ma. The Jurassic–Cretaceous, 159–107 Ma, dates in a majority of samples are similar to the Cretaceous batholith exposed in the southern Pamir [*Schwab et al.*, 2004; *Stearns et al.*, 2013]; these may be viewed as minimum igneous crystallization ages. Upper intercept dates in the 1691 Ma to 405 Ma range in some samples are best interpreted as minimum ages of inherited grains; these dates are similar to the dates of zircons reported elsewhere in the Pamir [*Schwab et al.*, 2004; *Rutte et al.*, 2017b]. In each sample, all the dates that are younger than the oldest concordant date and older than Miocene are very likely geologically meaningless dates that resulted from fine-scale, heterogeneous recrystallization in the Miocene. The interpretation that one xenolith was derived from Eocene sedimentary rocks [*Ducea et al.*, 2003] is wrong, as is the conclusion that there was punctuated zircon recrystallization [*Kooijman et al.*, 2017].

When in the Miocene did this partial recrystallization occur? The clusters of 14.9 Ma to 13.7 Ma zircon dates in the most-analyzed samples might provide an older boundary because they are not skewed toward younger dates. The 10.9 ± 0.1 Ma to 10.4 ± 0.1 Ma dates for the minette and DK25 zircons must be a younger bound. Thus, the Miocene partial recrystallization was likely ~14 Ma to 11 Ma.

The heterogeneous zircon recrystallization means that the time-dependent relationships exhibited by Lu/Gd, Eu/Eu*, and Ti-in-zircon must be carefully evaluated. Simplest to consider is Ti: volume diffusion of Ti is unlikely to have occurred, and yet the U-Pb dates could have been variably reset to younger dates by Pb mobility (**Fig. 11**). The 800°C Ti-in-zircon temperature of all the >14 Ma dates may simply represent igneous crystallization conditions during the Jurassic–Cretaceous or even earlier. The abruptness of the 14 Ma Ti increase (**Fig. 9C,D**) makes Pb resetting of ≤ 14 Ma data less probable, and is compatible with the Ti increase actually occurring at 14 Ma. The same logic applies to the marked drop in Lu/Gd ratio at 22–20 Ma and the marked increase in Eu/Eu* at 14–11 Ma.

By combining the T-t record of **Figure 9** with the P-T path of **Figure 2**, we reconstruct the P-T-t path of the Pamir xenoliths in **Figure 13**. From **Figure 9**, we take the Ti-in-zircon concentration to have been 5–10 ppm at ≥ 15 Ma, 50–80 ppm at 14 Ma, and 80–90 ppm at 11 Ma. The implication is that the xenoliths were heated ~200°C between 15 Ma and 14 Ma, and then sank ~20 km downward from 14 Ma until eruption at 10 Ma. The two-orders-of-magnitude change from HREE-rich to HREE-depleted zircon that corresponds with 22–20 Ma U-Pb dates may reflect thermally driven garnet growth; this coincides exactly in time with the 21–19 Ma dates for peak-pressure metamorphism in the Shakh dara dome (**Fig 13**; *Hacker et al.*, in press). The change in Eu anomaly at 14 Ma—if it reflects the breakdown of

plagioclase (gray boundary in **Fig. 13**)—coincides with the 30–40 km increase in depth at 14–11 Ma inferred from P-T and Ti-in-zircon data.

B. Metasomatism/Magmatism

Nearly all the xenoliths show evidence of metasomatism by an ultrapotassic + carbonatitic melt. The uncommonly high mode of alkali feldspar and phlogopite is suggestive of K addition, particularly in the mafic rocks. At least one xenolith contains euhedral garnet and clinopyroxene projecting into K-feldspar—compatible with growth into a potassic melt (Figure 2L in *Hacker et al.* [2005]). Some xenoliths also contain carbonate as a matrix phase (e.g., Figure 2C in *Hacker et al.* [2005]) or as an inclusion in garnet and zircon. Numerous zircons contain additional inclusions of alkali feldspar and high-Ti biotite. These zircon inclusion types are in 14–11 Ma zircon, compatible with alkaline magma injection at that time.

The two minettes, DK28 and DK36, may be direct samples of this melt. We calculated the bulk composition of DK36 from point-counted mineral modes and mineral compositions measured by electron microprobe (**Table 2**); the rock is more potassic than any of the ultrapotassic volcanic rocks in the Dunkeldik suite studied by *Malz* [2011]. In fact, it is so potassic that it may be a partial cumulate. Minettes are calc-alkaline lamprophyres that commonly include porphyritic phlogopite and a sanidine + carbonate groundmass [*Le Maître*, 2002]. They originate from partial melting of peridotite that interacted with crust, and are commonly associated with carbonatite [*Rock, 1980; Rock, 1984; Niu et al., 2017*]. Whether the Asian mantle from which the Pamir minettes were derived inherited its crustal signature from crustal assimilation remains unresolved, but the occurrence of a garnet xenocryst in

DK28 is compatible with the former, as are the biotite breakdown textures in Figure 2A and 2B of *Hacker et al.* [2005] indicating that melting of the Pamir xenoliths was generating potassic melt.

The textures and trace-element abundances of zircon in xenolith DK25 provide strong support for the interpretation of the minettes as eruption-related magmatic rocks. DK25 has a mineral assemblage similar to the igneous xenoliths, and contains zircon with Cretaceous cores overgrown by Miocene rims, just like most of the other xenoliths. Additionally, some zircons in DK25 resemble the peculiar textures and REE-behavior of the minette xenoliths: they exhibit skeletal and convoluted zones, and are enriched in LREEs with a relatively flat HREE slope. Furthermore, the inclusions in DK25 zircon include ternary carbonate, high-Ti biotite, and alkali feldspar (particularly within zircon zones that have minette-style REEs).

C. Tectonic Implications

The xenoliths imply a Cenozoic evolution of the Pamir that matches several tectonic models. Cenozoic contractional deformation of the Pamir crust is inferred to have been driven by viscous coupling with the northward underthrusting Indian slab [*Stübner et al.*, 2013; *Sippl et al.*, 2013b; *Stearns et al.*, 2015; *Kufner et al.*, 2016; *Rutte et al.*, 2017]. Breakoff of that slab at ~25–20 Ma is presumed to have initiated large-scale extension within the Pamir crust. Afterward, when Indian mantle lithosphere resumed northward underthrusting of Asia at ~20 Ma, re-coupling of the slab with the Pamir crust is inferred to have driven additional N-S shortening, causing the rheologically weak Pamir crust to thicken dramatically and induce rollback of the Asian slab [*Schneider et al.*, 2013; *Sippl et al.*, 2013a, 2013b]. Garnet growth in the xenoliths at 22–20 Ma coincides with the time of this contraction. Sometime thereafter, the critically thickened Pamir crust became gravitationally

unstable and began to founder. The $>200^{\circ}\text{C}$ heating recorded in the xenoliths at ~ 14 Ma is likely to have taken place while the foundering was in progress. In terms of the size of foundered material, if we assume that the xenoliths were all derived from a single foundering sphere of crust that was heated solely by conduction, we can estimate the length scale of the sphere from the observation that heating from 800°C to $>1000^{\circ}\text{C}$ required ~ 1 Myr (15–14 Ma). The approximation $x=2*\text{SQRT}(Kt)$, and a thermal diffusivity $K = 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, yields a radius of ~ 10 km.

If the pre-Cenozoic Pamir crust was only 35–40 km thick, the accommodation of 900 km of Cenozoic convergence not only produced the present 70-km thick crust, but also led to another 40 km of ‘excess’ crust that was either extruded laterally or recycled into the mantle [Schmidt *et al.*, 2011]. The Pamir xenoliths may be just the tiniest glimpse of vast amounts of crustal recycling in the western India–Asia collision zone.

VIII. Conclusions

Miocene granulite- and eclogite-facies xenoliths from the Pamir of Tajikistan provide a unique and spectacular record of foundering of continental crust to mantle depths of 90 km. Coupled U-Pb dates and trace-element abundances measured by laser-ablation split stream inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry reveal the evolution of the xenoliths. The xenoliths were derived from mixed sedimentary–igneous crust like that exposed today in gneiss domes nearby. At 22–20 Ma, the xenoliths passed into the garnet stability field with minimal heating. At 14–11 Ma, the xenoliths were heated $200\text{--}300^{\circ}\text{C}$, buried to depths of 90 km depth—20–40 km below the present Moho—and invaded by ultrapotassic/carbonatitic melt. At 10 Ma the xenoliths were erupted. The 14–10 Ma evolution is interpreted as the

response to foundering of a ~20 km wavelength instability of the Pamir lower crust created by large-scale Cenozoic crustal thickening and northward rollback of the Asian mantle from beneath the Pamir.

