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Puncoviscana folded belt in northwestern Argentina: testimony of Late Proterozoic Rodinia fragmentation and pre-Gondwana collisional episodes

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Abstract Stratigraphic correlations and tectonic analysis suggest that the Puncoviscana fold belt of northwestern Argentina was an intracontinental basin with bimodal igneous suites that formed in connection with the breakup of the Rodinia supercontinent (at ~800 Ma). Several lines of evidences point to an initial lithosphere rupture, possibly induced by a rising mantle plume. The earliest synrift igneous products are represented by ultra-potassic dykes and alkaline lava flows of high LREE/HREE and low Zr/Nb–Y/Nb ratios. The dyke emplacements and the initiation of rifting were probably synchronous. They pass laterally and upwards (middle part of the Puncoviscana succession) into basalts of alkaline transitional character (OIB-like source). The distinctive chemical feature of these lavas are very similar to the source of oceanic island basalts; thus, they are thought to represent a magmatism associated with the rift and rift-drift transition stage. During this stage of rifting probably true oceanic crust was formed. The upper part of the Puncoviscana sequence, Late Precambrian/Lower Cambrian in age, comprises a thick and monotonous sequence of pillow lavas, massive basaltic flows and minor volcanic breccias and hyaloclastites. These lavas exhibit MORB trace element characteristics with high FeO_t and TiO₂, low K₂O and P₂O₅, flat light REE spectra, little or no depletion in Nb and Ta. This volcanism consists of the major and latest effusive episode from the Puncoviscana basin which was slightly modified by subduction

processes. The geodynamical model proposed for the generation of these volcanic rocks could have been developed in two stages. In the first stage the volcanic event is compatible with a progressive opening of a continental rift leading to formation of a mature oceanic basin. In contrast, the second stage shows the effects of a completed Wilson cycle including a primitive volcanic arc which continued until the accreted Cuyania-Arequipa-Belen-Antofalla (CABA) terrane against the proto-Gondwana western borderland of the Amazonian shield (~535 Ma).

Key words Plate tectonics · Geochemistry · Trace fossils · Late Precambrian–Eocambrian stratigraphy and magmatism · Gravity

Introduction

There are presently some hypothesis on the geological history and palaeogeographic connections of the Andean paleomargin of West Gondwana between 800 and 430 Ma. Since Bond et al. (1984), the possible relations of the Central Andes with Laurentia, these rift-bounded Neoproterozoic cores of Rodinia, and the correspondence with the great breakup of the ancient supercontinent are subjects of great controversy (Dalziel 1991; Hoffman 1991; Moore 1991; McKerrow et al. 1992; Unrug 1996, 1997). The palaeogeographic models proposed for these times show remarkable differences in the chronology of the great tectonic events related to continental fragmentation and drifting. Different interpretations appear for the geological development of the Altiplano-Puna, Famatina, Precordillera, Cuyo and Patagonia regions, which are considered to have had a very complex collisional Paleozoic history with allochthonous terranes on the western margin of South America (compare Ramos et al. 1984; Ramos 1988; Dalla Salda et al. 1992; Omarini and Sureda 1993, 1994; Astini et al. 1995, 1996; Wasteneys et al. 1995).

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Several authors have postulated a Late Precambrian age for the Rodinia fragmentation, which starts with a pronounced crustal thinning and proto-oceanic rift-paired systems. Deep rifted asymmetrical basins are typical features of passive continental margins. Sedimentary or leptometamorphic units cover the transition between the Vendian and Tommotian times with no apparent discontinuity, offering a fairly acceptable register of trace fossils and interbedded volcanites. This model admits some Rodinian slivers which have been accreted to South America between Cambrian and Late Devonian times (Ramos et al. 1984; Omarini and Sureda 1994; Astini et al. 1995, 1996) in contrast to the continent–continent collision (Dalla Salda et al. 1992, 1993; Dalziel et al. 1994) of the extreme autochthonous to para-autochthonous viewpoint (Baldis 1989; Bonorino and Bonorino 1991; Bonorino and Llambías 1996). A key area to view this problem is the Puncoviscana belt in Northwest Argentina. The main objective of this paper is to review the geochemical and geophysical data of the Puncoviscana foldbelt in light of new petrological information and a discussion of palaeobiological and geological implications; therefore, an up-to-date review on the geodynamical development at the proto-Gondwana margin during Late Precambrian and Early Paleozoic times is also given.

Andean palaeogeographic outlines in the Neoproterozoic–Phanerozoic transition

The narrow areas of Puncoviscana outcrops form small parts of a wide surface of sedimentary basins in the South American palaeogeography. Similar registers have been found in eastern Bolivian provinces within the shelf sedimentary deposits of the Boquí, Tucavaca, Arará, Bodoquena, Itapucumi and Murciélago groups (Brockmann et al. 1972), homologous strata from the Jacadigo Group of the Corumba region, Brazil, are correlated (Almeida et al. 1976). Equivalent stratigraphic units are in the Pampean ranges (Caucete and La Clemira groups): in the Sanrafaelic-Pampean boulder, Cuyo region, with Cerro La Ventana and La Horqueta formations (Criado Roque 1972; Lucero), and the south slope of the Río de la Plata shield with Nahuel Niyeu and El Jagüelito formations (Linares and Turner 1976; Caminos 1979). The outcrops of the Puncoviscana represent an elongated intracratonic basin surrounded by land masses: from NW to SW by the Arequipa massif and its southern continuation in the metamorphic Belen-Antofalla-Cuyania belt; on the northeastern side by the Amazon shield and its peripheral elements of the Guapore massif and the Sunsas belt; and on the southeastern side by the Río de la Plata-Pampia shield.

Puncoviscana-type basins have also been recognized in other continents as a testimony of a complete breakup of the Rodinia supercontinent in the Middle Proterozoic, with North America connected to East

Antarctica, after the SWEAT hypothesis (Moore 1991), or to South America in the proto-Gondwana (Dalziel 1991, 1997). Attached to these Archaean forelands with highly metamorphic Grenville belts in twin pairs, a series of narrow turbiditic and non-metamorphic basins were formed between 750 and 570 Ma, with synchronous volcanism. The southeastern edge of the Appalachian orogen is cut by the Avalon sedimentary-volcanic arc, from Newfoundland to Florida, on the current Atlantic coast of North America. The Tibbit Hill Formation (Kamo et al. 1989; Kumarapeli et al. 1988; Bevier 1989) and the Floyd Church Formation in the Albemarle Group (Seider 1978; Milton and Reinhardt 1980) are relevant units of this region, which evolved with rift processes and deep subsidence during Late Proterozoic times.

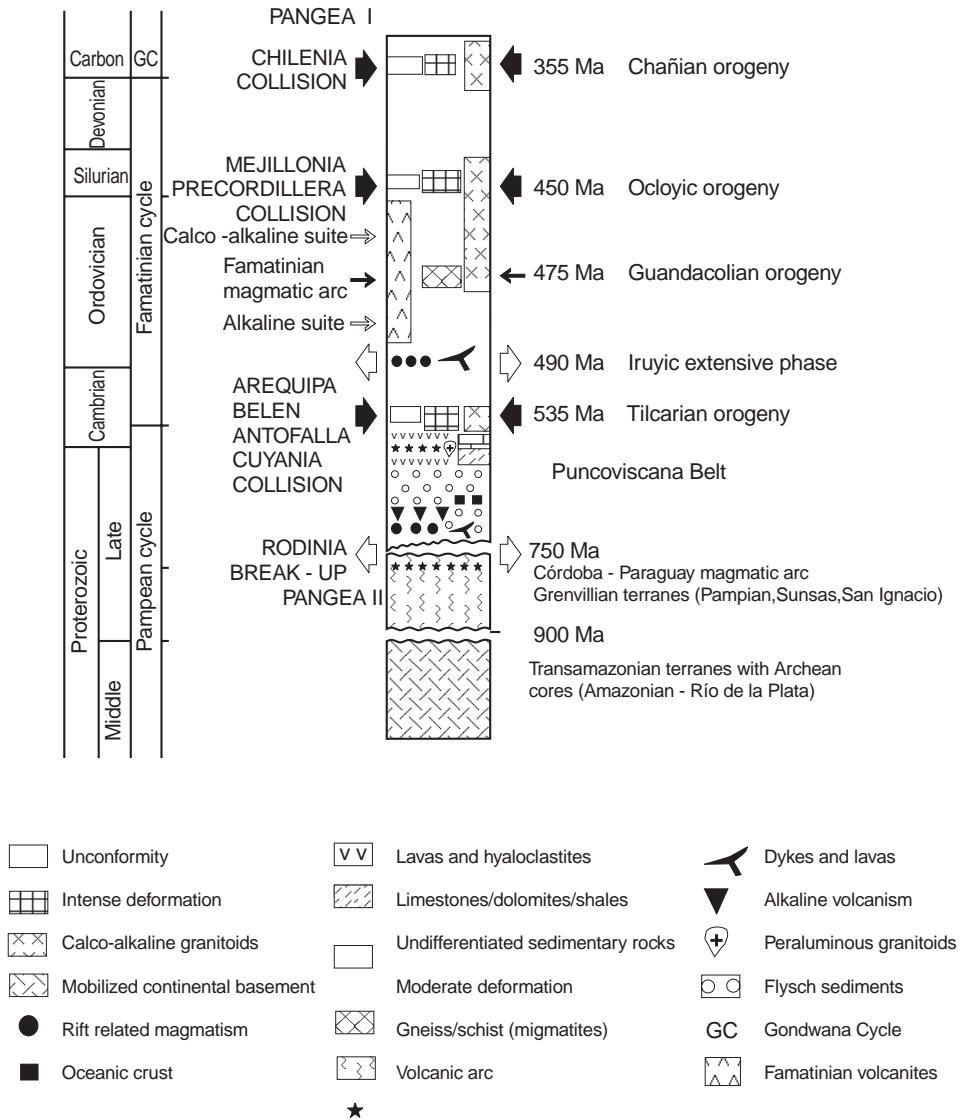
After Dalziel's (1994) hypothesis, the western North American borderland evolved and culminated in coeval development between Australia and East Antarctica in the Ross-Dallamerian belt. The Windermere Group shows very similar sedimentary deposits from Alaska to Mexico (Stewart 1972; Storey 1993). It probably had a connection in southeastern Australia with the Normanville Group of the Adelaide foldbelt and with the Beardmore, Nimrod and Byrd groups of the Transantarctic Mountains (Ross 1991; Storey et al. 1992; Goodge et al. 1993; Rowell et al. 1993). The whole fragmentation of these low-grade metamorphic basins began in the Middle Proterozoic announcing the advent and subsequent explosive evolution of metazoa. The interval encompassing the Vendian to Nemakitian transition was accompanied by wide fluctuations in sea level and the isotopic and chemical composition of seawater.

Precambrian–Eocambrian stratigraphy

The Central Andes basement in the Puna and regions of the eastern Cordillera shows a thick sedimentary sequence (mainly siliciclastic flysch-like turbidites and minor shallow-water micritic limestones, with locally thick lenses of conglomerate) known as the Puncoviscana Formation in a broad sense (Turner 1960). The major outcrops lie in several orographic units extended northwards, as a northern tract of the Pampean ranges, from the city of Tucuman to the Bolivian border (see Fig. 11). Towards the north, the rocks of the Puncoviscana Formation are gradually overlain by Paleozoic sedimentary covers. In southern Bolivia, they should be correlated with the San Cristobal Formation. Southwards from the Aconquija lineament, in the Faminian System, some very low-grade metasedimentary strata of the Negro Peinado Formation may be correlated with the Puncoviscana belt (Aceñolaza and Toselli 1989).

During the Upper Ordovician, these basements were uplifted in the proto-Cordillera Oriental along the major compressional faults. These deep basement

Fig. 1 Interpretive Precambrian to early Paleozoic tectono-stratigraphic column for the Pampean basement in northwestern Argentina



faults have been reactivated with morphological expression during the Andean cycle.

The epiclastic sediments largely comprise a continuous stratigraphic sequence, whose formations, lithology and tectonic environment are shown in Figs. 1 and 2 (taken from Omarini 1983 and Jêzek 1986). In these stratigraphic columns, the unit ages show palaeontological and radiometric controls on granitoid and sedimentary rocks. They suggest an evolution of Neoproterozoic continental passive margin where at least three successive episodes are distinguished:

1. A basal sequence formed mainly by immature epiclastic sedimentites (conglomerates, sandstones, arkoses and diamictites) with ultra-potassic dykes and volcanic flows interbedded. This assemblage represent an extensional tectonic rift-type setting with volcanism of mantle source signatures.
2. Marine shelf deposits of mature sandstones and extensive, very distributed limestone layers overlie

the basal sequence. This lithological association, which accumulated in littoral and near-shore environments, is related to regional subsidence under stable conditions, analogous to an early stage of passive continental margin formations. The lava compositions changed from alkalic to tholeiitic becoming increasingly important as eruption age decreased.

