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Petrology and geochemistry of the Lyngdal granodiorite (Southern Norway) and the role of fractional crystallisation in the genesis of Proterozoic ferro-potassic A-type granites

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Abstract

In south-western Norway, the Sveconorwegian orogenic thickening (1024–970 Ma) is followed by an important post-collisional magmatism (950–930 Ma), divided in two suites (Vander Auwera et al., 2003): the Anorthosite–Mangerite–Charnockite suite (AMC suite) and the Hornblende–Biotite Granitoids suite (HBG suite). The HBG suite displays a continuous trend from gabbro-norites to granites.

This paper presents the petrography and geochemistry (major and trace elements, Sr–Nd isotopes) of the Lyngdal granodiorite and associated massifs (Tranevåg and Red Granite massifs) which belong to the HBG suite, although being very close to the anorthosite massifs. Mafic microgranular enclaves (MME), resulting from magma mingling, can be abundant and probably correspond to the parent magma of the studied plutons. The Lyngdal granodiorite and associated massifs are subalkaline, metaluminous A-type granitoids with high $\text{FeO}_t/(\text{FeO}_t+\text{MgO})$ ratio and K_2O content, forming a ferro-potassic A-type continuous trend from quartz monzodiorite to granite (56–72 wt.% SiO_2). In Harker diagrams, the Lyngdal–Tranevåg plutons share the Proterozoic rapakivi granites trend that they extend to lower SiO_2 content. Major and trace element modelling, as well as Sr–Nd isotopes, show that fractional crystallisation—without assimilation—is the differentiation process for Lyngdal–Tranevåg. Fractionating minerals are clinopyroxene, hornblende, plagioclase, oxides, biotite, apatite, zircon and allanite. The Red Granite (71–75 wt.% SiO_2) does not belong to this trend probably due to a different initial magma composition.

This study shows that ferro-potassic A-type granitoids can be derived by fractional crystallisation from mafic magmas.

Author Keywords : Norway; Sveconorwegian; Post-collisional; A-type; Granitoids; Liquid line of descent

1. Introduction

High-K and high $[\text{FeO}_t/(\text{FeO}_t+\text{MgO})]$ granitoids witness a major crustal process during the Proterozoic. They are mainly metaluminous to weakly peraluminous A-type granites and are often associated with anorthosites and related rocks (Emslie, 1991). Classical occurrences are

the Finnish rapakivi granites ([Haapala and Ramo, 1990](#) and [Ramo and Haapala, 1995](#)), the Wolf River batholith of Wisconsin ([Anderson and Cullers, 1978](#)), the Nain Complex ([Emslie and Stirling, 1993](#) and [Emslie et al., 1994](#)) and the Sherman batholith associated with the Laramie Anorthosite Complex ([Frost and Frost, 1997](#) and [Frost et al., 1999](#)). These granitoids commonly exhibit the rapakivi texture, at least in some part of the intrusions, and thus are rapakivi granites following the definition of [Haapala and Rämö \(1992\)](#). These massifs have low fO_2 ($fO_2 < FMQ$) and have been referred as ‘reduced rapakivi-type granites’ by [Frost and Frost \(1997\)](#). Anderson and coauthors ([Anderson, 1983](#); [Anderson and Bender, 1989](#) and [Anderson and Morrison, 1992](#)) divide the metaluminous Proterozoic A-type granites of North America in two series: the ilmenite-series and the magnetite series, underlying their variability in fO_2 . Granitoids associated with anorthosite massifs are classified in the ilmenite-series (Frost & Frost, 1997). Above-mentioned authors argue for a low-water content of these granitoids on the basis of the paucity of pegmatites and of the late crystallisation of the hydrous minerals. Recently, however, [Dall’Agnol et al. \(1999b\)](#) have shown that some metaluminous A-type magmas can be quite oxidised and H₂O-rich, with estimated initial water content between 4.5 and 6.5 wt.% for the Jamon Granite during emplacement in upper crust. This granite has been linked to the rapakivi group by [Dall’Agnol et al. \(1999a\)](#) on the basis of geochemical arguments.

In Southern Norway, an important magmatism occurred at ca. 950–930 Ma and is divided in two suites by [Vander Auwera et al. \(2003\)](#): an anhydrous suite i.e. Anorthosite–Mangerite–Charnockite suite (AMC suite) and a suite of metaluminous A-type granitoids with hornblende and biotite i.e. Hornblende–Biotite Granitoids suite (HBG suite). This region is of particular interest as anorthosite massifs and associated granitoids outcrop on large areas and have preserved their magmatic paragenesis (no metamorphic overprint and alteration). The AMC suite has already been the subject of a considerable attention (e.g. [Longhi et al., 1999](#) and references therein) but modern data are lacking for the HBG suite. The present study focuses on the Lyngdal granodiorite and associated plutons (Tranevåg and the Red Granite), which belongs to the HBG suite and presents new data (major and trace elements and Sr–Nd isotopic data). The Lyngdal granodiorite is a huge massif (ca. 300 km²) that, together with small granitoid bodies (the Tranevåg massif and the Red Granite), forms the southernmost outcropping massifs of the HBG suite ([Fig. 1](#)). Among the whole HBG suite, Lyngdal is also the geographically closest massif to the anorthosites. The aim of this paper is to characterise the Lyngdal granodiorite and its associated plutons, to discuss their origin, and to compare these plutons to other hornblende–biotite granitoids (including the rapakivi granites) associated with anorthosites.

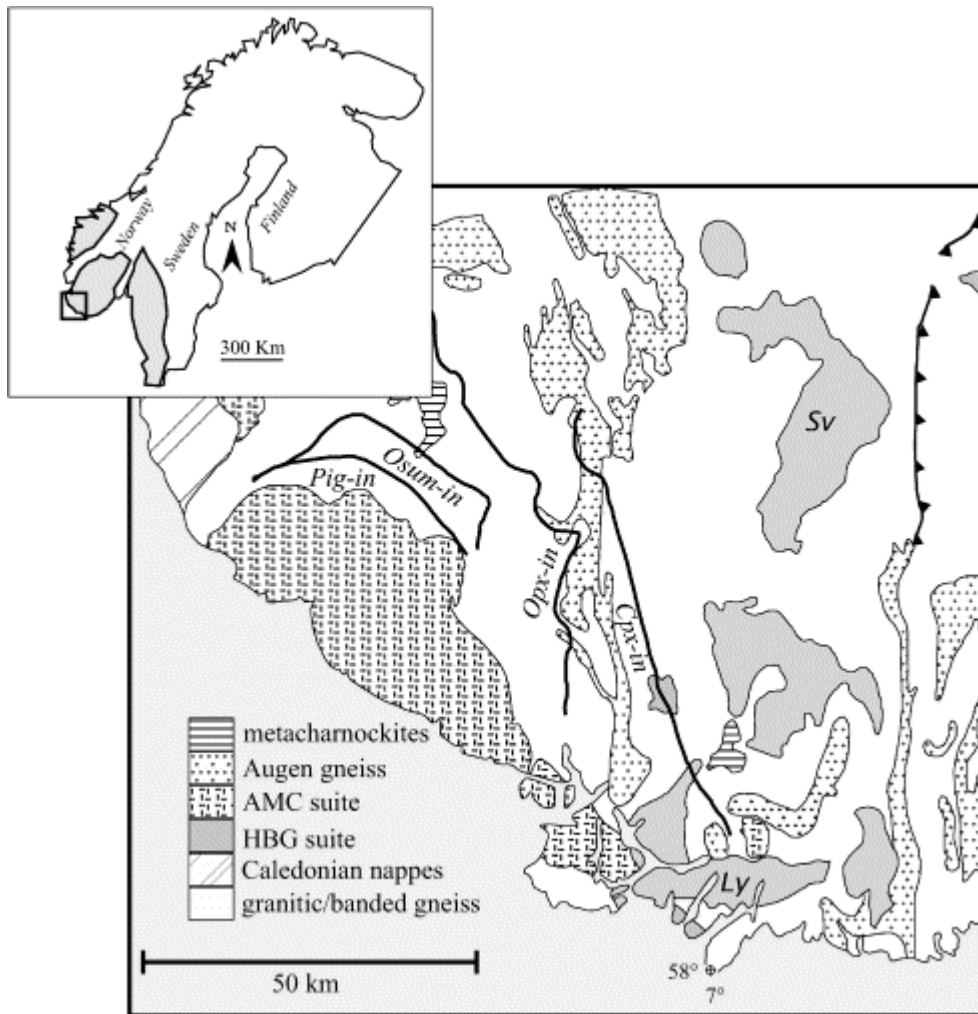


Fig. 1. Schematic geological map of the south-western part of the Sveconorwegian orogen (see inset for the area of the Sveconorwegian orogen, in grey, covered by the figure) simplified from [Falkum \(1982\)](#). Pig-in (pigeonite-in), Osum-in (osumilite-in), Opx-in (orthopyroxene-in) and Cpx-in (clinopyroxene-in): see [Bingen and van Breemen \(1998b\)](#) for complete references. Ly: Lyngdal, Sv: Svöfjell.

2. Geological setting

The Sveconorwegian province forms the south-western part of the Baltic shield (inset of [Fig. 1](#)) and is the result of two important orogenies: the Gothian orogeny (1750–1500 Ma) and the Sveconorwegian orogeny (1250–950 Ma). This province is made up of several terranes ([Bingen et al., 2001](#)) separated by major North-South faults and shear zones. In the Rogaland-Vest Agder sector, the regional metamorphic phase linked to the Sveconorwegian orogenic thickening is dated at 1024–970 Ma by U–Pb on monazite ([Bingen and van Breemen, 1998b](#)) and reached granulitic facies ([Bingen and Stein, 2001](#)) in the west of the Rogaland-Vest Agder (Opx-in isograd). This phase of regional metamorphism shortly follows an important syn-kinematic calc-alkaline magmatism dated at $1050^{+2/-8}$ Ma (U–Pb on zircon) in the Rogaland-Vest Agder sector ([Bingen and van Breemen, 1998a](#)). A high-temperature/low-pressure static metamorphism in granulitic facies is dated at 930–925 Ma ([Bingen and van Breemen, 1998b](#)). This metamorphism is linked to the emplacement of the Rogaland anorthositic complex (931±2 Ma: [Schärer et al., 1996](#)) and is well marked by the osumilite-in

and pigeonite-in isograds wrapping the magmatic complex (Fig. 1). A temperature of 850–800 °C and a pressure of 5.5 kbar west of the osumilite-in isograd were estimated by Jansen et al. (1985) and Holland et al. (1996) on the basis of mineral equilibria. Vander Auwera et al. (1998b) have shown that the pyroxene composition obtained from experiments on a jotunite, constrains pressure of emplacement to be lower than 5 kbar, in agreement with estimates of the pressure of crystallisation of the Bjerkreim-Sokndal intrusion (Vander Auwera and Longhi, 1994).

An important late hornblende–biotite granite (HBG) event is temporally and spatially associated with the Rogaland AMC complex. This HBG suite is dominated in Vest Agder by large plutons (e.g. Lyngdal and Svöfjell intrusions, Fig. 1) stretching along the Mandal-Ustaoset Line (Vander Auwera et al., 2003). This magmatism is considered to be post-collisional because it post-dates the collisional tectono-metamorphic event by some tens of million years, but is still linked to the convergence process (Liégeois, 1998) as shown for instance by its emplacement controlled by orogenic structures (Duchesne et al., 1999).

3. Field relationships, petrography and mineral chemistry

3.1. Field relationships

The Lyngdal granodiorite (Fig. 2) and the associated granitoids (Tranevåg and the Red Granite) commonly display a syn-magmatic foliation well shown by the mafic minerals. This foliation can be concordant or have a sharp contact with the foliation of the gneissic country-rocks (Falkum et al., 1979). The latter can be homogeneous granitic gneisses, often migmatitic banded gneisses with alternating mafic (amphibolites/norites) and quartzofeldspathic layers (Falkum et al., 1979 and Falkum, 1982) and augen gneisses. The protoliths of these augen gneisses are calc-alkaline granitoids emplaced syntectonically during the Sveconorwegian orogeny at $1050^{+2/-8}$ Ma (Bingen, 1989 and Bingen and van Breemen, 1998b).

