



The cause for Nuna breakup in the Early to Middle Mesoproterozoic

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ABSTRACT

The dynamic mechanism responsible for the breakup of Nuna supercontinent (1.6–1.3 Ga) is a key for understanding the early to middle Mesoproterozoic environment, life and mineralization on Earth. Although much research has been done to unravel the dispersion of young supercontinents (e.g., Pangea), efforts by sorting out critical geological records to disclose the driving force for Nuna breakup are still rare. Here we focus on this issue by integrating new whole-rock geochemical data, zircon U–Pb ages, Hf-in-zircon and Nd isotopes for Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the Chinese Central Tianshan (CTB) at the Central Asian Orogenic Belt (CAOB). Moreover, global geological data in the early to middle Mesoproterozoic are compiled to place further constraints. The studied granitoids are I-type granites emplaced at ca. 1480–1450 Ma. They were formed in an active continental margin of CTB that once belonged to the Fennoscandia in the margin of Nuna. These results, together with the available geological records in CTB, CAOB and Fennoscandia, indicate a subduction system existed along the periphery of these domains in the early to middle Mesoproterozoic. This subduction system was temporally and spatially linked to the 1.6–1.3 Ga accretionary belts in the peripheral blocks of Nuna supercontinent, suggesting an encircling subduction system surrounding Nuna supercontinent. The encircling subduction system was accompanied by intermittent Mesoproterozoic plume magmatism, some of which were geochemically overprinted with subduction-related signatures, suggesting a dominant continuous circum-supercontinent subduction operating on the breakup of Nuna supercontinent. Moreover, these episodic plume-related magmatism are temporally and geodynamically linked to the exterior subduction surrounding the Nuna supercontinent. Our study therefore demonstrates that the development of an exterior subduction system gave rise to the breakup of Nuna supercontinent, which was accompanied by subordinate plume activities.

1. Introduction

The early to middle Mesoproterozoic has long been believed to be an enigmatic period (1.6–1.3 Ga) characterized by environmental stasis with tectonic stability (Buick et al., 1995; Brasier and Lindsay, 1998; Holland, 2006; Lyons et al., 2014), presenting with the paucity of banded iron formations, phosphorites, glaciation events and orogenic ore deposits related to the convergent systems (Goldfarb et al., 2001; Holland, 2006; Cawood and Hawkesworth, 2014; Mukherjee et al., 2018). Yet, this period does not seem to be static, as it involved the

lifespan over the Nuna (or Columbia) supercontinent breakup. Nuna has been suggested to break up around 1.6–1.3 Ga (Zhao et al., 2004; Hou et al., 2008; Evans and Mitchell, 2011; Pisarevsky et al., 2014a, 2014b; Nordsvan et al., 2018; Pourceau et al., 2018). Recently, studies showed that oxygenation in this period was far more dynamic and intense than previously envisaged (Large et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018a). Revealing the dynamic mechanism for Nuna breakup is thus essential to understand the early to middle Mesoproterozoic enigmatic period, and has important significance for understanding the global environmental effect (e.g., atmospheric oxygen concentrations, ocean redox conditions)

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and deposit formation in this period (Cawood and Hawkesworth, 2015; Pehrsson et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018a).

Although the breakup of Nuna might bring about profound impact on the environment and mineralization of the planet, how the supercontinent got into breakup is not yet fully understood. Previous studies mainly centered on post-Nuna supercontinents (e.g., Rodinia and Pangea) or relied on numerical modeling results. Conjectures involving subduction (e.g., Murphy and Nance, 2013; Bercovici and Long, 2014; Cawood et al., 2016; Dal Zilio et al., 2018; Niu, 2019) or/and superplume events have been proposed to be the dominant mechanisms for dispersal of the supercontinent (e.g., Hou et al., 2008; Li and Zhong, 2009; Santosh et al., 2009; Yoshida and Santosh, 2011; Burov and Gerya, 2014; Zhang et al., 2018b; Lu et al., 2020). No consensus has so far been achieved. Because most oceanic lithosphere and oceanic plume records in the period of Nuna breakup have been destroyed through

subduction (Bradley, 2011; Doucet et al., 2019; Li, 2020), it is thus a challenging task to uncover the link between subduction/plume and Nuna breakup. Moreover, because most cratons or blocks of Nuna generally experienced multiple tectonic movements, many early geological records of Nuna were partly fragmented or even entirely erased in subsequent tectonothermal events. This makes investigating the role of subduction and plume on the breakup of Nuna difficult.

Breakup of a supercontinent is always accompanied with intense magmatism, and subduction-related and plume-related magmatism are two end members with strikingly different geological and geochemical characteristics. Clearly, discriminating the geological and geochemical features between subduction and plume allows for a better understanding of the dynamic regime of Nuna breakup. Subduction has been efficient in building island arcs along convergent margins with products of ophiolites, island-arc basalts (IAB), sheeted mafic dykes and

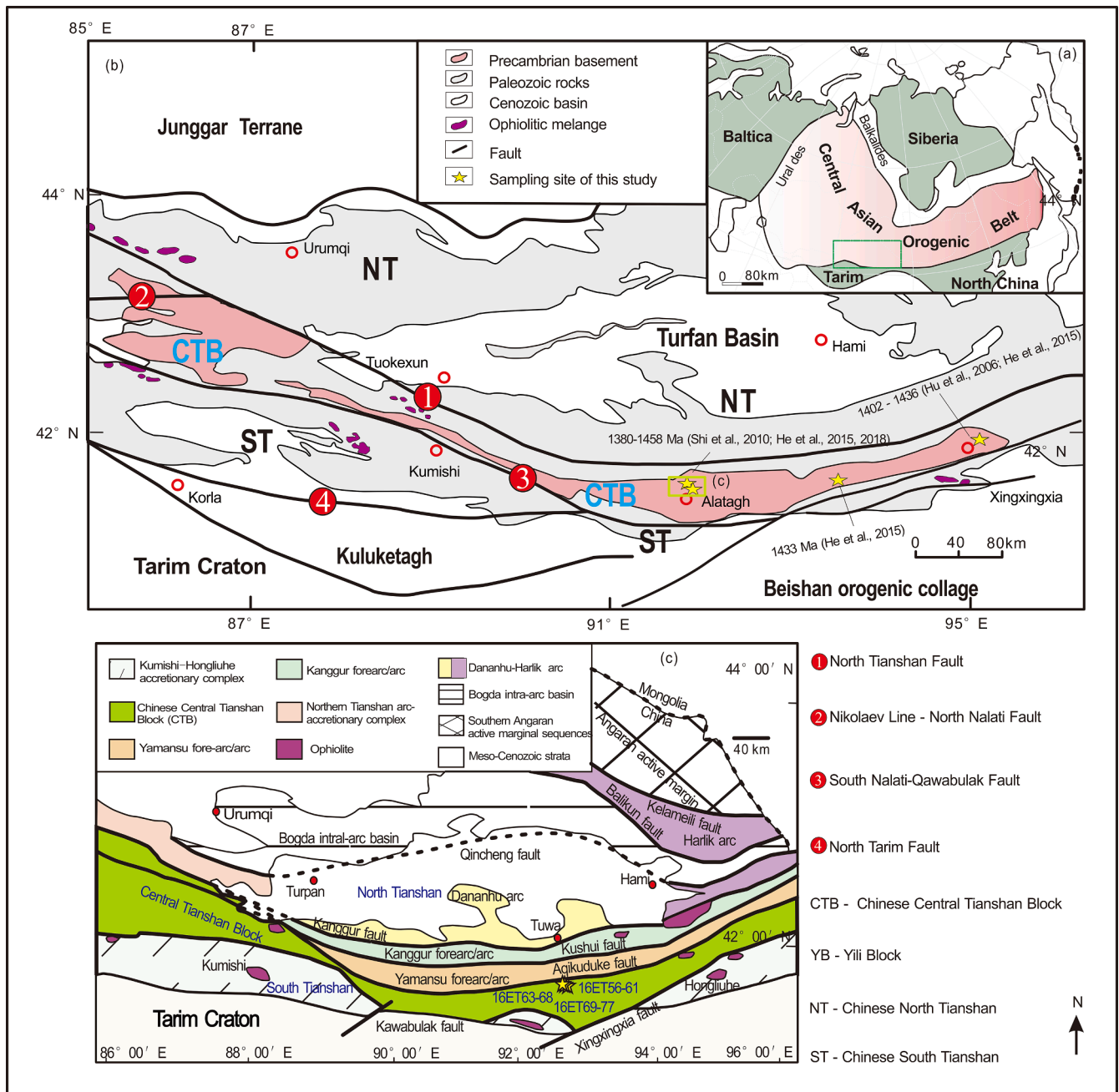


Fig. 1. (a) A simplified map of the Central Asian Orogenic Belt (after Jahn et al., 2000). (b) Sketch map of the Chinese Tianshan (after Huang et al., 2019). (c) Sketch map of the Chinese Central Tianshan (after Xiao et al., 2004).

granitoids (Tatsumi and Eggins, 1995; Stern, 2002; Dilek and Furnes, 2011). These subduction-derived rocks are usually produced in a water-rich and low temperature environment (Peacock, 1996; Stern, 2002; Grove et al., 2012). In subduction zones, two kinds of metamorphic conditions are present, namely high temperature-low pressure (HT-LP) and high pressure-low temperature (HP-LT) conditions. The first is produced due to heat input from arc magmatism, while the latter results from subduction of an oceanic slab (Banno et al., 1978; Brown, 1998; Ernst, 2005). By contrast, plume is capable of generating widespread massive magmatism, i.e., large igneous provinces that are commonly composed of mafic to ultra-mafic rocks, radial mafic dykes and within-plate granitoids (Morgan, 1971; White and McKenzie, 1989; Richards et al., 1991; Campbell, 2007; Ernst et al., 2008; Moucha and Forte, 2011). These plume-related magmas generally have higher temperature (up to 1550 °C) than subduction-related products (White and McKenzie, 1989; Xu et al., 2001; Herzberg and O'Hara, 2002; Mckenzie et al., 2005; Putirka et al., 2007; Brandl et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2014a). The high thermal anomaly introduced by the hot basaltic magma leads to widespread crustal melting and regional extension of the lithosphere (Hill, 1991; Campbell, 2001; Li et al., 2003).

Accretionary orogens and associated blocks record abundant information about the subduction and plume, and thus are essential for studying the supercontinent breakup. The Central Asian Orogenic belt, the largest accretionary orogen in the Phanerozoic, is thus undoubtedly the area where we can explore the cause for Nuna's fragmentation. Located in the southern Central Asian Orogenic Belt (CAOB) (Fig. 1a and 1b), the Chinese Central Tianshan Block (CTB) shares an affinity to Fennoscandia, located in the periphery of the Nuna (Huang et al., 2019). The well-preserved Mesoproterozoic records in both CTB and Fennoscandia (Ernst et al., 2008; Roberts and Slagstad, 2015; He et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2019) make them unique to investigate the breakup of Nuna. In this paper, we present new whole-rock geochemical data, zircon U–Pb ages, Hf-in-zircon and Nd isotope data for Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the CTB, aiming to reveal the dynamic mechanism for Nuna's breakup. In combination with available early to middle Mesoproterozoic data from Fennoscandia and associated blocks worldwide, we demonstrate that Nuna's breakup can be attributed to a circum-supercontinent subduction system with subordinate intermittent plume-related magmatism. The joint process was probably responsible for the oscillatory increase of oxygen level and complex of eukaryote life with episodic deposits formation in the early-middle Mesoproterozoic period.