3. The upper sequence shows the transition from the magmatic arc to a continent–continent collisional regime. The sedimentation suggests moderate water depths with prevailing siliciclastic rocks of flysch type and minor pyroclastites, hyaloclastites, volcanic layers and breccias. Some syn- and post-orogenic granites were emplaced within the Puncoviscana belt in correspondence with the Tilcaric orogeny (Early-Middle Cambrian).

Depositional setting and sedimentary record

The sedimentology of the Puncoviscana Formation has been discussed by previous authors (Omarini 1983; Omarini and Baldi 1984; Jêzek 1986, 1990). The association of sediments in the studied area can be grouped into a wide range of lithological types, based on variety in texture and internal structures, with a major setting of the following:

1. Monotonous outcrops of coarse-grained turbiditic sandstones of flysch type
2. Thick and monotonous strata of argillites, siltstones and sandstones
3. Minor massive strata of diamictites and polymictic conglomerates
4. Isolated but thick massive strata of shallow-water micritic limestones

The turbiditic sandstone association is characterized by thin to thick strata of fine- to coarse-grained sandstones, alternating with siltstones and mudstones. The vertical facies trend from heterolithic to planar laminated sandstones up into massive and pebbly sandstones and reflects a shallowing-upward progradational succession. The heterolithics represent offshore mud sedimentation interrupted by episodic influxes of storm sand forming planar and ripple lamination (in Quebrada de Escoipe, Salta). The upper surface of each storm bed was subsequently bioturbated, as indicated by a highly diverse community of trace fossils (in Los Huachos, La Quesera, Salta). The sandstones are greywackes with a flysch-like texture. Angular grains of quartz, feldspar and lithic fragments (mainly sedimentary, granitic-gneissic and scarcely volcanic in origin) are embedded in a matrix of needle-like, pale-green chlorite (in Quebrada de Lules, Sierra de Medina, Tucuman). The Tab, Tac and, more rarely, Tbc and Tbcde Bouma sequences, are the dominant style. These facies are interpreted as deposits of channels or interchannels in the sense of Mutti and Normark (1987). Intercalated with this facies, there are also non-channelized deposits with remarkable laterally continuous planar sandstone beds and with varve-like aspect (fan lobes; in Seclantas and Molinos, Salta).

The argillite-siltstone-sandstone association comprises fine-grained laminated sandstone with good grain sorting intercalated with massive or laminated argillites and silty argillites (in Quebrada Las Arcas, Salta). The argillite units are laminated (very rarely massive), usually with thin laminae of siltstones or very fine sandstone (in Niño Muerto, Salta). Rhythmic bedding is common. Many rhythmites are graded on a microscopic scale. Siltstones with convoluted lamination and scale loading are two typical sedimentary structures (in Rio Capillas, Salta).

The conglomerate facies occurs as individual normally lenticular and laterally discontinuous beds. These beds are interpreted as channel fills. The conglomerates are very immature, poorly sorted and devoid of stratification. Imbrication is rare to absent,

although flow structures around large clasts may be common. This facies contains subangular to sub-rounded quartzite and sandstone clasts and rounded but oblate shale clasts. Most of the conglomerates have a fine-grained matrix which consists of subangular sandy grains with lithic fragments and chert. Their unstratified and disorganized nature is consistent with deposition by a mass flow mechanism (in Corralito, Las Tienditas and Molinos, Salta).

The wide outcrops with carbonate facies consist of massive non-fossiliferous limestones. The fine-grained beds of those units indicate a shallow marine environment with low sedimentation rates. Micrite represents the main lithological type of most of the units. Occurrences of intramicrite beds are relatively rare in abundance. The frequent association of bearing like algal carbonaceous micrite is inferred from the presence of very finely laminated black limestones. The mineralogical, petrographic and lithological characters clearly indicate that the carbonate rocks represent an ancient analogue of the recent subtidal-supratidal environment near a platform margin (in Las Tienditas and Volcán). The stratigraphic analysis of the Puncoviscana Formation reflects the high frequency of alternations of shallowing and deepening facies successions formed on a continental borderland during the rifting stage of a passive margin development.

Evidence of the metamorphism and magmatism

The Tilcarian tecto-thermal event played a dominant role in the metamorphic evolution of the Puncoviscana folded belt. The metamorphism is present in the northern and eastern portion of the belt, where weakly metamorphosed sequences, not exceeding anchizone conditions (Rossi et al. 1992), are unconformably overlain by non-metamorphosed younger Paleozoic sediments. Metamorphism increases westwards and southwards and can reach greenschist and amphibolite grades and locally even granulite facies conditions. The climax of metamorphism may have occurred at the beginning of the Tilcarian orogeny, during which most of the plutonic rocks may have been generated. Many of them are considered to be dominantly and perhaps exclusively of crustal origin.

Pre-Tilcarian basic rocks

A major early phase of igneous activity occurs at various stratigraphic levels within the Puncoviscana Formation. The age of the widespread basic volcanic rocks is not known and in many cases the uncertain structural relationships between outcrops make it difficult to establish a precise lithostratigraphic scheme. Nevertheless, the compilation of selected geochemical data (Table 1) clearly shows that distinct groups can be identified within the spectrum of the Puncoviscana

Table 1 Representative analysis of major (weight percent) and trace elements (parts per million) of the volcanic rocks from the Puncoviscana Formation, Northwest Argentina

Sample	P-277	P-278	P-716	P-871	P-281	P-280	P-2	P-14	P-1	P-710	P-870
Si ₂ O	38.74	34.30	39.32	38.11	43.70	50.40	45.10	44.61	49.06	54.27	48.93
TiO ₂	3.34	3.53	3.81	3.21	2.75	1.78	2.28	2.98	1.62	1.38	1.45
Al ₂ O ₃	4.89	6.93	10.31	9.37	12.40	17.00	14.66	13.91	15.31	16.93	14.68
Fe ₂ O ₃	12.82	13.60	15.86	15.03	12.40	8.45	10.84	12.29	11.82	10.45	14.22
MnO	0.17	0.23	0.23	0.30	0.17	0.15	0.17	0.27	0.15	0.10	0.11
MgO	25.86	12.00	13.14	15.83	8.77	2.94	11.69	11.08	7.16	5.42	6.01
CaO	11.15	15.50	7.09	10.70	8.46	6.39	7.67	8.04	3.77	3.68	5.99
Na ₂ O	0.11	0.71	1.60	0.90	3.31	4.73	1.69	2.18	4.55	3.40	3.05
K ₂ O	1.31	2.77	3.13	2.87	2.51	3.12	2.60	2.25	0.96	3.63	0.77
P ₂ O ₅	1.64	1.84	1.09	0.89	1.00	0.53	0.26	0.30	0.25	0.40	0.35
LOI	-	7.55	4.42	2.79	2.55	3.30	3.00	2.02	5.23	3.34	5.23
Cr	812.00	345.00	381.00	493.00	396.00	323.00	813.00	158.00	268.00	422.00	390.00
Co	0.00	0.00	74.00	69.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	88.00	18.00	15.00
Ni	344.00	173.00	221.00	432.00	202.00	39.00	344.00	105.00	89.00	13.00	44.00
Sc	0.00	19.00	23.00	24.00	15.00	11.00	28.00	0.00	32.00	32.00	33.00
V	280.00	0.00	367.00	298.00	0.00	0.00	263.00	255.00	200.00	81.00	80.00
Zn	0.00	109.00	145.00	123.00	110.00	95.00	0.00	0.00	122.00	244.00	121.00
Rb	34.00	132.00	48.00	31.00	72.00	91.00	74.00	20.00	79.00	46.00	5.00
Ba	978.00	1260.00	1160.00	2960.00	1630.00	892.00	1758.00	340.00	726.00	854.00	269.00
Sr	1012.00	1640.00	714.00	902.00	1130.00	815.00	415.00	471.00	342.00	347.00	171.00
Ga	0.00	20.00	28.00	25.00	25.00	26.00	0.00	0.00	20.00	22.00	28.00
Ta	13.70	8.56	11.00	9.79	8.25	8.97	4.77	3.37	0.70	1.10	0.87
Nb	91.00	95.00	115.00	73.00	86.00	96.00	40.00	83.00	11.00	25.00	21.00
Zr	386.00	453.00	356.00	277.00	334.00	341.00	294.00	252.00	112.00	227.00	209.00
Y	36.00	47.00	30.00	24.00	28.00	26.00	18.00	18.00	29.00	44.00	35.00
Th	13.10	13.00	12.00	7.00	12.00	14.00	5.00	4.00	1.25	2.00	2.00
U	2.70	3.60	3.10	2.10	2.80	3.10	1.20	0.00	1.10	1.00	0.70
La	120.00	129.00	92.20	66.20	95.70	77.10	34.10	20.20	11.70	31.00	16.30
Ce	270.00	277.00	187.00	134.00	177.00	139.00	103.00	68.70	28.36	63.20	42.40
Nd	154.00	135.00	75.40	54.50	7 4.50	49.80	30.20	31.80	15.70	34.50	25.70
Sm	24.60	25.30	14.40	11.10	12.80	8.50	4.80	7.70	4.10	8.80	7.40
Eu	7.51	7.77	4.30	3.82	4.17	2.65	1.67	2.68	1.48	3.01	2.34
Gd	17.60	21.70	12.60	9.70	11.70	8.00	5.40	7.40	4.66	8.90	7.40
Dy	10.20	12.30	7.80	6.00	7.20	5.50	4.50	7.20	4.26	8.20	7.30
Er	3.20	4.30	3.10	2.30	2.70	2.50	2.30	2.90	2.39	4.80	3.70
Yb	1.80	2.60	7.50	1.60	1.80	2.00	1.80	2.00	1.90	4.80	3.30
Lu	0.24	0.13	0.29	0.21	0.05	0.07	0.24	0.30	0.32	0.77	0.44
Zr/Y	10.77	9.63	11.86	11.54	11.92	13.11	6.55	14.00	3.86	5.50	5.97
Zr/Nb	4.24	4.76	3.09	3.79	3.88	3.55	2.95	3.00	10.18	9.08	9.95
Th/Yb	7.27	5.00	7.50	1.45	6.60	7.00	2.77	2.00	0.52	0.41	0.60
Ta/Yb	7.61	3.29	6.87	2.03	4.58	4.13	2.65	1.68	0.36	0.22	0.26
Sm/Nd	0.15	0.18	0.19	0.20	0.17	0.17	15.00	0.24	0.26	0.25	0.26
Th/Y	0.36	0.27	0.40	0.29	0.42	1.80	0.27	0.22	0.03	0.04	0.05
Th/Nb	0.14	0.13	0.10	0.09	0.13	0.14	0.12	0.04	0.09	0.06	0.09
Nb/Y	2.52	2.02	3.83	3.04	3.07	3.69	2.22	4.61	0.37	0.56	0.60
Y/Nb	0.39	0.49	0.26	0.32	0.32	0.27	0.45	0.21	2.63	1.76	1.66
Ba/Nb	10.74	13.26	10.06	40.54	18.95	9.29	43.95	4.09	11.00	34.16	12.80
(La/Yb) _n	44.71	33.30	38.66	9.25	35.66	25.85	12.70	6.77	4.13	8.83	8.61