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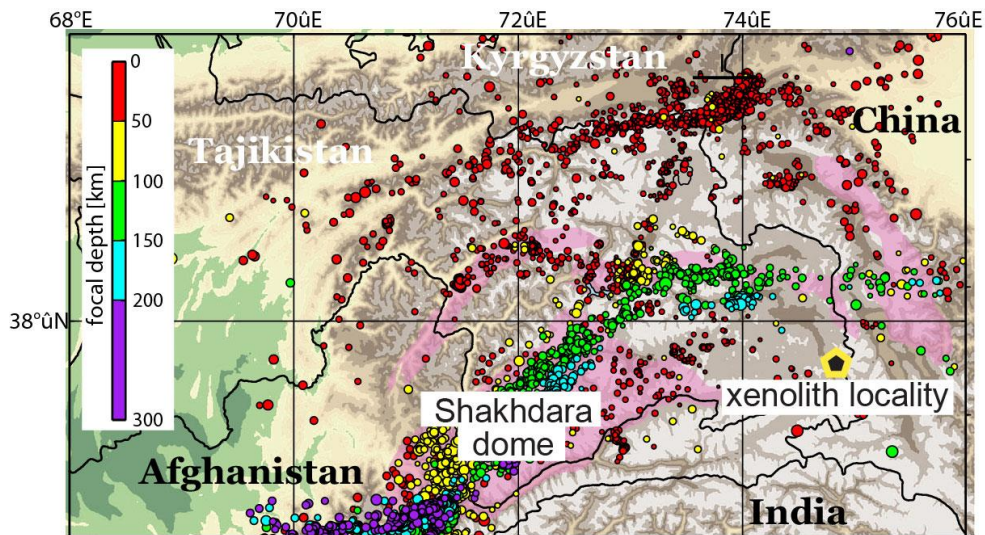


Figure 1. The Pamir are the western extent of the Tibetan Plateau. They are underlain in the North by a S-dipping Asian slab that is seismic (epicenters from *Sippl et al.* [2013] shown by the colored dots), and in the south by a flat-slab segment of the Indian plate. Gneiss domes (pink) expose high-grade Cenozoic rocks throughout much of the Pamir. The xenoliths (star symbol) in the SE Pamir were erupted from mantle depths.

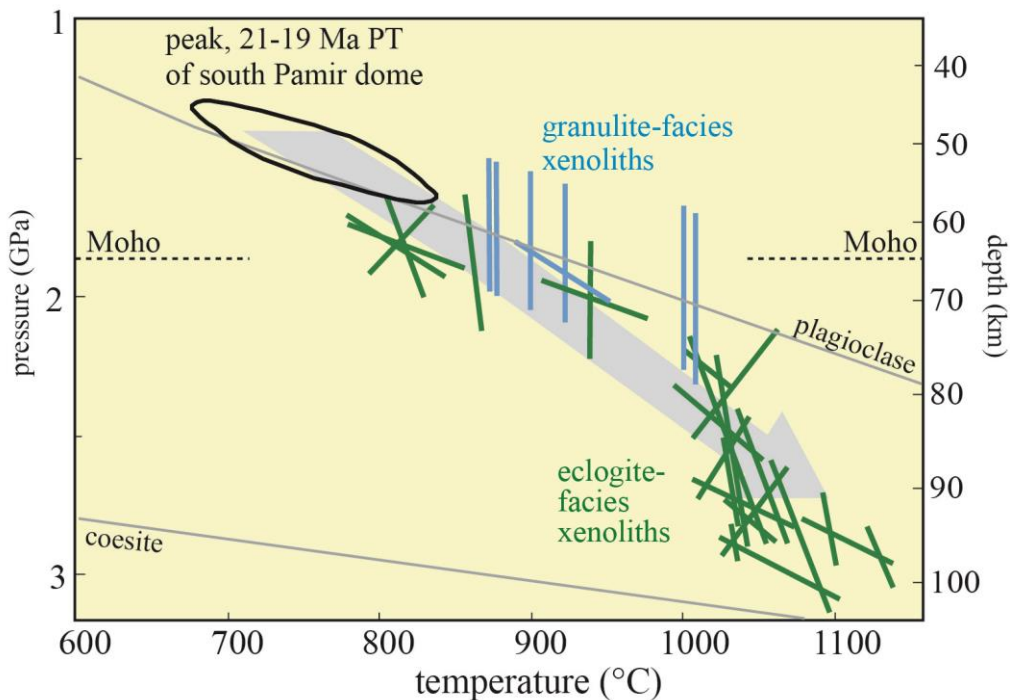
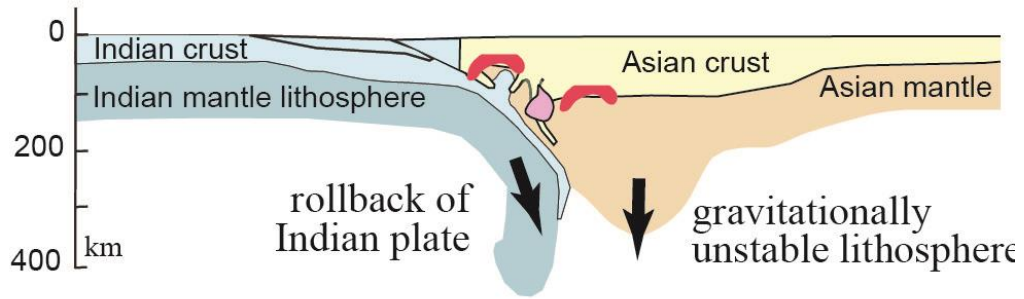
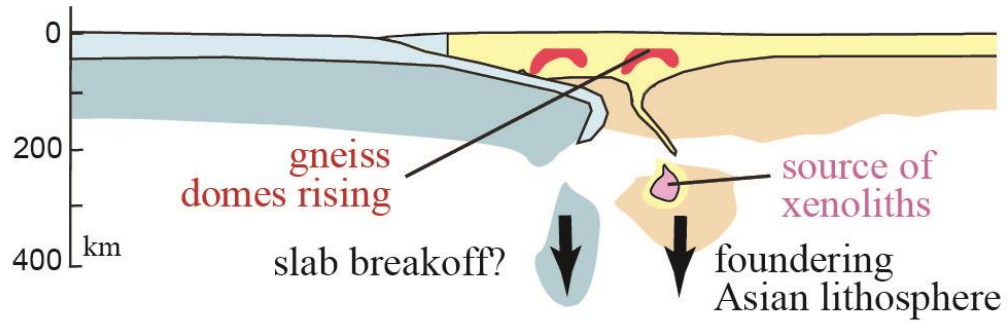


Figure 2. Calculated pressures and temperatures for the eclogite-facies xenoliths (green lines) and high-pressure granulites (blue lines); each line represents the position of a single reaction. Gray arrow: probable PT path. Modified from *Gordon et al.* [2012].

1) overthickened Pamir lithosphere begins to founder



2) instability carries xenolith source to 90 km



3) xenoliths erupted, gneiss domes reach surface

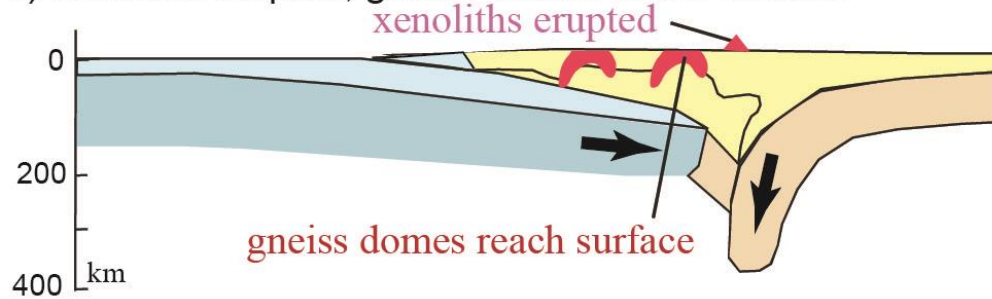


Figure 3. Hypothetical evolution of Pamir orogen.