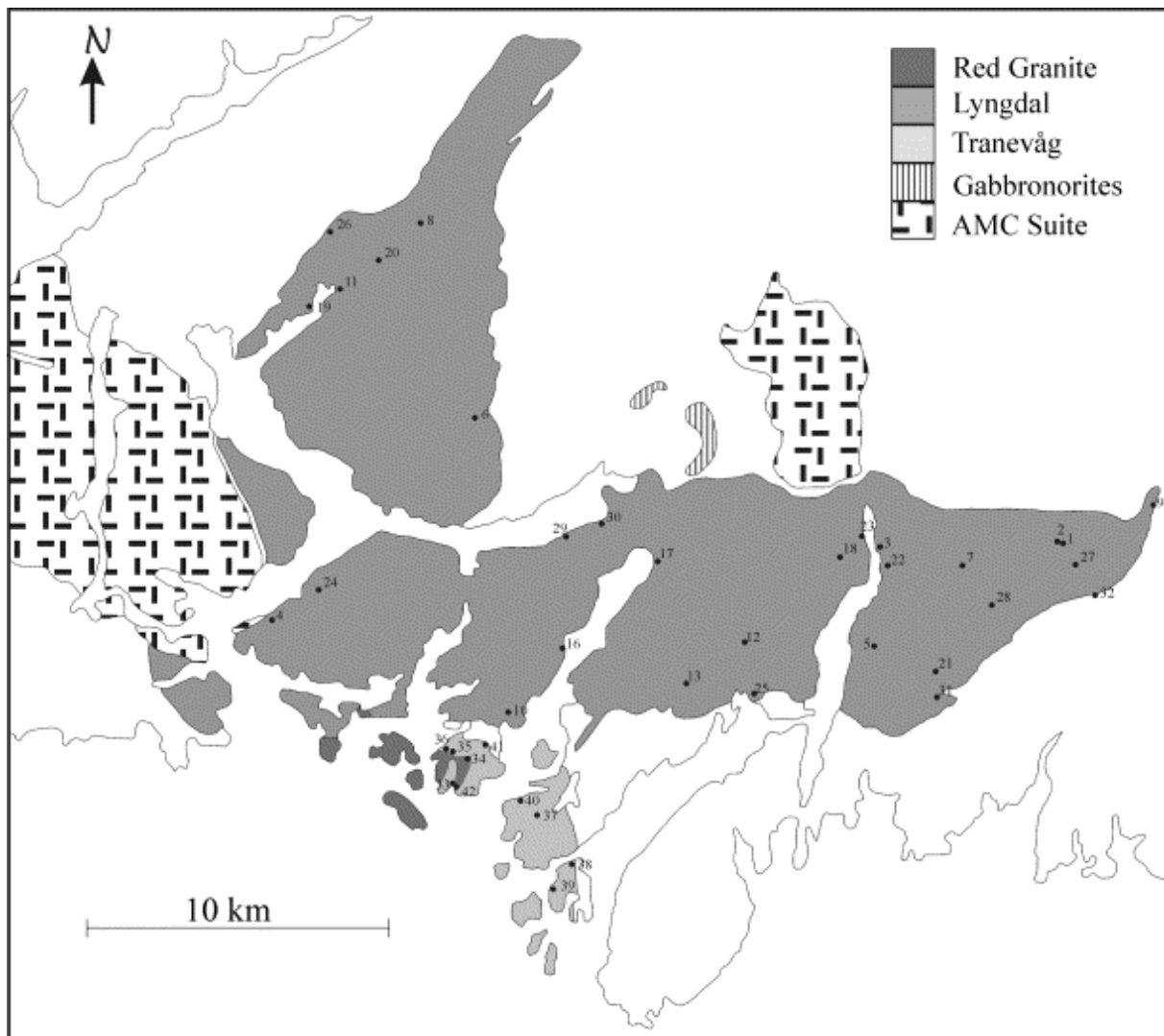


Fig. 2. Sketch map of the Lyngdal complex (Lyngdal granodiorite, Tranevåg and the Red Granite) simplified from [Falkum \(1982\)](#). Dots are the location of the analysed (major and trace elements) samples

The very homogeneous Lyngdal granodiorite contains two kinds of enclaves: (1) angular gneissic enclaves (a few decimetres to several tens of metres in size) locally very abundant near the contacts and (2) oblate mafic microgranular enclaves with an average size of ca. 20 cm. The Tranevåg massif is very similar to the Lyngdal granodiorite but the more differentiated rocks are granitic in composition (see the following). The eastern border of the Tranevåg massif is very rich in crustal xenoliths aligned along both the foliation of the pluton and of the gneissic country-rocks. A porphyritic granite, called the Red Granite due to its coloured alkali feldspar, outcrops near the Tranevåg massif ([Fig. 2](#)). [Falkum et al. \(1979\)](#) suggested that the Red Granite post-dates the Tranevåg massif but their mutual relationships are actually difficult to establish. A large zone of enclaves occurs in the Tranevåg massif, near the contact with the Red Granite (#33 on [Fig. 2](#)). Most enclaves are gneissic but some are also oblate mafic microgranular enclaves of metre size. Some of these mafic enclaves contain plagioclase phenocrysts from the host granite, demonstrating a magma mingling process. Pegmatites are widespread in the three plutons and variable in size (from a centimetre large to few decametres). They are abundant near the contacts of the intrusions. Two small undeformed intrusions gabbronorites (called hyperites by [Falkum \(1982\)](#)) outcrop near the

Lyngdal granodiorite (Fig. 2). These intrusions were dated at 910 ± 82 Ma (Rb–Sr isochron: Demaiffe et al., 1990).

3.2. Petrography and mineral chemistry

3.2.1. Lyngdal and Tranevåg massifs

Most of the rocks are porphyritic with plagioclase and alkali feldspar phenocrysts up to 2 cm. The least differentiated facies contain only plagioclase phenocrysts. The matrix consists of the same minerals plus quartz and aggregates of mafic minerals (amphibole, biotite, opaques, apatite, zircon, titanite, \pm allanite). In some samples, amphibole can contain core of clinopyroxene (samples 98N50, 98N29, MB9932: $\text{En}_{33}\text{Fs}_{20}\text{Wo}_{47}$).

Plagioclase is a weakly zoned andesine to oligoclase (Table 1) and there is no difference in composition between phenocrysts and matrix plagioclase. They contain inclusions of opaque minerals and commonly form myrmekites at the contact with alkali feldspar. Alkali feldspar varies from perthitic orthoclase to perthitic microcline and often contains inclusions of quartz and plagioclase. Amphibole is a hornblende (magnesian-hastingsitic, edenitic, ferro-edenitic hornblendes: Leake, 1978) and is anhedral to euhedral (Table 2). The X_{Fe} [Fe/(Fe+Mg) cationic ratio] varies between 0.44 and 0.58 and displays a positive correlation with the silica content in the whole rock. Biotite is subhedral to euhedral and its proportion increases with the silica content of the rock; in the granites, biotite is more abundant than amphibole. The X_{Fe} ratio in Lyngdal biotite varies between 0.47 and 0.51 whereas that of Tranevåg has a X_{Fe} increasing with SiO_2 from 0.36 to 0.49 (Table 3). These X_{Fe} are much lower than in the reduced rapakivi granites (e.g. Sherman, Umiak, Wiborg) but are similar to the more oxidised Proterozoic granitoids (e.g. Jamon). Magnetite is the dominant oxide, with minor ilmenite. Both have been re-equilibrated below the solidus and are often surrounded by a corona of titanite.

	Lyngdal				Tranevåg						Enclave	
	98N34		98N50		VDA9925		VDA9926		VDA9927		VDA9912	
	Core	Rim	Core	Rim			Core	Rim	Core	Rim		
SiO ₂	61.05	61.31	61.90	62.25	61.62	61.61	61.48	62.17	62.82	62.93	62.27	62.13
Al ₂ O ₃	24.92	24.56	24.35	24.02	23.97	23.92	23.93	23.73	23.15	23.23	23.56	23.58
FeO	0.10	0.07	0.09	0.00	0.05	0.06	0.14	0.02	0.08	0.00	0.13	0.13
CaO	6.68	6.14	6.04	5.76	5.59	5.48	5.73	5.21	4.66	4.71	5.22	5.23
Na ₂ O	7.68	8.11	8.05	8.39	8.43	8.46	8.34	8.48	8.94	8.87	8.65	8.68
K ₂ O	0.31	0.29	0.35	0.25	0.34	0.38	0.36	0.38	0.25	0.24	0.17	0.21
Total	100.74	100.48	100.78	100.72	99.99	99.99	100.00	99.99	99.99	99.98	99.99	99.98
Structural formulae (8 O)												
Si	2.698	2.714	2.730	2.744	2.738	2.738	2.734	2.758	2.783	2.785	2.762	2.758
Al	1.298	1.281	1.265	1.248	1.255	1.253	1.255	1.240	1.209	1.211	1.231	1.233
Fe	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.005	0.001	0.003	0.000	0.005	0.005
Ca	0.316	0.291	0.285	0.272	0.266	0.261	0.273	0.248	0.221	0.223	0.248	0.249
Na	0.658	0.696	0.688	0.717	0.727	0.729	0.720	0.729	0.768	0.761	0.744	0.747
K	0.017	0.016	0.019	0.014	0.019	0.021	0.021	0.022	0.014	0.014	0.010	0.012
An	31.89	29.03	28.73	27.12	26.28	25.81	26.95	24.80	22.06	22.38	24.76	24.68
Ab	66.37	69.34	69.31	71.47	71.79	72.09	71.01	73.02	76.55	76.26	74.27	74.13
Or	1.75	1.63	1.96	1.41	1.92	2.10	2.04	2.18	1.39	1.37	0.97	1.19

Table 1. Plagioclase electron microprobe analyses

	Lyngdal				Tranevåg				Enclave				
	98N50	98N06	98N29	98N34	VDA9925	VDA9926	VDA9927	VDA9912					
SiO ₂	43.12	43.95	42.50	44.21	42.16	44.16	44.15	43.90	44.03	42.78	42.65	44.39	44.51
TiO ₂	1.84	1.92	1.59	1.90	1.99	1.70	1.63	1.39	1.52	1.40	1.57	1.19	1.27
Al ₂ O ₃	10.05	9.16	9.56	9.63	10.81	9.24	9.03	9.14	8.74	9.19	9.23	8.74	8.97
FeO	17.53	17.63	19.49	17.89	21.01	15.99	16.18	17.07	17.07	19.90	20.91	16.67	16.45
MnO	0.49	0.50	0.45	0.13	0.46	0.66	0.57	0.70	0.70	0.56	0.54	0.30	0.34
MgO	10.57	10.12	8.73	10.61	8.37	11.44	11.29	10.60	10.77	8.59	8.41	11.12	11.31
CaO	11.34	11.89	11.81	11.14	10.87	11.93	11.87	11.76	11.66	11.60	11.63	12.14	12.14
Na ₂ O	1.69	1.76	1.81	1.77	1.84	1.63	1.65	1.92	1.91	1.93	1.95	1.79	1.66
K ₂ O	1.39	1.46	1.61	1.23	1.56	1.45	1.47	1.52	1.52	1.61	1.59	1.54	1.55
F	0.94	0.71	1.08	0.79	1.06	0.70	0.72	1.37	1.37	1.33	1.34	1.39	1.38
Cl	0.16	0.13	0.19	0.14	0.33	0.24	0.23	0.17	0.16	0.19	0.19	0.05	0.05
O = F, Cl	99.12	99.23	98.82	99.44	100.46	99.14	98.78	99.54	99.45	99.08	100.00	99.32	99.62
Total	98.69	98.90	98.32	99.08	99.94	98.79	98.43	98.92	98.83	98.47	99.39	98.73	99.03
H ₂ O ^a	1.50	1.62	1.39	1.59	1.39	1.61	1.59	1.29	1.29	1.26	1.27	1.32	1.33
Total	100.19	100.52	99.71	100.67	101.32	100.40	100.02	100.21	100.12	99.74	100.66	100.04	100.36
Structural formulae (23 O)													
Si	6.513	6.624	6.541	6.619	6.410	6.618	6.646	6.636	6.661	6.597	6.548	6.694	6.679
Ti	0.209	0.218	0.184	0.214	0.228	0.192	0.184	0.158	0.173	0.162	0.181	0.135	0.143
Al	1.789	1.626	1.735	1.699	1.937	1.632	1.602	1.628	1.558	1.671	1.670	1.553	1.586
Fe	2.214	2.222	2.509	2.240	2.671	2.003	2.037	2.158	2.159	2.566	2.685	2.103	2.065
Mn	0.063	0.064	0.059	0.016	0.059	0.083	0.072	0.090	0.090	0.073	0.070	0.038	0.043
Mg	2.380	2.273	2.003	2.368	1.897	2.555	2.534	2.389	2.429	1.975	1.925	2.500	2.530
Ca	1.835	1.920	1.948	1.787	1.771	1.916	1.915	1.904	1.890	1.916	1.913	1.962	1.951
Na	0.495	0.514	0.539	0.514	0.542	0.474	0.482	0.563	0.560	0.576	0.580	0.525	0.484
K	0.268	0.281	0.317	0.235	0.303	0.278	0.281	0.293	0.293	0.317	0.310	0.295	0.297
F	0.449	0.338	0.526	0.374	0.510	0.332	0.341	0.655	0.657	0.650	0.651	0.662	0.653
Cl	0.041	0.032	0.050	0.036	0.085	0.062	0.059	0.044	0.042	0.049	0.049	0.014	0.014
Al ^{IV}	1.487	1.376	1.459	1.381	1.590	1.382	1.354	1.364	1.339	1.403	1.452	1.306	1.321
Al ^{VI}	0.302	0.250	0.276	0.318	0.347	0.250	0.247	0.265	0.219	0.267	0.218	0.248	0.264
p ^b	4.1	3.4	3.9	3.7	4.7	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.6	3.6	3.1	3.2
X _{Fe}	0.48	0.49	0.56	0.49	0.58	0.44	0.45	0.47	0.47	0.57	0.58	0.46	0.45

X_{Fe} is the cationic ratio Fe/(Fe + Mg).

a Water calculated to fill up the (OH, F, Cl) group.

b Pressure (in kilobars) given by the Al-in-hornblende geobarometer of Johnson and Rutherford (1989).