2. Geological background and sample description

The Chinese Tianshan belt is located in the southern CAOB that is bounded by the Siberian and European (Baltica) cratons to the north and the Tarim, North China and South China cratons to the south (Fig. 1a and 1b). The belt is divided into the eastern and western Tianshan by the Urumqi-Korla road (Fig. 1b). The eastern Tianshan is tectonically composed of Paleozoic Dananhu arc, Kanggur arc, Yamansu arc and the Precambrian Central Tianshan Block (CTB), separated by Kanggur, Kushui, Aqikuduke and Kawabulak faults (Fig. 1c; Xiao et al., 2004; Charvet et al., 2007; Gao et al., 2009). The CTB is a Precambrian continental fragment with affinity to Fennoscandia (Huang et al., 2019). The crustal basement of the CTB is dominated by Mesoproterozoic granitoids including monzogranites, tonalities and granodiorites with minor diorites and amphibolites (Hu et al., 2006; Shi et al., 2010; He et al., 2015a, 2018). They are covered with Neoproterozoic Xingxingxia and Kawabulak groups (He et al., 2015a, 2018; Huang et al., 2017, 2019). The two groups are composed of meta-sedimentary rocks including meta-sandstone, marble, schist and quartzite (Li et al., 2002a; Huang et al., 2014, 2015, 2017, 2019). Widespread Neoproterozoic granitoids (1.0–0.7 Ga) are exposed in the CTB and overlain by Cambrian to Permian sedimentary rocks (Xiao et al., 2004; Huang et al., 2017). In this study, samples are collected from the basement of the CTB

near Alataugh (Fig. 1c). They are granitoids and were intruded by Paleozoic granites (Fig. 2a). They show foliated and slightly deformed characteristics with gneissic and augen structures (Fig. 2b–2e). These granitoids can be classified as granites in Fig. 3a where two groups of samples are distinguished: samples with lower and higher SiO₂. The granitoids with lower SiO₂ occurred as batholiths and intruded by a late mafic dyke (Fig. 2b). They are medium- to coarse-grained and comprised of quartz (~30 vol%), plagioclase (~30 vol%), K-feldspar (~35 vol%) and biotite (~5 vol%) (Fig. 2d). The granitoids with higher SiO₂ are fine- to medium and have a transitional contact relationship with the lower SiO₂ granitoids in the field (Fig. 2c and 2e). They are characterized by a higher volume of quartz, higher SiO₂ contents but lower proportions of biotites than samples with lower SiO₂. In contrast, the granitoids with higher SiO₂ have a relatively wider range of mineral compositions consisting of quartz (~32–35 vol%), plagioclase (~25–40 vol%), K-feldspar (~10–35 vol%) and biotite (~0–3 vol%) (Fig. 2e).

3. Analytical methods

3.1. Whole-rock geochemistry

Whole-rock major elements were measured on fused glass disks using a Rigaku RIX 2000 X-ray fluorescence spectrometer in the State Key Laboratory of Isotope Geochemistry (SKLIG), Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences (GIG-CAS). The analytical precision is within 1–5%. Detailed analytical procedures are described in Li et al. (2006) and the measured reference is consistent with the reported value (http://georem.mpch-mainz.gwdg.de/sample_query.asp), which is listed in Supplementary Table 1. Trace element analyses were conducted by using a Perkin-Elmer Sciex ELAN 6000 ICP-MS in the SKLIG. The analytical procedures are referred to Li et al. (2002b), Li et al. (2007a). The trace elements analytical precision is generally better than 5% (Supplementary Table 1). The measured reference is identical to the recommended value listed in Supplementary Table 1. The whole-rock geochemical data are presented in Supplementary Table 1.

3.2. Zircon U–Pb dating, Lu–Hf-in-zircon and whole rock Nd isotopic analysis

Zircons were collected from each sample using conventional heavy liquids and magnetic separation techniques. Zircons were then hand-picked and mounted in epoxy resin and polished to their half thickness. Cathodoluminescence (CL) imaging was taken for these zircons to reveal their internal structure using a JEOL JXA-8100 Electron Probe with a Mono CL3 Cathodoluminescence System in the SKLIG.

3.2.1. Zircon U–Pb dating

Zircon U–Pb isotope compositions of samples were analyzed using an Agilent 7500a ICPMS equipped with a RESOLUTION M–50 laser ablation system at the Key Laboratory of Mineralogy and Metallogeny, Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences. Energy of the laser ablation was set to 80 mJ, and repetition rate of 8 Hz and a beam size of 31 μm were applied in analysis. Helium was used to transport the ablated sample materials to the ICPMS. Zircon 91500 and silicate glass NIST 610 were used as the standard for zircon U–Pb and trace elements calculations, respectively. During the analyses, the standard 91500 yielded weighted mean ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age of 1062 ± 5 Ma (MSWD = 0.15, n = 18), which is consistent with the recommended value (1061 ± 4 Ma, Jackson et al., 2004). Zircon U–Pb isotope ratios were calculated using the ICPMSDataCal program (Liu et al., 2008). The age calculation and plotting were made using Isoplot (ver. 3.00) (Ludwig, 2003). The analytical results are presented in Supplementary Table 2. In this study, uncertainties on individual analysis are reported at 1σ level. Zircon analyses with discordance <95% are not considered for the mean age calculation.

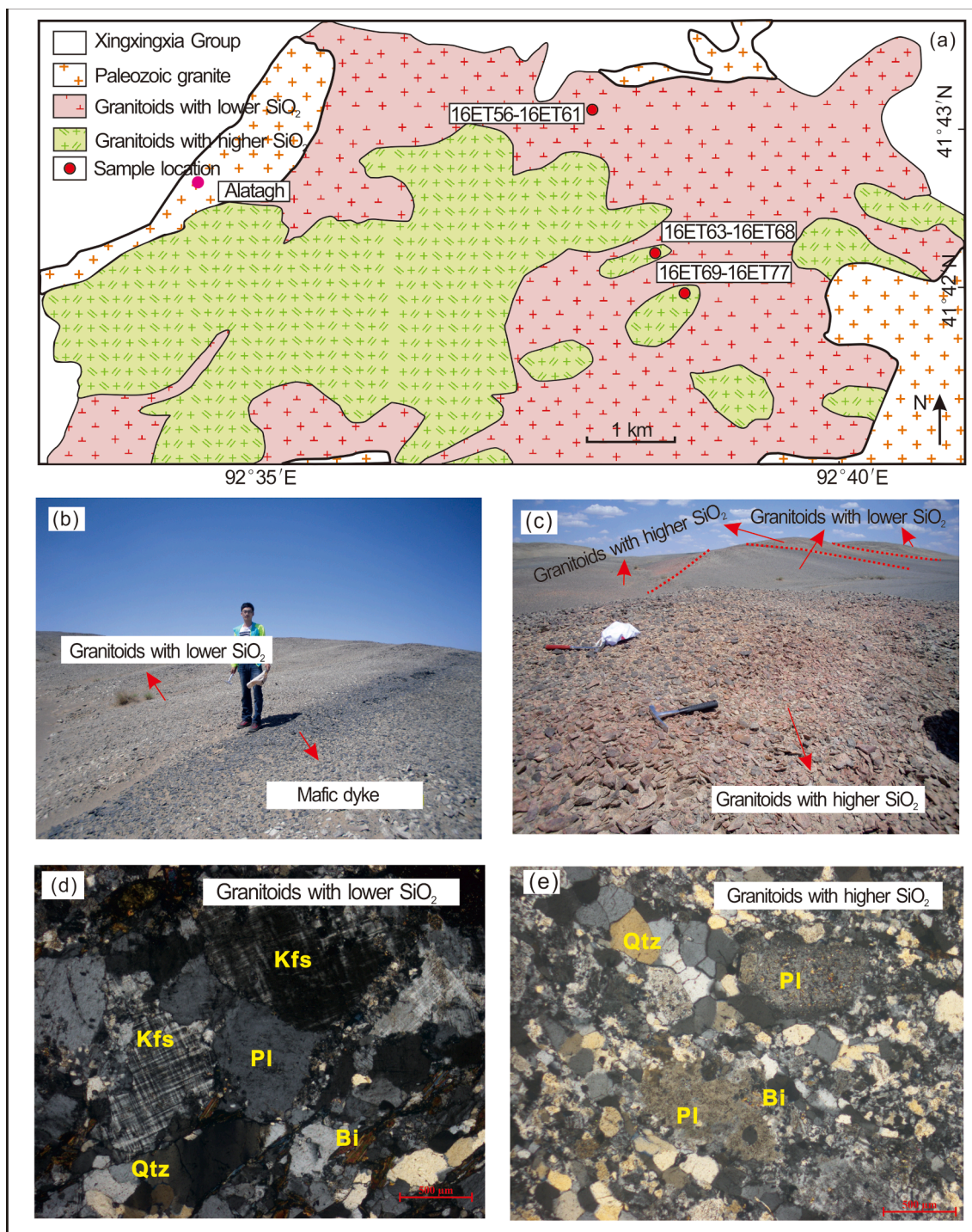


Fig. 2. (a) Geological map of the Alatağ in the Chinese Central Tianshan Block showing the sampling sites (after He et al., 2015a). (b-e) Field photographs and Photomicrographs of Mesoproterozoic granitoids. Qtz = quartz; Pl = plagioclase; Kfs = K-feldspar; Bi = biotite.