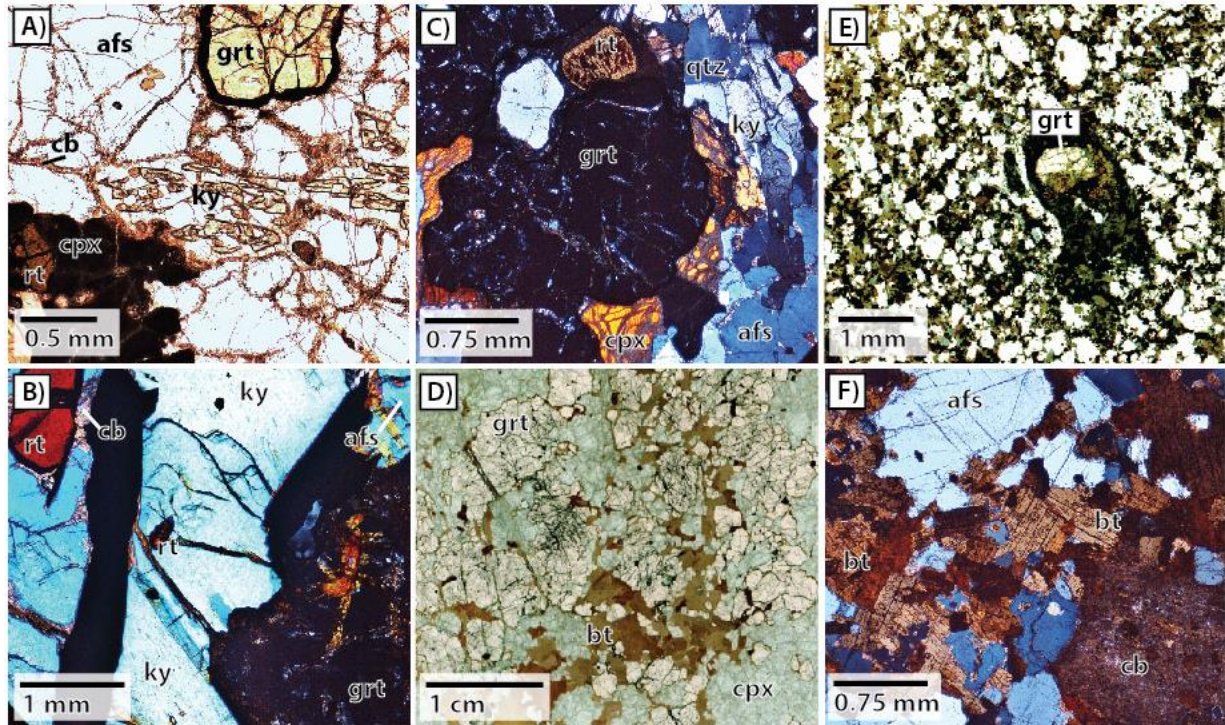


Figure 4. Representative photomicrographs from the Pamir xenoliths. A) K-rich meta-igneous xenolith DK10, with injected carbonate veins among relict kyanite, garnet, alkali feldspar, and clinopyroxene. B) Meta-pelite DK20_2 with very coarse kyanite, garnet, and alkali feldspar, interstitial rutile, and fine-grained carbonate percolating along grain boundaries. C) Meta-igneous xenolith DK3 shows rutile enclosed in garnet, with clinopyroxene and kyanite. D) Mafic xenolith 33* exhibiting crystallization of phlogopite along clinopyroxene and garnet grain boundaries after melt injection. E) DK28 with phenocrystic alkali feldspar and phlogopite, and a garnet xenocryst with a corona of clinopyroxene and “trail of biotite. F) Minette DK36 with globular alkali feldspar, castellated phlogopite, and carbonate groundmass [*Kretz, 1983*]. See also Figure 2 in *Hacker et al. [2005]*.

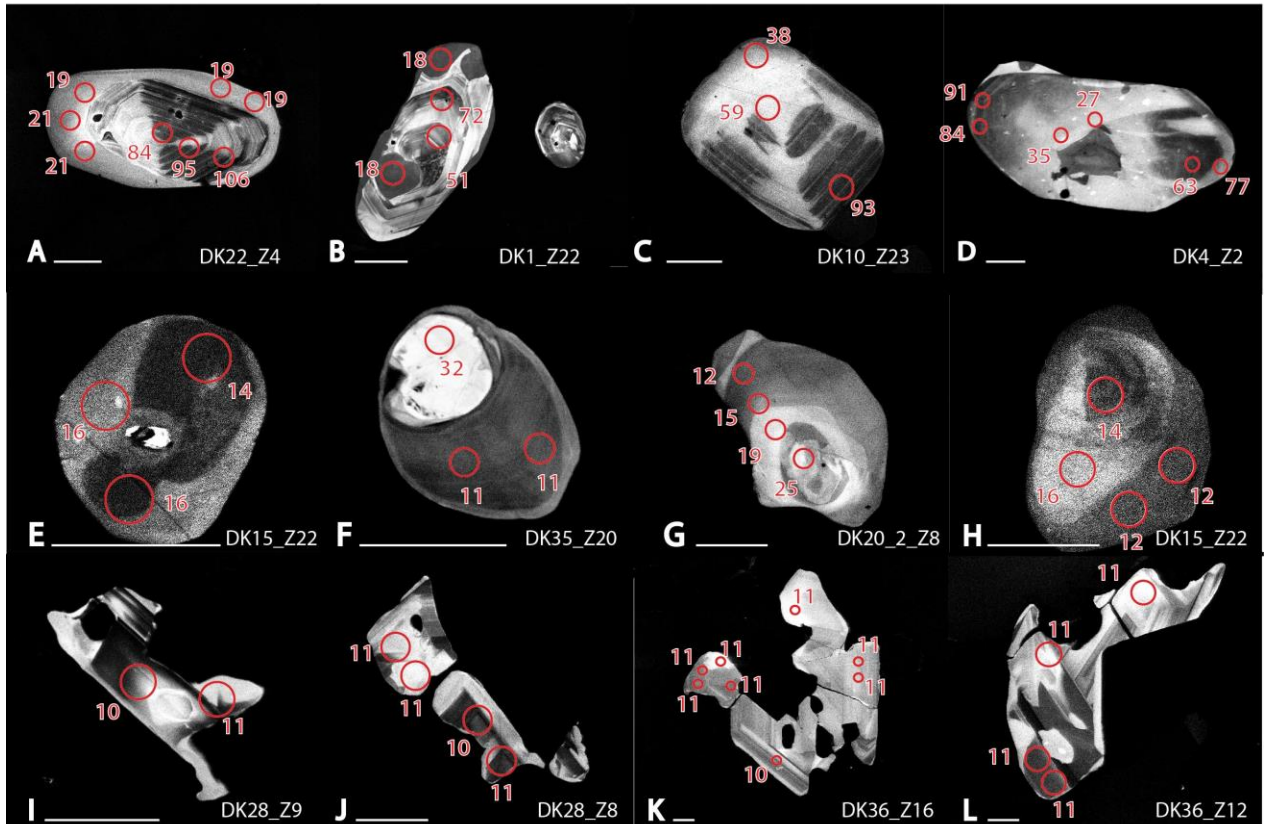


Figure 5. Textures of xenolith zircon. Red circles are 15-um LASS spots and U-Pb dates (Ma). A-D) Igneous protolith xenoliths have subhedral – anhedral grains with oscillatory zoning; metamict domains; recrystallized, complexly shaped domains with CL-flat or ghost zoning; and thin, CL-flat rims. C & D exhibit a transition of magmatic textures to bright CL “ghost-zoning,” associated with Paleogene U-Pb dates. E-H) Meta-pelite xenolith zircon grains are typically anhedral, with poorly preserved to non-existent cores surrounded by wide, CL-flat rims. I-L) Minette zircons are irregular and skeletal, with multiple oscillatory zoned domains and convoluted recrystallized domains. Scale bars are 50 microns.

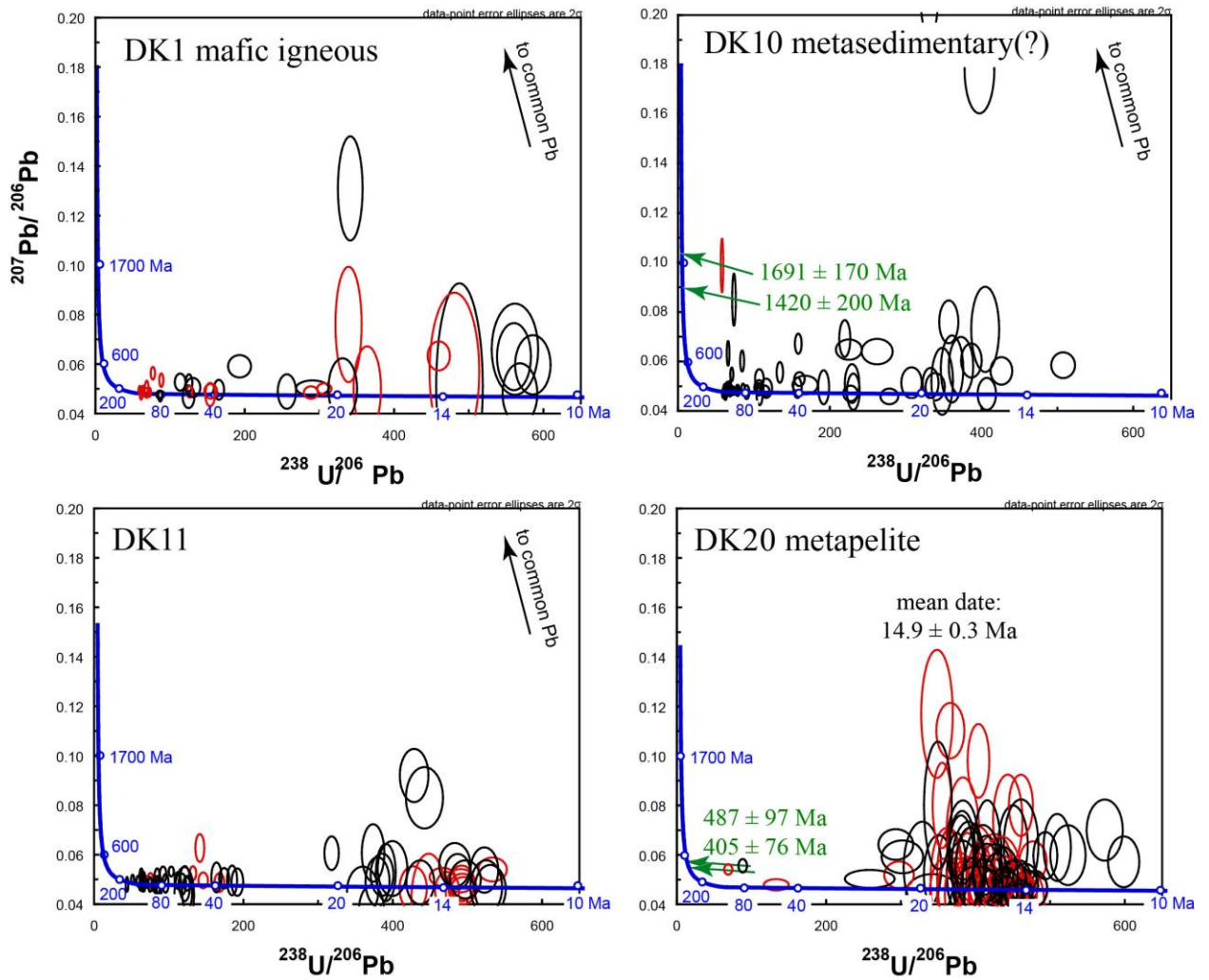


Figure 6. Tera-Wasserburg diagrams for xenolith zircon U-Pb data. Two samples with relatively few data are not included. Zircon that occur as inclusions in other minerals (mostly garnet) are red; matrix grains are black. Zircons that may be inherited are indicated with green text. Ages in Concordia shown in blue.