Table 2. Amphibole electron microprobe analyses

	Lyngdal			Tranevåg			Red Granite	Enclave
	98N18	98N34	98N06	VDA9925	VDA9926	VDA9927	VDA9911	VDA9912
SiO ₂	36.62	36.79	37.70	38.59	38.30	37.39	39.71	38.15
TiO ₂	3.71	4.3	3.13	3.29	3.68	2.91	1.77	3.32
Al ₂ O ₃	14	13.51	12.94	13.22	12.63	12.22	11.95	12.58
FeO	21.17	20.88	19.17	15.20	16.73	20.05	13.73	16.08
MnO	0.21	0.17	0.33	0.31	0.30	0.25	0.68	0.11
MgO	11.33	11.23	12.26	15.11	14.02	11.86	15.98	14.43
CaO	0.1	0	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.00	0.02
Na ₂ O	0.07	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.06	0.13	0.07
K ₂ O	9.25	9.58	10.28	10.51	10.41	10.17	10.60	10.31
F	1.63	1.92	2.19	1.61	2.69	1.95	5.16	2.94
Cl	0.21	0.26	0.19	0.31	0.19	0.19	0.29	0.05
O = F, Cl	98.3	98.73	98.29	98.24	99.07	97.08	100.00	98.08
	0.73	0.87	0.97	0.75	1.18	0.87	2.24	1.25
Total	97.57	97.86	97.32	97.49	97.89	96.22	97.76	96.83
H ₂ O ^a	3.11	2.96	2.84	3.19	2.66	2.90	1.46	2.55
Total	100.68	100.82	100.17	100.68	100.55	99.11	99.22	99.38
Structural formulae (22 O)								
Si	5.579	5.602	5.750	5.744	5.758	5.793	5.985	5.778
Ti	0.425	0.492	0.360	0.369	0.415	0.339	0.201	0.378
Al	2.514	2.425	2.327	2.319	2.237	2.232	2.122	2.246
Fe	2.697	2.659	2.446	1.892	2.103	2.597	1.731	2.037
Mn	0.027	0.022	0.043	0.040	0.039	0.033	0.087	0.014
Mg	2.573	2.549	2.786	3.352	3.142	2.738	3.589	3.256
Ca	0.016	0.000	0.002	0.004	0.002	0.006	0.000	0.004
Na	0.021	0.027	0.023	0.021	0.027	0.017	0.039	0.021
K	1.798	1.861	2.000	1.996	1.996	2.010	2.039	1.992
F	0.785	0.925	1.058	0.756	1.281	0.957	2.459	1.410
Cl	0.054	0.067	0.050	0.077	0.049	0.049	0.075	0.014
X _{Fe}	0.51	0.51	0.47	0.36	0.40	0.49	0.33	0.38

X_{Fe} is the cationic ratio Fe/(Fe + Mg).

^a Water calculated to fill up the (OH, F, Cl) group.

Table 3. Biotite electron microprobe analyses

Fig. 3 illustrates the sequence of crystallisation deduced from petrographical observations. Liquidus minerals are oxides, apatite and clinopyroxene. At lower temperature, as observed experimentally (Bogaerts et al., 2001), clinopyroxene breaks down to amphibole and is only recovered in natural samples as core in amphibole. Plagioclase is the first tectosilicate to crystallise, K-feldspar and quartz being late in the sequence of crystallisation.

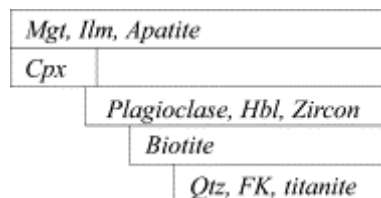


Fig. 3. Sequence of crystallisation for the Lyngdal granodiorite as deduced from petrographical observations. Mineral abbreviations: Mgt, magnetite; Ilm, ilmenite; Cpx, clinopyroxene; Hbl, hornblende; Qtz, quartz; FK, potassic feldspar.

3.2.2. The Red Granite

This is a porphyritic granite with red K-feldspar (perthitic microcline) and plagioclase as phenocrysts (sericitised); myrmekites are widespread. The matrix is composed of the same minerals with quartz and scarce biotite often chloritised. Biotite in the Red Granite has a lower X_{Fe} (ca. 0.33) and Ti content than Tranevåg biotite (X_{Fe} 0.49) and is very F-rich (above 5.12 wt.% F). Accessory minerals include opaques, apatite, zircon, allanite and fluorite. Fluorite is usually interleaved with biotite and seems to replace it.

3.2.3. Mafic microgranular enclaves

The enclaves have an equigranular structure (average grain size 0.5 mm), with elongated anhedral to euhedral plagioclase, amphibole and biotite. Amphibole and plagioclase are rich in oxides and apatite needles. Quartz is present in small amount. Zircon is only present as small inclusions in biotite. The mineral composition is similar to those of Lyngdal–Tranevåg massifs: plagioclase is weakly zoned (An_{25}), X_{Fe} is around 0.38 in biotite and around 0.46 in amphibole. Some euhedral plagioclases show an irregular overgrowth rim. These microstructures (elongate grain shapes, apatite needles, plagioclase overgrowths) reflect an igneous origin (Vernon, 1991).

3.3. Estimation of intensive parameters from mineral equilibria

Many experimental and empirical calibrations have been done to estimate pressure with the Al-in-hornblende geobarometer (Anderson and Smith, 1995 for a review). Studied granitoids contain the appropriate mineral assemblage to use these geobarometers (see Section 3.2). Amphiboles from the Lyngdal granodiorite give a pressure of ca. 4 kbar with the experimental calibration of Johnson and Rutherford (1989) while the calibration of Schmidt (1992) gives pressure higher by 1.3 kbar due to the temperature effect discussed by Anderson and Smith (1995). Amphiboles from the Tranevåg massif give a slightly lower pressure ($P < 3.6$ kbar) than those from the Lyngdal granodiorite. The stability of the assemblage titanite, magnetite and quartz implies that $f\text{O}_2$ was at least NNO (Wones, 1989).

4. Analytical methods and selected samples

Analysed samples include the Lyngdal granodiorite, the Tranevåg massif, the Red Granite and two samples of mafic enclaves (VDA9912 and MB2002). The analyses of gabbroites are from Demaiffe et al. (1990). X-ray fluorescence (CGR Lambda 2020 spectrometer and ARL 94000 XP, Université de Liège) was used to analyse major elements and some trace elements (Rb, Sr, Zr, Zn, Nb, Y). The sample preparation and analytical procedure is that described by Bologne and Duchesne (1991) for the CGR Lambda 2020 spectrometer. Other trace elements (REE, Y, Co, Cu, V, Cr, Ni, Ga, Hf, Nb, Ta, Pb, Th, U, Ba) were analysed by ICP-MS (VG Elemental Plasma Quad PQ2, Université de Liège) following the method described by Vander Auwera et al. (1998a).

Minerals have been analysed with the Cameca SX50 electron microprobe of the CAMST ('Centre d'Analyse par Microsonde pour les Sciences de la Terre', Louvain-La-Neuve) and the Cameca Camebax electron microprobe of 'Services Communs BRGM-CNRS-UO, Orléans'. Standards included natural minerals and synthetic compounds. For the Cameca SX50, the accelerating voltage was 15 kV and the beam current was 20 nA. Counting times

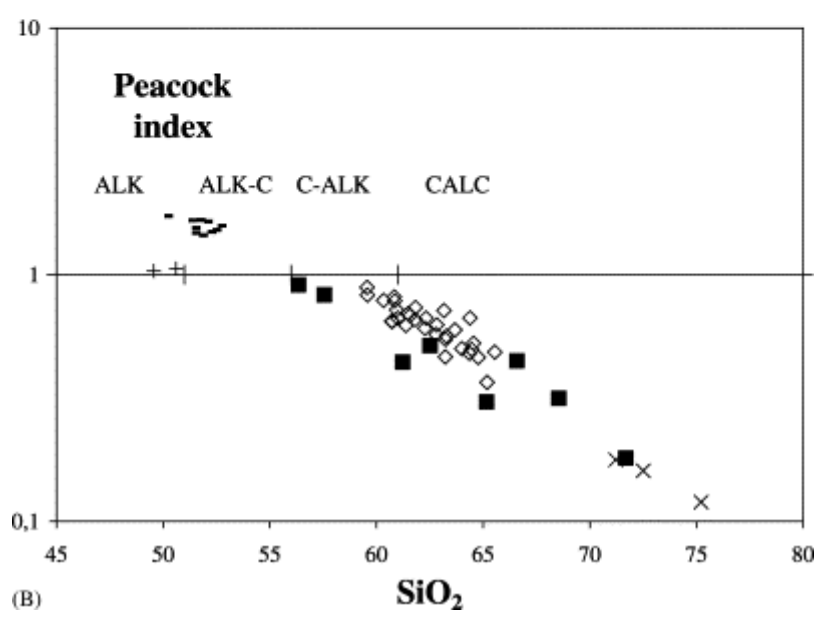
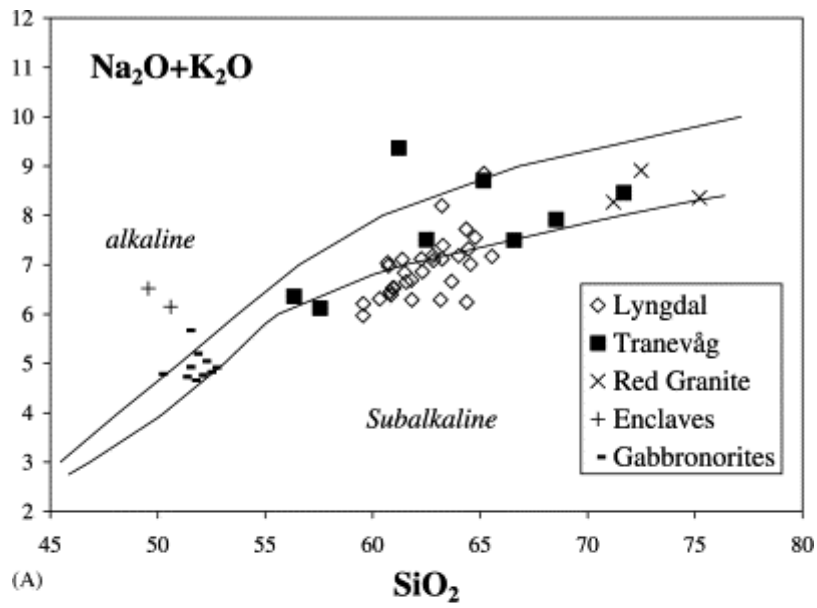
were 30 s except for Si (20 s), Mg (40 s), Ba (80 s) and F (60 s). For the Cameca Camebax, the accelerating voltage was 15 kV and the beam current was 12 nA. Counting times were 10 s, except for F and Cl (30 s).

The analytical procedure for Sr–Nd isotopic compositions is described below. After acid dissolution of the sample and Sr and Nd separation on ion-exchange resin, Sr isotopic compositions have been measured on Ta simple filament and Nd isotopic compositions on triple T–Re–Ta filament on a Micromass Sector 54. Repeated measurements of Sr and Nd standards have shown that between-run error is better than 0.000015. Within-run errors are generally lower. During the days of measurements, the NBS987 standard has given a value for $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ of 0.710274 ± 0.000011 (2σ on the mean, four measurements, normalised to $^{86}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr}=0.1194$) and the Rennes Nd standard a value for $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ of 0.511956 ± 0.000012 (2σ on the mean, eight measurements, normalised to $^{146}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}=0.7219$; Chauvel and Blichert-Toft, 2001), corresponding to a La Jolla value of 0.511851. All measured ratios have been recalculated to the recommended values of 0.71025 for NBS987 and 0.511963 for Rennes standard. Rb and Sr concentrations have been measured by X-ray fluorescence. The error on the Rb/Sr ratio is evaluated to be 4%. Sm and Nd concentrations were measured by ICP-MS. The Rb–Sr and Sm–Nd ages have been calculated following Ludwig (2001). Used decay constants (Steiger and Jäger, 1977) are $1.42 \times 10^{-11} \text{ a}^{-1}$ (^{87}Rb) and $6.54 \times 10^{-12} \text{ a}^{-1}$ (^{147}Sm).