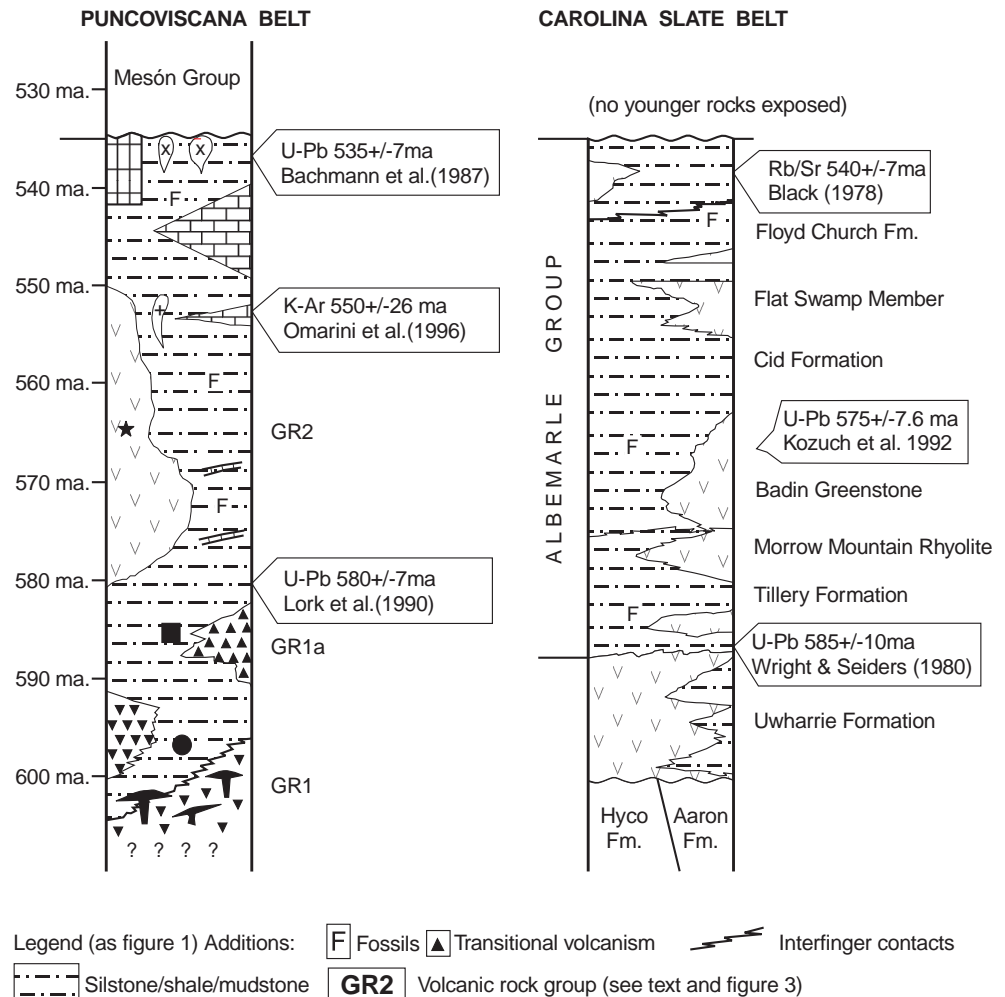
basic volcanism as is illustrated on mantle-normalized diagrams (Fig. 3). With such data it is possible to evaluate changes in the magmatic evolution through time and the likely stratigraphic position of the volcanic units within the sedimentary sequences.

A tentative lithological column based on the geochemical characteristics of the magmatic products is shown in Fig. 2. In general, the volcanic succession can be divided into two geochemical groups according to the highly variable trace element abundance:

Group-1 facies are dominant in the lowest portion of the Puncoviscana Formation (Fig. 2) and consist of alkaline lavas, sills and dykes with oceanic-island to

intraplate igneous affinities (Coira et al. 1990). The flows, sills and dykes range from alkaline olivine basalts and leucitites to rare alkaline lamproites which suggest lithospheric sources. The group is better identified by its K₂O/Na₂O ratio, greater than 3, and it is saturated in SiO₂. The leucitite-bearing rocks are commonly low in Al₂O₃, rich in K₂O and have a wide range of MgO contents from 12 to 25 wt.%, leading to high values of magnesium numbers [Mg=100 Mg/(Mg+Fe_t)] as high as 82. According to the classifications of Foley et al. (1987), these rocks can be considered as ultra-potassic. The trace element abundance is typical of primitive alkali basalts and leucitites from

Fig. 2 Comparative lithostratigraphy of the Puncoviscana belt (northwestern Argentina) and the Carolina Slate Belt (eastern North America). The dated sedimentary rocks are shown in relation to the trace fossils discussed



low-rate extensional continental zones, such as the East African rift (Table 1, P-277 and P-278). Figure 3 shows the incompatible trace element compositions on a chondrite-normalized diagram (Thompson et al. 1984). All these samples have higher contents of trace elements; however, profiles similar to those were observed in typical kimberlites. Their most striking geochemical feature are the high LILE and LREE enrichments with respect to HFSE and HREE. In detail, the spider diagrams are convex upwards with large relative depletion in K and Sr and peak at Tantalum rather than at Niobium. Ta, Nb and Ti abundance, for example, are of the order of magnitude similar to those of group-II kimberlites (Foley et al. 1987; Rock 1991).

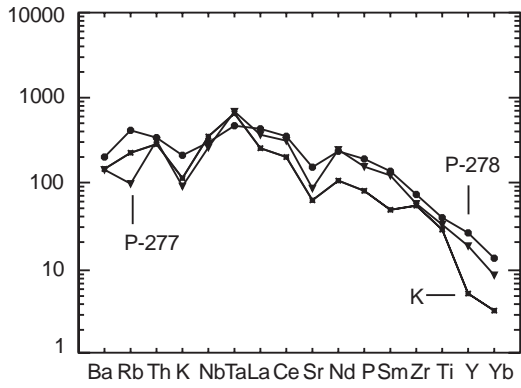
The group-1 ultra-potassic rocks in general show high Zr/Y (~9.5–10.7) and low Zr/Nb (4.24–4.76) ratios, which is consistent with a pure mantle source (Seymour and Kumarapeli 1995). A similar inference can also be drawn from the systematic correlation between Th/Yb relative to Ta/Yb ratios. In Pearce element diagrams (Pearce 1982, 1983) the samples plot within the field of intraplate basalts derived from enriched mantle sources. By common consensus, such

enrichments are characteristic for rocks derived from mantle plumes with OIB affinities (Stein and Hoffmann 1992; Weaver 1991; Fraser et al. 1985).

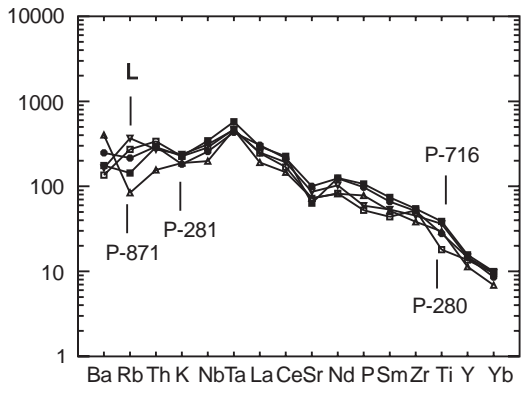
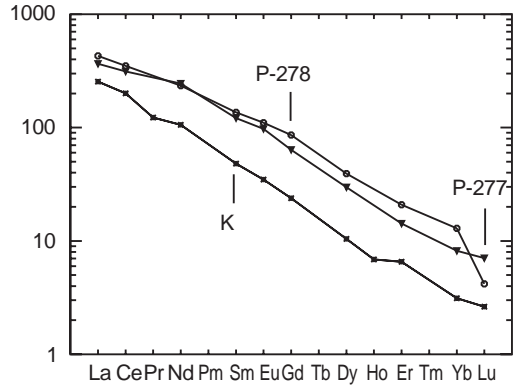
Within group 1 a subset of alkaline and slightly subalkaline basalts is identified by its generally lower trace element concentration (Table 1, P-280, P-281, P-716 and P-871). This series covers a much broader range of petrographic diversity with basanites, tephrites, alkaline olivine basalts (ankaramites) and trachyandesites.

SiO₂ contents range from 38.11 to 50.4 wt.% and are low in Al₂O₃ between 9.37 and 12.4 wt.%, except for the trachyandesites which commonly contain ~17 wt.%. Contents of total iron as Fe₂O₃ are high (>8.4 wt.%) and K₂O/Na₂O (>3 wt.%). The analyses also show high MgO and K₂O values. The lavas with high MgO have correspondingly high CaO and high MgO/(MgO+Fe_t) values; Ni>300 ppm and Cr>350 ppm contents suggest that they may represent primary mantle-derived magmas.

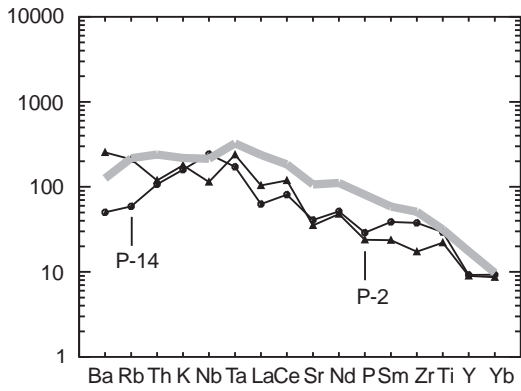
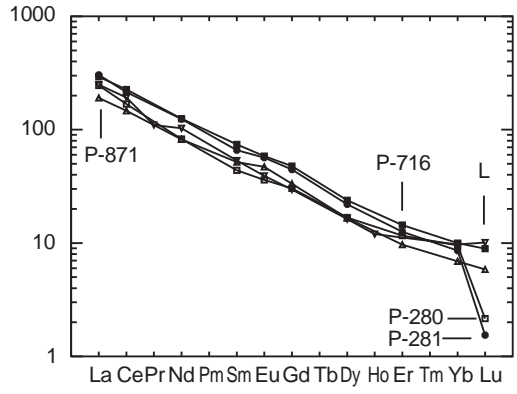
The samples are all similar in their multi-element variation diagrams and REE patterns (Fig. 3), with an almost identical trace element abundance compared to a leucitite from Bufumbira (Thompson et al. 1984).



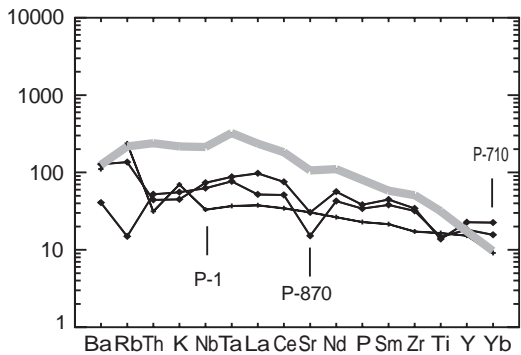
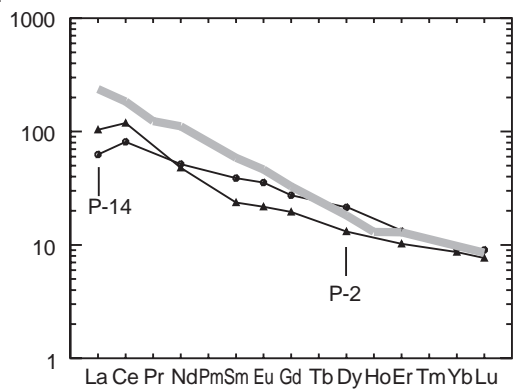
Group I



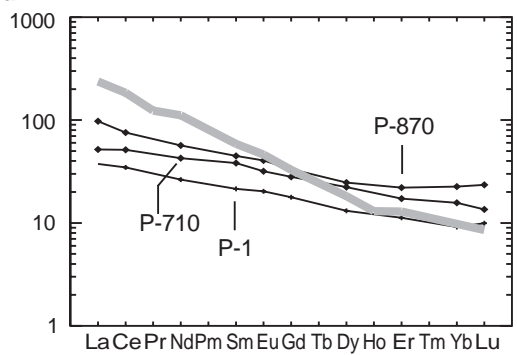
Group Ia



Group II



Group IIa



←
Fig. 3 Representative normalized trace element and REE diagrams of volcanic rocks from Puncoviscana Formation. Normalization factors are from Thompson et al. (1984). *Shaded area* represents the range of the alkaline lavas from Cameroon line, continental sector. Also plotted for comparison are the kimberlite (*K*) from Lesotho and leucitite (*L*) from Bufunbira, both of the East African rift sector. Data source: rocks from Thompson et al. (1984) and Cameroon line from Fitton and Dunlop (1985)

Compared with the typical group-1 basic rocks (e.g. P-278), they have a more fractionated pattern for La, Ce, Nd, P, Sm, Zr and Y, with less-pronounced negative Sr troughs and similar Th, Nb and Ta contents.

The incompatible trace element concentrations and extreme LREE enrichment for the group-1 lavas are distinct from most island-arc lavas and related back-arc lavas. The geochemical characteristics mentioned previously are common in intraplate settings. They support the interpretation that all lavas have an asthenospheric (HIMU-OIB) source. This presupposition is consistent with the low incompatible trace element ratio such as Ba/Nb, Zr/Nb, Th/Nb and Th/Y (Table 1). In this context the remarkable geochemical similarity to the East African rift leucitites strongly suggests an identical genetic process.