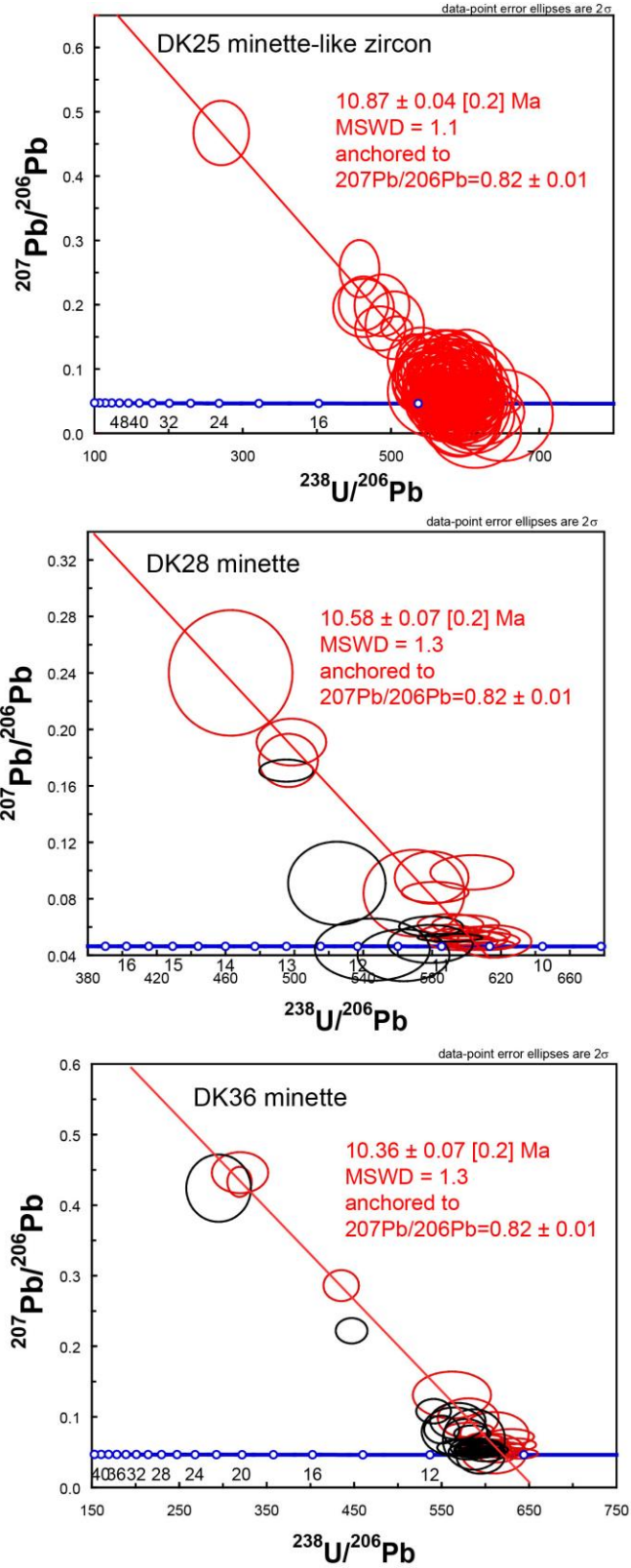


Figure 7. Tera-Wasserburg diagram for minette zircon U-Pb data.

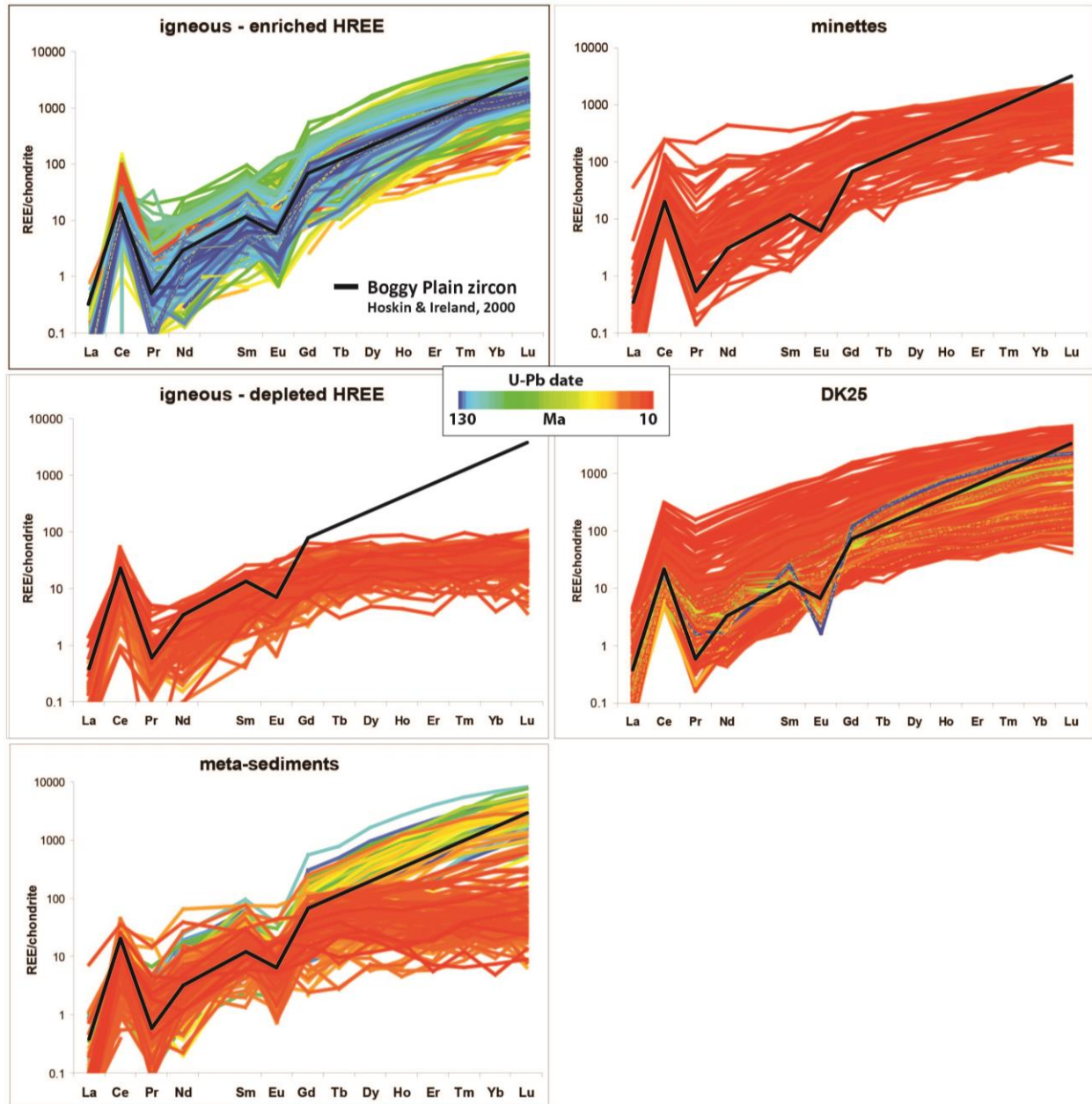


Figure 8. Chondrite-normalized REE for each xenolith type, plus sample DK25. Boggy Plain plutonic zircon average REEs included for reference to typical zircon REE behavior [Hoskin & Ireland, 2000]. Cooler colors represent older zircon ages; warmer colors represent younger ages. Crustal xenoliths (left) show depletion in HREEs among the younger zircon zones, as well as changes in Eu/Eu^* . Typical Eu/Eu^* for older analyses are similar to Boggy Plain zircon. Minette REEs (upper right) show enriched LREEs and less variable REE abundances, and little to no Eu anomaly. DK25 (above) shows older zircon with REEs similar to crustal xenoliths, and younger zircon with REEs similar to minettes.