5. Geochemistry

5.1. Results for granitoids

Whole rock analyses (major and trace elements) are listed in Table 4. All the analysed samples from the Lyngdal massif ranges between 59.6 and 65.6 wt.% SiO_2 . The Tranevåg samples show a larger trend between 56.3 and 71.7 wt.% SiO_2 . The Red Granite ranges between 71.2 and 75.2 wt.% SiO_2 . In the cationic classification of Debon and Le Fort (1988; Fig. 4), granitoids plot mostly between the quartz monzodiorite and granite field, through the granodiorite and adamellite (=monzogranite) fields. In TAS diagram (Total Alkali Silica, Fig. 5A), the rocks often straddle between the limits defined by Kuno and Irvine and Baragar (Rickwood, 1989) but only one Tranevåg sample is clearly located in the alkaline field (VDA9924). As the agpaitic index [molecular $(\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O})/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, Fig. 5C] of Lyngdal and Tranevåg is <0.87 (except sample VDA9924 from the Tranevåg massif), these two intrusions are subalkaline following Liégeois and Black (1987). All the three massifs are indeed metaluminous and the A/CNK ratio [molecular $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/(\text{CaO}+\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O})$] increases with the silica content. Fig. 5B show that the samples define a calc-alkaline trend in the Peacock diagram (and HKCA-shoshonitic after Peccerillo and Taylor, 1976; figure not shown) but the FeO_t/MgO ratio is too high to be characteristic of the calc-alkaline series. Indeed in the AFM diagram (Fig. 6), the Lyngdal trend is tholeiitic/alkaline. In comparison with HKCA post-collisional intrusions (e.g. Liégeois et al., 1998), the Lyngdal granodiorite is enriched in Ti, P, Fe, HFSE (e.g. Zr, Nb), REE (mainly the HREE), Y, Zn, strongly depleted in Al, Cr, Ni, V and slightly depleted in Mg and Ca. The K/Na ratio is also higher. The enrichment in Zr and REE gives an A-type character to these granitoids after the geochemical classification of Whalen et al. (1987). When compared to the mildly shoshonitic Tismana pluton (Duchesne et al., 1998), using the sliding normalisation proposed by Liégeois et al. (1998) where each studied rock is normalised to the interpolated rock from the reference series (the Yenchichi-Telabit series) that has the same silica content, the Lyngdal plutons appear distinct for HFSE and REE (Fig. 7). The Tismana pluton is also subalkaline, metaluminous to weakly



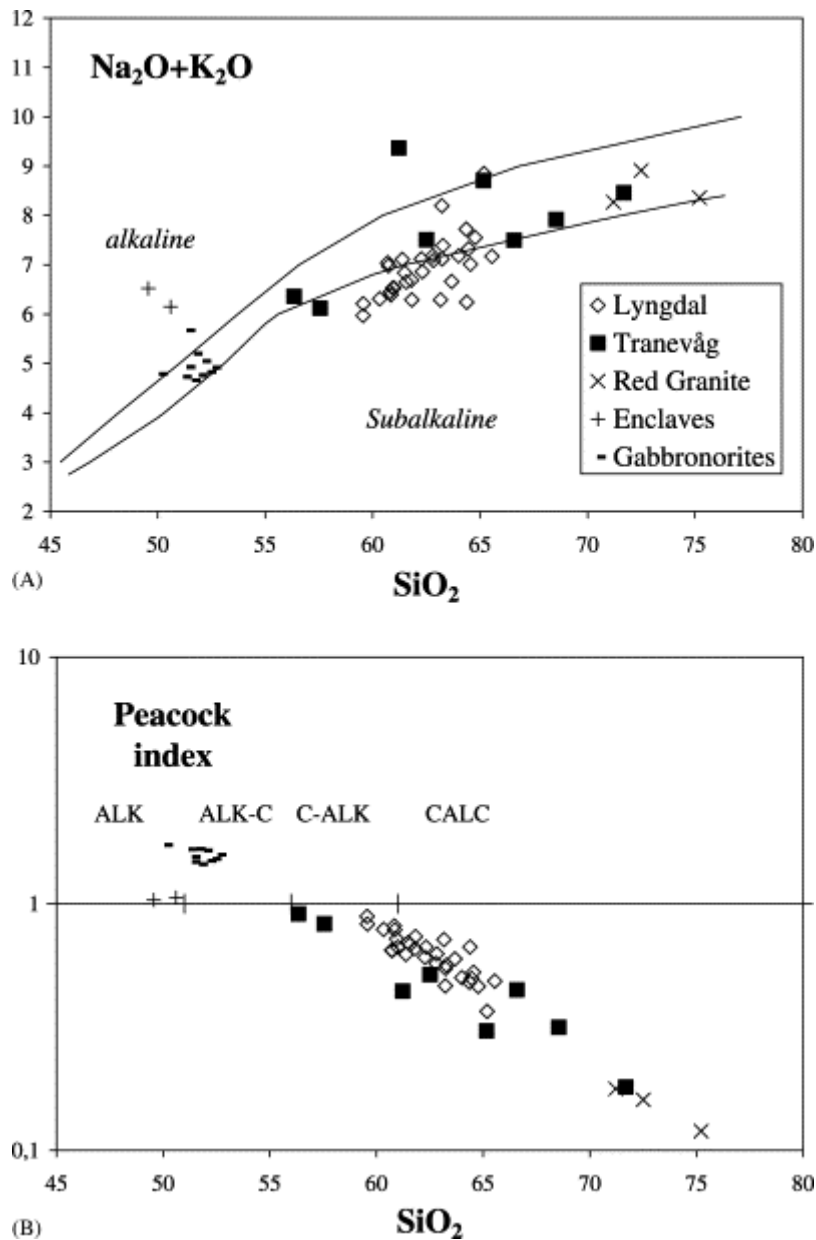


Fig. 5. Classification diagrams. (A) TAS diagram (wt.% $\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O}$ vs. SiO_2). The two boundaries between the subalkaline and alkaline domain are from Rickwood (1989). (B) Peacock index [wt.% $\text{CaO}/(\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O})$ vs. SiO_2]. ALK: alkaline, ALK-C: alkali-calcic, C-ALK: calc-alkaline, CALC: calcic. (C) Agpaitic index [molar $(\text{Na}+\text{K})/\text{Al}$]. The limit at $\text{AI}=0.87$ separates subalkaline metaluminous granitoids from alkaline metaluminous granitoids (Liégeois and Black, 1987).

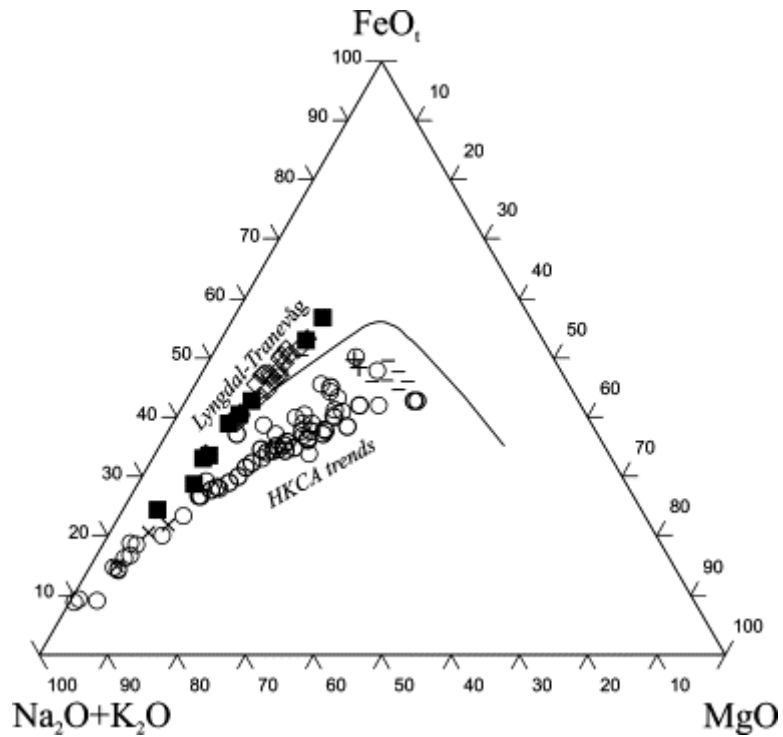


Fig. 6. AFM diagram. (A=Na₂O+K₂O, F=FeO_t, M=MgO). The boundary between the tholeiite and the calc-alkaline series is from Rickwood (1989). Same symbols as in Fig. 5 for the studied samples. Open circles are HKCA data from van Marcke de Lummen and Vander Auwera (1990), Feeley and Davidson (1994), Liégeois et al. (1998).

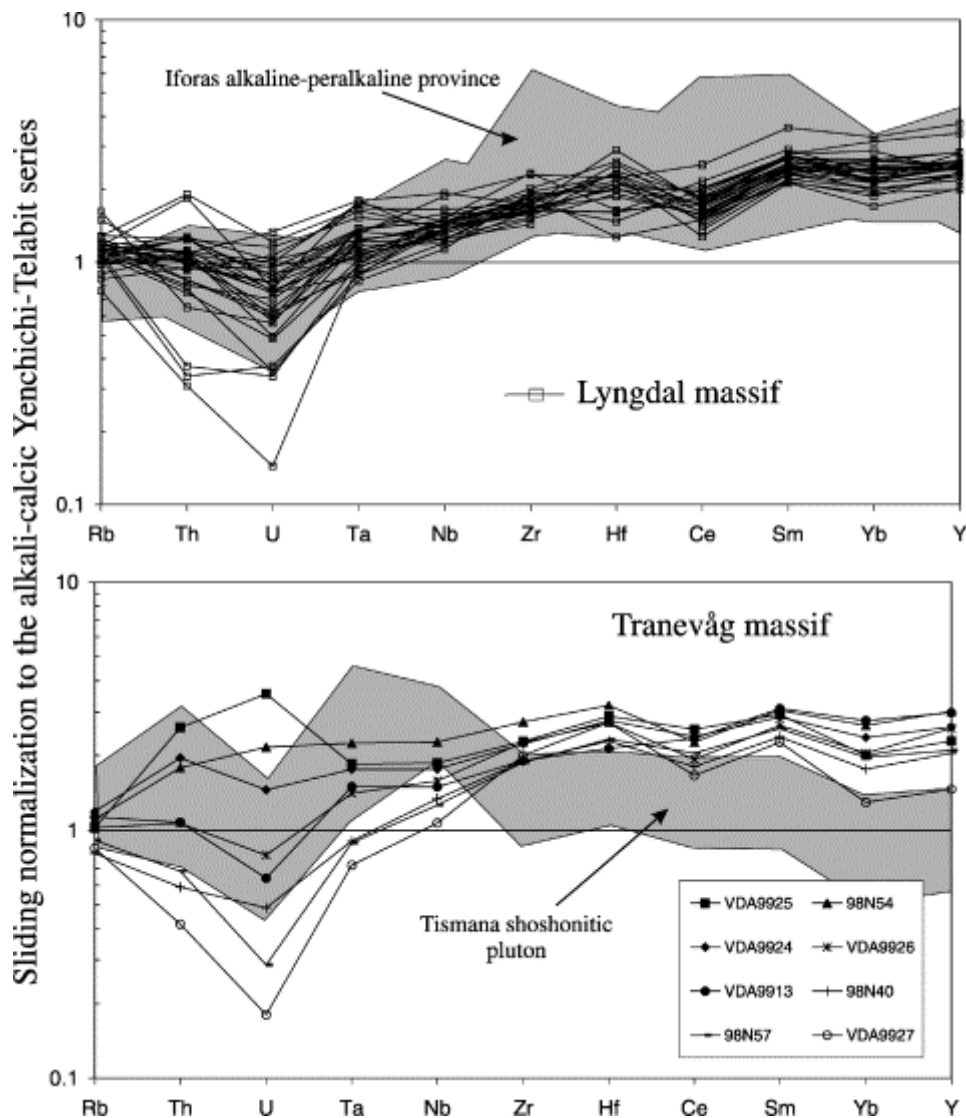


Fig. 7. Spidergrams normalised to the Yenchichi 2-Telabit series (NYTS, sliding normalisation). See text for explanations.

Fig. 8 and Fig. 9 show Harker diagrams for selected major and trace elements. The major elements define a similar trend for the three massifs. All elements clearly decrease as silica increases except for K_2O which increases and Al_2O_3 which is relatively constant. The X_{Fe} [$FeO_t/(FeO_t+MgO)$] increases continuously with SiO_2 in the Tranevåg massif (from 0.81 to 0.83), except one sample (VDA9920) with $X_{Fe}=0.78$. X_{Fe} from the Lyngdal granodiorite overlap with those of the Tranevåg massif except for some samples (in the west of the intrusion and at its eastern border) which have a slightly higher X_{Fe} ratio. The Red Granite has a lower X_{Fe} than the two other massifs (between 0.74 and 0.80). MORB-normalised diagram (Fig. 10) shows that trace elements are identical in the Lyngdal and Tranevåg massifs. They display the same enrichment in LILE and negative anomalies in Ti–Nb–Ta and P. Some trace elements (Fig. 9 and Fig. 10) distinguish the Lyngdal and Tranevåg massifs from the Red Granite, in particular Sr and Th that are significantly more abundant in the Red Granite. The REE (Fig. 11) also discriminate them: the $(La/Yb)_n$ ratio is always <16 for Lyngdal–Tranevåg and always >21 for the Red Granite. The $(Gd/Lu)_n$ ratio is low, between 1.78 and 2.94 and is similar in the three massifs. This rather flat MREE–HREE pattern indicates that garnet is neither a fractionating mineral nor a residual phase in the source of the granitoids. Sample VDA9920 (Tranevåg massif) has the same geochemical characteristics than the Red Granite and thus is out of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend for LREE, Th and Sr.