Group-2 lavas range from typical alkaline basalts to transitional between alkaline and MORB-like basalts in character. The petrological and geochemical diversity and the voluminous nature of this volcanism suggest a contribution from two source component, coupled with the rift-drift transition stage. The alkaline are K/Ti-rich basalts with normative olivine compositions (Table 1, P-2 and P-14). They have low SiO₂ contents (~44 wt.%) and high TiO₂ (~2 wt.%) with a K₂O/Na₂O ratio slightly lower than 2. Total iron as Fe₂O₃ ranges from 10.8 to 12.3 wt.% with correspondingly high MgO and CaO contents. In contrast to island-arc and active continental margin basalts, the suite has higher Th/Yb and Ta/Yb ratios and plots in a similar position with the group-1 suite in discrimination diagrams (Pearce 1982, 1983), reflecting the influence of an enriched mantle source on their petrogenesis. However, in marked contrast to group-1 lavas, they show lower concentrations of incompatible trace elements and lower LREE/HREE ratios than those tholeiitic basalts that define the Cameroon line in its continental setting. The transitional lavas with tholeiitic affinity are high-Ti MORB-like basalts with range in SiO₂ between 48 and 54 wt.% (Fig. 4, P-1, P-710, P-870). They have quartz and hypersthene in their norms and display an Fe-enrichment trend on the AFM diagram. This series is similar in its major element composition to continental tholeiites, but differs from these in that the total abundance of incompatible elements, particularly of K₂O and P₂O₅, is low. The low abundance of Ti-group high-field-strength element (Nb, Ta, Zr, Y), and particularly the low Nb/Y (<0.6) and LREE/HREE ratios (La/Yb)_n=4.1–8.8, are indi-

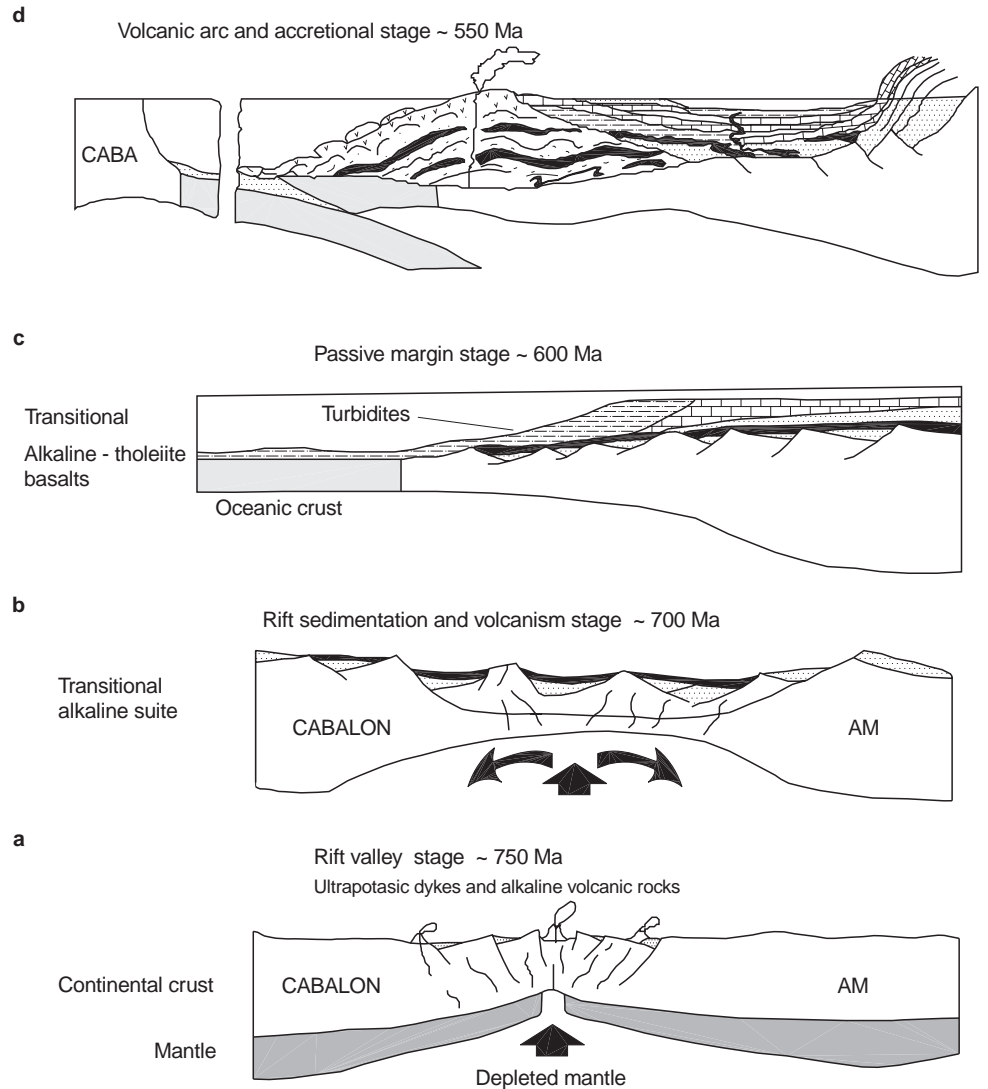
cative of a transitional character to an incipient intra-arc rifting or primitive island arc just prior to the Tilcarian collisional event.

Tilcarian granitoids

The granitoids emplaced entirely in the Puncoviscana Formation display wide scatters of radiometric ages between 564 and 453 Ma. They commonly form a discontinuous and elongated (40-km-wide) plutonic belt with a NNE–SSW trend (see Fig. 11). Many plutons can be grouped on the basis of petrographic, chemical and isotopic features. The first-order subdivision of the granitoids is into two groups: the first type are the batholiths and stocks located in the northern portion of the belt including the Tastil, Fundiciones, Tipayoc and Cañani granites. Radiometric ages of these granites are sparse, but all data point to an emplacement within a short period of time. Most ages are into the 550- to 535-Ma interval. This is consistent with the stratigraphic relationships inferred from the unconformable superposition by lower Cambrian sediments (Meson Group).

The most widely exposed Tastil and Cañani batholiths consist of calc-alkaline biotite granites, hornblende granodiorites and tonalites that exhibit brittle to semi-brittle cataclastic fabric. Their textures vary from heterogranular, granoblastic to porphyritic, showing undulatory crystal extinction and poor subgrain development in quartz and feldspar. The most frequent association is plagioclase + alkali-feldspar + quartz + muscovite + biotite. Green hornblende is a dominant mineral facies in the Cañani granite. Accessory mineral phases are sthene, apatite, zircon and magnetite-ilmenite. Secondary minerals are muscovite, chlorite and calcite. The major and trace element abundance for Cañani and Tastil granites are homogeneous. Chemical analyses show variable SiO₂ (65–77%), low Al₂O₃ (11.4–15.5%) and low Na₂O contents relative to K₂O. In contrast, these granitoids have a high amount of ferromagnesian elements (Fe₂O₃ + MgO + TiO₂) ranging from 6.15 to 11.70%. Concentrations of CaO, Ni, Co, V, Rb, Sr and Y are highly variable, suggesting that considerable fractionation has taken place (Omarini et al. 1987a, b). Additional trace elements and isotopic determinations (Omarini et al. 1987b; Damm et al. 1991) have revealed that the Tastil granite contains a low Sr⁸⁷/Sr⁸⁶ (0.7050) ratio and low O¹⁸ values, which range from +9.8 to +12.4. The Tastil granite has a U–Pb zircon age of 536 ± 7 Ma. Two ages of 519 and 534 ± 2 Ma (Bachmann et al. 1987) from Cañani granite suggest the same magmatic episode. Pluton contacts with the Puncoviscana Formation are sharp, and retrograded andalusite-bearing contact aureoles overprint the earliest tectonic fabrics of the host rock (Kilmurray et al. 1974). An early phase of intrusive activity is reflected by the emplacement of the Tipayoc granite (K/Ar age 550 ± 26 Ma; Omarini et al.

Fig. 4a–d Cross section shows the Gondwana continental margin evolution from late Precambrian to early Cambrian times. The geodynamical interpretation has been inferred from geological and geochemical data (see text for details)



1996). Its occurrence is observed in the areas of volcano-sedimentary syn-orogenic successions (i.e. central and western part of the Puncoviscana belt). Omarini et al. (1996) describe the stock as heterogeneous and dominantly composed of peraluminous leuco-granodiorite and minor quartzodiorite and trondhjemites dykes. The stock is foliated by shear fracture and mortar texture and exhibits a well-developed S–C fabric defined by mica folia alignments and blebs of variably recrystallized quartz-feldspar aggregates.

The second group of plutonic rocks is restricted along strike to the south of the Olacapato–El Toro fault system (see Fig. 11) and consists of volumetrically minor peraluminous two-mica granite, high-aluminium trondhjemites, aplites and pegmatites. Small stocks and complexes have been named Cachi Formation by Turner (1961). Ore prospects of rare earth mineral-bearing pegmatites in these stocks are abundant. The granitoid suite comprises approximately 14 separate stocks that are exposed over an area of 1640 km², running north–south over a distance of more than

150 km near the western edge of the belt. Galliski (1983), Galliski et al. (1990) and Schön and Miller (1990) describe the granites as heterogeneous and dominantly composed of oligoclase, quartz, perthitic alkali feldspar and Al-rich minerals such as muscovite, cordierite and sillimanite. Epidote and sphene are always found in close association with biotite. They are frequently deformed and foliated showing a good S–C fabric defined by mica-plate alignments and folia or blebs of variably recrystallized quartz-feldspar aggregates. These rocks have a small range in silica contents (69–74%) and are distinctly peraluminous with a high Al/(Na+K+Ca) ratio at similar SiO₂ abundances, compared with the trondhjemites of the Tipayoc stock. The rocks are also poor in ferromagnesian elements (Fe₂O₃+MgO+TiO₂≤5) and rich in Na₂O relative to K₂O and CaO. All granitoids give high fractionated REE with LREE-enriched and accentuated concavity of the HREE patterns (Galliski and Miller 1989). Radiometric ages of the granites scatter considerably, but all dates point to an emplacement between 563 and 453 Ma. This is clear evidence that the southern part of

the belt was affected by at least two major episodes of magmatism. The first episode was in the Late Proterozoic and the second in the Ordovician. Some significant conclusions about these granites can now be drawn. There is general agreement that the suite might be correlated with different sources (Toselli 1992). The Eocambrian granites with minor trondhjemites are thought to derive from a primitive and aborted magmatic arc before the Cuyania–Arequipa–Belen–Antofalla collision (CABA terrane, after Omarini y Sureda 1994). The Ordovician granites may be crust-derived granitoids forming large belts restricted to the western margin of the Pampean range, and have been termed epidote-bearing granitoid suite by Saavedra et al. (1987).

A petrogenetic model for the tectonic setting of the Puncoviscana belt

The conclusion reached from the foregoing geochemical analysis indicates two distinct sources in the generation of the mafic magmatism in the Puncoviscana Formation. One source, highly alkalic in nature (group 1 and 1a suite; Fig. 3), was characterized by an extremely incompatible element enrichment relative to N-MORB and may be related to a mantle plume source. The other source (groups 2 and 2a suite; Fig. 3) shows transitional characteristics from alkaline OIB to MORB sources, probably accomplished with the addition of subduction components. If the participation of the previously mentioned sources in the petrogenesis of the basic rocks is accepted, the magmatism in this region may be the result of a particular tectonic environment. It is thus suggested that the studied part of Puncoviscana belt and adjacent parts of the Pampean craton show a set of magmatic signatures reflecting the evolution of the rift and rift-drift transition stage during the breakup of the Rodinia supercontinent. The possible geodynamical scenario could have developed in different steps as shown in Fig. 4. A first stage (~750–650 Ma; Fig. 4a) involves crustal attenuation over a rising mantle plume. Group-1 lavas were emplaced synchronously with the onset of rifting and sill intrusions. Dyke injections and lava flows were restricted entirely to shallow-water clastic sediments.