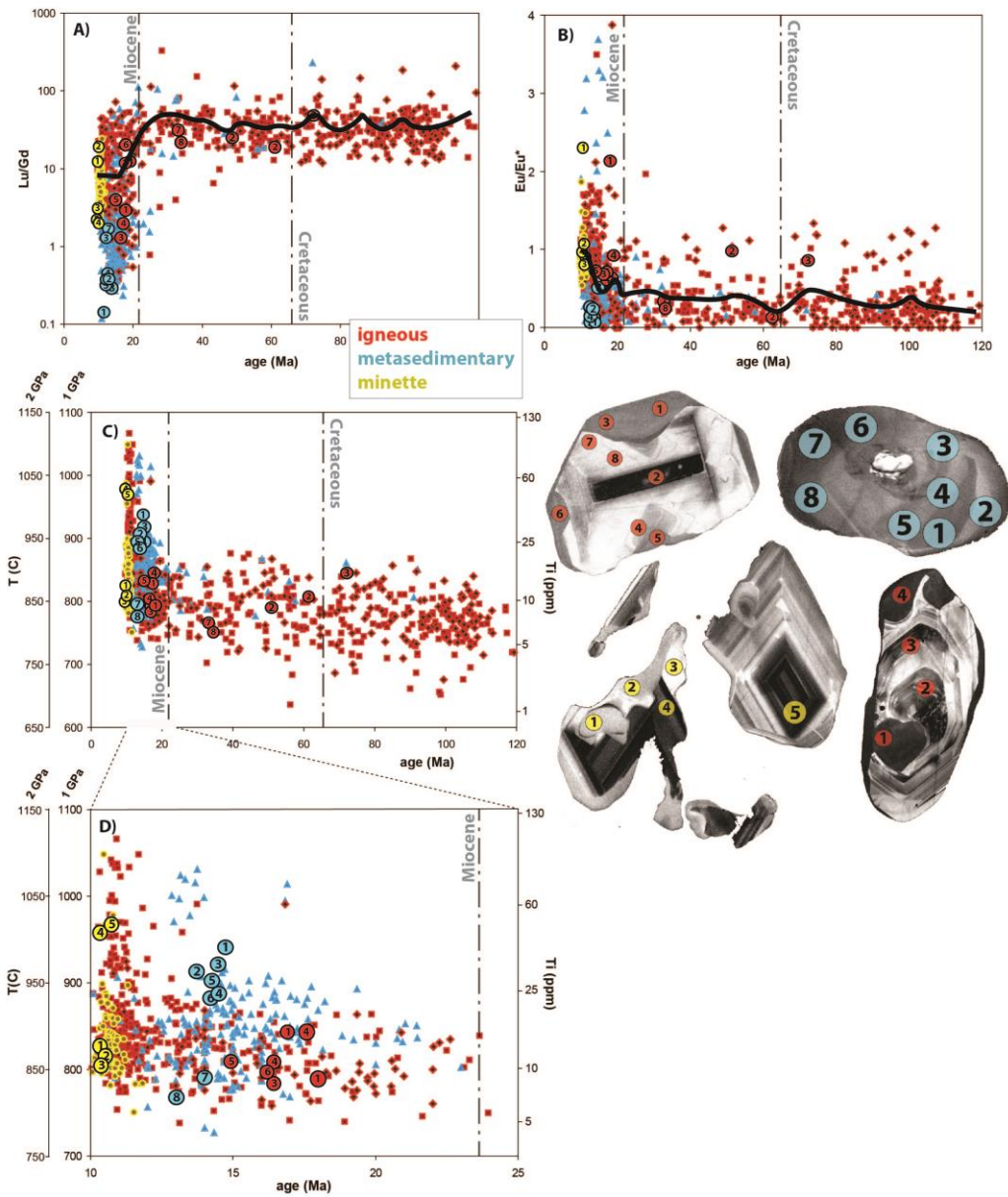


Figure 9. Lu/Gd, Eu/Eu*, Ti concentration, and inferred temperature in zircon. The CL images show locations of 15-um LASS spots, and highlight the differences between zircon core and rim compositions. Numbered spots correspond to those represented on the figures; the four colors represent the four different types of xenolith. A) Lu/Gd ratio; all types of xenolith show significant depletion in HREE at ~20 Ma. B) Eu/Eu* changes from strongly negative Eu anomalies to neutral/positive anomalies near 20 Ma. C&D) Ti-in-zircon temperatures are ~800-850C until ~14 Ma, when they increase to >950-1000C. Heavy black lines in A & B are running averages.

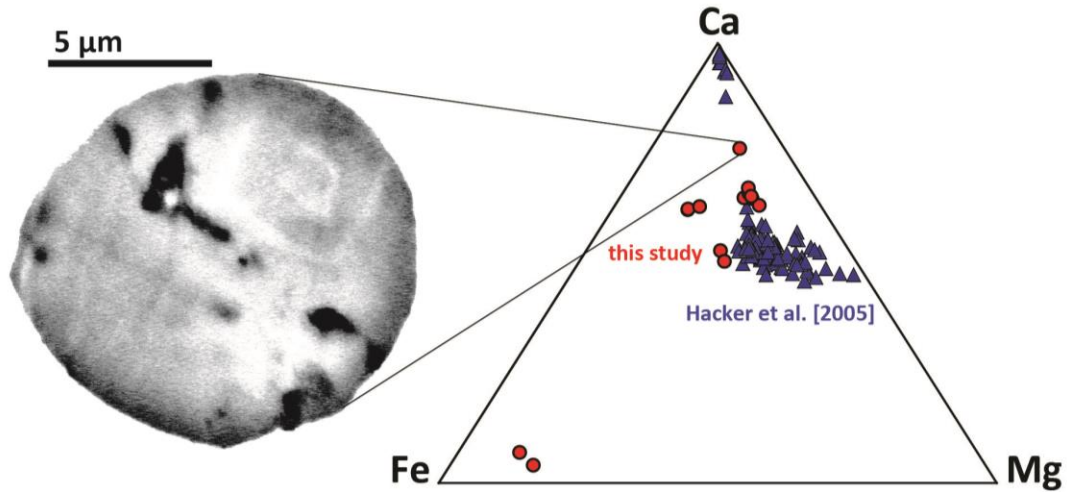


Figure 10. (left) Micron-scale zoning in a ternary carbonate inclusion visible with BSE; energy-dispersive spectrometry showed that the zoning is correlated with changes in Mg/Ca. (right) Ca-Mg-Fe ternary diagram showing compositions of the carbonate inclusions in both this study and *Hacker et al.* [2005].

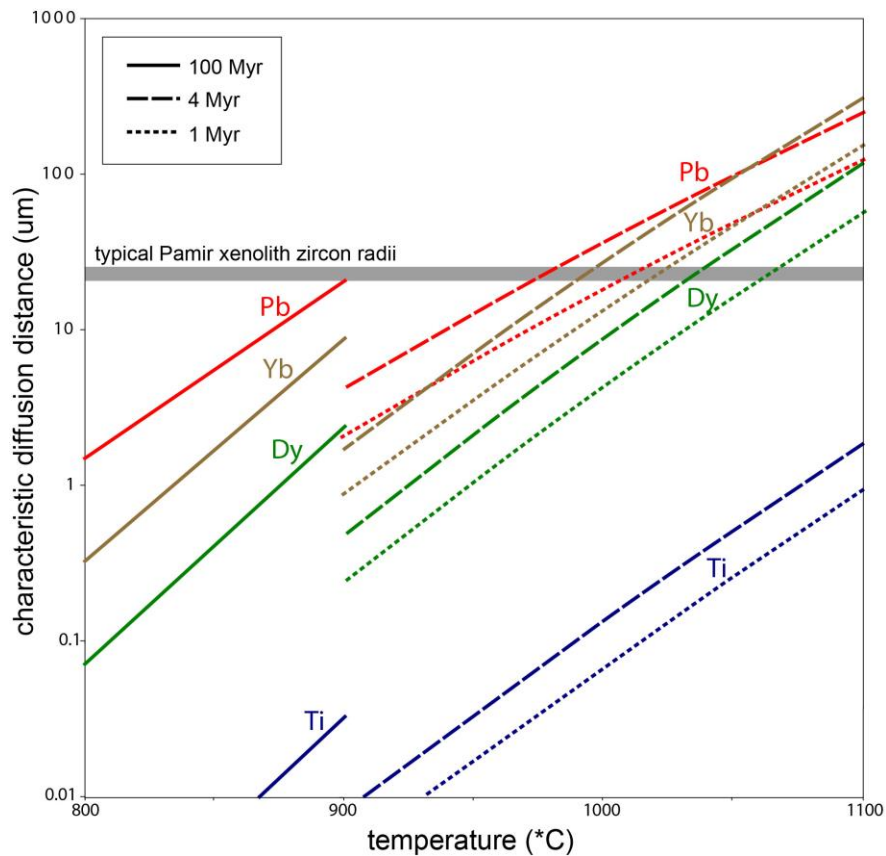


Figure 11. Laboratory diffusion distances of Ti, Dy, Yb, and Pb in zircon over 1-4 Myr [*Cherniak, 1997; Cherniak, 2000*].