3.2.2. Lu-Hf-in-zircon isotopic analysis

Hf-in-zircon isotopic analyses were performed on a Neptune Plus MC-ICP-MS (Thermo Scientific), coupled with a RESolution M-50 193 nm laser ablation system (Resonetics) in the SKLIG, GIG-CAS. The laser parameters of 45 μm diameter beam, 6 Hz repetition rate and ~ 4 J·cm⁻² energy density were performed on zircon grains for acquiring Hf isotopes. During the analyses, the Helium was the carrier gas, and its blank (¹⁸⁰Hf) was < 0.2 mv. The isobaric interferences of ¹⁷⁶Lu and ¹⁷⁶Yb on ¹⁷⁶Hf are corrected by the ratios of ¹⁷⁶Lu/¹⁷⁵Lu = 0.02656 and ¹⁷⁶Yb/¹⁷³Yb = 0.79381 (Segal et al., 2003; Wu et al., 2006). The mass

bias factor of Yb is calculated from the measured ¹⁷³Yb/¹⁷¹Yb and the natural ratio of 1.13268. The mass bias factor of Lu is the same as that of Yb. The mass bias of ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf was normalized to ¹⁷⁹Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf = 0.7325 with an exponential law. The detailed data reduction procedure is reported in Zhang et al. (2015a) and Zhang et al. (2015b). Standard zircons Penglai was used as the external standard and was analyzed twice before and after every 5 analyses of unknowns. Repeated 22 Penglai measurements yielded a weighted mean of ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf at 0.282476 ± 8 (SD), which is consistent with the reported value within errors (0.282482 ± 0.000013, Sláma et al., 2008). The measured

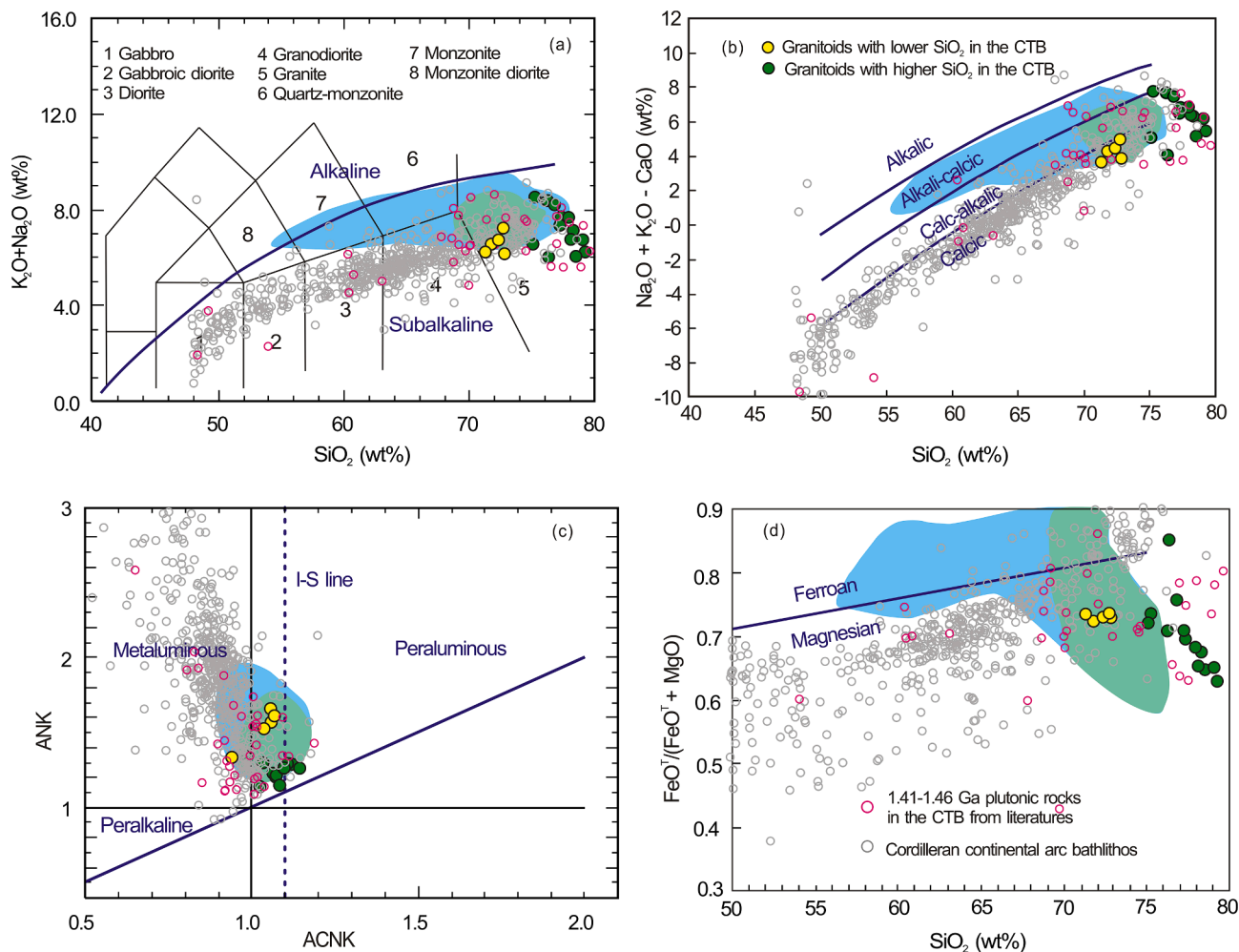


Fig. 3. Classification diagrams for the studied Mesoproterozoic granitoids to compare with melts from medium- to high K basaltic rocks and the arc plutons from Cordillera. (a) Total alkali-silica (TAS) classification diagram (Middlemost, 1994); (b) $\text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{K}_2\text{O} - \text{CaO}$ versus SiO_2 , (c) ANK versus ACNK diagram (Maniar and Piccoli, 1989); (d) $\text{FeO}^{\text{T}}/(\text{FeO}^{\text{T}} + \text{MgO})$ versus SiO_2 diagram (Frost et al., 2001). Data for 1.41–1.46 Ga plutonic rocks in the CTB is summarized in Supplementary Table 5. Data for Cordilleran continental arc batholiths is also summarized in Supplementary Table 5, which is from Lee et al. (2007); <http://georoc.mpch-mainz.gwdg.de/georoc/> and <https://www.navdat.org/>. Experimental melts in blue color for medium- to high K basaltic rocks at 7 kbar, 825–925 °C are from Sisson et al. (2005). Melts formed at melting temperature lower than 850 °C with $\text{SiO}_2 > 70$ wt% from medium- to high K basaltic rocks are highlighted in green.

$^{176}\text{Lu}/^{177}\text{Hf}$ ratios and the ^{176}Lu decay constant of $1.867 \times 10^{-11} \text{ a}^{-1}$ (Söderlund et al., 2004) were used to calculate initial $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$ ratios. The $\varepsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values are calculated from chondritic values of $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf} = 0.282785$ and $^{176}\text{Lu}/^{177}\text{Hf} = 0.0336$ (Bouvier et al., 2008). The depleted mantle line is defined by present-day $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf} = 0.28325$ and $^{176}\text{Lu}/^{177}\text{Hf} = 0.0384$ (Griffin et al., 2004). $^{176}\text{Lu}/^{177}\text{Hf}$ ratio of 0.015 for the average continental crust (Griffin et al., 2002) was used to calculate two-stage (crustal) model ages (T_{DM}^2). The Lu–Hf isotopic data are listed in Supplementary Table 3.

3.2.3. Whole rock Nd isotopic analysis

Nd isotopic analyses were carried out at SKLIG, GIG-CAS. The Nd isotopic measurements are performed using a Neptune Plus multi-collector mass spectrometry (MC-ICP-MS). Analytical procedures can be found in Wei et al. (2002) and Li et al. (2004). Normalizing factor used to correct the mass fractionation of Nd during the measurements is $^{146}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.7219$. Analyses of standards Shin Etsu JNDI-1 over the measurements period provided $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratio of 0.512119 ± 5 (SD, $n = 3$), which is identical to the recommended value ($^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.512115 \pm 7$, Tanaka et al., 2000). The BHVO-2 reference materials were run as unknowns and yielded $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.512973 \pm 4$, which is consistent with the recommended value ($^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.512983 \pm$

10, Weis et al., 2005). The Nd isotopic results are listed in Supplementary Table 4.

4. Results

4.1. Whole-rock major and trace element geochemistry

The studied samples have high SiO_2 (71.32–79.26 wt%) and are plotted in a granite field with a variety of K_2O contents (Fig. 3a and Supplementary Table 1). These studied samples are also calcic to calc-alkaline (Fig. 3b). These samples show metaluminous to slightly peraluminous characteristics with aluminum saturation index (ASI) ($\text{A}/\text{CNK} = \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/(\text{CaO} + \text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{K}_2\text{O}, \text{molecular ratio})$) varying between 0.94 and 1.14 (Fig. 3c). Their relatively low FeO^{T} (0.42–2.87 wt%) contents make them magnesian characteristics (Fig. 3d). These samples also have low Zr (52.9–162 ppm), Nb (0.84–8.35 ppm), Ce (16.8–70.5 ppm), Y contents (2.33–18.4 ppm) and low 10000 Ga/Al ratios (1.16–2.25) (Supplementary Table 1) relative to A-type granites (Fig. 4a–c). Moreover, these samples show relatively low zircon saturation temperatures between 642 °C and 745 °C, which are comparable to those of Cordilleran continental arc batholiths but significantly lower than those of plume-related granitic rocks (Fig. 4d). Overall, these

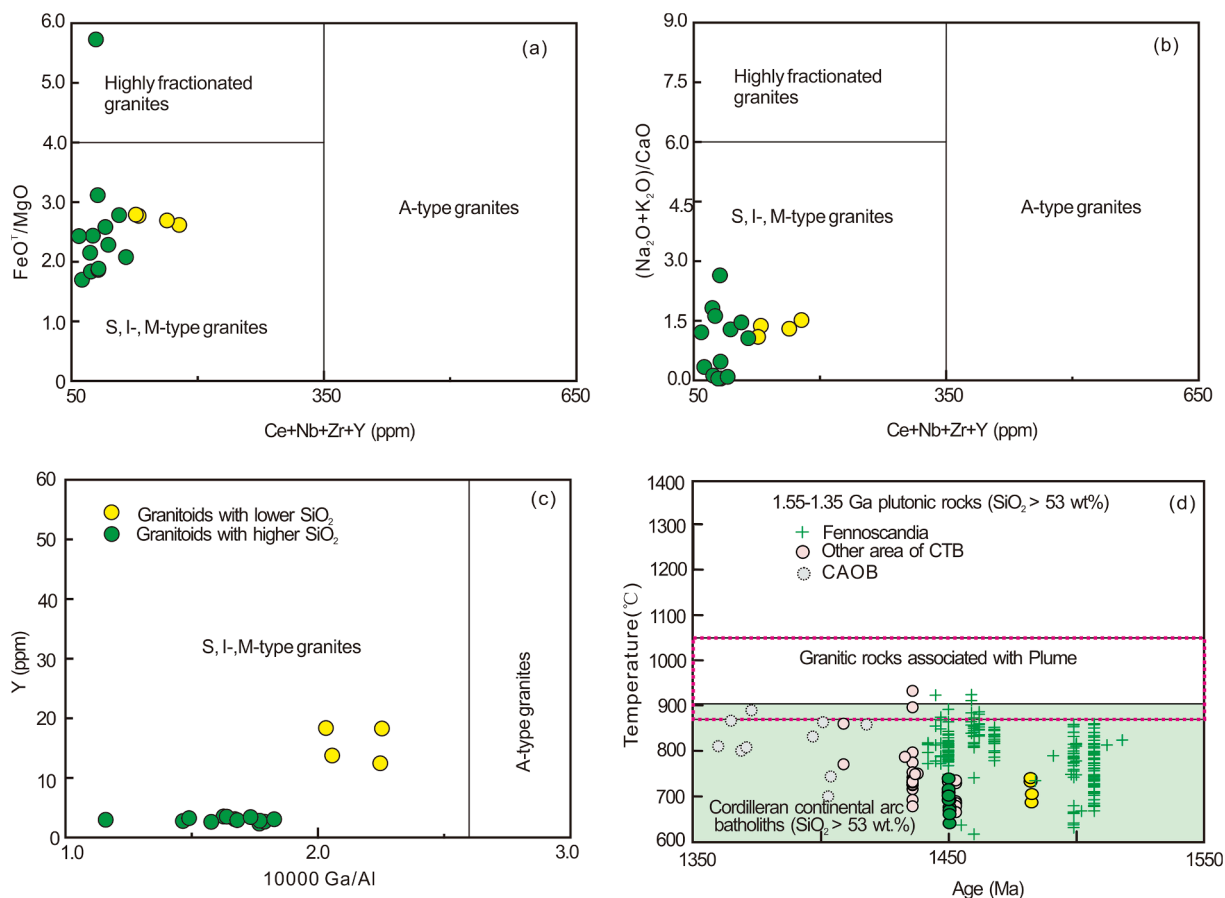


Fig. 4. (a–c) Diagrams defining highly fractionated granites and A-type granites (Whalen et al., 1987) and (d) zircon saturation temperature (T_{Zr}) (Boehnke et al., 2013). (a) FeO^T/MgO versus $Ce + Nb + Zr + Y$, (b) $(Na_2O + K_2O)/CaO$ versus $10000 Ga/Al$, (c) Y versus $Ce + Nb + Zr + Y$ for the Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the Chinese Central Tianshan Block. (d) Zircon saturation temperature for the plutonic rocks from this study, other area of the CTB (Hu et al., 2006; Shi et al., 2010; He et al., 2015a), CAOB (Kröner et al., 2013; Han et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2019) and Fennoscandia (Andersson, 1997; Cečys et al., 2002; Obst et al., 2004; Motuza et al., 2006; Skridlaitė et al., 2007; Roberts et al., 2013; Johansson et al., 2016). The red dash box is the zircon saturation temperatures of granitic rocks associated with plume (Campbell, 2001; Xu et al., 2001; Ernst and Buchan, 2003; Liu et al., 2014a). The green area is the zircon saturation temperature of Cordilleran continental arc batholiths with $SiO_2 > 53$ wt% (Supplementary Table 5).

samples display continental arc-like light rare earth element (LREE) enrichments $(La/Yb)_N = 12.4–51.3$ with depletion of Nb, Ta and Ti and display positive to negative Eu anomalies ($Eu/Eu^* = 0.62–2.69$) (Fig. 5a and 5b).