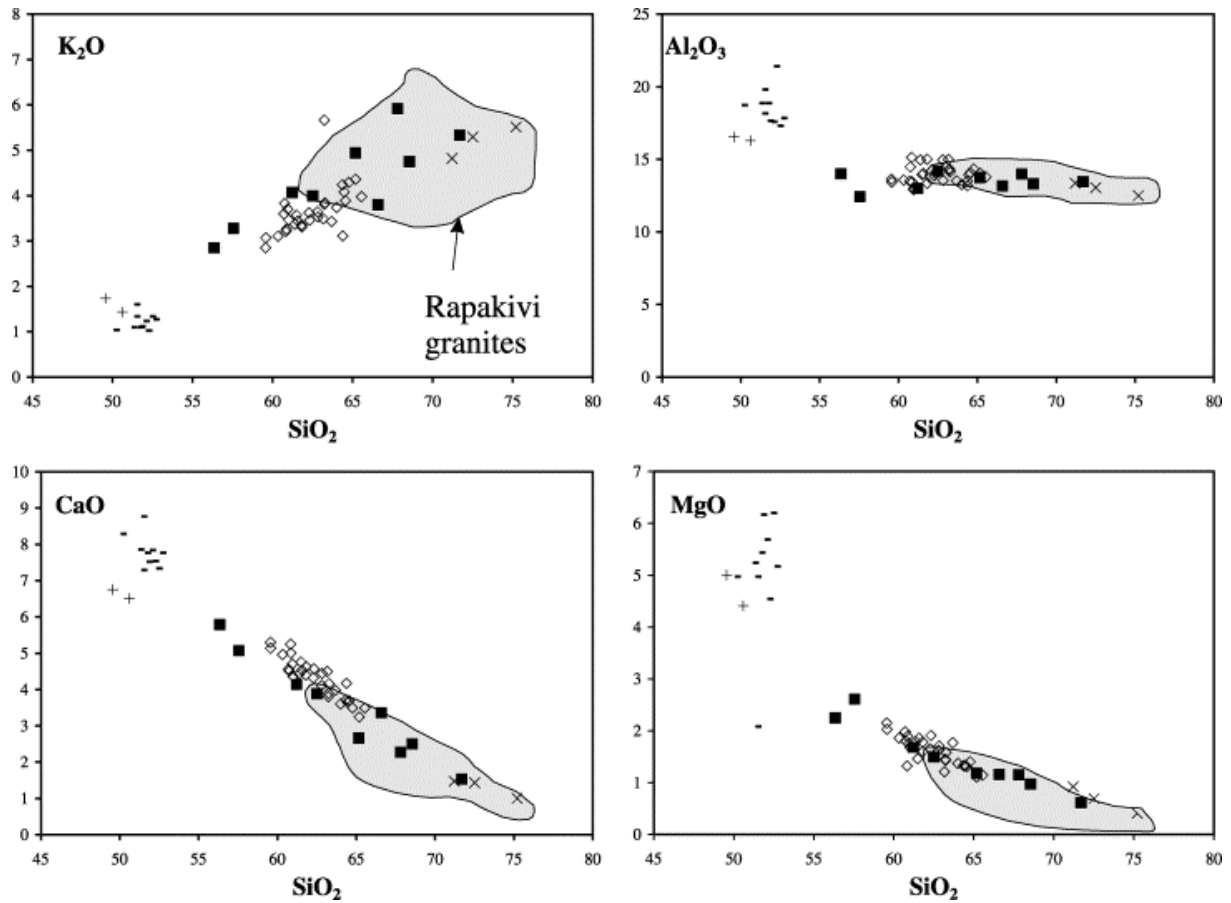


Fig. 8. Major element content (wt.%) vs. wt.% SiO₂. Rapakivi granites are shown as shaded fields (Jamon: [Dall'Agnol et al. \(1999c\)](#); Sherman granite: [Frost et al. \(1999\)](#); Finnish rapakivi granites: [Rämö and Haapala \(1995\)](#); NPS: [Emslie and Stirling \(1993\)](#); Proterozoic A-type granites of Southwest USA: [Anderson and Bender \(1989\)](#)).

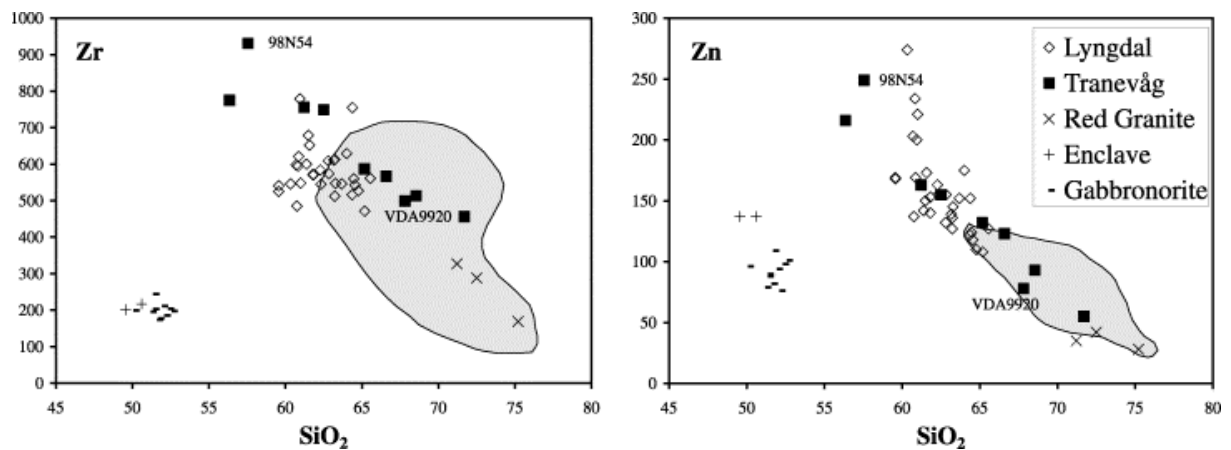


Fig. 9. Trace element content (ppm) vs. wt.% SiO₂.

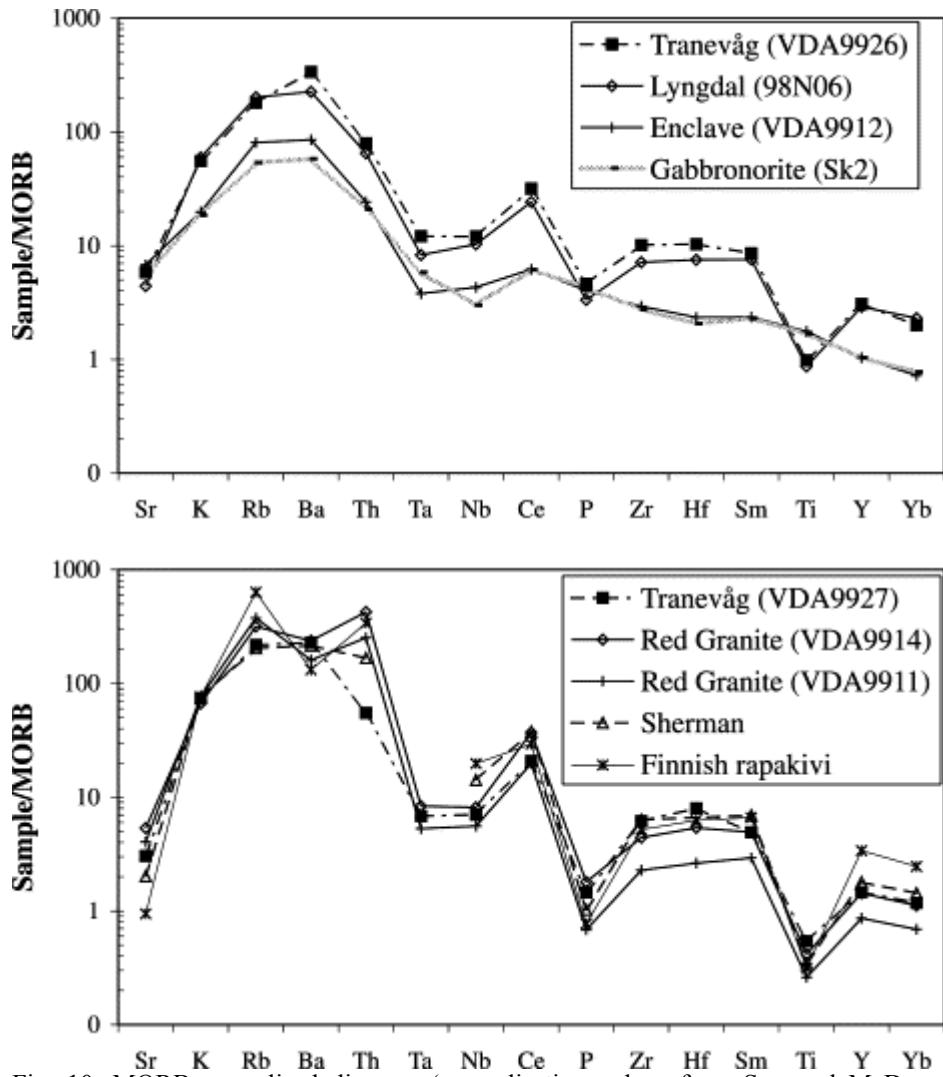


Fig. 10. MORB-normalised diagram (normalisation values from Sun and McDonough, 1989). Data for the Finnish rapakivi are from Rämö and Haapala (1995) and for the Sherman granite (sample 91smw28) from Frost et al. (1999).

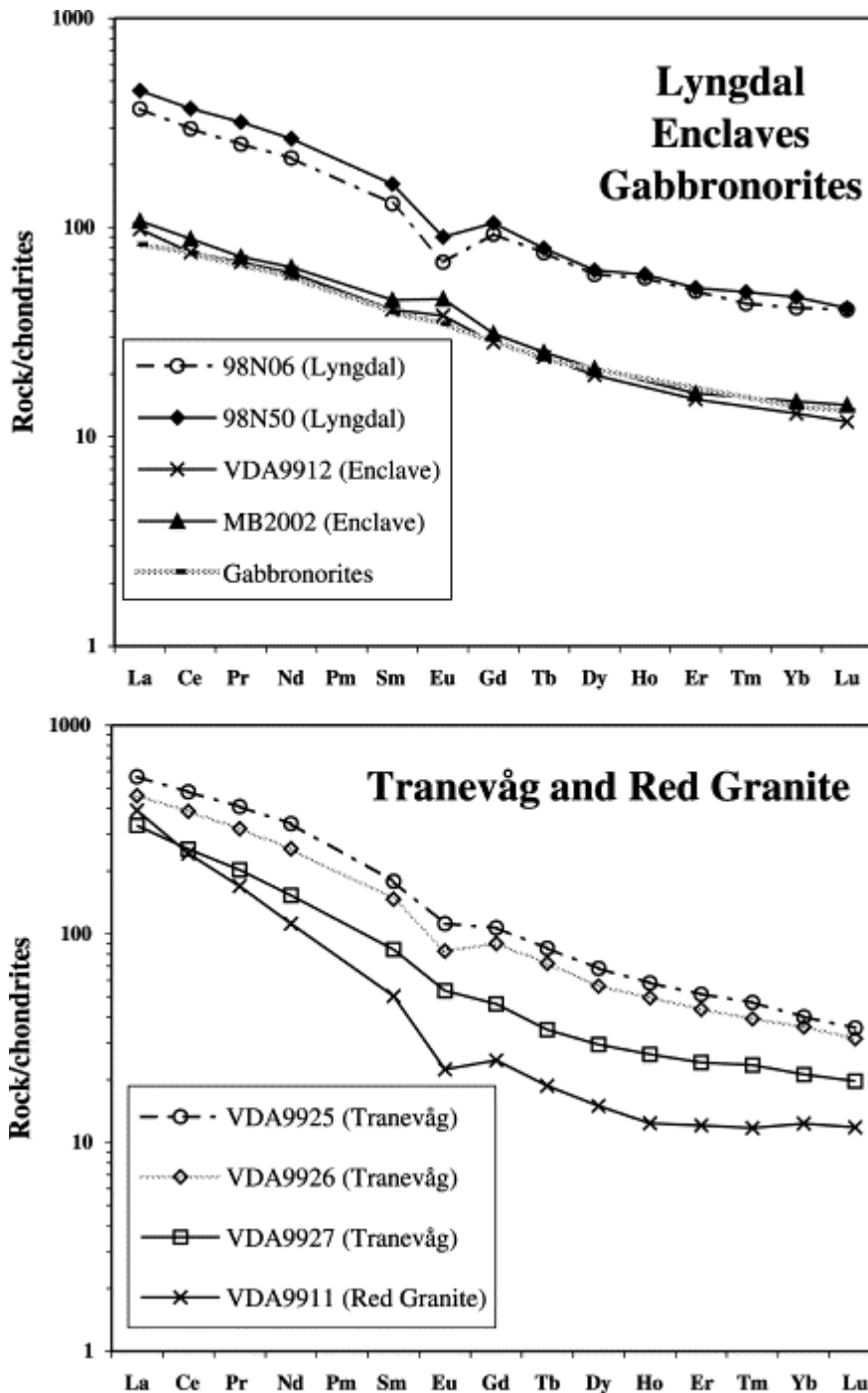


Fig. 11. Chondrite-normalised REE distribution (normalisation values from Sun and McDonough, 1989).

The Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend (from 56.3 to 71.7% SiO₂) belongs to the HBG trend (Vander Auwera et al., 2003) which continuously ranges from the gabbronorites (50% SiO₂) to granites (76.6% SiO₂). In this paper, we only discuss the differentiation process for Lyngdal, Tranevåg and the Red Granite. The evolution of the HBG trend from the gabbronorites is discussed in Vander Auwera et al. (2003). We have, however, plotted the shape of the HBG trend in the Sr versus SiO₂ diagram because samples from the Lyngdal and Tranevåg plutons are scattered for this element (even neglecting sample VDA9920), particularly for the least differentiated samples (98N54 and VDA9925). This diagram shows that sample VDA9925 plots on the HBG trend while the low-Sr content of 98N54, coupled with its low Ba and

Eu/Eu* (0.37 against 0.65–1.01 for all other samples) is probably due to subtracted feldspar. Sample VDA9925 is then used for representing the least differentiated composition of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend. The Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend and the Red Granite overlap with the rapakivi granites and extend their field to lower SiO₂ content (Fig. 8 and Fig. 9). Trace elements for rapakivi granites (Fig. 9) are widely scattered but they always display the same pattern in normalised multi-element diagrams, as illustrated in Fig. 10. In Norway, the intermediate composition (granodioritic) dominates over granites unlike in the Proterozoic rapakivi granite provinces.