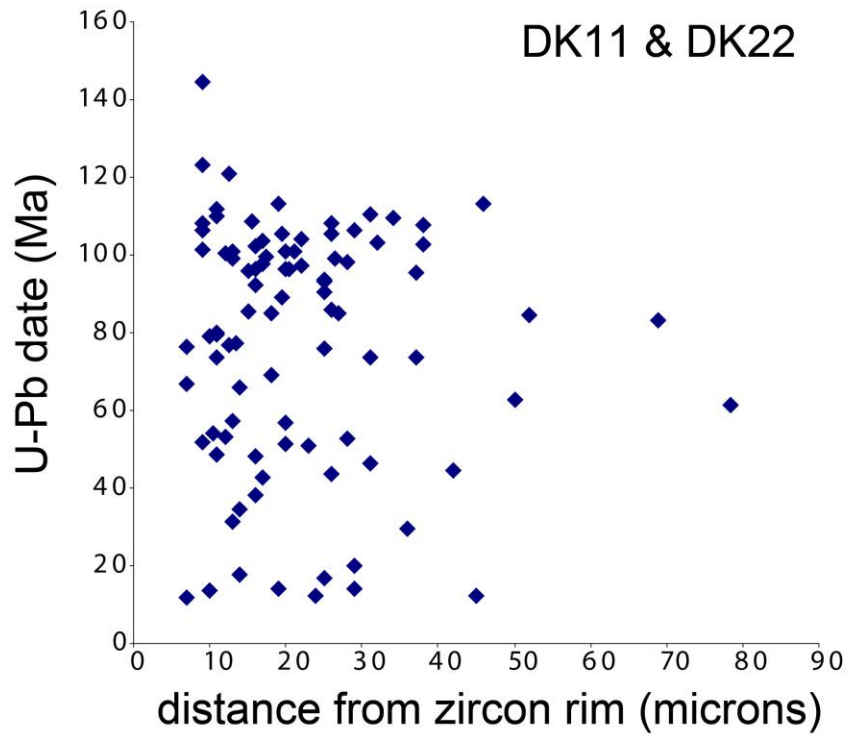


Figure 12. Relationships between zircon age and distance of LASS analysis from zircon rim. No distinct correlation is visible.

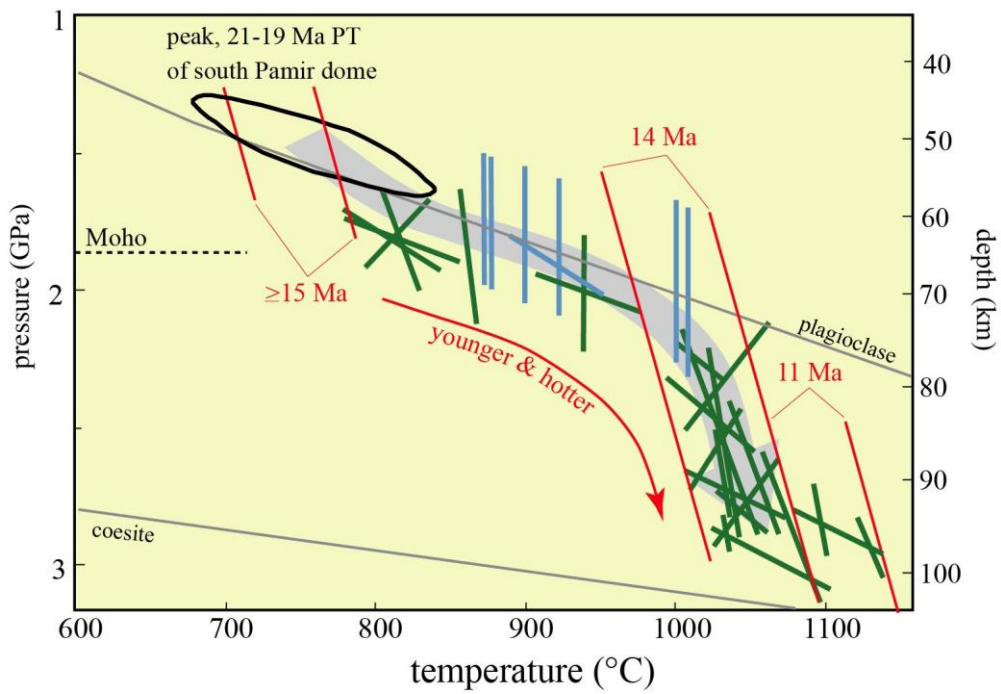


Figure 13. Pressure and temperature evolution of Pamir xenoliths.

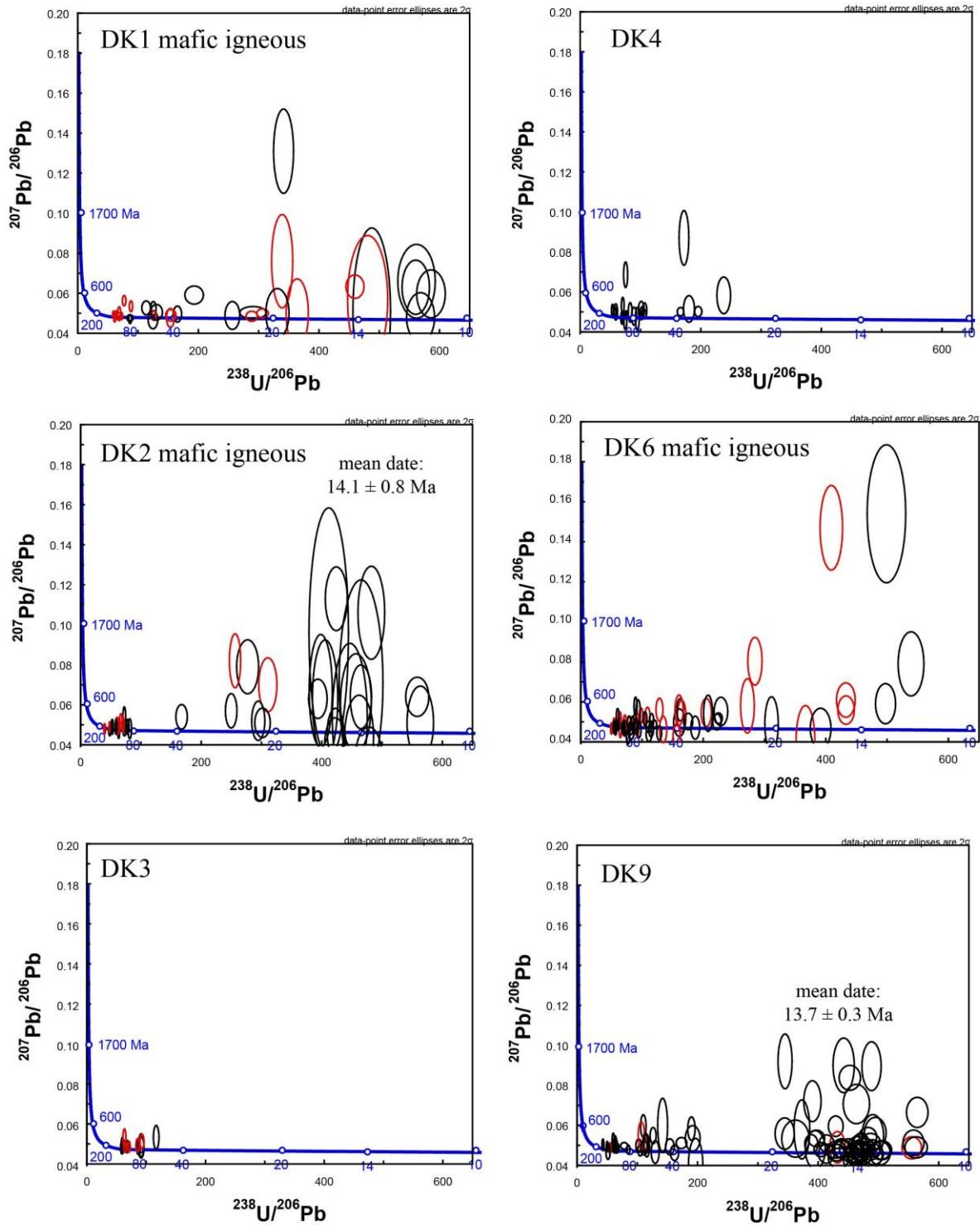
Table 1. Summary of U-Pb data.