Noticeably, a decreasing trend of P_2O_5 with increasing SiO_2 was

observed. The granitoids with higher SiO_2 have lower P_2O_5 as well as TiO_2 , MgO , FeO^T , Nb, Nb/Ta and Dy/Yb together with low Ba and Sr than those with lower SiO_2 (Fig. 6a–6h). The former are characterized by middle REE fractionation, while the latter have unfractionated heavy REE patterns (Fig. 5a).

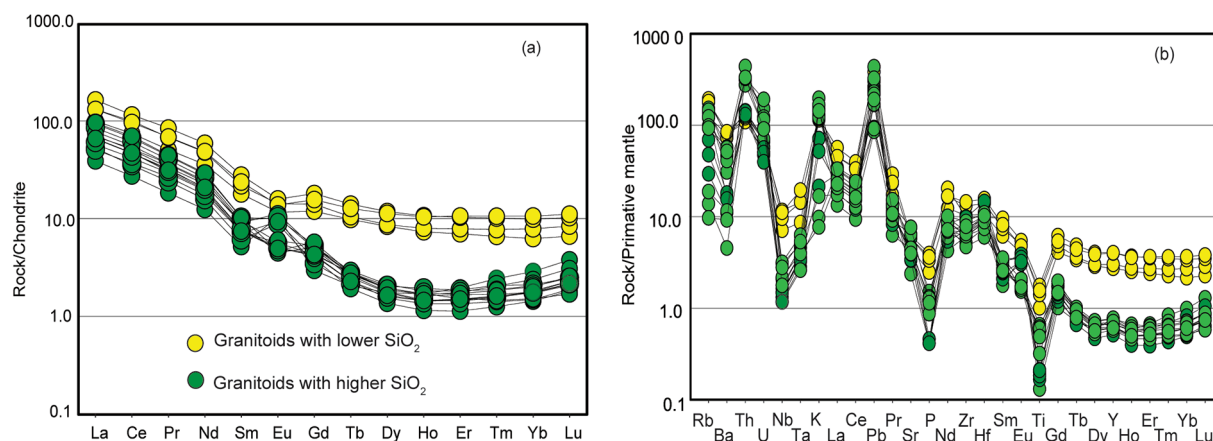


Fig. 5. Chondrite-normalized REE patterns and primitive mantle-normalized trace element variation diagrams for studied Mesoproterozoic granitoids. Normalizing values are from Sun and McDonough (1989).

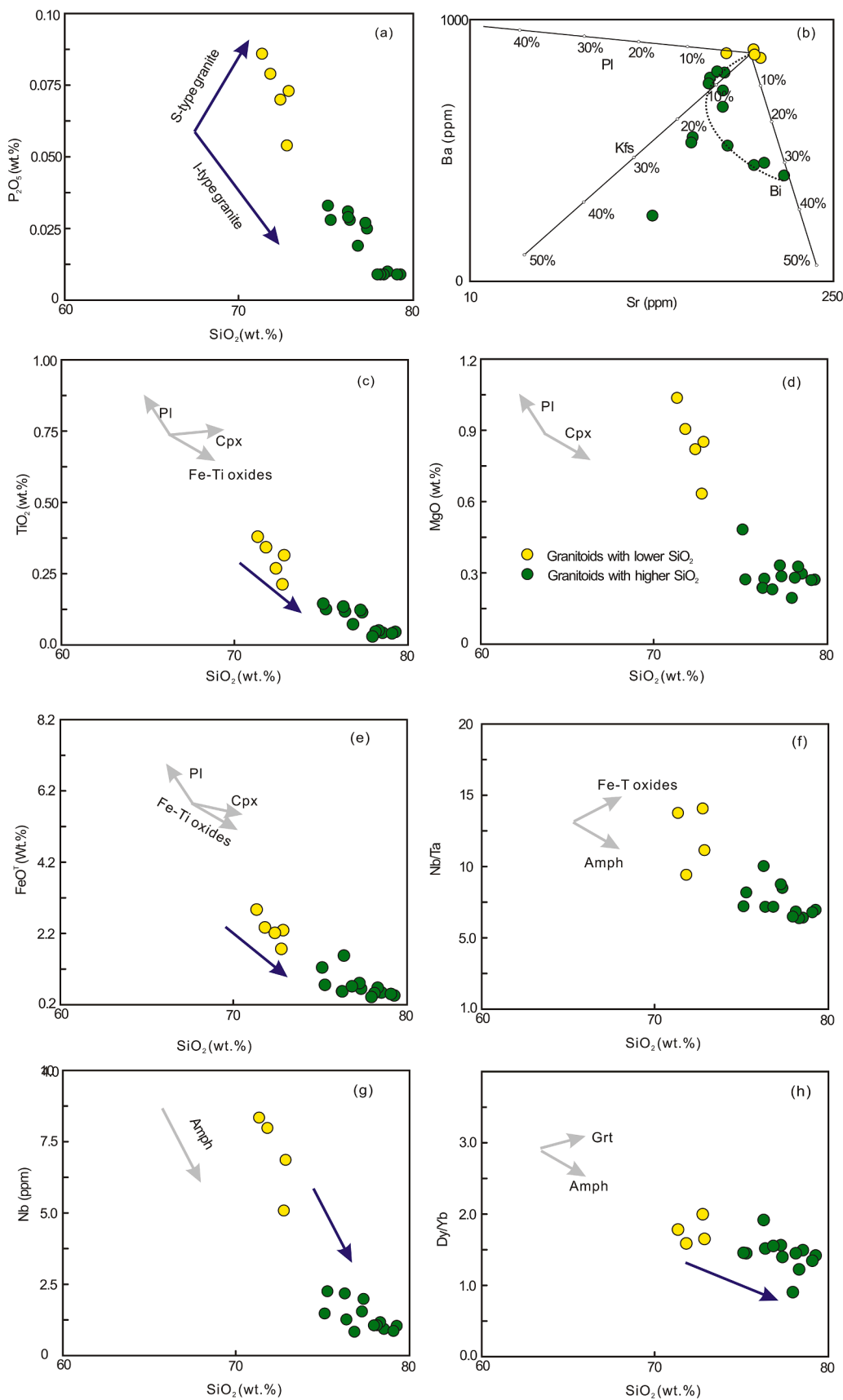


Fig. 6. (a) Diagram of P_2O_5 versus SiO_2 to distinguish the I-type and S-type granites. (b) Ba versus Sr diagram showing that fractionation of K-feldspar and biotite plays an important role in formation of granitoids with higher SiO_2 . Partition coefficients of Ba and Sr are from [Hanson \(1978\)](#). (c–h) Bivariate plots of elements versus SiO_2 to address origin of the Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the Central Tianshan Block. Amph = amphibole; Bi = biotite; Cpx = clinopyroxene; Fe-Ti oxides = Fe-Ti bearing oxides (titanite ilmenite, or rutile); Grt = garnet; Pl = plagioclase; Kfs = K-feldspar.

4.2. U-Pb geochronology, Hf-in-zircon and whole-rock Nd isotopic composition

Zircon grains of granitoids with lower SiO₂ (16ET56) in the CTB have been dated. They are transparent and euhedral, and most have prismatic shapes with well-developed oscillatory zoning, suggesting an igneous origin (Hoskin and Schaltegger, 2003, Fig. 7a). Among twenty five analyzed spots, two are of metamorphic rims (1433 Ma and 1436 Ma) and three show high U (>2000 ppm) contents (Supplementary Table 2, Fig. 7a). Ten spots show discordant results due to lead loss, with ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U ages between 1307 Ma and 1583 Ma (Supplementary Table 2, Fig. 7a). The above metamorphic and high U zircons as well as discordant analyses were not considered in the mean age calculation. The emplacement age is thus calculated based on the ten concordant results with ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U ages varying from 1480 to 1484 Ma, which yields a weighted mean ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age at 1482 Ma ± 8 Ma (Fig. 7b).

Hf-in-zircon isotopic compositions are calculated using the mean age of 1482 Ma for ten concordant analyses, two spots of metamorphic rims and three analyses of high U zircons. These measured ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratios are similar (Supplementary Table 3), suggesting that metamorphic or high U contents effects did not affect Hf isotope composition. Thus these fifteen analyses yield similar high initial ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratios (0.281951 to 0.282056), equivalent to positive ε_{Hf}(t) values (+3.9 to +7.6) (Supplementary Table 3). These zircons also display relatively young crustal model ages (T_{DM}^C = 1.7–2.0 Ga) (Supplementary Table 3). Meanwhile, the granitoids with lower SiO₂ (18ET56) have positive whole-rock ε_{Nd}(t) values (+1.14 to +1.22), except one showing a slightly negative value of -0.54 (Supplementary Table 4). They have relatively young Nd model ages (T_{DM}² = 1.9–2.1 Ga) similar to T_{DM}^C (Supplementary Table 4).