5.2. Results for mafic microgranular enclaves

The studied mafic microgranular enclaves have a basaltic composition rich in Al₂O₃ (16 wt.%) and TiO₂ (2.25 wt.%). These enclaves have a major and trace elements (Fig. 8 and Fig. 9) composition close to the gabbro-norites (Demaiffe et al., 1990), with slightly lower Al₂O₃ and CaO content and higher Fe₂O_{3t} and Na₂O content. They display same REE patterns (Fig. 11) with positive Eu anomaly (1.89 and 1.10 for the mafic enclaves). In a MORB-normalised diagram (Fig. 10), mafic microgranular enclaves and gabbro-norites have a smoother pattern than granitoids, with only a weak negative anomaly in Nb–Ta.

6. Sr–Nd isotopic compositions

Seven samples from the Lyngdal granodiorite, five samples from the Tranevåg massif, one sample from the Red Granite and one mafic enclave sample have been selected for Sr and Nd isotopic analyses. Strontium and neodymium isotopic data are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Sr and Nd isotopes

ϵ_{Nd} are calculated relative to CHUR with the present value of $^{143}Nd/^{144}Nd=0.512638$ (Goldstein et al., 1984) and $^{147}Sm/^{143}Nd=0.1967$ (Jacobsen and Wasseburg, 1980). T_{DM} (depleted mantle model ages) are calculated following parameters of Nelson and DePaolo (1985).

A Rb–Sr isochron (calculations after Ludwig, 2001) has been obtained for the Tranevåg and Red Granite massifs (953±26 Ma, initial $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr=0.70409±0.00017$, MSWD=1.09, six whole rocks, Fig. 12). The Red Granite and sample VDA9920 being out of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend for some elements (Fig. 9 and Fig. 10) as well as for the Nd isotopic composition (see the following), the isochron built with all these samples is questionable. An isochron for the sole Tranevåg massif (except sample VDA9920) is also obtained, with an age similar to the combined Tranevåg–Red Granite isochron (963±31 Ma, initial $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr=0.70404±0.00019$, MSWD=1.4, four whole rocks).

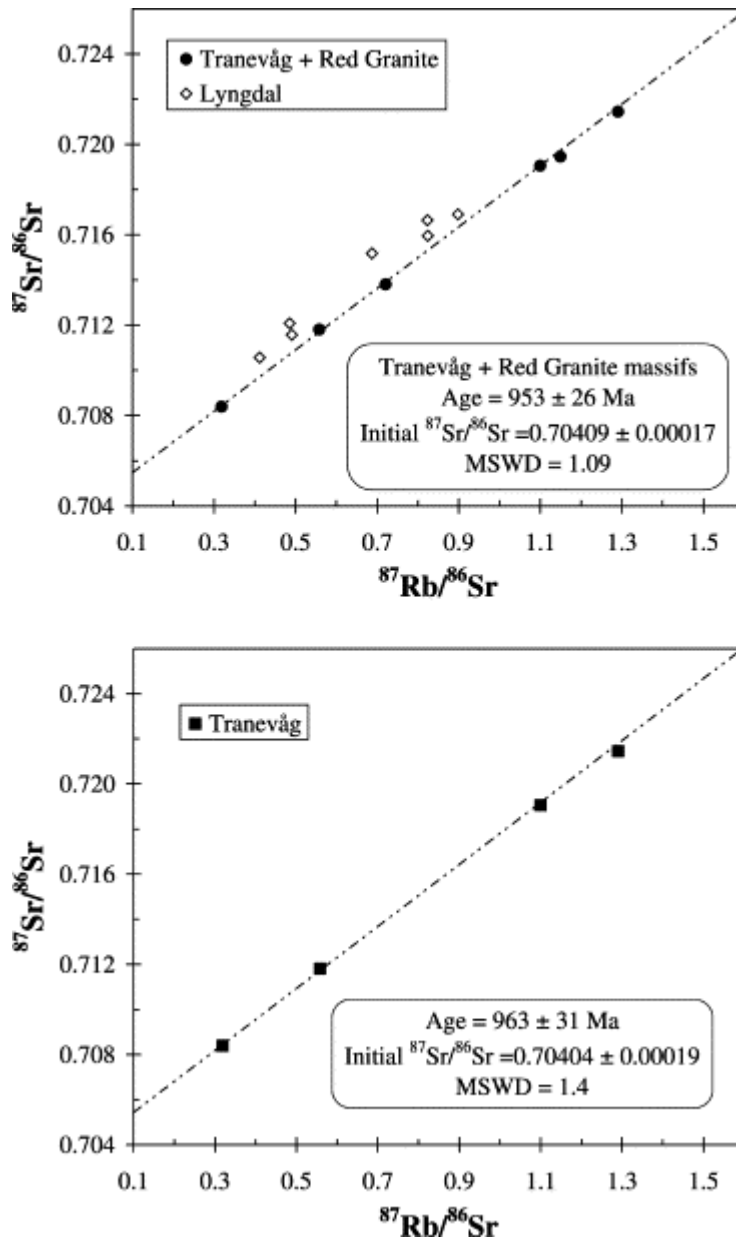


Fig. 12. Rb–Sr isochrons.

The Lyngdal granodiorite displays an errorchron (937 ± 170 Ma, initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.7054 \pm 0.0017$, $\text{MSWD} = 6.4$, seven whole rocks). An age of 932 ± 38 Ma (initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.7054 \pm 0.0005$, $\text{MSWD} = 0.43$, six whole rocks) was given by Pedersen and Falkum (1975). However, recalculated with the Ludwig's program this gives: 899 ± 87 Ma (initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.7055 \pm 0.0010$, $\text{MSWD} = 2.6$, six whole rocks, Model 1) or 886 ± 79 Ma (Model 3). Grouped with the samples from this study, this gives: 929 ± 57 Ma (initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.70531 \pm 0.00079$, $\text{MSWD} = 5.1$, fourteen whole rocks). This Rb–Sr age of 929 ± 57 Ma is similar within error limits to the U–Pb age obtained by the U–Pb method (950 ± 5 Ma; Pasteels et al., 1979).

Isotopic compositions have been recalculated at 950 Ma (U–Pb age; Fig. 13). The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_i$ ratio of Lyngdal ranges between 0.7047 and 0.7058, being systematically slightly higher than the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_i$ ratios of the Tranevåg (0.7039–0.7042) and Red Granite (0.7038) massifs. The analysed MME has $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_i = 0.7038$. Nd isotopic compositions at 950 Ma vary from $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}} = +0.65$ (MME) to -3.36 . ϵ_{Nd} from Lyngdal and Tranevåg granitoids are restricted to the

range -0.78 to -2.74 . The slightly positive ϵ_{Nd} of the MME ($+0.68$) is comparable to the ϵ_{Nd} calculated at 950 Ma ($+0.4/+1.9$) for the gabbro-norites (DemaiFFE et al., 1990). The isotopic composition of the Lyngdal complex is identical to the other HBG granitoids (Fig. 13) and is clearly distinct in Sr_i from the country-rocks. Isotopic initial ratios within a single massif are relatively constant whatever the silica content (Fig. 13) even if variations exceed analytical errors, particularly for ϵ_{Nd} . A major observation is the decoupling between Sr and Nd isotopic initial ratios when comparing the gabbro-norites and the granitoids: between 50 and 73 wt.% SiO_2 , Sr_i varies from 0.7038 to 0.7058, the variation being linked to plutons and not to silica. In other words, the gabbro-norites display the same Sr_i range than the granitoids. Taking into account the sole granitoids, there is no ϵ_{Nd} variation with SiO_2 . This also holds for the other HBG granitoids (Vander Auwera et al., 2003): as for Sr, the spread of ϵ_{Nd} is linked to plutons and not to silica. However, in contrast with Sr_i , ϵ_{Nd} for the gabbro-norites is positive (as for the MME) while the ϵ_{Nd} for the granitoids is negative, as previously said. The result in the ϵ_{Nd} versus Sr_i diagram (Fig. 13) is a trend roughly parallel to the Y axis. This could suggest a Rb-depleted lower crust either as a heterogeneous source or as a contaminant for a juvenile differentiating magma through an AFC (assimilation–crystal fractionation; DePaolo, 1981) process. Vander Auwera et al. (2003) propose that the HBG granitoids are differentiation products from gabbro-norites. In this case, contamination had to occur during the differentiation from the gabbro-norites to the quartz monzodiorites.

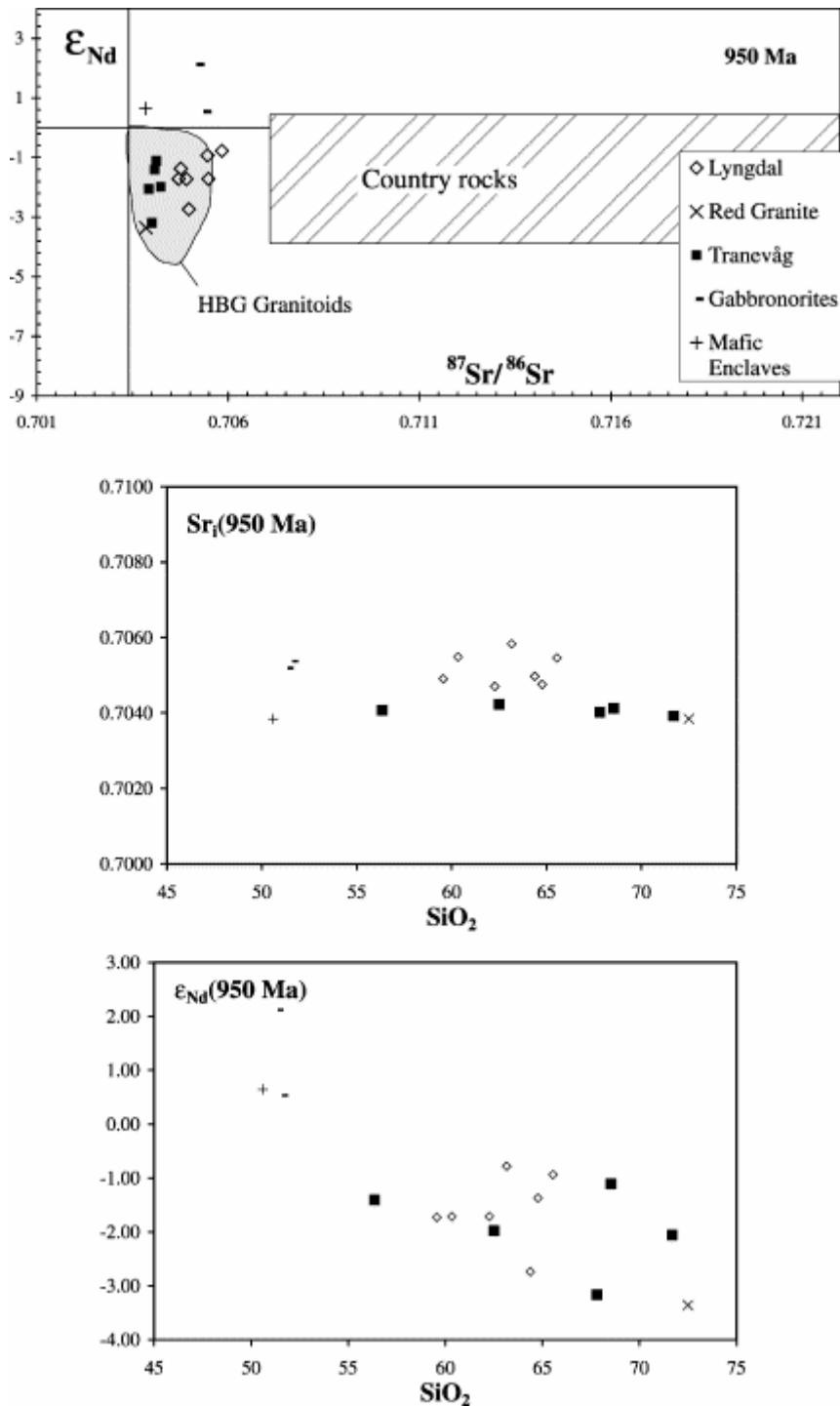


Fig. 13. Sr and Nd isotopic compositions calculated back to 950 Ma. Data for the HBG granitoids are from [Vander Auwera et al. \(2003\)](#). Data for the country-rocks are from [Demaiffe et al. \(1986\)](#) and [Vander Auwera et al. \(2003\)](#).

Most of the T_{DM} (Table 5) vary between 1440 and 1580 Ma (with two additional samples at 1646 and 1707 Ma). This suggests a ca. 1.55 Ga age for a lower crustal source, and an age a little bit older for a lower crustal contaminant (T_{DM} being in this case mixed model ages between the juvenile source and the older contaminant). The actual gneissic country-rocks have played no role in the Lyngdal plutons genesis, their $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$ composition at 950 Ma are by far too high (Fig. 13).

7. Discussion

7.1. The mafic microgranular enclaves

Several models have been proposed for the origin of mafic microgranular enclaves: (1) the enclaves are restite ([White and Chappell, 1977](#) and [Chappell et al., 1987](#)), (2) the enclaves are cognate cumulates (e.g. [Dodge and Kistler, 1990](#)), (3) they are mafic magma injected in a felsic magma chamber ([Huppert and Sparks, 1988](#) and [Eberz et al., 1990](#)). Field and petrographical observations suggest that the mafic microgranular enclaves have a magmatic origin. Moreover, they have isotopic and geochemical compositions similar to the coeval gabbro-norites ([Demaiffe et al., 1990](#)). These two observations strongly favour the hypothesis that the microgranular enclaves are remnants of mafic injections in a felsic magma. Enclaves are, however, slightly richer in Na, Rb, K, Fe, Zn, Mn and lower in Ca and Al than the gabbro-norites, indicating that chemical exchange may have occurred between the enclaves and its host magma, as often observed. An additional, major, difference exists between the enclaves and the gabbro-norites: the ferromagnesian minerals are amphibole and biotite in the enclaves and pyroxenes in the gabbro-norites. The presence of hydrous minerals in the enclaves could be due to a higher H₂O-content of the magma before it mingled with the granitic magma. Alternatively, water may have been incorporated from the host granitic magma into the enclaves such that the stability field of hydrous minerals was enhanced at the expense of the mafic anhydrous minerals ([Barbarin and Didier, 1992](#)).