To generate the limited geochemical spectrum of group 1, a very low degree of partial melting by mantle-plume-derived material is required. The low Zr/Nb and Y/Nb ratio supports this assumption and, due to an effect of element partitioning in low-degree source melting, the high MREE/HREE ratio is indicative of residual garnet in the source (Edwards et al. 1994). Assuming that this is the case, the degree of partial melting of the pre/syn-extensional ultra-potassic rocks in the Puncoviscana Formation can be produced by approximately 1–5% partial melting of the fertile garnet lherzolite according to the batch-melting model proposed by Bradshaw et al. (1993). In subsequent

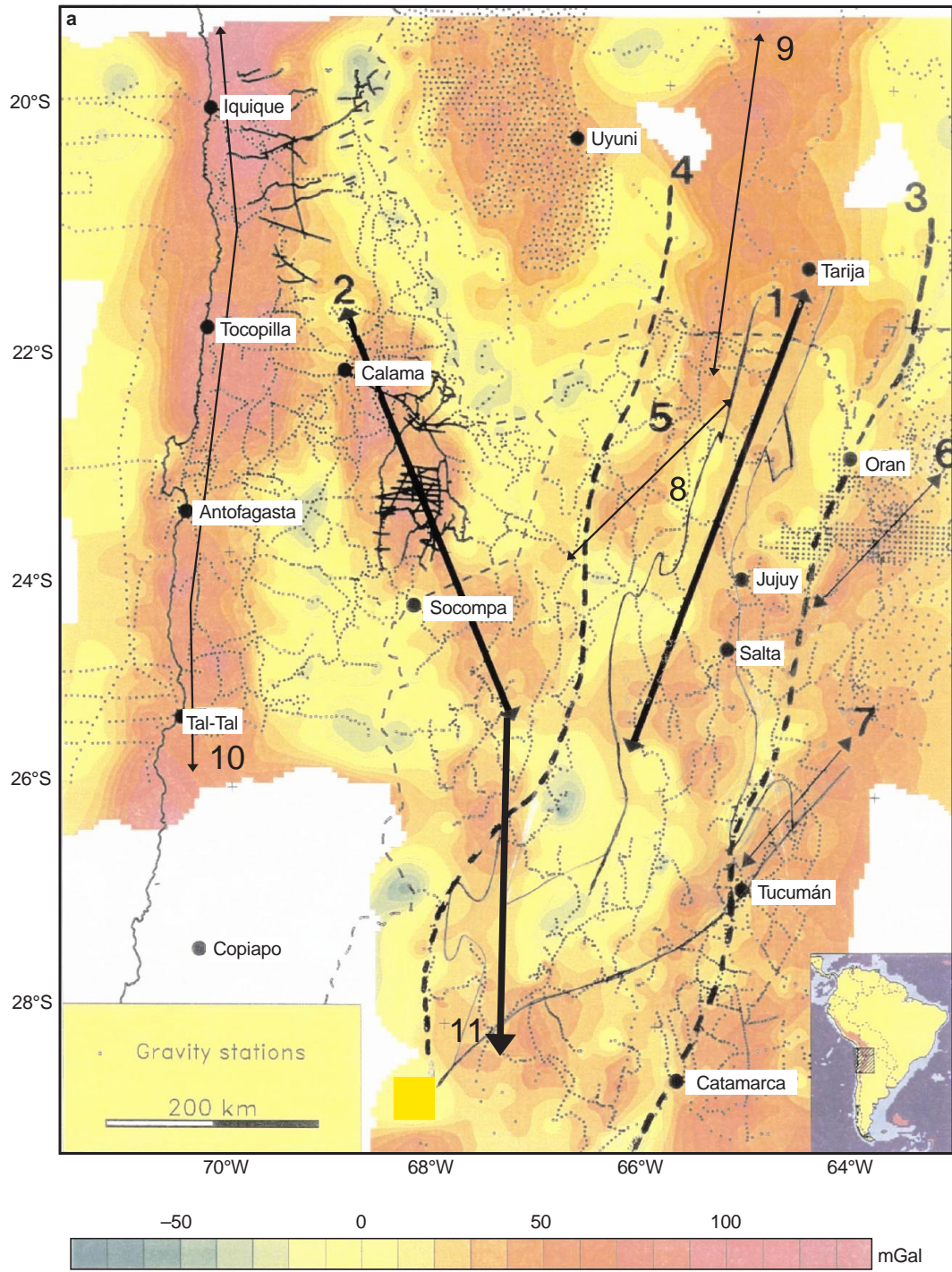
steps (700–600 Ma; Fig. 4b–c), lateral spreading increased subsidence and the basin became filled by pronounced lithological variations mostly of turbiditic character. In this step, the ascending mantle plume head intersected the base of the lithosphere and initiated the partial melting (mixing OIB in character) as commonly happens in intraplate volcanism. The mixing model is consistent with the transitional geochemical spectrum found between the group-1 and group-2 lavas. Generation of principally tholeiites with normative quartz and minor transitional alkaline basalts reflects the magmatic evolution and a more advanced stage in the rifting process. It is believed that a true oceanic crust may have developed at this stage (Fig. 4c). The time related to the change in the composition of the lavas also explains the generally depleted nature of their trace element patterns. The overall geochemical affinities of the group-2 basalts (P2–P14) to continental trap basalt support a model in which the magma source is garnet free and probably spinel rich. Such spinel-bearing mantle source requires melt generation at depths of <80 km (Bradshaw et al. 1993). Similar results have been observed in other extensional provinces, such as Deccan, Arabian-Nubian shield, and Basin and Range (Stein and Hofmann 1992; Withe and McKenzie 1989).

In contrast, the samples P870, P710 and P1 have comparatively smooth, normalized patterns of trace elements and higher Sm/Nd ratios (0.25–0.28) similar to transitional OIB- to MORB-type basalts. In particular, the sample P1 displays the lowest Nb and Ta contents at similar Th concentrations, which may be connected to a magma-bearing incipient subduction. The lack of a strong subduction signature is consistent with the idea that the partial melting process was not sufficiently hydrous to produce a marked depletion of the Nb and Ta (Pe-Piper and Piper 1989). A similar conclusion can be drawn from titanium. The high Ti contents in the lavas could be due to oxygen pressure in the derivative magma low enough to permit an extensive Ti-magnetite fractionation (Edwards et al. 1994).

In summary, these lavas, identified by high Ti-tholeiites, represent the latest intense volcanic episode in the development of the Puncoviscana Formation (580–550 Ma) associated with volcanoclastic sediments and carbonate platforms (Fig. 4d). The geochemical and geological considerations very strongly support the evidence of the CABA terrane collision with the western margin of proto-Gondwana during the Late Precambrian–Early Cambrian time.

The residual gravity field in the proto-Gondwana terranes

The segment of the Central Andes between 20°S to 28°S shows an anomalous gravity field which consists of numerous local and regional components and fits in the morphostructural units in most cases (see Fig. 5a; Götze et al. 1994, 1996; Götze and Kirchner 1997).



21.05.1996(UTM Projection: -69, Scale 1:4666667)

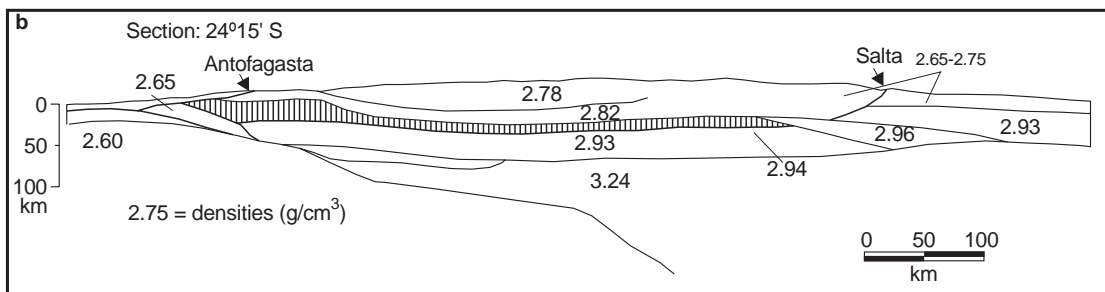


Fig. 5a Central Andes residual gravity map. The *thick dashed lines* indicate the inferred Puncoviscana belt boundaries with the pre-Tilcarian (3) and Tilcarian (4) sutures. The *thick solid lines* indicate the trend of the residual gravity anomaly in coincidence with magmatic arcs. 1 Late Precambrian–early Cambrian; 2 Late Ordovician; 10 Middle Jurassic. The *thin lines* (6–9) indicate the trend of Jurassic–Cretaceous crustal gravity anomalies along rifted areas (5). Shallow high positive gravity anomaly of >30 mGa (see text for details). 11 Aconquija lineament. **b** Interpreted density model, at approximately 24° 15' S, of the uppermost mantle and the crust from Pacific Ocean to Chaco Plains. The high-density block beneath Salta was introduced by gravity modeling. *Vertically lined areas* are a low-velocity zone

Three distinct anomalous domains have been outlined:

1. A prominent continuous positive north–south anomaly is located along the Chile margin (10 in Fig. 5a) parallel or astride to the axis of the exposed portions of the Coastal Cordillera belt (Jurassic to Lower Cretaceous).
2. A broad regional gravity high with NW–SE trend extends from the northern Domeyko Cordillera to the Fiambala ranges (2 in Fig. 5a). These extremely high gravity values can reflect the signature of a Precambrian–Early Paleozoic basement beneath the Western Cordillera (e.g. Götze et al. 1988; Götze and Kirchner 1997).
3. Another NNE–SSW gravity anomaly is located eastward to the present magmatic arc and covers the entire Eastern Cordillera belt (1 in Fig. 5a). The western border (4 in Fig. 5a) extends beneath the Puna plateau and is well correlated with the boundary between Puna and the eastern Puna mylonite zone. The eastern border (3 in Fig. 5a) is interpreted by Götze et al. (1994) as a transition zone between different crust types represented by the Eastern Cordillera and the Subandean foreland. This distinctive signature probably marks the west-dipping suture zone between the Brazilian craton and the Puncoviscana belt.

A previous gravity interpretation (Strunk 1990; Omarini and Götze 1991) postulated the presence of dense bodies with a calculated rock density of 2960 kg/m³ below the Eastern Cordillera (6–8 km up to 24 km; Fig. 5b).

In the northwestern portion of the inferred Puncoviscana belt boundaries (5 in Fig 5a) there is a relatively shallow highly positive anomaly of more than $30 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m/s}^2$. Gravity modelling (Gangui and Götze 1996) shows the presence of high density bodies with a calculated density of 2950 kg/m³ and thicknesses of about 8 km in the basement below a sedimentary and volcanoclastic Ordovician cover. As reported by Gangui and Götze (1996) this gravity anomaly can be explained by assuming a continent–continent accretion of a Late Ordovician magmatic arc (PM vs CABA; PM is Precordillera-Mejillonia terrane, modified from Omarini y Sureda 1994). It is believed that the exist-

tence of similar gravity anomaly pattern in an adjacent Precambrian–Lower Cambrian terrane strongly suggests that the positive gravity is caused by older structures, which had been overprinted by the Cretaceous rift orogenesis. The presence of a decollement level in the upper crust, clearly seen also in reflection seismic data (Gangui and Götze 1996), appears to be an attractive explanation since it allows for large-scale sub-horizontal displacements of the middle crust towards the east. Thus, the pronounced gravity bodies (massive granulites, e.g. xenoliths) within Cordillera Oriental of Salta and Jujuy may be ascribed to the mechanical processes involved in the consolidation of the Puncoviscana belt during the CABA/Pampia–Amazonian collision in the Late Proterozoic. In this context some important conclusions are established:

1. The regional geology and gravity signature is dominated by a linear NNE–SSW trend of granites and volcanic rocks related to the accretion of a linear volcanic belt and terrane. Their juxtaposition with Palaeoproterozoic cores indicates substantial crustal mobility; thus, the sheared western zones of the Puncoviscana belt is considered as expressive of the Tilcarian suture (4 in Fig. 5a and 1 in Fig. 11).
2. In the major Puncoviscana belt (area between 3 and 4 in Fig. 5a) there are many individual crustal blocks the boundaries of which coincide with gradients between major elongated, subparallel, positive and negative anomalies. Studies have shown that the gravity highs from different blocks have the same feature. This is not what would be expected if the Puncoviscana belt comprised numerous accreted terranes with separate histories, as suggested by Mon and Hongn (1996). This can be better explained by structures being formed while younger crust was thrust against older lithosphere (9 in Fig. 11). The consequent pre-Tilcarian suture shows a negative gravity pattern (3 in Fig. 5a).
3. Outside of the Puncoviscana belt, another anomalous gravity trend coinciding with the Western Cordillera magmatic arc (Omarini and Sureda 1994; axis 2 in Fig. 5a) is evidence for relicts of Late Ordovician structures from magmatic Oclöyic episodes of the Famatinean belt (7 in Fig. 11).
4. In the pre-Andean rift of the northwestern Argentina (Jurassic–Cretaceous boundary), the intrusion and extrusion of igneous bodies from ultra-potassic to calc-alkaline differentiation trend shows small and widespread outcrops. Isolated complex batholiths (Tusaquillas) approach in size several stocks of granites (Abra Laite, Aguilar, Rangel, Hornillos). Red beds with intercalated alkaline basalts, basanites, carbonatites and tephrite dykes of the Salta Group are related to the southern branch of the Ayopaya rift system (9 in Fig. 5a; Sureda et al. 1989). Since the Tres Cruces rifted triple point, the Salinas Grandes branch is coincident with NE–SW highly positive anomalies (8 in Fig. 5a). The Michicola and Aconquija lineaments have similar trend. The very

high gravity anomalies are in these narrow NE–SW structures within the basement (6–8 in Fig. 5a). Later at the Araucarian phase, the xenolith evidence (Lucassen et al. 1998) supports the great amount of basic rocks that has been generated in dense granulite layers within the lower/middle crust. The gravity trends, linked to the remobilized crust, can be traced over long distances, and their well-defined pattern does not correlate with the gravity signature of adjacent areas. Here it seems reasonable to think that the gravimetric signature of the pre-Mesozoic basement was modified by reworking during the Jurassic–Cretaceous crustal extension. This pattern would have also been overprinted to the rock-density signature of the Puncoviscana belt.