Sample 16ET69 of the granitoids with higher SiO₂ in the CTB was

selected for dating. Zircon grains from the 16ET69 are mostly euhedral and prismatic with lengths ranging from 100 to 250 μm and length/width ratios of 1:1 to 2.5:1. Most grains are transparent and display oscillatory zoning, suggesting an igneous origin (Hoskin and Schaltegger, 2003, Fig. 7c). Some are dark in color exhibiting blurred and complicated textures (Fig. 7c). Among thirty-three zircons analyzed, twenty-one transparent grains yielded concordant results with ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U ages between 1445 and 1456 Ma (Fig. 7c, Supplementary Table 2). Five are high-U grains (>2000 ppm, Supplementary Table 2) with three being discordant in age and six spots also deviate from the concordant line (Fig. 7c). The high U and discordant zircons, together with an inherited grain, were not considered in the mean age calculation. The emplacement age of 16ET69 thus can be calculated with a weighted mean ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age of 1450 ± 7 Ma (Fig. 7d). This age is consistent with the formation age of granitoids with lower SiO₂ when errors and matches with those in other parts of CTB (Fig. 1b and Supplementary Table 5). Zircons from the granitoids with higher SiO₂ possess similarly positive ε_{Hf}(t) values (+2.3 to +7.8) with correspondingly young crustal model ages (T_{DM}^C = 1.7–2.1 Ga) (Supplementary Table 3). Additionally, granitoids with higher SiO₂ have positive whole-rock ε_{Nd}(t) values (+0.22 to +0.99) with T_{DM}² model ages of 1.9–2.0 Ga, which couple with the Hf isotopic compositions (Supplementary Tables 4).

5. Discussion

5.1. Petrogenesis of the Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the CTB

Before discussing the petrogenesis for the Mesoproterozoic granitoids, effects of post-magmatic processes on elemental mobility are

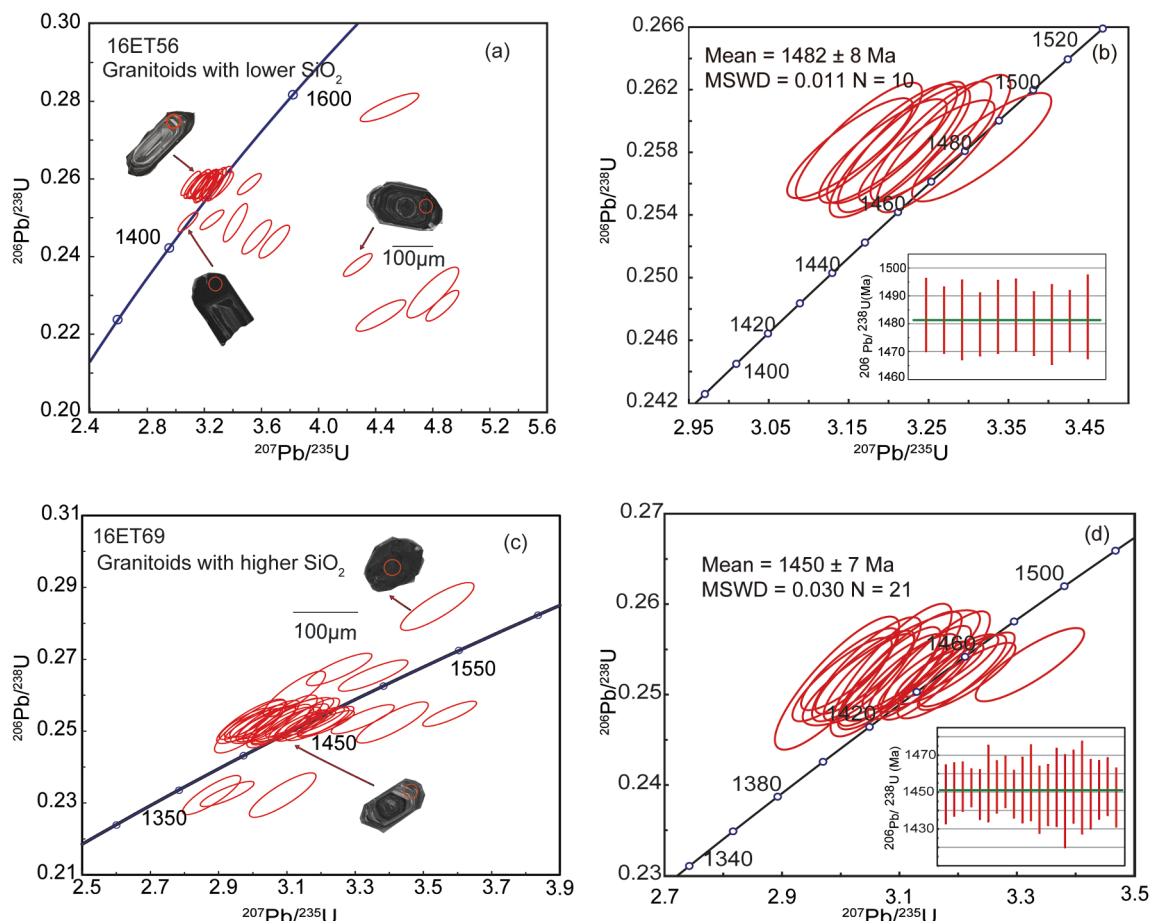


Fig. 7. LA-ICPMS zircon U-Pb concordia diagrams for the studied Mesoproterozoic granitoids.

needed to be assessed (e.g., alteration, deformation and metamorphism). The granitoids have relatively low loss on ignition values (LOI) values (<1.5 wt%), suggesting little influence by post-magmatic processes. The effects can also be evaluated by the relationship between elements and chemical index of weathering [CIW = $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/(\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{CaO} + \text{Na}_2\text{O})$], molecular ratio; Harnois, 1988]. For example, the good correlations between CIW and elements indicate that these elements are potentially distributed by alteration and deformation or metamorphism processes (Wang et al., 2010a). Major oxides (e.g. Na_2O , K_2O , CaO , Al_2O_3 , P_2O_5 , $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3^{\text{T}}$ and MgO) and trace elements (Rb, Sr and Ba) show no correlation with CIW in the studied samples (Supplementary Figure S1), indicating insignificant mobilization during the post-magmatic processes. High field strength elements (e.g., Nb, Ta, Zr, Ti) have been suggested to remain immobile to these processes (Polat et al., 2002; Ordóñez-Calderón et al., 2008). Consistency in rare earth elements and in Nd-Hf isotopic compositions also precludes effects from post-magmatic processes on the elemental mobility. Accordingly, the elements can be used to decipher the petrogenesis.

These Mesoproterozoic granitoids have high SiO_2 contents (71.32–79.26 wt%) similar to highly fractionated granites (Wu et al., 2003; Perez-Soba and Villaseca, 2010). However, the granitoids are deficient of aluminum-rich minerals (e.g., lithium mica, tourmaline beryl, Fig. 2d and 2e) that commonly present in highly fractionated granites (Chudík et al., 2008; Černý et al., 2012; Merino et al., 2013; Li et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2017). Low $\text{FeO}^{\text{T}}/\text{MgO}$ and $(\text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{K}_2\text{O})/\text{CaO}$ ratios also preclude a highly fractionated granites origin (Fig. 4a and 4b). Extensive fractionation of plagioclase is an important process to generate highly fractionated granites, which would show strong Eu depletion (Miller and Mittlefehldt, 1982; Wu et al., 2003, 2017; Gelman et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the Mesoproterozoic granitoids have limited fractionation of plagioclase with weakly negative to strongly positive Eu anomalies (Fig. 5a). This disparity does not support a highly fractionated granites affinity. Most highly fractionated granites also possess characteristics of REE tetrad effect because of separation of accessory minerals (e.g., apatite, zircon, allanite and monazite) (Wu et al., 2003, 2017). The dearth of tetrad effect of the Mesoproterozoic granitoids also precludes a highly fractionated granites origin (Fig. 5a). Therefore, the Mesoproterozoic granitoids in this study are not highly fractionated.

Granites can be subdivided into M, A, S, and I types according to their source characteristics (Whalen et al., 1987; Chappell and White, 1992). M-type granites are considered to have low K_2O contents (<2.0 wt%), but high MgO contents (>2.0 wt%) (Whalen, 1985; Maurice et al., 2013). The Mesoproterozoic granitoids have higher K_2O (average 3.3 wt %) and lower MgO contents (0.20–0.91 wt%) (Supplementary Table 1), suggesting an unlikely affinity to M-type granites. A-type granites typically have iron-rich and alkali mafic minerals (e.g., Fe-rich biotite/amphibole, sodic amphibole/pyroxene and aegirine-augite) and limited plagioclase (Chappell and White, 1992; Wu et al., 2002; Bonin, 2007; Wang et al., 2010b). A-type granites are also characterized by ferroan compositions and have higher Zr + Nb + Ce + Y contents, Ga/Al ratios as well as higher zircon saturation temperatures (830–1000 °C) compare to S- and I-type granites (Clemens et al., 1986; Whalen et al., 1987; Chappell and White, 1992; Eby, 1992; Frost et al., 2001; Frost and Frost, 2011). Mafic minerals are absent in the Mesoproterozoic granitoids (Fig. 2e and 2e), which is distinct from the A-type granite. Moreover, the magnesian characteristics, low Ce + Nb + Zr + Y contents and Ga/Al ratios together with low zircon saturation temperatures (642–745 °C, Fig. 3d and 4a–4d) of the Mesoproterozoic granitoids argue against an A-type granite origin. Basically, S-type granites are composed of Al-rich minerals (muscovite, cordierite and garnet), and are marked by strongly peraluminous compositions with Alumina Saturation Index (ACNK) higher than 1.1 (Chappell and White, 1992). The paucity of Al-rich mineral and metaluminous to slightly peraluminous compositions (ACNK = 0.94 ~ 1.1) of the studied Mesoproterozoic granitoids clearly distinguish them from S-type granites. The relationship between P_2O_5 and SiO_2 is effective in distinguishing S- and I-type granites, which are

characterized by positive and negative relationships, respectively (Chappell and White, 1992; Chappell, 1999; Li et al., 2007b; Clemens et al., 2011). The Mesoproterozoic granitoids display a decreasing P_2O_5 with increasing SiO_2 (Fig. 6a), indicative of nature of I-type granites.

5.2. Origin of the Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the CTB

Generation of I-type granites can be achieved from two broad mechanisms: extensive fractional crystallization of mantle-derived magma or partial melting of crustal igneous rocks (Chappell and White, 1974; Chappell and Stephens, 1988; Chappell, 1999; Frost et al., 2016; Ulmer et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2020). Extensive fractional crystallization occurring in mantle-derived magma could give rise to abundance of mafic-ultramafic cumulates (Clemens and Stevens, 2012). Nevertheless, rare mafic-ultramafic rocks associated with the Mesoproterozoic granitoids are observed in the CTB. Furthermore, petrological experiment studies have suggested that fractional crystallization of mantle-derived melts could produce metaluminous to weakly peraluminous compositions with SiO_2 contents of 56–60 wt% (Ulmer et al., 2018). The Mesoproterozoic granitoids are metaluminous to weakly peraluminous with SiO_2 contents of 71.32–79.26 wt%, which suggests that they were not directly derived from extensive fractional crystallization of a mantle-derived magma. The Mesoproterozoic granitoids have positive Hf–Nd isotopic compositions (Supplementary Tables 3 and 4), suggesting that they have mafic crust related source. The granitoids with lower SiO_2 have medium- to high K_2O components (Supplementary Table 1), which preclude a low K mafic source. Petrological experiment studies have showed that melts from partial melting of medium- to high K basaltic rocks at 7 kbar have a relatively high SiO_2 of 57.10–75.60 wt % and high K_2O of 2.29–5.39 wt% (Sisson et al., 2005), which are in agreement with those of the Mesoproterozoic granitoids (Fig. 3a, SiO_2 : 71.32–72.85 wt%, K_2O : 3.45–4.13 wt%, this study). It is true especially for those melts formed at melting temperature lower than 850 °C with $\text{SiO}_2 > 70$ wt%, as they share similar subalkaline, calcic, metaluminous to weakly peraluminous compositions and magnesian characteristics with the Mesoproterozoic granitoids (Fig. 3a–3d, green area). It is thus suggested that partial melting of medium- to high K basaltic rocks formed the granitoids with lower SiO_2 in this study at temperature lower than 850 °C. This matches with the low zircon saturation temperatures (694–745 °C) calculated for the Mesoproterozoic granitoids (Fig. 4d).