7.2. The granitoids

[Fig. 8](#), [Fig. 9](#) and [Fig. 10](#) show that the most felsic samples (above 63 wt.% SiO₂) of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend are very similar to Proterozoic metaluminous A-type granites (rapakivi granites). The main processes proposed for the generation of A-type granite magmas are (1) vapor-absent melting in the lower crust of a melt-depleted ([Collins et al., 1982](#) and [Clemens et al., 1986](#)) or of a primitive igneous protolith ([Anderson and Bender, 1989](#); [Creaser et al., 1991](#); [Emslie et al., 1994](#) and [Dall’Agnol et al., 1999b](#), [Frost et al., 1999](#)) and (2) differentiation from a mantle magma with or without crustal contamination ([Barker et al., 1975](#); [Turner et al., 1992](#); [Tack et al., 1994](#) and [Duchesne et al., 1998](#)). Authors studying Proterozoic rapakivi granites favour a crustal source ([Rämö and Haapala, 1995](#)). For instance, the protolith of the Jamon Granite, which is similar to the granitic samples of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend and which has similar *f*O₂ and H₂O content ([Dall’Agnol et al., 1999b](#) and [Bogaerts et al., 2001](#)), is believed to be an Archean quartz diorite ([Dall’Agnol et al., 1999c](#)). However, the Lyngdal complex differs from the other Proterozoic granitoids by the overwhelming proportion of granodioritic rocks over granites. In the following, we first need to discuss the origin of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend to test whether studied granites can be derived from dioritic to granodioritic magmas.

7.2.1. Origin of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend

The linear or pseudo-linear trends displayed by the granitoids could have been produced by: (1) restite unmixing, (2) mixing between two magmas, (3) partial melting, (4) crystal fractionation.

7.2.1.1. Restite unmixing

Mafic microgranular enclaves and relics of pyroxene in amphiboles have been interpreted as evidence of restites in granitoids by White and Chappell (1977) and Chappell et al. (1987). However, the mafic microgranular enclaves have the composition of coeval mafic magmatic rocks (gabbro-norites), which suggests a magmatic origin. Secondly, the compositions of the ferromagnesian minerals, and more precisely of clinopyroxene, have been reproduced in a series of crystallisation experiments performed on two samples from Lyngdal (Bogaerts et al., 2001). We thus do not favour a differentiation process by restite disposal.

7.2.1.2. *Mixing*

Mingling and mixing are common processes in the Proterozoic rapakivi granitoids. For instance, in the Åland rapakivi batholith (Eklund et al., 1994), mingling and mixing between a monzodiorite, derived from a norite-anorthosite-monzodiorite series and a felsic magma produced by the partial melting of the country-rocks, give a magma of intermediate composition. Salonsaari and Haapala (1994) showed that hornblende granodiorite in the Jaala-litti Rapakivi complex, whose composition is similar to Lyngdal, is produced by mixing/mingling between a basic mantle-derived magma and a ‘rapakivi’ granitic melt. In the Lyngdal complex mingling between granite and gabbro-norites has been observed (see Section 7.1). However, the gabbro-norites and mafic enclaves do not define a mixing line with the granitic samples in the Harker diagrams (Fig. 8 and Fig. 9) so that there is no geochemical evidence for a mixing between gabbro-norites and granites nor between gabbro-norites and quartz monzodiorites. Mixing between quartz monzodiorite sample (e.g. VDA9925) and granitic samples can be assessed in view of the pseudo-linear trend displayed by the granitoids. As seen in the preceding section, the Red Granite, as well as sample VDA9920, are out of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend and are not considered as a possible felsic component. The two end-members of the Tranevåg trend (VDA9925 and VAD9927) have similar Nd and Sr isotopic composition ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_{(950\text{Ma})}$: +0.7040 and 0.7039; $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(950\text{Ma})}$: -1.41 and -2.05, respectively for VDA9925 and VDA9927) suggesting a same source. Moreover, simple two end-members mixing between the mafic (VDA9925) and the felsic sample (VDA9927) can be tested to obtain the intermediate rock (VDA9926) by using a binary mixing equation (Fourcade and Allègre, 1981):

$$C_m^i - C_a^i = X(C_b^i - C_a^i)$$

where C_a^i , C_b^i and C_m^i are the concentrations of the element i in the felsic, mafic and mixed melt, respectively and X is the proportion of the mafic component. In Fig. 14, all possible mixed compositions have to fall on a straight line between $X=0$ and $X=1$, which is clearly not the case. Moreover, some elements are near $X=1$ (e.g. Zr and Y) and Ba is out of the possible domain. It could be argued that some crystallisation of minerals like zircon, plagioclase and biotite has accompanied mixing and acted to deviate Zr, Y, Sr and Ba from the mixing curve. But in this case, all those elements should be depleted relative to the mixing curve, and this is not supported by the data for Zr, Y and Ba. Mixing does not appear to be the dominant mechanism of magma fractionation in Lyngdal and associated plutons.

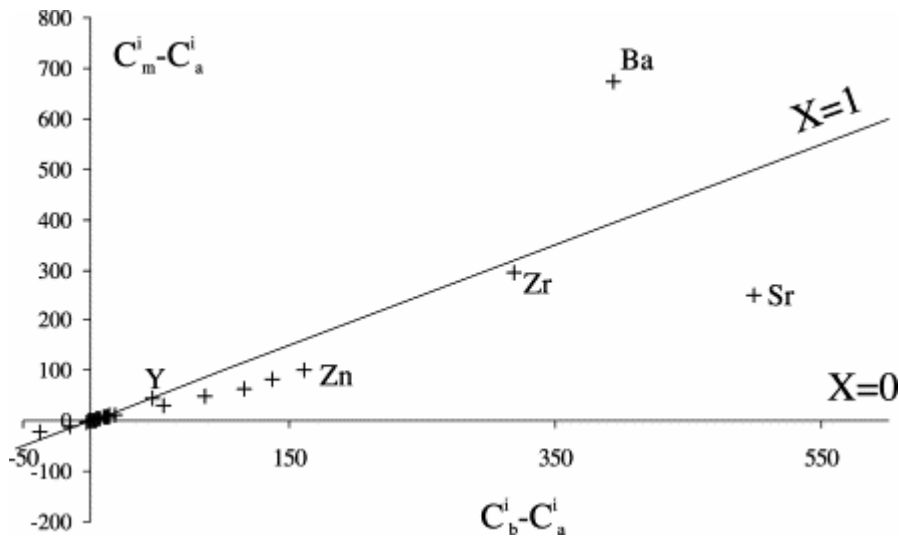


Fig. 14. Results of mixing calculations. C_a , C_b and C_m are the concentrations in the felsic, mafic and mixed melt. X is the proportion of the mafic components in the mixing.

7.2.1.3. Partial melting/fractional crystallisation

Batch partial melting and fractional crystallisation can be distinguished by plotting an incompatible versus a compatible element in a log–log diagram (e.g. [Martin, 1987](#)). Rb and Sr are, respectively incompatible and compatible as in the Harker diagrams Sr decreases and Rb increases with SiO_2 ([Fig. 9](#)). We selected Sr because it is not significantly accommodated in accessory minerals (e.g. oxides, zircon) unlike other compatible elements (such as Y, Zr or Zn), that will greatly simplify the following modelling. In the hypothesis that the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend is due to batch partial melting, the low-silica samples of this trend should represent melts derived from higher degree of partial melting than the high-silica samples as the melt content in Fe, Mg and Ti elements increases with temperature. Melting of different crustal protoliths under fluid-absent conditions (e.g. [Beard et al., 1994](#) and [Rapp and Watson, 1995](#)) has shown that plagioclase is a common restitic mineral. In this case, the source must be very rich in Sr (and SiO_2 poor) as the melt gets close to the composition of the source with an increasing degree of melting. [Roberts and Clemens \(1993\)](#) and references therein) argue that there is a positive correlation between the K_2O content in the magma and the K_2O content in its source. In other words, if a magmatic suite has a crustal origin with a given K_2O content (e.g. low-K, medium-K or high-K fields), its source plot in the same K_2O – SiO_2 field. This means that, if the Lyngdal–Tranevåg differentiation trend is due to a partial melting process, the source of this magmatic suite probably plots in the same field, i.e. in the HKCA field of [Peccerillo and Taylor \(1976\)](#). In the Rogaland-Vest Agder sector, mafic protoliths from the augen gneisses suite (see Section 3.1.) could represent such Sr and K-rich rocks. The augen gneisses define a HKCA suite and their Sr content can be higher than 1000 ppm in the mafic terms (<57 wt.% SiO_2) of this suite ([Bingen, 1989](#)). Moreover, their Nd and Sr isotopic compositions at 950 Ma is similar to the HBG granitoids. The mafic terms of the augen gneisses suite are thus a suitable source to test the hypothesis of a differentiation by partial melting for the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend. To model the batch melting process, we used the Schilling and Winchester (1967) equation :

$$C_L^i = \frac{C_0^i}{D + F(1 - D)}$$

C_L and C_0 are the concentrations of an element i in the melt and in the protolith, respectively and F is the weight fraction of the melt produced by batch melting. D is the bulk partition coefficient between the melt and the residual solid for the element i :

$$D = \sum_j X_j K_d^{j/\text{melt}}$$

The X_j is the weight fraction of a mineral j in the restite and K_d is the partition coefficient for the element i between the mineral j and the melt. We have taken the Rb and Sr contents of the protolith (Rb=80 ppm and Sr=1000 ppm) from the data on the augen gneisses (Bingen, 1989). The X_j ($X_{\text{plagioclase}}=0.5$ and $X_{\text{cpx}}=0.5$ ignoring minor minerals like oxides) are estimated from the data on dehydration melting of basalts taken in Rapp and Watson (1995). The partition coefficients used and references are given in the Appendix A. They are valid for melts of intermediate to rhyolitic compositions. With these parameters, we get $D_{\text{Rb}}=0.16$ and $D_{\text{Sr}}=2$. The data of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend are not well reproduced by batch partial melting (Fig. 15), even by varying D_{Sr} (between 3.5 and 1.5). By opposition, they are well fitted by the fractional crystallisation modelling (a straight line in a log–log diagram) with $D_{\text{Rb}}=0.4$ and $D_{\text{Sr}}=2.5$. We thus favour this latter process to explain our trend.

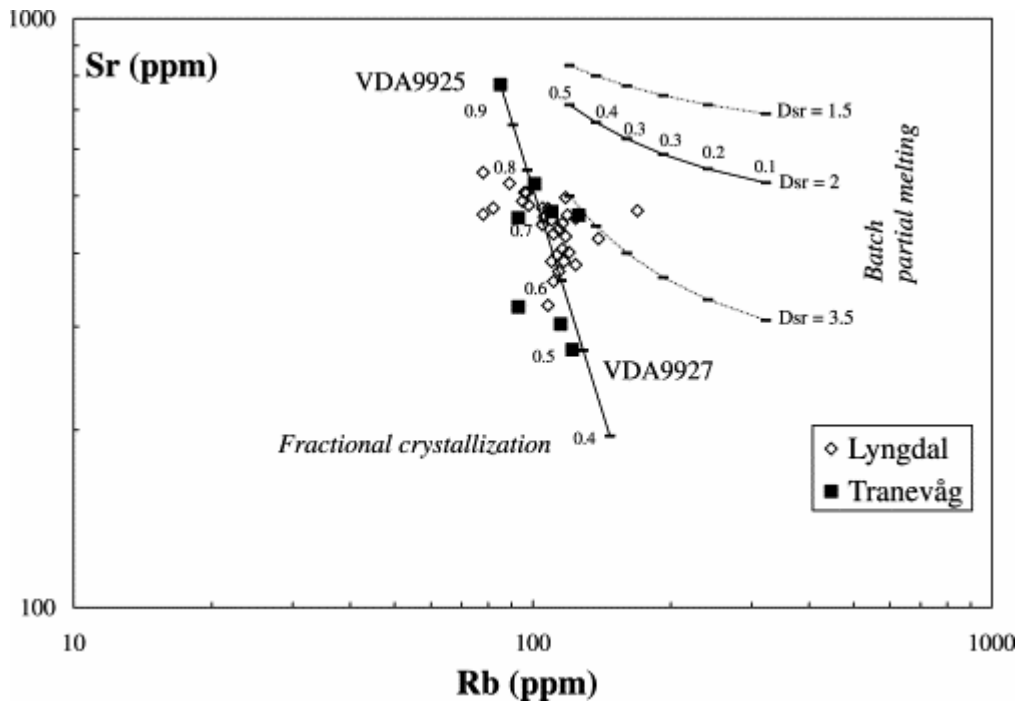


Fig. 15. Sr vs. Rb diagram (logarithmic scale). Curves show the batch partial melting (for three different D_{Sr}) and the fractional crystallisation models. Numbers along curves refer to the degree of partial melting and the degree of crystallisation. See text for explanation.

The absence of correlation between SiO₂ (or other elements with crustal affinity like Rb) and Sr_i or ε_{Nd} (Fig. 13) suggests that assimilation of country rock is of minor importance during the differentiation from quartz monzodiorites to granites (see [Section 6](#)).