5. During the Andean cycle (post-Inca phase from Middle Eocene), major overplating events played an important role in the formation and evolution of the lower crust. It is clear that the present Andean magmatic arc over the high Cordillera has a negative gravity pattern. Apparently, on the east slope, the crust in the foreland is not entirely uniform. However, the definite positive gravity anomalies are strong on the actual Pacific Chilean coast and have a north–south trend. A previous interpretation of these anomalies has been given by Götze et al. (1988) to the La Negra Middle Jurassic magmatic arc (axis 10 in Fig. 5a).

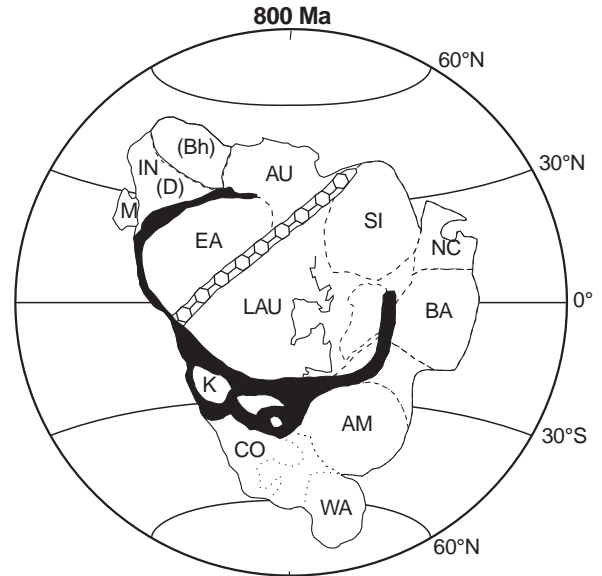


Fig. 6 The Rodinia supercontinent as assembled at ca. 800 Ma. Laurentia–Baltica and Laurentia–East Gondwana (SWEAT) reconstructions follow the interpretation by Torsvik et al. (1986). North China is positioned according to Unrug (1996). Kalahari, Congo, West Africa and Amazonia fits modified from Moores (1991). *Black symbols* show the Grenvillian mobile belt distribution (900–800 Ma), *hexagonal symbols* show the Proto-Pacific rift margin (750–725 Ma; Powell et al. 1993; Dalziel et al. 1994). *IN* India; *M* Madagascar; *Bh* Budeldkhand; *AU* Australia; *EA* East Antarctica; *SI* Siberia; *NC* North Carolina; *BA* Baltica; *LAU* Laurentia; *AM* Amazonia; *WA* West Africa; *CO* Congo; *K* Kalahari

Puncoviscana belt evolution: from Rodinia breakup to the Gondwana configuration

According to petrogenetic models and geological and geophysical observations, the evolution of the Puncoviscana belt was probably related to an extensional tectonic regime which changed into a well-developed active (i.e. compressional) plate margin (Fig. 4d). This interpretation provides a new perspective on the hypothetical Late Precambrian supercontinent (Rodinia or Pangea II) and contains the suggestion that between 750 and 650 Ma (minimum) proto-Gondwana separated from the North American (Laurentia) continent.

The Late Precambrian reconstruction (Fig. 6) was originally proposed on the basis of palaeomagnetic data (McWilliams 1981; Piper 1982; Van der Voo 1988; D’Agrella-Filho et al. 1998) and of an extensive “Grenvillian orogenic belt” (1.3–0.9 Ga; Moore 1991; Dalziel 1991), which presently forms isolated blocks on different continents. Another convincing correlation has been suggested on the basis of palaeontological and stratigraphic affinities between the Precordillera terrane and the Appalachian Ouachita orogen (Astini et al. 1995, 1996; Benedetto 1993). Dalla Salda et al. (1992) have suggested an Ordovician collision between Laurentia and proto-Gondwana (470–460 Ma) to explain the Famatinian orogenic belt. In this context, the “Occidentalia terrane” has been reinterpreted as the whole Laurentia continent colliding with proto-Gond-

wana by the end of the Ordovician. However, this continent–continent collision hypothesis does not explain the pre-Ordovician compressional history of the proto-Gondwana margin – particularly the early Cambrian Tilcarian orogeny – preserved in the Puncoviscana Formation.

It is clear that these unsolved problems are linked with a major question concerning the palaeoposition of Laurentia vs Pampia–Amazonia. In an attempt to explain the Puncoviscana belt evolution, we propose an evolutionary model that starts with a continental Rodinia breakup (see Figs. 7 and 10: Cabalon nuclei) and the formation of several micro-plate interactions during symmetrical drift at the Laurentian and Pampia–Amazonian borders. The accretion of Cabalon terrane comprises a very long Early Phanerozoic history. There is a clear diachronism in the complex suturing between different accreted terranes (mainly CABA, Precordillera–Mejillonia and Chilenia) and their relation to the eastward subduction of slabs along the active continental margins of South America.

The global reconstruction emerges from palaeontological (trace fossil), sedimentary and the magmatic affinities between the Puncoviscana belt (proto-Gondwana) and the Carolina slate belt (Laurentia).

The Carolina slate belt runs northeast–southwest for 600 km from Virginia to Georgia and forms part of the

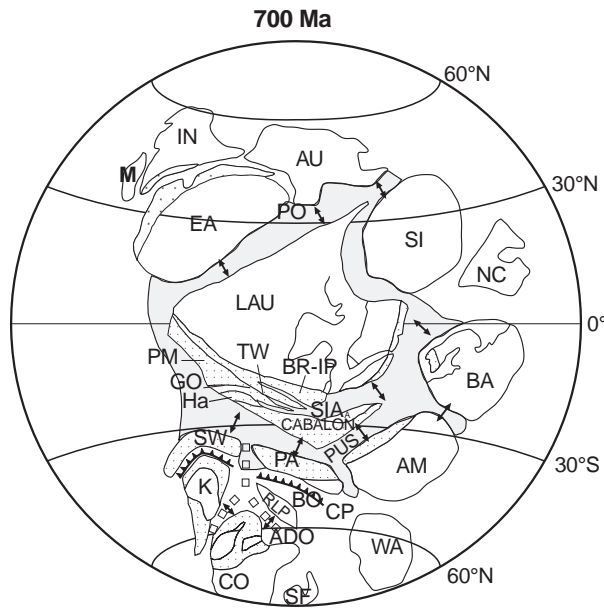


Fig. 7 Early Neoproterozoic reconstruction (ca. 700 Ma) shows the initial stage of the break-up of the Rodinia and Puncoviscana-type basin distribution (grey area). Abbreviations as in Fig. 6. *BR-IP* Eastern Blue Ridge-Inner Piedmont; *CABALON* for details see Fig. 10; *SIA* South Iapetus Ocean; *PO* Proto-Pacific Ocean; *PUS* Puncoviscana Sea; *PA* Pampia; *RLP* Rio de la Plata; *SF* Sao Francisco; *ADO* Adamastor Ocean; *BO* Brasilides Ocean; *SW* hypothetical Somuncura-Deseado-Malvinas-Wedell terrane; *Ha* Hatteras terrane; *GO* Goochland terrane; *PM* Precordillera-Mejillonia terrane; *TW* Tawson block; *CP* Córdoba-Paraguay magmatic arc. *Stippled areas* dismembered Grenvillian orogen

super terrane that extends the full length of the Appalachian orogen from Alabama to Newfoundland (Williams and Hatcher 1982, 1983; Hatcher 1989). This belt consists of pelites and greywackes with subordinate conglomerates and quartz arenites. It also includes bimodal volcanic rocks that interfinger with laminated mudstone and sandstone (in the Albemarle Group; Milton 1984; Secor et al. 1989), similar to marine turbidites of the Puncoviscana Formation (see Omarini and Baldis 1984; Jêzek 1990). The isotopic ages range from late Precambrian to Cambrian (Goldsmith and Secor 1993; Kozuch et al. 1992). These ages are also supported by body and trace fossils present principally in the Floyd Church Formation (*Pteridinium*: Gibson et al. 1984; *Oldhamia simplex*, *Vendospica graptoliforme*: Seilacher and Pflüger 1992), which have been correlated with worldwide Ediacara biota of Vendian times (Gibson et al. 1984). Other traces that appear to be restricted to Vendian strata, such as *Harlaniella podolica Sokolov*, have also been recorded in the Chapel Island Formation in Newfoundland (Bengtson and Fletcher 1983; Crimes and Anderson 1985).

The trace fossils of the Puncoviscana belt are particularly known through Aceñolaza (1978), Aceñolaza and Durand (1986) and Durand (1994), who recorded 23 ichnogenera including: *Gordia*, *Helminthopsis*, *Planolites*, *Tasmanadia*, *Oldhamia*, *Didymaulichus*,

Dimorphichnus, *Diplichnites*, *Neonereites*, *Phycodes*, *Scolicia*, *Protichnites*, *Protovirgularia*, *Torrowangea*, *Sekwia*, *Beltanelloides* and *Paliella*. A similar ichnofaunistic association has also been recorded from Tucavaca belt of the eastern Bolivian and the Paraguay–Araguaia belts (O'Connor and Welde 1986).

New studies revealed that the Puncoviscana trace fossils reflect a deep-sea environment and are Cambrian in age, but not younger than Lower Cambrian, because the overlying shallow marine sandstones of the Meson Group contain the Atdabanian trace fossil *Syringomorpha nilssoni*. Nevertheless, we can observe the expansion of the Cambrian Agronomic Revolution (Seilacher and Pflüger 1994) into the deep sea, because an *Oldhamia* community related to matgrounds is replaced by a richer and more bioturbational trace fossil assemblage in higher parts. By that we regard it more appropriate to assume a maximum age of 545 Ma for the Precambrian–Cambrian boundary in South America, which is in accordance with the new Geological Phanerozoic time scale of Gradstein and Ogg (1996).

The foregoing data show that similar benthic communities occur in similar environments at similar times, and thus that benthic assemblages can be used to correlate different terranes. The ichnofauna evidence therefore leads us to believe that Laurentia and the proto-Gondwana continent were a conjugate rift pair in the supercontinent Rodinia during the late Precambrian as shown in Fig. 7.

The fragmentation of Rodinia, dated 750–725 Ma (Powell et al. 1994; Hoffman 1991), produced at least two ocean basins and involved three large-scale extensional rift zones from which the Pan African–Brazilian orogens were born (SIAR, PUR and NbR; see Fig. 10). The rifting of Laurentia from West Rodinia produced the proto-Pacific ocean (Torsvik et al. 1996). Intracontinental rupture at this time is also indicated by the formation of the Brazilian ocean and the Nosib rift, which predate the Otavi drift-passive margin formed at 750–600 Ma (Unrug 1996; Prave 1996, and references therein). The Adamastor ocean is the consequence of a more accentuated drifting between Congo and Río de la Plata cratons; however, a difference of opinion persists over its closure. Recent reviews (Unrug 1996; Prave 1996) support a tectonic model in which the Congo and Río de la Plata cratons collide (~600 Ma) prior to Kalahari–Congo collision (~550 Ma).

The rift-system between the Laurentia and Amazonia–Pampia shields is also geologically feasible according to the current evidence of rift-related magmatism in both continental margins. The ultrapotassic dykes and alkaline volcanic rocks within the Puncoviscana belt are clear evidence of mantle plume activity. The presence of Late Precambrian rocks of continental rift trend in the Avalon composite terrane (see Dallmeyer 1989; Keppie 1989; Murphy et al. 1990) is believed to be the result of similar mantle plume activity. The Tibbit Hill Formation in Newfoundland

shows a range of volcanic rocks with alkaline and tholeiitic affinities indicating a rapid phase of rifting. This volcanic event was recorded 35 Ma after the emplacement of the Grenville Dyke Swarm in the Sutton Mountains (Kumarapeli 1993; Seymour and Kumarapeli 1995). This implies that the separation could have begun at 750–700 Ma (Krogh et al. 1983) and involved an asymmetrical rift propagation from north to south along the Laurentia and Amazonia–Pampia connection. Such arguments imply a diachronous evolution of the Iapetus ocean and the Puncoviscana sea. We think the opening of the Puncoviscana basin was prior to the initiation of the Iapetus ocean, at least in the southern portion of the eastern Laurentia margin. In this segment the rift-to-drift transition probably was completed during Vendian time (600–580 Ma), which suggests a complete breakup of a large crustal fragment between the two Archean nuclei. The primitive continental shield in the core of Rodinia is named herein Cabalon (see Figs. 7, 10). This proposed hypothetical continent is interpreted as a “missing superterrane” which disintegrated into a lot of slivers. This supports a symmetrical and equivalent geodynamical evolution between the Laurentia and Amazonia–Pampia margins from late Precambrian to Paleozoic times (Fig. 10).