Linear trends on major and trace elements between the granitoids suggest that they are genetically related with fractional crystallization (Fig. 6b–6h). In the diagram of Ba vs Sr (Fig. 6b), Sr and Ba contents of the granitoids decrease slowly at the beginning, followed by a drastic drop. These features suggest that a probable early limited fractionation of plagioclase, followed by crystallization of K-feldspar and biotite from the granitoids with lower SiO_2 to form those with higher SiO_2 . The decrease in TiO_2 with increasing SiO_2 precludes a clinopyroxene fractionation in the Mesoproterozoic granitoids (Fig. 6c). This is because fractional crystallization of clinopyroxene can cause a decrease of MgO and FeO^{T} contents but lead to an increase of TiO_2 contents (Fig. 6c to 6e, Nagasawa and Schnetzler, 1971; Ewart et al., 1973; Stimac and Hickmott, 1994; Huang et al., 2006). Crystallization of Ti-bearing oxides (titanite, ilmenite, or rutile) could lower TiO_2 and FeO^{T} with increasing SiO_2 contents, whereas this process could also result in an increasing tendency of Nb/Ta ratios (Stepanov et al., 2014). A decreasing trend of Nb/Ta ratios with increasing SiO_2 can be observed in the Mesoproterozoic granitoids and argue against a Fe-Ti oxides fractionation (Fig. 6f). Fractionation of amphibole instead could give rise to a decrease in Nb content and correspondingly a decrease in Nb/Ta (Stepanov et al., 2014). These features are consistent with the decreasing trend of Nb/Ta and Nb contents in the Mesoproterozoic granitoids (Fig. 6f and 6g). The decreasing Dy/Yb with increasing SiO_2 and the depletion of the middle REEs also support the fractionation of amphibole rather than garnet (Fig. 5a and 6h). Amphibole preferentially incorporates middle REEs, whereas garnet incorporates heavy REEs over the middle REEs

(Davidson et al., 2007). Consequently, separation of amphibole will cause decrease in Dy/Yb ratios and depletion in middle REEs, but crystallization of garnet will increase the Dy/Yb ratios and cause strong depletion in heavy REEs relative to middle REE (Pertermann et al., 2004; Macpherson et al., 2006; Davidson et al., 2007). Therefore, these trends and REEs patterns indicate amphibole rather than garnet crystallization for the Mesoproterozoic granitoids. These characteristics might be affected by accessory minerals (such as apatite, allanite and monazite), since these minerals have partition coefficients (K_d) >1 for REEs (e.g., $K_{Nd} > K_{Yb}$, Wu et al., 2003 and reference therein). Consequently, separation of these accessory minerals could lead to a decrease in Nd/Yb ratio. However, compared to the granitoids with lower SiO₂ in this study, those with higher SiO₂ have higher Nd/Yb ratios (Supplementary Table 1), precluding the influence from the accessory mineral separation. The increase of the Nd/Yb ratios further confirm the major role of the amphiboles in causing the Dy/Yb decrease and depletion of the middle REEs in the granitoids, as amphiboles usually prefer HREE than LREE ($K_{Nd} < K_{Yb}$) in a system (Davidson et al., 2007). These differences thus indicate that the granitoids were formed in an amphibole stable field without garnet occurrence, which could happen in a depth of no more than 30 km (Pertermann et al., 2004; Davidson et al., 2007; Palin et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017). Combined with the low calculated zircon saturation temperatures (642–745 °C), the above evidence thus reflects that the granitoids with lower SiO₂ differentiated to form those with higher SiO₂ by fractional crystallization, they were both formed in an amphibole-stable field at temperature lower than 850 °C.

5.3. Tectonic setting for the Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the CTB

The studied Mesoproterozoic granitoids are magnesian, calcic to calc-alkalic and metaluminous to slightly peraluminous (ACNK = 0.94–1.1) (Fig. 3b and 3c), which are comparable to arc-like granites. They possess typical arc-like trace element distribution patterns with significant enrichment in large ion lithophile elements (e.g., Rb, Th, Pb) but depletion in high field strength elements (e.g., Nb, Ta, Ti, Fig. 5a and 5b). The granitoids associated with monzogranites, tonalities, granodiorites and minor diorites and amphibolites make up the Mesoproterozoic crustal components of CTB (Hu et al., 2006; Shi et al., 2010; He et al., 2015a, 2018). These crustal components are analogous to the batholiths of Mesozoic Cordillera which is the representative of active continental margin arc comprised mainly of monzogranites, tonalities and granodiorites, as well as subordinate diorites and gabbros (Fig. 3a, Lee et al., 2007; Ducea et al., 2015; Collins et al., 2020). Crustal components in CTB and batholiths of Mesozoic Cordilleran continental arc have consistent compositions (Fig. 3a, 3b and 3c). Moreover, the granitoids in the CTB share indistinguishable low zircon saturation temperatures (642–745 °C) and are plotted in an arc granite field as those of Mesozoic batholiths in the Cordilleran continental arc (Fig. 4d, 8a and 8b, Supplementary Table 1 and Table 5). In this regard, it manifests that the CTB was an active continental margin in Mesoproterozoic, analogues to the Mesozoic Cordilleran continental arc. This correspondingly indicates a subduction affinity for the studied granitoids. An 1.46–1.38 Ga magmatic belt extends 100–240 km along the margin of CTB (Fig. 1b, Hu et al., 2006; Shi et al., 2010; He et al., 2018), which further supports the subduction association.

5.4. The cause for Nuna breakup

The cause for the breakup of Nuna remains unknown due to the lack of oceanic lithosphere and oceanic plume records in the period of Nuna breakup. Recognizing ancient subduction and plume related events is thus essential to illuminate the dynamic mechanism at the time of the breakup of Nuna. Single geochemical or geological evidence can hardly be able to unambiguously discriminate the ancient plume from subduction (Campbell, 2001; Xu et al., 2013). A comprehensive study of both geochemical and geological perspectives is thus required to

distinguish the relationship of subduction and plume with the dispersal of Nuna. First, the distinct geochemical characteristics of granitoids related to subduction or plume can help to discern their links to Nuna breakup. Granitoids formed in arcs are subduction-related with a relatively low temperature (e.g., Mesozoic Cordilleran continental arc < 800 °C), and usually developed as a granitic belt (Tatsumi and Eggins, 1995; Stern, 2002; Zheng, 2019). By comparison, granitoids associated with a plume commonly formed under relatively high temperature condition (Campbell, 2001; Ernst and Buchan, 2003; Liu et al., 2014a). Second, trace element proxies like Nb/Yb, Nb/La, Ce/Pb and Nb anomalies in mafic to intermediate rocks can be utilized to discriminate subduction from plume impact on the fragmentation of Nuna. Subduction-related mafic to intermediate rocks tend to have lower ratios of the above element ratios and Nb anomalies with arc signatures than their plume-related counterparts with OIB signatures (Sun and McDonough, 1989; Pearce and Peate, 1995; Campbell, 2001; Kelemen et al., 2003, 2014; Pearce, 2008; Tang et al., 2017; Han et al., 2019; Zheng, 2019). Moreover, metamorphic events can provide clues about the relationship of subduction and plume with the dispersal of Nuna. Generally, a trench-parallel accretionary belt with orogenic metamorphism can probably be observed along a subduction zone (Banno et al., 1978; Tatsumi and Eggins, 1995; Brown, 1998; Ernst, 2005). Trench retreat (e.g., slab rollback) along with crustal thinning and trench advance (e.g., plate subduction) accompanied by crustal thickening commonly occur in a subduction zone (Collins, 2002; Cawood et al., 2009). By contrast, plume tends to cause lithospheric extension and leads to large igneous provinces with radial mafic dykes followed by high-temperature regional metamorphism (White and McKenzie, 1989; Hooper, 1990; Campbell, 2001, 2007; Xu et al., 2001).

5.4.1. A critical cause to drive Nuna breakup

Studies on granitoids in the CTB, CAOB and Fennoscandia indicate that the breakup of Nuna is coeval with a subduction system. The 1.46–1.41 Ga Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the CTB have arc-like characteristics falling into the volcanic arc granite field with relatively low temperatures (Fig. 3d, 8a and 8b), which reflects a subduction-related origin. The 1.45–1.36 Ga granitoids located in the other part of the CAOB likewise display arc signatures comparable to those in the CTB (Fig. 8a and 8b, Supplementary Table 5). These Mesoproterozoic arc-related rocks together compose an arc belt along the margin of CAOB (He et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2019), which supports the existence of a huge subduction system coeval with Nuna's breakup. The CTB has been suggested to be a part of the Fennoscandia located in the periphery of Nuna (Huang et al., 2019), thus the Mesoproterozoic magmatism in the Fennoscandia could also provide clues regarding the cause for Nuna's breakup. The Mesoproterozoic magmatism in the Fennoscandia exhibits a subduction affinity comparable to that of the CTB counterpart (Fig. 8a and 8b, Supplementary Table 5). The 1.66–1.38 Ga felsic rocks are characterized by tholeiitic to calc-alkalic compositions in the Fennoscandia, and have been suggested to be formed in an arc setting (Andersen et al., 2004; Åhäll and Connelly, 2008; Brander and Söderlund, 2009; Roberts et al., 2013; Roberts and Slagstad, 2015; Ulmius et al., 2015; Bingen and Viola, 2018). These arc-related rocks are aligned along E–W trending, which reveals the pre-existence of an exterior ocean surrounding Fennoscandia (Skridlaité et al., 2007; Roberts et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2019). Such a close spatial and temporal coincidence of subduction system occurred along the CTB and Fennoscandia discloses a critical role of exterior subduction on the fragmentation of Nuna. The arc-related magmatism was temporally coeval to Nuna's breakup, suggesting that the subduction system may substantially contribute to the Nuna's dispersal. The existence of this subduction system is also supported by the orogeny-related 1.49–1.37 Ga high-grade metamorphism along the periphery of Nuna, as has shown in the CTB and Fennoscandia (Brander and Söderlund, 2009; Ulmius et al., 2015; Zong et al., 2017). Overall, Mesoproterozoic arc magmatism widely existed along the CTB, CAOB and the Fennoscandia, probably