7.2.2. Modelling of a liquid line of descent

In order to better test and quantify the fractional crystallisation process, mass-balance calculations were performed using the least-squares method (e.g. [Martin, 1987](#)). The liquid line of descent from quartz monzodiorite to granite has been modelled in two stages. Stage 1 starts with the least differentiated sample of Tranevåg at 56 wt.% SiO₂ (VDA9925) to give a residual melt of 62.5 wt.% SiO₂ (VDA9926) and stage 2 starts from the latter sample to give a residual melt of 72 wt.% SiO₂ (VDA9927). These three samples encompass the entire Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend. The nature and the composition of the fractionated minerals are those from the natural rocks or from experimental data acquired on two rocks from the Lyngdal granodiorite (98N50 with SiO₂ 59 wt.% and 98N06 with SiO₂ 65 wt.%). The pressure of the experiments is 4 kbar and *f*O₂ between NNO and NNO+1 ([Bogaerts et al., 2001](#)). As the compositions of experimental plagioclase and amphibole are very similar in the two starting products, identical plagioclase and hornblende compositions were used for the modelling of the two stages. The results of the least-squares modelling are given in [Table 6](#). There are two possible models for stage 1. The fractionating minerals are clinopyroxene, plagioclase, magnetite, ilmenite and apatite with (Model 1) or without (Model 2) hornblende. The sums of the squared residual are low ([Table 6](#)) and the percentage of crystallisation is similar for the two models (32%). Trace elements are used to check the two models with the Rayleigh equation :

$$\frac{C_L^i}{C_0^i} = F^{(D-1)}$$

This equation describes the evolution of a trace element *i* during fractional crystallisation. *D* is the bulk partition coefficient for the element *i* and *F* is the proportion of residual melt. *C*₀^{*i*} is the initial content of the element *i* in the melt and *C*_{*L*}^{*i*} is the content of *i* in the residual melt. Mineral-melt partition coefficients are given in the [Appendix A](#) and the results of the modelling are given in [Table 7](#). The effect of zircon fractionation can be very important on HREE and need to be accounted for. The proportion of fractionating zircon is calculated with the mass-balance equation, assuming that all Zr is accommodated by the zircon. The proportion of subtracted zircon is 0.17% for stage 1. Good results can be obtained for the two models, and due to the absence of better constraints on the values of partition coefficients, trace elements cannot neither discriminate between the two models.

	VDA9925 parent	VDA9926 observed	Model 1 calculated	Model 2 calculated	VDA9926 parent	VDA9927 observed	Model 3 calculated	Cpx	Hbl	Plag	Mgt	Ilm	Apatite	Biotite	Percentage of crystallisation	Σr^2
SiO ₂	56.34	62.50	62.52	62.34	62.50	71.69	71.49	51.88	41.82	60.16	0.00	0.00	0.00	36.62		
TiO ₂	1.89	1.25	1.25	1.12	1.25	0.69	0.65	0.17	2.14	0.00	12.10	45.12	0.00	3.71		
Al ₂ O ₃	14.01	14.20	14.19	14.28	14.20	13.45	13.32	1.24	10.98	23.71	2.25	0.32	0.00	14.00		
FeO	9.71	6.71	6.72	6.59	6.71	2.91	2.87	12.29	16.58	0.61	76.79	47.60	0.00	21.17		
MnO	0.20	0.12	0.22	0.20	0.12	0.05	0.12	0.69	0.28	0.00	0.29	0.33	0.00	0.21		
MgO	2.25	1.48	1.49	2.00	1.48	0.59	0.51	11.23	11.07	0.00	1.19	2.10	0.00	11.33		
CaO	5.79	3.88	3.84	3.56	3.88	1.53	1.59	22.48	11.08	6.75	0.00	0.00	55.80	0.10		
Na ₂ O	3.51	3.52	3.51	3.42	3.52	3.13	3.28	0.60	1.91	6.56	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07		
K ₂ O	2.85	3.99	3.88	4.00	3.99	5.33	5.46	0.00	0.81	1.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	9.25		
P ₂ O ₅	0.88	0.54	0.58	0.68	0.54	0.17	0.12	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	44.20	0.00		
Stage 1 (VDA9925 ⇒ VDA9926)							Model 1								30.99	0.013
							Xi*100	12.53	22.23	47.14	11.67	2.85	3.57			
							Model 2								32.56	0.22
							Xi*100	23.42		55.87	14.12	3.60	2.99			
Stage 2 (VDA9926 ⇒ VDA9927)							Model 1								32.07	0.059
							Xi*100		30.57	53.99	10.67	1.1	3.67			
							Model 2								32.11	0.047
							Xi*100	28.12	54.07	10.76	0.86	3.82	2.36			
							Model 3								37.09	0.07
							Xi*100	4.66	10.97	59.80	9.92	1.05	2.64	10.16		

Table 6. Results of mass-balance calculations for major elements

In italic: experimental mineral composition (Bogaerts et al., 2001). Mineral abbreviations: Cpx, clinopyroxene; Hbl, hornblende; Plag, plagioclase; Mgt, magnetite; Ilm, ilmenite.

	VDA9925 C0	Calculated C1 (Model 1)	Calculated C1 (Model 2)	Observed VDA9926	Percentage of residue (Model 1)	Percentage of residue (Model 2)	VDA9926 C0	Calculated C1 (Model 3)	Observed VDA9927	Percentage of residue
Rb	85	113	118	101	-12	-16	101	113	122	8
Sr	773	587	505	524	-12	4	524	308	274	-13
Ba	1835	2452	2526	2116	-16	-19	2116	1735	1442	-20
Ta	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.6	-18	-18	1.6	1.3	0.9	-43
Ce	293	271	290	237	-25	-33	237	162	156	-4
Sm	27.4	18	21	22.5	11	-2	22.5	12	12.9	7
Eu	6.5	5.0	5.5	4.8	-3	-15	4.8	3.5	3.1	-12
Tb	3.2	2.4	2.6	2.7	16	10	2.7	1.6	1.3	-16
Yb	6.8	6.0	6.7	6.1	16	7	6.1	5.3	3.6	-15

Table 7. Results of trace elements modelling

Three possible models are obtained by major elements modelling for stage 2. The fractionating minerals are plagioclase, hornblende, magnetite, ilmenite and apatite for Model 1, the same minerals plus biotite in Model 2 and plus biotite and clinopyroxene in Model 3. The sums of the squared residual are low (Table 6) and the percentage of crystallisation is nearly 32% for Models 1 and 2 and 37% for Model 3. Models 1 and 2 are not favoured as clinopyroxene is still stable when biotite appears experimentally at 4 kbar (Bogaerts et al., 2001). Moreover, trace elements modelling show that an important amount of biotite is needed to lower the Ba content in the residual melt. The proportion of subtracted zircon is higher (0.26%) than in stage 1. A small amount of allanite (0.1%) is also needed to get LREE values of the calculated melt close to values of the natural sample (VDA9927). This mineral has been reported in the Lyngdal granodiorite and is thus justified as a fractionating phase in the modelling.

Major and trace elements thus show that the Lyngdal and Tranevåg granitoids belong to the same liquid line of descent. However, the slight differences in Sr_i indicate that the two massifs are not strictly comagmatic.

7.2.3. Origin of the Lyngdal and Tranevåg granitoids

The Lyngdal granodiorite has already been investigated by Pb–Nd–Sr isotopic studies but without an associated geochemical investigation by major and trace elements (Weis, 1986; Demaiffe et al., 1986; Pedersen and Falkum, 1975 and Menuge, 1988) and related petrographical observations. Duchesne and Demaiffe (1978) suggested that the Lyngdal granodiorite could have a genetic link with the anorthosites and would represent residual liquid from the differentiation of a jotunitic magma. Demaiffe et al. (1986) and Weis (1986) stressed that if an origin by partial melting of the crust is a viable hypothesis, a mantle origin is also possible provided that some contamination occurs. Menuge (1988) favoured the latter hypothesis and proposed that the Lyngdal granodiorite is a residual liquid derived from the crystallisation of a mixture of mantle and crustal melts.

The hydrous and oxidised character of the Lyngdal granodiorite (Bogaerts et al., 2001) contrasts with the dry and reduced status inferred for the Rogaland Anorthosite–Mangerite–Charnockite suite (Vander Auwera and Longhi, 1994). This suggests that, though coeval with the anorthosites, the Lyngdal and Tranevåg granitoids cannot be a residual liquid from the differentiation of a jotunitic magma, as previously suggested by Duchesne and Demaiffe (1978).

As seen above, the Lyngdal and Tranevåg trend (from 56.34 to 71.69 wt.% SiO₂) is part of the HBG trend (Vander Auwera et al., 2003) that ranges from gabbro-norites (50 wt.% SiO₂) to granites (76.6 wt.% SiO₂). Vander Auwera et al. (2003) suggest that the HBG granitoids are derived from gabbro-norites by fractional crystallisation with some assimilation. These authors proposed that melting of potassic amphibolites or of an enriched mantle are suitable processes to give gabbro-noritic magmas. The small differences in Sr_i between Lyngdal and Tranevåg could be explained by two distinct batches of gabbros evolving along similar liquid line of descent.

7.2.4. The Red Granite

We have only a limited number of Red Granite samples; hence the following interpretation will be only qualitative. Although the Red Granite is at the end of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend for the major elements, it cannot be considered as being an end product of the liquid line of descent modelled above. Indeed, the X_{Fe} is lower while LREE, Th, Sr, Rb from the Red Granite are above the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend (see Section 5.1). The presence of fluorite as well as the very high F content in biotite (>5 wt.%) implies a high f_F . The origin of fluorite in granitic magmas is subject to debate: some authors consider it as crystallising from a fluid and others from the melt itself (e.g. Collins et al., 1982 and King et al., 1997). The petrographical observations indicate a hydrothermal alteration episode (sericitised plagioclase and chloritised biotite) but except for the geochemical differences described above, the trace element pattern of the Red Granite is similar to Lyngdal–Tranevåg one. Let us note that VDA9920 sample, which belongs to the Tranevåg massif, has the same geochemical particularities than the Red Granite except that its ferromagnesian minerals are not altered. A hydrothermal alteration episode is then probably not responsible for the geochemical particularity of the Red Granite. The lowering of ϵ_{Nd} for a constant Sr_i, from sample VDA9920 to the Red Granite, could be achieved by contamination with a Rb-depleted lower crust of a magma similar to the quartz monzodiorite (VDA9925) from the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend. A LILE-depleted crust as contaminant is, however, untenable due to the higher Rb and Th content in the Red Granite

than in granites from the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend. The higher LREE–Th–Rb–Sr and lower ϵ_{Nd} content in the Red Granite is probably due to a different initial magma composition.

8. Conclusions

The Lyngdal granodiorite, and associated plutons (Tranevåg and the Red Granite) are ferro-potassic A-type granitoids and belong to the post-collisional HBG suite of Southern Norway (see [Vander Auwera et al., 2003](#)). The HBG suite is penecontemporaneous with the AMC suite of Rogaland, the Lyngdal plutons being spatially associated with the AMC suite. This kind of association is similar to the rapakivi granitoids associated with anorthosite massifs and charnockites (the AMCG complexes: [Emslie, 1991](#)). This study underlines the geochemical similarities between the Lyngdal plutons and the rapakivi granitoids. However, notable differences exist between the Lyngdal plutons and the rapakivi granitoids from AMCG complexes:

1. absence of rapakivi texture in the Lyngdal plutons and the whole HBG suite;
2. oxidised (NNO/NNO+1) and water-rich (6 wt.%) nature of the Lyngdal granodiorite ([Bogaerts et al., 2001](#)) contrasting with the dry and reduced nature (<NNO–1) inferred for the rapakivi granitoids associated with anorthosite massifs;
3. The Lyngdal plutons (except the Red Granite) form a continuous trend from quartz monzodiorite to granite (56–72 wt.% SiO₂: called the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend) and the intermediate composition (granodiorite) dominates. The Lyngdal pluton is indeed a huge mass of homogeneous granodiorite (SiO₂ ranges between 60 and 65 wt.%), while the rapakivi are dominantly granitic in composition (>65 wt.%).

With Sr–Nd isotopes and major and trace elements modelling, our study shows that the granites of the Lyngdal–Tranevåg trend are derived by fractional crystallisation (without significant crustal assimilation) from the quartz monzodiorites. These results can be extended to the whole HBG suite. Moreover, the quartz monzodiorites could be derived by the crystallisation of gabbro-norites ([Vander Auwera et al., 2003](#)). The observation of mingling between gabbro-norites and granitoids (in Lyngdal and Tranevåg) favour this process. This contrasts with the model proposed for the rapakivi granitoids that are considered as primary crustal melts (e.g. [Rämö and Haapala, 1995](#) and references therein) and with the model generally proposed for AMCG complexes. Such complexes are indeed often considered as bimodal (e.g. [Emslie et al., 1994](#)): anorthosites and related rocks forming the basic part of the association and rapakivi granites and charnockites forming the acid part. In this model, charnockites and rapakivi granites are considered as similar, reduced and anhydrous magmas. In Southern Norway, however, this study and [Bogaerts et al. \(2001\)](#) show that the hydrous and oxidised character of the Lyngdal granodiorite (extended to the whole HBG suite: [Vander Auwera et al., 2003](#)) contrasts with the dry and reduced status inferred for the charnockites of the AMC suite. Moreover, both kind of granitoids are end-members of continuous liquid lines of descent from mafic to felsic magmas and this magmatism is definitely not bimodal.

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