Another aspect of the Cabalon breakup leads to an interesting prediction about the subsequent evolution of the Iapetus ocean. During Vendian times the redistribution of fragmented Rodinia was characterized by an exceptionally high plate velocity up to 20 cm/year (Torsvik et al. 1996). This situation may have been accompanied by a metastable Cabalon plate and the rapid latitudinal drift of minor terranes. In this tectonic scenario the fragmentation of the Cabalon superterrane provides a coherent solution to the geological history of eastern Laurentia and proto-Gondwana margins.

A summary for the disintegration of this lost continent is given in Figs. 7, 8 and 10 according to the tectonic synthesis for the southern Appalachian orogen proposed by Muller and Chapin (1984), Horton et al. (1989) and Condie (1990). This sector has traditionally been interpreted as a succession of compressional events in Paleozoic times from an accretional terrane system. Prior to this, Late Proterozoic to Early Paleozoic sedimentary and volcanic rocks indicate that they were formed in a rifted environment close to the Iapetus ocean opening. The sedimentary record of the passive margin in the Blue Ridge and the Valley and Ridge provinces can be grouped into two sequences (Wehr and Glover 1985): (a) older pre-Catoctin sequences (Late Proterozoic) identified by immature clastic and volcanic rocks which include the Granfather, Ashe, Mount Roger, Mechun, Swift and Fouquier formations; (b) a younger post-Catoctin suite (Late Proterozoic–Early Paleozoic) dominated by clastic sedimentary rocks including Catoctin and Alligator formations as well as the Evington and Chilhowe groups.

During latest Precambrian–Early Cambrian times

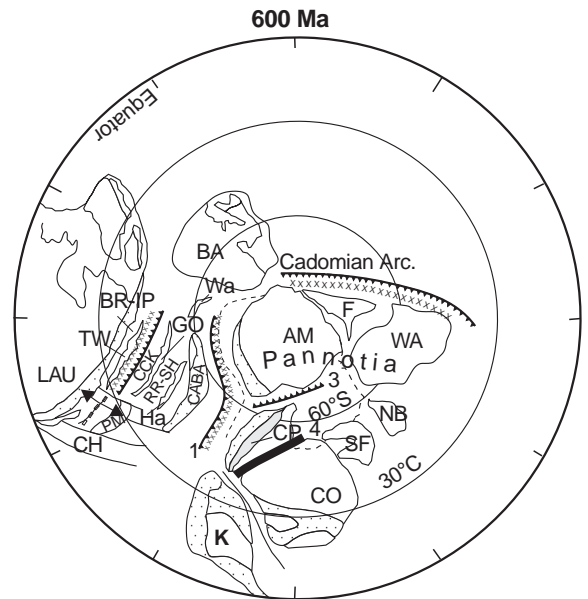


Fig. 8 Late Vendian (ca. 600 Ma) palaeogeographic reconstruction. Northern South America (AM) positions modified from Torsvik et al. (1996); Baltica based on McKerron et al. (1992); West Africa and Nigeria-Borborena (NB) as in Unrug (1996); Laurentia as in Torsvik et al. (1996); Congo and Kalahari craton positions based on data suggesting that the Damara orogen was intracratonic and the Rio de la Plata-Congo collided prior to the collision of the Kalahari vs Congo (see Prave 1996). F Florida Block; CH Chilenia terrane; RR-SH Roanoke Rapids and Spring Hope belt; CCK Charlotte-Carolina-Kioke belt. Wa West Avalonia; CABA Cuyania-Antofalla-Belen-Arequipa terrane; 1 Puncoviscana-Tucavaca magmatic arc; 3 Paraguay-Araguay magmatic arc

there was a fundamental change in plate motion. The ending of the Blue Ridge separation was due to the convergence of the Towson block, integrated by the Baltimore gneiss and Glenarm Supergroup, which are considered as a displaced terrane rifted from Laurentia (Thomas 1977; Muller and Chapin 1984). The terrane convergence and the metamorphic lithofacies profiles suggest that subduction was predominantly cratonward-directed beneath the Laurentian shield (see Fig. 10).

Stratigraphic, petrological and geochronological data indicate that successive magmatic arcs with associated volcano-sedimentary sequences and neighbouring by oldest terranes with Grenville ages were formed between 600 and 450 Ma. The Carolina terrane (Secor et al. 1989) comprises the volcano-sedimentary sequences traditionally assigned to the Carolina Slate Belt including the Charlotte, Belair, Kiokee as well as part of the King Mountain belt. Figure 2 summarizes the stratigraphy of the Albemarle area with ages ranging from 586 ± 10 Ma (U–Pb zircon; Wright and Seiders 1980) to 540 ± 7 Ma (Rb–Sr whole rock; Black 1978).

The evolution and relation of Late Proterozoic and Cambrian rocks of the Carolina terrane has led to a divergence of opinions (Dennis and Shervais 1991;

Roger 1982; Milton and Reinhardt 1980). However, stratigraphic and petrological data indicate that their formations were probably deposited in a back-arc setting and have an arc volcanogenic provenance. The Belair belt and part of the Kiokee belt have been interpreted as a volcanic arc (Maher et al. 1981). This implies an evolution along a subduction zone probably connected to the convergence of the Goochland terrane. Rocks of similar affinity have been identified in several areas along the eastern board of the Goochland and Carolina terranes. The Roanoke Rapids terrane has transitional characteristics between marginal marine-shelf deposits and volcanogenic sequences (Horton and Stoddard 1986). The rocks associated with the Spring Hope terrane are representative of a volcanic arc (Boltin and Stoddard 1987) and presumably result from subduction by the convergence of the Hatteras terrane against the Roanoke Rapids–Spring Hope belt during the Acadian orogeny (see Figs. 8–10; Horton et al. 1989).

During the postulated Cabalon fragmentation a remnant block named CABA collided at 530–520 Ma with the western margin of the ephemeral Early Paleozoic Pannotia supercontinent (Figs. 8–10). The CABA terrane (including the Cuyania, Antofalla, Belen and Arequipa blocks) is defined in this paper as a very large composite terrane with a Grenville-age basement. As a

consequence, the early proto-oceanic rift between Laurentia and Amazonia was aborted and an active island-arc-type margin was formed along the central western Pannotia border. The model shows the timing and stratigraphic setting for this volcanism (1 in Fig. 8), with the ensuing amalgamation of CABA against Pannotia, which must have occurred rapidly. This configuration is consistent with the concept that the terminal collision was coeval with the Tilarian orogeny at 530–520 Ma, as has been suggested by Omarini and Sureda (1993).

The alternative of an Oclöyic continent–continent collision between Laurentia and Proto-Gondwana across the Appalachian-Famatinian orogen (Dalla Salda et al. 1992; Dalziel et al. 1994) is not accurate in view of the available geological data and the new gravity evidence presented here for the Central Andes. On the contrary, our model favours a close palaeogeographic relationship between Laurentia and the Argentinean Precordillera as a minor terrane. The recognition of this singular origin is also supported by strong palaeontological, stratigraphic (Astini et al. 1995) and palaeomagnetic evidence (Niocaill et al. 1997). Some recent speculation about the Ordovician (Arenigian–Llanvirnian) K-bentonite deposit are interesting. Their stratigraphic distribution shows great similarities to sequences outcropping in Baltica, Central Appalachians and the Argentine Precordillera (Bergström 1989; Bergström et al. 1996).

The balance of the evidence allows depiction of a progressive drifting and accretion of the Precordillera-Mejillonia terrane (PM) detached from Laurentia. These allochthonous slivers with Grenville basement are interpreted here to have formed a very large land-mass consisting of at least two definable blocks: the Precordillera and the Mejillonia (see Fig. 11). Their amalgamation with pre-Gondwana (~450 Ma) was preceded by:

1. An arc-related magmatism along the Famatinian margin of CABA (Figs. 9, 10)
2. An extensive back-arc magmatism (Fig. 10)
3. The consolidation of the mobile zone by folding, thrusting and obduction of ophiolites and mafic volcanites in the Argentinean Precordillera and southern Puna

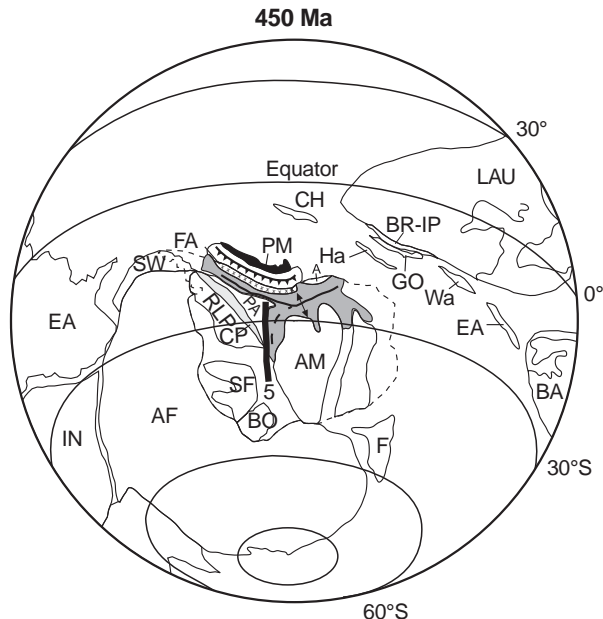


Fig. 9 Late Ordovician–Early Silurian (ca. 450 Ma) palaeogeographic reconstruction. The African continent and East Gondwana assemblage as in Torsvik et al. (1996). Laurentia and Baltica positions modified from Torsvik et al. (1996) and Dalziel (1997). The agglomeration of Amazonia (AM), Pampia (PA), Rio de la Plata (RLP), CABA and SW terranes in based on geological evidence (see text). The Precordillera-Mejillonia (PM) terrane, involving the subduction zone and the Famatinian magmatic arc (FA) is in light grey. Ordovician back-arc and foreland basins. A Arequipa massif; EA East Avalonia; AF Africa; 5 Aconquija-Paraguay lineament

Discussion of the ensialic pre-Gondwana consolidation at the Pacific margin

According to previous tectonic interpretations, the assemblage of the pre-Gondwana lands on the Pannotia margin resulted from the complex movements of individual terranes; however, their sutures must be everywhere parallel to the present trend of the orogenic belt. With this concept in mind it is possible to draw the following scenario:

1. The Río de la Plata craton was amalgamated to the Pampia craton during the interval 750–650 Ma. The

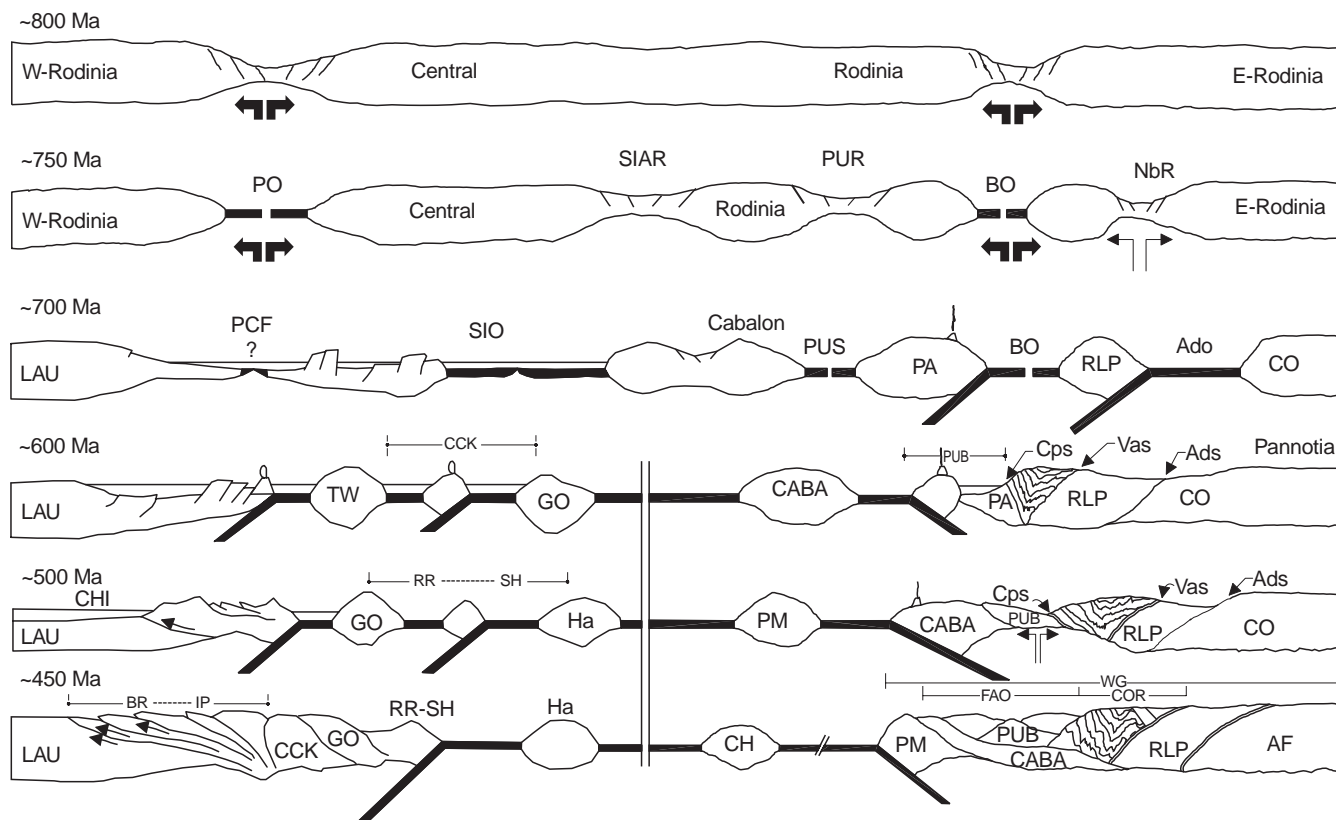


Fig. 10 Interpretative sequence of events during the break-up of the Rodinia supercontinent. The limit between West and East Rodinia is indicated according to the palaeogeographic reconstruction at 777 Ma proposed by Torsvik et al. (1996). West Rodinia includes Australia, East Antarctica, India, Madagascar and Budelkhand terranes. Central Rodinia includes Laurentia, Siberia, North China terranes. East Rodinia includes Pampia, Rio de la Plata, Amazonia, Congo, West Africa Baltica, Kalahari, Sao Francisco and SW terranes. *SIAR* South Iapetus rift; *PO* Proto-Pacific Ocean; *PUR* Puncoviscana rift; *BO* Brasilides Ocean; *NbR* Nosib rift; *PCF* Pre-Catoctin Formation; *SiO* South Iapetus Ocean; *CABALON* Cuyania, Belen, Antofalla, Arequipa, Tawson, Goochaland and Hatteras terranes; *PUS* Puncoviscana Sea; *PA* Pampia terrane; *RLP* Rio de la Plata terrane; *Ado* Adamastor Ocean; *CO* Congo terrane; *TW* Tawson terrane; *CCK* Charlotte-Carolina-Kioke belt; *GO* Goochaland terrane; *HA* Hatteras terrane; *CABA* Cuyania, Antofall, Belen, Arequipa terranes; *PUB* Puncoviscana belt; *Cps* Córdoba-Paraguay suture; *Vas* Vacacai suture; *Ado* Adamastor suture; *CHI* Chillowee Formation; *RR-SH* Roanoke Rapids-Spring Hope terranes; *PM* Precordillera-Mejillonia terrane; *BR-IP* Eastern Blue Ridge-Inner Piedmont; *CH* Chilean terrane; *FAO* Famatinian orogene; *COR* Córdoba range; *WG* West Gondwanaland; *AF* Africa terrane

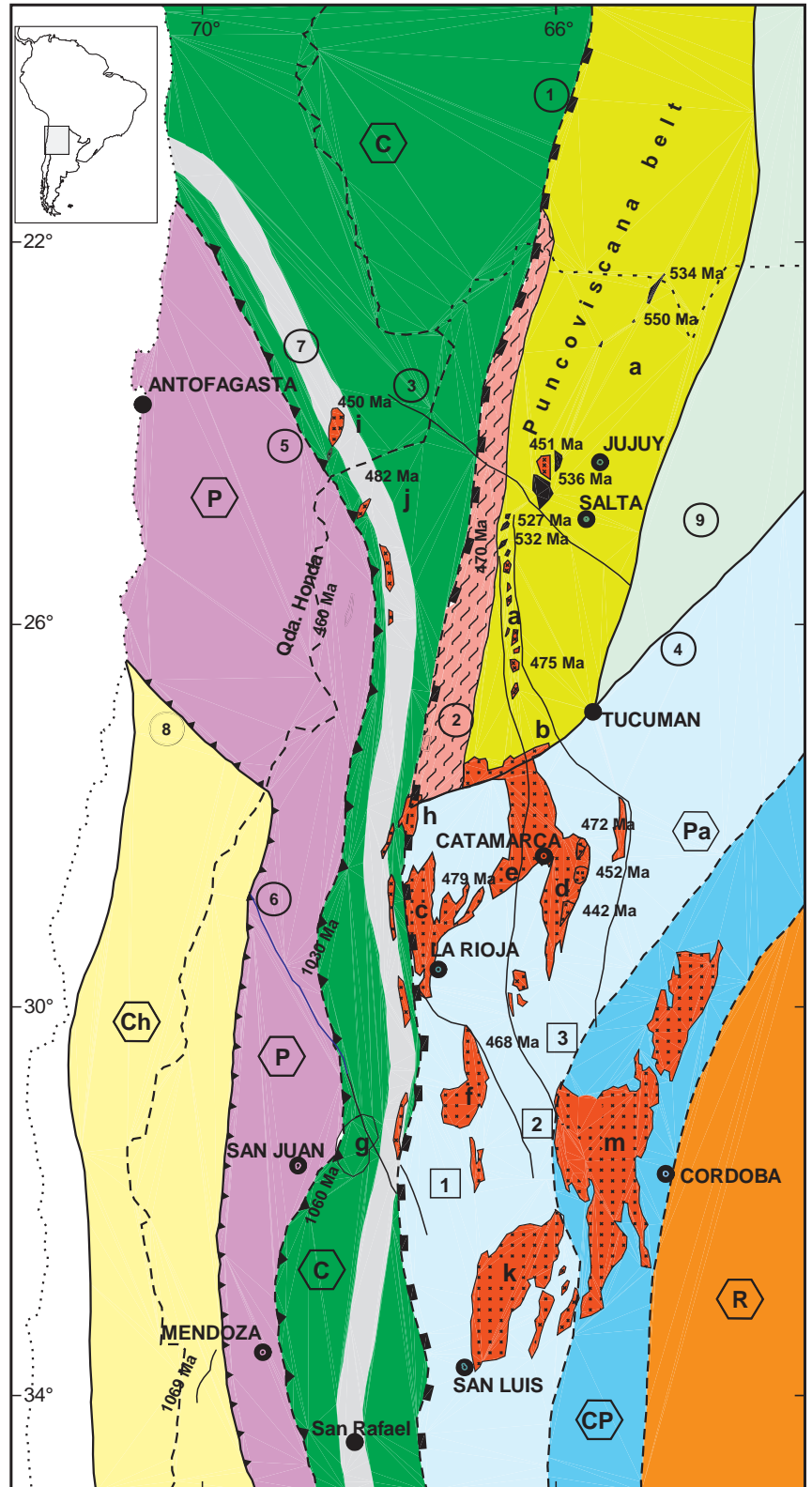
convergent evolution of the Córdoba-Paraguay belts was probably controlled by west subduction, into a configuration similar to the one proposed by Ramos (1988, 1991). The high metamorphism along the edge of the anatectic migmatite nuclei in the Córdoba ranges decreases until the Colorado River at the Patagonia border. It peaked between 730 and 650 Ma (Sureda 1978; Linares et al. 1980; Párica 1986), marking the collisional event. After these

episodes a younger magmatic and metamorphic edge was developed along the eastern border of the consolidated Pampia-Río de la Plata massif. The volcanites and related rocks with associated tungsten ore deposits in Sierra del Morro, San Luis (Hack et al. 1991; Delakowitz et al. 1991), are interpreted here as having been generated during a similar time span and geodynamical conditions as the Puncoviscana Formation in Salta and Jujuy.

2. The Paraguay-Araguay basin (3 in Fig. 8) and the Tucavaca-Puncoviscana basin were deformed in the Pan-African-Brasilian orogeny (530–520 Ma). The arguments presented previously imply that the Pampia-Río de la Plata craton collided with the Amazonia before the collision between CABA and the Amazonia-Pampia craton. It is possible that the Candelaria terrane (9 in Fig. 11), with crustal rocks of middle to high metamorphism and penetrative deformation (Willner 1990), forms part of the Paraguay-Araguay belt and not of the Puncoviscana belt as currently assumed. It is also noteworthy that the Aconquija-Paraguay lineament (4 in Fig. 11) crosses the South American continent in a position coincident with the northeast-southwest trend of the belt (5 in Fig. 9). The development of this lineament persisted throughout geological time and appears to have exerted a strong influence on the location and development of the island arcs and volcanogenic regimes relative to the Puncoviscana belt. This assumption is in agreement with the geophysical findings. Also, the geological record suggests

Fig. 11 Palaeogeographic interpretation map of the Central Andes and adjacent regions shows the distribution of terranes and suture zones. The Famatinian arc (light grey) has been inferred from gravity interpretation.

Numbers in circles: 1 Tilcarian suture (Late Precambrian); 2 Eastern Puna Mylonite zone; 3 Calama-Olacapato-Toro lineament; 4 Aconquija lineament; 5 Ocoyic suture (Late Ordovician); 6 Valle Fertil lineament; 7 Famatinian magmatic arc; 8 Valle Ancho lineament; 9 Candelaria terrane; *a* Cordillera Oriental and Cumbres Calchaquies morphostructural provinces; *b* Aconquija ranges; *c* Ancasti ranges; *d* Velasco ranges; *e* Ambato ranges; *f* De los Llanos ranges (includes Chepes and Ulapes ranges); *g* Pie de Palo ranges; *h* Fiam-bala ranges; *i* Cordón de Lila ranges; *j* Macón, Taca-Taca, Arita, Archibarca, Antofalla granitoids; *k* San Luis ranges; *m* Córdoba ranges. *Numbers in squares:* 1 Amphibolite-biotite granitoids; 2 Aluminium-silicate granitoids; 3 Epidote micaceous granitoids. *Letters in circles:* C Cuyania-Antofalla-Belen-Arequipa (CABA) terrane; P Precordillera-Mejillonia terrane; R Rio de la Plata craton; Pa Pampia terrane; Ch Chilena terrane; Cp Córdoba-Paraguay arc



different rates of CABA convergence and/or amalgamation on the two sides, northward and southward of the Aconquija-Paraguay lineament. The northern portion is associated with a variety of gravity anomalies in connection with an island-arc

development on a very thin ensialic basement or in oceanic crust. The southern portion appears to be associated with a magmatic arc developed on sialic basement (Pampia craton), which led to an extensive continental suture after the CABA amalgamation.

- Geological evidence for this assemblage comes from granitoid emplacement into the western Sierras Pampeanas between 570 and 520 Ma (Rapela et al. 1990; Rapela and Pankhurst 1996; Sato et al. 1996).
3. A convergent event on the western margin of the CABA terrane is indicated in the interval 500–439 Ma by the subduction–obduction of ophiolites, as well as thrusting and folding of sedimentary rocks (Calingasta Valley; Kay et al. 1984), which has been referred to here as the accretion of the Precordillera-Mejillonia terrane. Geological evidence indicates a very important dynamical regime of more or less continuous convergence. The magnitude of this process is documented by a well-developed Late Ordovician volcanic and plutonic belt (7 in Fig. 11) known as the Famatinian magmatic arc (Aceñolaza and Toselli 1989). This magmatic arc, related to an A-type eastward subduction, originated on an attenuate CABA continental crust. A plutonic belt with peraluminous affinity was emplaced at a similar time in the back arc, presently known as the western Pampean ranges (see Fig. 11; Rapella et al. 1990; Toselli 1992). This plutonism is also very well documented in the Puna and the Eastern Cordillera, where it is associated with continuous gravity anomalies (2 in Fig. 5) and includes areas of concentrated mineral resources.
 4. A similar A-type eastward subduction was responsible for the final assembly of the proto-Gondwana terranes by amalgamation of the Chilenia terrane in the Late Paleozoic (Ramos et al. 1984). This collision marks the Chañic diastrophic phase (Early Carboniferous), which led to a new Pangea and to the start of the Gondwana cycles.

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