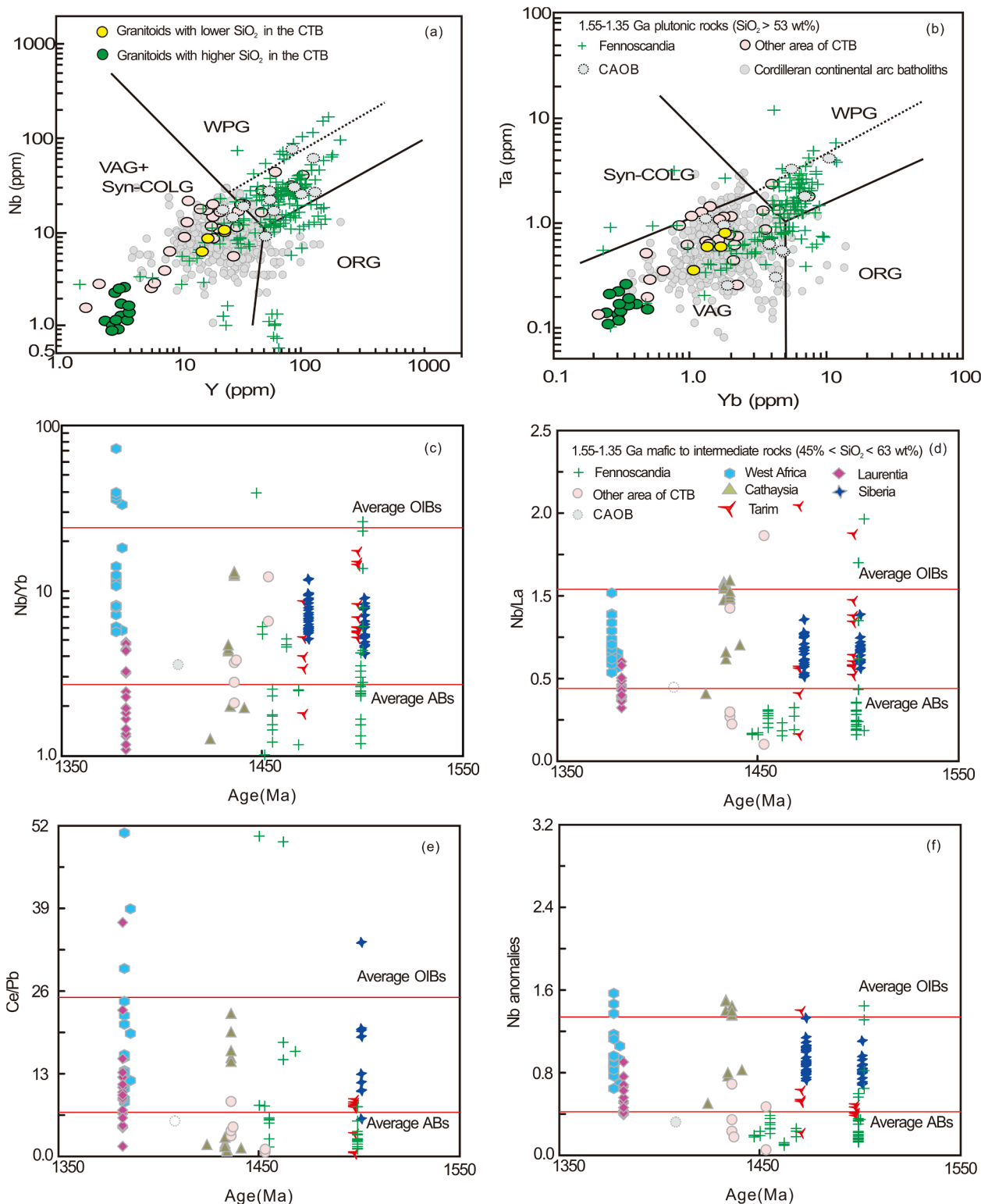


Fig. 8. (a–b) Tectonic discrimination diagram according to Pearce et al. (1984), VAG = volcanic arc granite, Syn-COLG = syncollision granite, WPG = within plate granite, ORG = ocean ridge granite. Data for 1.55–1.35 Ga plutonic rocks from other area of the CTB (Hu et al., 2006; Shi et al., 2010; He et al., 2015a), CAOB (He et al., 2015b; Kröner et al., 2013; Han et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2019) and Fennoscandia (Andersson, 1997; Claesson and Kresten, 1997; Čečys et al., 2002; Obst et al., 2004; Motuza et al., 2006; Skridlaitė et al., 2007; Roberts et al., 2013; Johansson et al., 2016). (c–f) Plots showing the variations of elemental ratios of mafic to intermediate rocks globally between 1.55 Ga and 1.35 Ga (45 wt% < SiO₂ < 63 wt%). Nb anomaly = $(\text{Nb}/0.713)/\sqrt{[(\text{Th}/0.085) \times (\text{La}/0.687)]}$, normalized by the Primitive Mantle (Sun and McDonough, 1989). Abs = continental and oceanic arc basalts (average value from Kelemen et al., 2003); OIBs = oceanic island basalts (average value from Sun and McDonough, 1989). Date from other area of the CTB (Hu et al., 2006; He et al., 2015a), CAOB (He et al., 2015b) and Fennoscandia (Andersson, 1997; Čečys et al., 2002; Motuza et al., 2006; Skridlaitė et al., 2007; Brander and Söderlund, 2009; Roberts et al., 2013), Laurentia (Upton et al., 2005), West Africa (Bahat et al., 2013), Cathaysia (Zhang et al., 2018c), Tarim (Wu et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2018) and Siberia (Ernst et al., 2016b; Gladkochub et al., 2016). All data are listed in Supplementary Table 5.

reflect a long-lasting subduction system causing the breakup of Nuna.

Among magmatic rocks associated with the breakup of Nuna, a few Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the CAOB and Fennoscandia show affinities to within-plate rocks with relatively high temperatures analogous to those of plume (Fig. 3d, 8a and 8b), and coeval mafic to intermediate rocks from these areas also exhibit involvements of plume materials, as shown by Nb/Yb, Nb/La, Ce/Pb ratios and Nb anomalies (Fig. 8c to 8f). Temporally, these ratios reflect a transition from OIBs to arc signatures in the CTB, CAOB and Fennoscandia (Fig. 8c to 8f, Supplementary Table 5), implying an influence from plume between ca. 1.55 Ga to 1.35 Ga, as shown by large igneous provinces in Fennoscandia at ca. 1.50 Ga, 1.46 Ga, 1.41 Ga and 1.38 Ga (Supplementary Table 6, Ernst et al., 2008; Puchkov et al., 2013). Even though such plume signatures exist, the majority of mafic to intermediate rocks (1.6–1.3 Ga) in these three domains are remarkably dominated by arc signatures (Fig. 8c to 8f, Supplementary Table 5). This predominance of magmatism with arc signatures suggests that subduction plays an essential role in causing the breakup of Nuna.

The critical role of subduction on the breakup of Nuna can also be unveiled by compilation of available geological records from blocks in the periphery of Nuna (Laurentia, Eastern Antarctica, West Australia, North China, India and Amazon (Fig. 9a and 10). Around the southeastern margin of the Laurentia, a 1.8–1.3 Ga accretionary belt exits (Hanmer et al., 2000; Karlstrom et al., 2001; Gower and Krogh, 2002; Whitmeyer and Karlstrom, 2007). Most rocks from this belt are characterized by calc-alkaline compositions and juvenile isotopic signatures, suggesting that these rocks were formed in arc settings (Rivers and Corrigan, 2000; Blein et al., 2003; Bickford et al., 2015; Marshall et al., 2017; Groulier et al., 2018; Maity and Indares, 2018). Their arc affinities have been attributed to the subduction surrounding the Laurentia (Rivers and Corrigan, 2000; Gower and Krogh, 2002; Dickin et al., 2010; Bickford et al., 2015; Rogers et al., 2019). In the Eastern Antarctica, magmatism and metamorphism occurred at 1.5–1.3 Ga, and all reflect an affinity to subduction (Mikhalsky et al., 1996; Liu et al., 2014b, 2016; De Vries Van Leeuwen et al., 2019). Moreover, detrital provenance records calc-alkaline geochemical characteristics of magmatism in the Eastern Antarctica, suggesting the development of an accretionary belt in

the early to middle Mesoproterozoic (Marshall et al., 2013). Mesoproterozoic rock association in West Australia consists of a series of subduction-related dykes, ophiolites and sediments around 1.55–1.33 Ga (Spaggiari et al., 2015, 2018; Aitken et al., 2016; Maritati et al., 2019), which likewise suggests a subduction complex. In the southern margin of the North China Craton, subduction-related magmatic rocks (1.78–1.45 Ga) are dominated by arc-related basaltic andesites, andesites and felsic rocks (Zhao et al., 2009; He et al., 2010a, 2010b), while the North China Craton was suggested to face an open global ocean at ca. 1.4 Ga (Zhang et al., 2019a). Meanwhile, early to middle Mesoproterozoic subduction system can be observed along the periphery of eastern India, where main arc phase, ophiolitic mélangé and metamorphism manifested accretionary process (Rogers and Santosh, 2002; Meert et al., 2010; Dharma Rao et al., 2011; Pisarevsky et al., 2013; Hrushikesh et al., 2019; Hazarika et al., 2020). Similarly, successive accretion of magmatic arcs demonstrates a convergent margin around southwest Amazon (Cordani and Teixeira, 2007; Bettencourt et al., 2010; Teixeira et al., 2015). The above lines of evidence indicates that subduction-related records are absent in the interior blocks of Nuna but do occur in the periphery of Nuna (Fig. 9a and 10), which thus suggests a circum-supercontinent subduction along the margin of Nuna (Fig. 10). This circum-supercontinent subduction coincided with Nuna's breakup. It is thus reasonable to suggest that an exterior subduction surrounding the supercontinent plays a great role in the breakup of Nuna (Fig. 10).

5.4.2. External subduction versus plume-related magmatism

Exterior subduction is critical for Nuna's breakup in the early to middle Mesoproterozoic. Meanwhile, it was accompanied by intermittent plume activities in the interiors or landward peripheral blocks of Nuna. During the exterior subduction, large igneous provinces and/or anorogenic magmatism episodically emerged in the inboard blocks of Nuna (Fig. 9a, 10 and supplementary Table 6). They were pervasive and occurred as radial dyke swarms, sills, anorthosite-mangerite-charnockite-granite, A-type granite and rapakivi granite, which reflected anorogenic settings and a plume affinity (Upton et al., 2005; Ernst et al., 2008; Bahat et al., 2013; Shalivahan et al., 2014; Teixeira et al., 2015; Gladkochub et al., 2016; Donskaya et al., 2018). The plume-