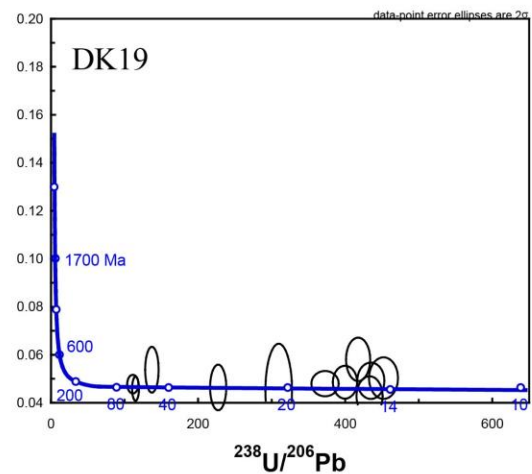
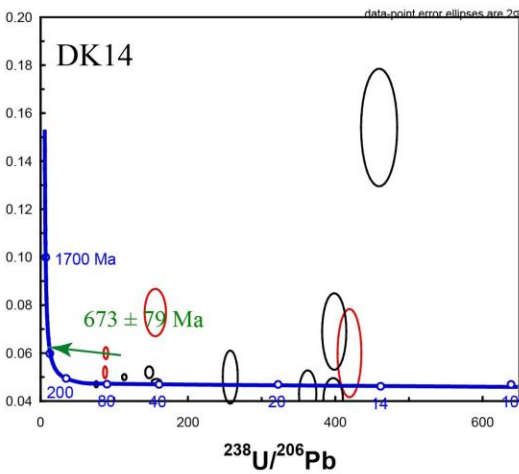
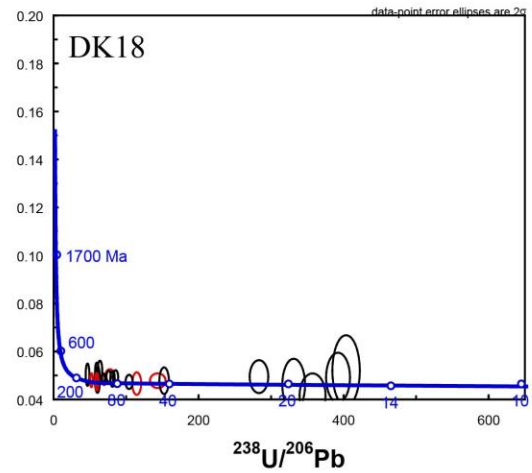
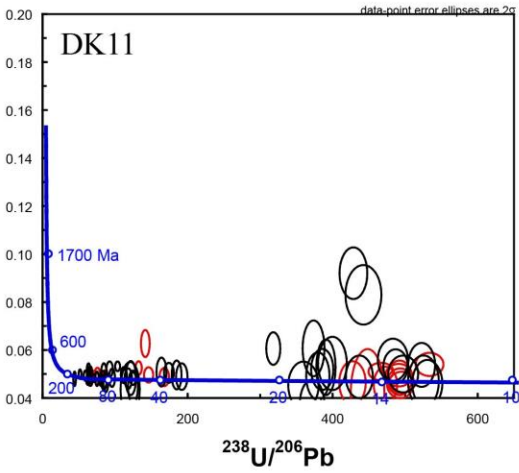
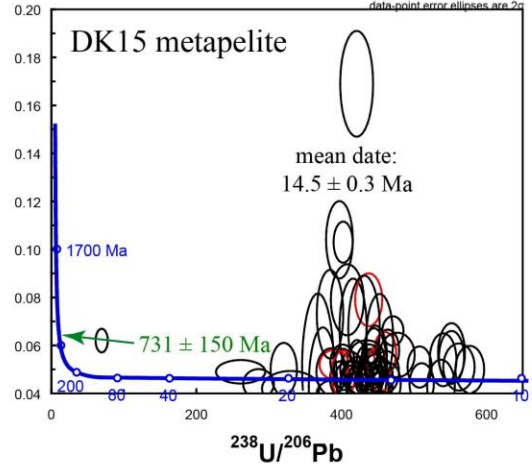
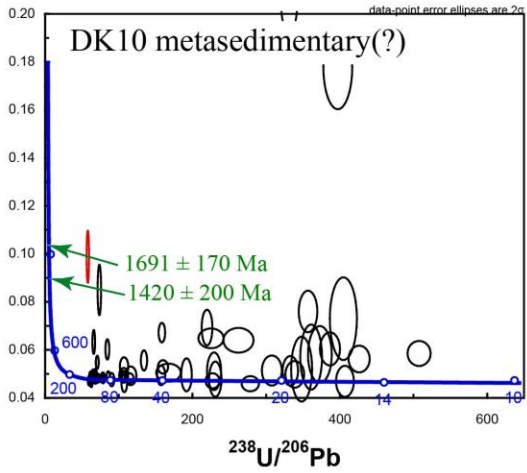
sample	Protolith	oldest concordant zircon	youngest zircon	summary of dates
DK1	mafic, igneous	107–82 Ma inclusions in garnet	11.8 ± 0.9 Ma	distribution of dates from 107 to 11 Ma
DK2	mafic, igneous	159 ± 6 Ma	14.2 ± 0.5 Ma	bimodal Cretaceous and Miocene
DK3	igneous(?). Minor kyanite	108 ± 2 Ma; n=3	55 ± 2 Ma	entirely Cretaceous
DK4	igneous(?). Minor kyanite	119 ± 4 Ma	27 ± 1 Ma	mostly Cretaceous
DK6	mafic, igneous	128 ± 4 Ma	11.2 ± 0.5 Ma	distribution of dates from 128 to 11 Ma
DK9	igneous(?). Minor kyanite	148 ± 5 Ma	11.1 ± 0.4 Ma	bimodal Cretaceous and Miocene
DK10	metasedimentary(?). Inherited zircons of different age.	107 ± 3 Ma	11.9 ± 0.8 Ma	distribution of dates from 107 to 12 Ma. Two older spots, projected from 10 Ma, have 1691 and 1420 Ma upper intercept dates
DK11	igneous(?). Minor kyanite	145 ± 5 Ma	12.0 ± 0.4 Ma	bimodal Cretaceous and Miocene
DK14	igneous(?). Minor kyanite and inherited zircon.	85 ± 2 Ma	12.1 ± 0.7 Ma	few data. Oldest spot, projected from 10 Ma has 679 Ma upper intercept date
DK15	metapelite	25 ± 3 Ma	11.1 ± 0.4 Ma	almost entirely Miocene. Oldest spot, projected from 10 Ma, has 731 Ma upper intercept date
DK18	igneous. Intermediate composition.	136 ± 7 Ma	15.8 ± 0.7 Ma	bimodal Cretaceous and Miocene
DK19	igneous(?)	58 ± 3 Ma	10.2 ± 0.8 Ma	few data
DK20	metapelite	92 ± 6 Ma	10.6 ± 0.4 Ma	almost entirely Miocene. Oldest spots, projected from 10 Ma, have 487 and 405 Ma upper intercept dates
DK22	igneous(?). Minor kyanite	121 ± 4 Ma	12.0 ± 0.8 Ma	bimodal Cretaceous and Miocene
DK25	minette-like	70 ± 4 Ma	9.8 ± 0.8 Ma	distribution of dates from 465 to 10 Ma
DK28	Minette	11.8 ± 0.7 Ma	10.0 ± 0.4 Ma	youngest single population: 10.6 ± 0.1 Ma
DK31	mafic, igneous			few data
DK33	metapelite	15 ± 1 Ma	12.3 ± 0.4 Ma	mostly Miocene. Oldest spots, projected from 10 Ma, have 1400 and 1226 Ma upper intercept dates
DK35	metasedimentary(?)	18 ± 1	10.6 ± 0.6 Ma	mostly Miocene. Oldest spot, projected from 10 Ma, has 496 Ma upper intercept date
DK36	minette	11.2 ± 0.4 Ma	9.9 ± 0.4 Ma	youngest single population: 10.4 ± 0.1 Ma
DK60	igneous(?). Minor kyanite	119 ± 4 Ma	13.6 ± 0.6 Ma	mostly Cretaceous