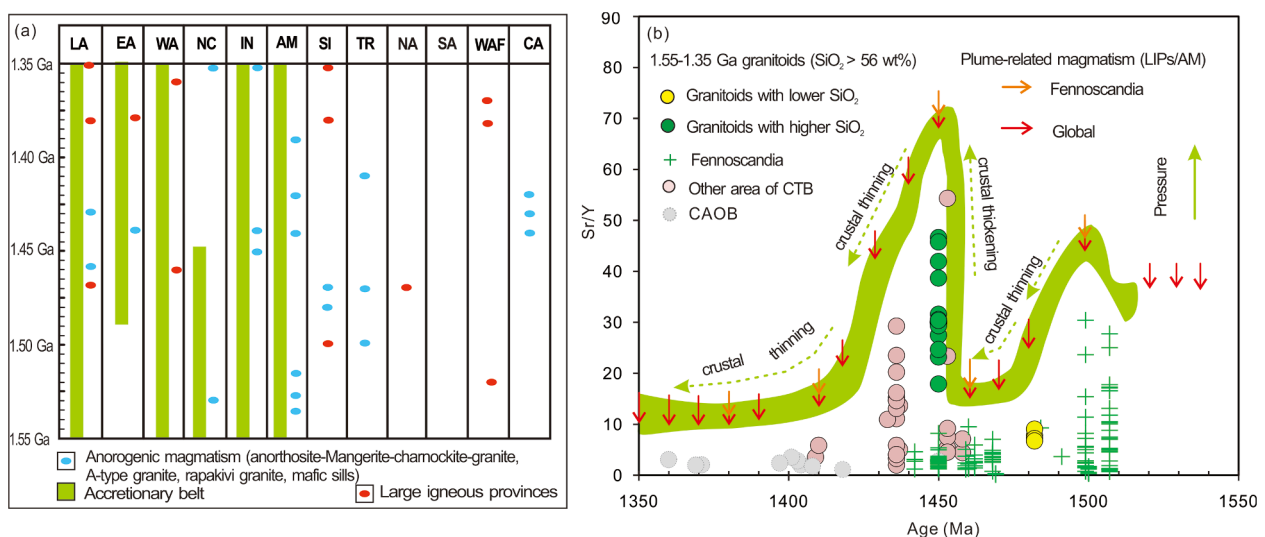


Fig. 9. (a) Compilation of 1.55–1.35 Ga accretionary belts, large igneous provinces and/or anorogenic magmatism (LIPs and/or AM) in the Laurentia (LA) (Upton et al., 2005; Ernst et al., 2008), Eastern Antarctica (EA) (Ernst et al., 2008; Goodge et al., 2010), West Australia (WA) (Ernst et al., 2008), North China (NC) (Zhang et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2013; Deng et al., 2016), India (IN) (Ghodke et al., 2018), Amazon (AM) (Fraga et al., 2009; Bispo-Santos et al., 2012, 2020; D'Agrella-Filho et al., 2012; Heinonen et al., 2012; Teixeira et al., 2015), Siberia (SI) (Ernst et al., 2008, 2016a, 2016b; Gladkochub et al., 2016), Tarim (TR) (Wu et al., 2014; Ye et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018), North and South Australia (NA and SA) (Ernst et al., 2008), West Africa (WAF) (Ernst et al., 2008; Bahat et al., 2013) and Cathaysia (CA) (Li et al., 2002c, 2008; Zhang et al., 2018c, 2019b). (b) Sr/Y versus age diagram for the felsic magmatism from this study, other area of CTB and CAOB as well as Fennoscandia. It shows that the plume-related magmatism was generated during the crustal thinning, but was rarely observed while the crustal thickening. Data is from Supplementary Table 5 and Supplementary Table 6.

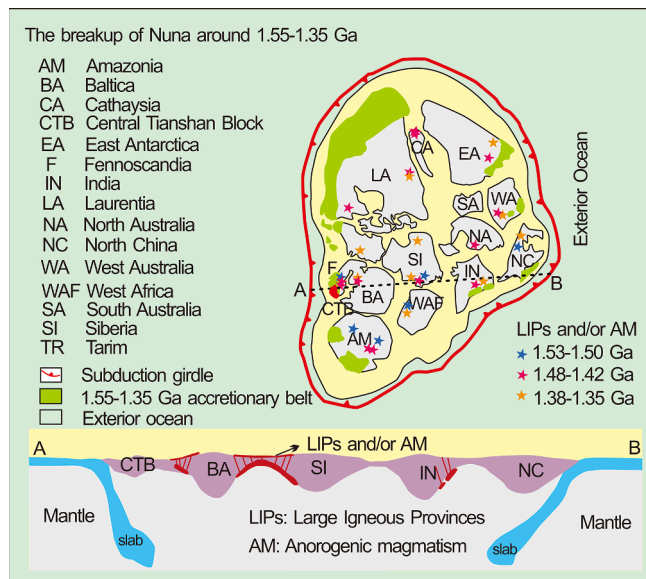


Fig. 10. Schematic model illustrates the dynamic model for breakup of Nuna around 1.55–1.35 Ga. A major exterior subduction system along the margin of Nuna causes Nuna breakup, which was accompanied by subordinate multistage plumes. A-B is the schematic cross section illustrating a dominant process of circum-supercontinent subduction to drive the breakup of Nuna with subordinate intermittent plumes. Compilation data of 1.55–1.35 Ga large igneous provinces and/or anorogenic magmatism are the same as in Fig. 9 and listed in Supplementary Table 6.

related magmatism was temporally linked to the development of exterior subduction around the periphery of Nuna (Fig. 9a and 10), suggesting a coexistent relationship. Although having a plume affinity, these magmatism were overprinted with arc signatures and mostly exhibited transition characteristics between the subduction-related arc signatures and plume-related OIB signatures (Fig. 8c–8f, Supplementary Table 5). The plume is considered to cause lithospheric extension in the interior of Nuna (Bahat et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014; Gladkochub et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018c), while coeval exterior subduction occurred mainly around the periphery of Nuna. Although both the exterior subduction and plume could contribute to the breakup of Nuna, whether the two factors functioned independently remains unknown. One school of thoughts suggested that the exterior subduction is the major cause to drive the supercontinent breakup (e.g., Cawood et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2019). The other suggested that the plume is the prime driving force to fragment the supercontinents (e.g., Zhang et al., 2018b). The difficulty in solving this debate is to establish the geochemical correlation between the exterior subduction and plume, as they are spatially isolated. The plume occurred in the interiors of Nuna, while the exterior subduction happened around the supercontinent margin. In order to solve this problem, global geological data in the early to middle Mesoproterozoic are compiled to place constraints.

Variable dips and velocities of subducting slabs control the geometry of the convergent plate margin (Cawood et al., 2009). Generally, trench retreat characterized by retreating of downgoing slab relative to the overriding plate (e.g., slab rollback) tends to induce crustal thinning, whereas trench advance marked by advancing of overriding plate toward the downgoing slab (e.g., flat subduction) is likely to cause crustal thickening (Collins, 2002; Zhang et al., 2018d). Therefore, tracing the changes in crustal thickness can provide crucial clues for the role of exterior subduction process around the margin of Nuna, which can help define the subduction-plume relationship for the Nuna breakup.

Geochemical indices such as Sr/Y, La/Yb, Dy/Yb, and Ho/Yb of crust-derived felsic rocks can be used to quantify the crustal thickness, as they are sensitive to crustal thickness variations and decrease with decreasing crustal depths (Chapman et al., 2015; Chiaradia, 2015;

Zhang et al., 2018d). In this study, we employ Sr/Y ratios of the arc-related granitoids produced by exterior subduction in the CTB-CAOB and Fennoscandia and the variation of Sr/Y ratios with time is illustrated in Fig. 9b. It shows that, during the Mesoproterozoic (1.55 Ga to 1.35 Ga), Sr/Y ratios of the granitoids are highly fluctuant over time (green ribbon in Fig. 9b), reflecting alternated thinning and thickening of the crust, which corresponds to the trench retreat and advance, respectively. The variation in crustal thickness suggests that the breakup of Nuna was not a monotonous process and crustal thinning was interspersed with crustal thickening. The Sr/Y ratios decrease from ca. 1.50 Ga to 1.46 Ga and from ca. 1.45 Ga to 1.35 Ga (Fig. 9b), suggesting two phases of trench retreats. While marking the plume information in the diagram (arrows in Fig. 9b), it is noticed that the plume-related magmatism occurred mostly during the periods when the thickened crust became thinning. This suggests that plume-related magmatism was almost entirely associated with the trench retreat of the exterior subduction. For example, in the period of trench retreats, large igneous provinces in Fennoscandia occurred in ca. 1.50 Ga, 1.46 Ga, 1.41 Ga and 1.38 Ga (Fig. 9b, Supplementary Table 6). Furthermore, in Nuna's interior that was hundreds and thousands kilometers away from exterior subduction zone, global records of Mesoproterozoic plume-related magmatism only appeared in the trench retreat periods (Fig. 9b and Supplementary Table 6). However, the plume-related magmatism was rarely observed during the trench advance leading to crustal thickening at ca. 1.46–1.45 Ga (Fig. 9b). The above facts therefore imply a temporal and geodynamical link between the plume-related magmatism and the exterior subduction with trench retreats. The coupling of plume-related magmatism with the retreating of exterior subduction suggests that the exterior subduction played an initiative role in driving Nuna to breakup, while the process of plume was subordinate. Moreover, the Nuna's assembly was mainly completed in 2.0–1.8 Ga, as has been revealed in the Fennoscandia-CTB which was on the edge of Nuna during its amalgamation (Roberts and Slagstad, 2015). Later than the main stage of Nuna assembly, exterior subduction-related arc magmatism in the Fennoscandia and CTB were emerged at 1.86 Ga and ca. 1.48–1.38 Ga, respectively (Roberts and Slagstad, 2015; Supplementary Table 5). Therefore, it is unlikely for the exterior subduction to contribute to Nuna's assembly. Nevertheless, the exterior subduction can drive the Nuna to break up, as it was initially developed in the outboard Nuna and spanned the lifetime of its breakup. Our observations further support recent geodynamical modeling results and analysis of geological history of Rodinia that exterior subduction can cause internal lithospheric extension in the supercontinental interior to break up the supercontinent (Cawood et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2018; Dal Zilio et al., 2018).

Therefore, available global geological data unveils a dominant role of exterior subduction operating on the breakup of Nuna with subordinate intermittent plume in the early to middle Mesoproterozoic. The early to middle Mesoproterozoic period was previously believed to be an interval of environmental stasis with tectonic stability (Buick et al., 1995; Brasier and Lindsay, 1998; Holland, 2006; Lyons et al., 2014). Our study suggests that this interval was far more tectonically active than previously thought. This might be the reason that fluctuated atmospheric oxygen concentration was proposed and complex eukaryote life with episodic deposit mineralization were recorded in this period (Goldfarb et al., 2001; Holland, 2006; Leach et al., 2010; Kaur and Chaudhri, 2014; Large et al., 2017; Mukherjee et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018a). It is thus recommended that a dominant influence from subduction together with subordinate periodic plume for Nuna breakup should be taken into consideration to understand the environment, life and metallogeny of the early to middle Mesoproterozoic period.

6. Conclusions

1. The Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the CTB are I type granites. Those with lower SiO₂ were formed from partial melting of a hydrous medium-to high K basaltic source in a subduction-related setting,

and differentiated to form those with higher SiO₂ by fractional crystallization.

2. The Mesoproterozoic granitoids in the CTB, CAOB and Fennoscandia, which together with the 1.6–1.3 Ga accretionary belts in the peripheral blocks of Nuna, indicate the development of an encircling subduction system surrounding Nuna.
3. Exterior subduction in the periphery of Nuna played a major role in driving the supercontinent to breakup in the early to middle Mesoproterozoic, which was accompanied by subordinate intermittent plume activities. The joint roles of subduction with subordinate plume activities for the breakup of Nuna are most likely to explain oscillatory increase of oxygen level and complex of eukaryote life with episodic deposits formation in the early-middle Mesoproterozoic period.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Zongying Huang: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Chao Yuan:** Conceptualization, Validation, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Xiaoping Long:** Resources, Supervision. **Yunying Zhang:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Xiaolong Ma:** Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. **Jérémie Soldner:** Investigation, Formal analysis. **Long Du:** Investigation. **Chutian Shu:** Investigation.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.precamres.2021.106287>.

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