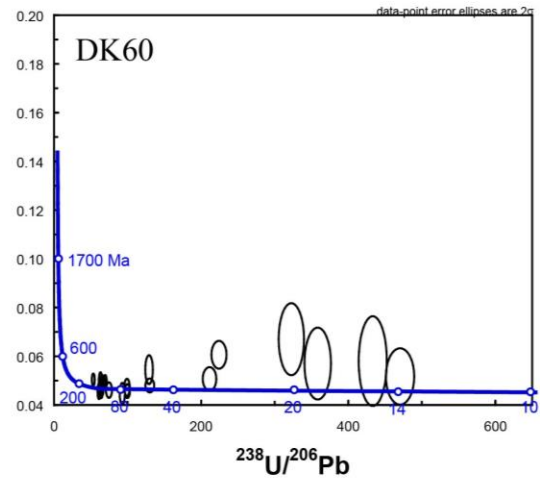
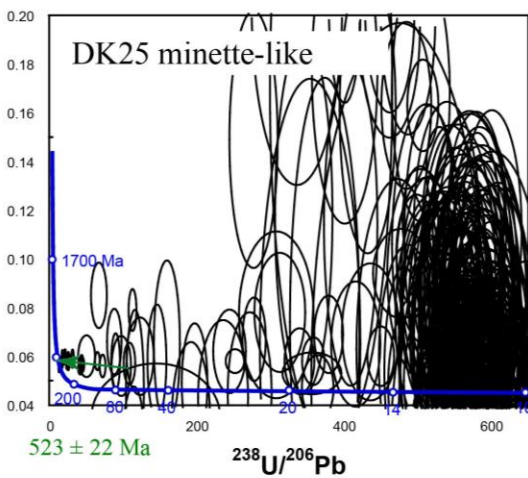
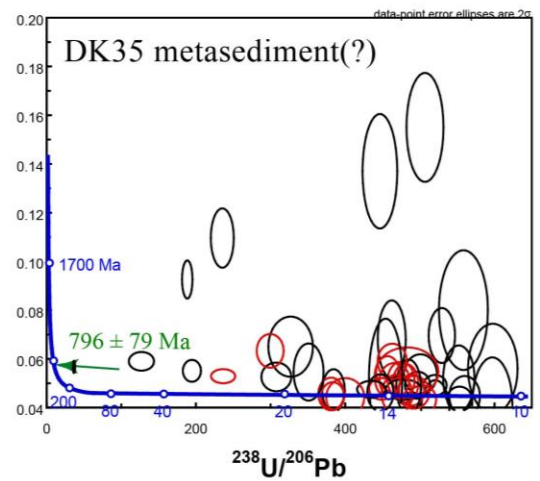
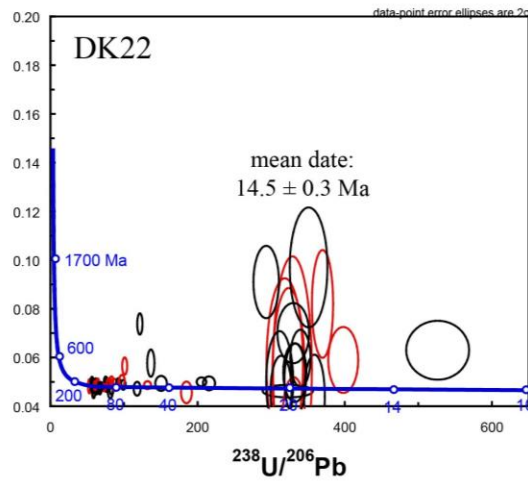
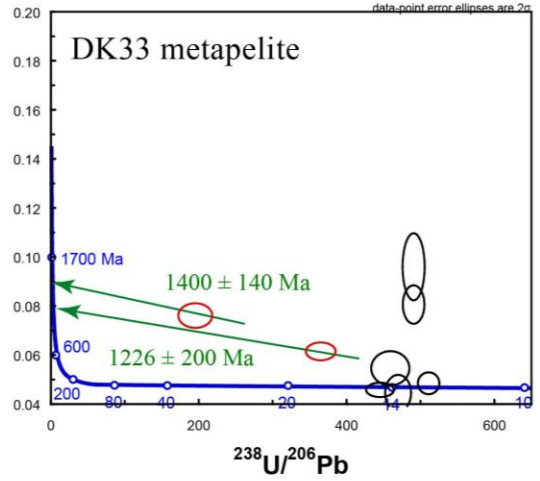
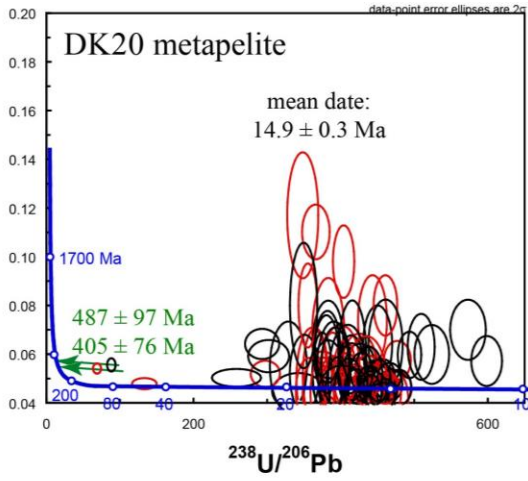
Table 2. DK36 minette bulk-rock composition, compared to Dunkeldik ultrapotassic volcanic rocks [Malz, 2011], and minette global average [Rock, 1991].

sample	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	TiO ₂	FeO*	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	PO ₄	CO ₂	H ₂ O	total
DK36	48.2	17.0	1.8	4.6	0.0	4.6	4.3	1.1	11.0	1.4	4.4	1.4	94.1
Dunkeldik volcanics avg.	45.9	11.7	0.98	6.5	0.13	4.3	10.7	0.73	7.7	1.4	--	--	90.0
Minette global avg.	51.5	12.8	1.3	7.3	0.12	7.1	6.7	2.0	5.6	0.95	2.0	2.1	99.4

Supplemental Figure 1. Tera-Wasserberg diagrams for xenolith zircon U-Pb data.







med-nd	DKS_226_1	218.9879	27.203092	0.008	0.0039754	248	27	46.7	2.0	971	848	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.00076	1.97003	0.42026	0.90801	10.4624	7.54949	71.59279	111.1111	148.107	124.6421	162.8	62.9096	64.92627	108.941	0.23264	1.02378	
med-nd	DKS_226_2	133.3545	11.563952	0.0479	0.0016188	482	50	46.4	2.0	969	850	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.00072	1.99906	0.41225	1.11974	0.97486	7.46018	46.2319	106.5659	236.0207	381.978	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_3	582.8215	44.693195	0.058	0.0025019	719	61	46.4	2.0	970	852	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.00074	1.97959	0.39787	2.45242	1.08819	1.08819	46.2462	108.5252	226.5525	322.5	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_4	683.9215	44.693195	0.0581	0.0025019	822	61	46.4	2.0	970	852	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.00074	1.97959	0.39787	2.45242	1.08819	1.08819	46.2462	108.5252	226.5525	322.5	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_5	490.6772	12.330014	0.006	0.0116811	123	04	8.9	2.0	900	789	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.00078	0.01704	0.05169	1.46786	1.61819	0.15097	38.9347	106.2778	389.9347	106.2778	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_6	490.6772	11.909649	0.0060	0.0040619	126	04	8.7	2.0	971	851	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01848	0.0060	0.0076	2.2973	5.0006	0.10444	66.0108	66.0108	66.0108	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262		
med-nd	DKS_226_7	570.0892	11.9829106	0.045	0.0036956	126	04	16.5	2.0	963	838	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01848	0.0450	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_8	469.1941	14.323318	0.045	0.0036956	137	04	12.3	2.0	968	838	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01848	0.0450	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_9	444.81	15.533125	0.045	0.0036956	148	04	10.4	2.0	962	838	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.00956	0.0450	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_10	361.9819	16.389349	0.0815	0.0028697	173	08	14	2.0	962	820	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.00786	1.50018	0.02048	1.68400	62.4623	46.2751	46.2381	111.6667	111.6667	111.6667	111.6667	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262
med-nd	DKS_226_11	195.3135	18.725888	0.0781	0.0040619	317	31	14.7	2.0	967	838	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.02627	0.07815	0.00817	2.26828	0.121822	1.06625	33.98584	56	86.2668	62.58974	134.625	237.247	282.5466	49.8146	0.07898	1.44863	
med-nd	DKS_226_12	597.0248	27.0079146	0.056	0.0150416	108	06	16.7	2.0	964	794	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01706	1.25211	1.88979	1.13769	0.75493	17.2913	27.02819	40	23.9574	16.0197	7.62	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262
med-nd	DKS_226_13	597.0248	27.0079146	0.056	0.0150416	109	06	16.7	2.0	962	794	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01706	1.25211	1.88979	1.13769	0.75493	17.2913	27.02819	40	23.9574	16.0197	7.62	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262
med-nd	DKS_226_14	548.9673	26.738181	0.08	0.0028619	110	06	17.6	2.0	977	852	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.042974	1.43595	0.98934	1.13769	0.75493	17.2913	27.02819	40	23.9574	16.0197	7.62	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262
med-nd	DKS_226_15	549.9104	16.312284	0.047	0.0067958	115	05	22.6	2.0	909	820	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.00786	0.0470	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_16	542.3811	17.142431	0.052	0.0030906	116	05	16.8	2.0	965	840	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.00786	0.0546	1.02077	1.70547	1.04581	0.82795	33.98584	63.0111	61.4624	78.8208	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_17	543.0973	13.448319	0.0438	0.0040934	117	04	10.8	2.0	924	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01773	0.22023	0.00807	2.47248	1.02489	4.01817	63.0106	70.6444	61.0561	48.9186	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_18	529.8808	14.4827713	0.0496	0.0036956	118	04	12.3	2.0	938	816	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0496	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_19	530.3824	12.212328	0.0483	0.0036956	121	04	14.4	2.0	939	816	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0483	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_20	520.8652	15.4248849	0.039	0.0030907	125	05	17.2	2.0	975	820	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0390	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_21	500.7531	18.073819	0.037	0.0036956	127	07	11.3	2.0	929	820	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0370	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_22	546.4128	16.564191	0.0432	0.0048774	128	07	17.9	2.0	979	820	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0432	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_23	497.0172	13.342817	0.0482	0.0045289	129	05	10.2	2.0	1108	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0482	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_24	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_25	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_26	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_27	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_28	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_29	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_30	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_31	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_32	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_33	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score	0.01825	0.0472	0.00801	1.28883	1.48368	0.82795	47.2381	63.0111	44.7146	46.4906	62.0098	67.14286	104.944	0.04944	0.20286	1.04262	
med-nd	DKS_226_34	483.0912	11.813857	0.0472	0.0031868	132	05	11.3	2.0	969	824	Medic.	anethal, ana score																	