

Retrograde metasomatic effects on phase assemblages in an interlayered blueschist-greenschist sequence (Coastal Cordillera, Chile)

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Abstract

Interlayered blueschists and greenschists of the Coastal Cordillera (Chile) are part of a Late Palaeozoic accretionary complex. They represent metavolcanic rocks with oceanic affinities based on predominantly OIB-type REE patterns and immobile trace element ratios. Both rock types have similar mineralogies, albeit with different mineral modal abundances. Amphibole is the major mafic mineral and varies compositionally from glaucophane to actinolite. The presence of glaucophane relicts as cores in zoned amphiboles in both blueschists and greenschists is evidence for a pervasive high-pressure metamorphic stage, indicating that tectonic juxtaposition is an unlikely explanation for the cm-dm scale interlayering. During exhumation, a retrograde greenschist-facies overprint stabilized chlorite + albite + winchitic/actinolitic amphibole + phengitic white mica $\pm$ epidote $\pm$ K-feldspar at 0.4 ± 0.1 GPa. Geochemical variability can be partly ascribed to primary magmatic and partly to secondary metasomatic processes that occurred under greenschist-facies conditions. Isocon diagrams of several adjacent blueschist-greenschist pairs with similar protolith geochemistry were used to evaluate metasomatic changes due to retrograde fluid-rock interaction. The most important geochemical changes are depletion of Si and Na and addition of water in the greenschists compared to the blueschists. Transition metals and LILE are mobilized to varying degrees. The unsystematic deviations from magmatic fractionation trends suggest open system conditions and influx of an external fluid. Pseudosection and water isopleth calculations show that the rocks were dehydrating during most of their exhumation history and remained at water-saturated conditions. The mineralogical changes, in particular breakdown of blue amphibole and replacement by chlorite, albite and calcic/sodic-calcic amphibole, are the prime cause for the distinct coloring. Pseudo-binary phase diagrams were used as a means to link bulk rock geochemical variability to modal and chemical changes in the mineralogy. The geochemical changes induced by fluid-rock interaction are important in two ways: First, the bulk rock chemistry is altered, leading to the stabilization of higher modal proportions of

chlorite in the greenschists. Second, the retrograde overprint is a selective, layer-parallel fluid infiltration process, causing more intense greenschist-facies recrystallization in greenschist layers and therefore preferential preservation of blue amphibole in blueschist layers. Hence, the distinct colors were acquired by a combination of compositional variability, both primary magmatic and secondary metasomatic, and the different intensity of retrograde fluid infiltration.

Keywords:

Fluid-rock interaction, metasomatism, element mobility, pseudo-binary phase diagrams, Coastal Cordillera (Chile)

1. Introduction

Interlayered sequences of blueschists, greenschists and/or eclogites frequently occur in subduction-related metamorphic terranes, such as the Cycladic Islands, Greece (Bröcker 1990), the Franciscan Belt, California (Oh et al. 1991), the Tauern Window, Eastern Alps (Selverstone et al. 1992), and Brittany, France (Barrientos and Selverstone, 1993; El Korh et al., 2009). Three distinct processes are commonly invoked to explain these apparent metamorphic heterogeneities within single units: 1) Equilibration at distinct pressure-temperature (P-T) conditions and late-stage tectonic juxtaposition (Ridley, 1984; Pognante and Kienast, 1987; Bousquet, 2008), 2) Chemical differences in the protolith (Dungan et al., 1983; Oh et al., 1991; El-Shazly et al., 1997; Baziotis and Mposkos, 2011; Pattison, 2013), occasionally combined with variable pre-metamorphic fluid overprinting (Dungan et al., 1983; El Korh et al., 2013), and 3) Variable retrograde overprinting resulting from different degrees of fluid infiltration during exhumation (Schliestedt and Matthews, 1987; Barrientos and Selverstone, 1993; Bröcker, 1990). Complete metamorphic equilibration is often inhibited by slow reaction kinetics and slow diffusion, so that deformation has a catalytic effect on re-equilibration (Pognante and Kienast, 1987; Konrad-Schmolke et al., 2011). The bulk rock composition of the protolith may also be directly linked to subsequent fluid-induced overprinting during metamorphism because compositions that are prone to dehydration are also more likely to re-equilibrate during retrogression (Baziotis et al., 2009). Variable bulk compositions can even cause changes in the mineralogy that mimic the progression of assemblages that undergo a facies transition during their metamorphic evolution (Kahl and Schumacher, 2000).

It is important to understand the processes that cause the occurrence of metamorphic heterogeneities within single units because each explanation provides distinct information about the tectonometamorphic history of the unit (e.g. Pattison, 2013) and constraints about

86 element transport during metamorphism. The occurrence of blueschist-facies assemblages
87 without low-pressure overprint is interpreted to reflect retracing of the prograde P-T path
88 during exhumation and upward motion of tectonically imbricated slices (Ernst, 1988). In
89 contrast, the overprinting by greenschist and/or epidote-amphibolite facies assemblages is
90 thought to involve rapid, nearly isothermal decompression and an approximately adiabatic
91 rise of the subduction complex as consequence of deceleration/cessation of the subduction
92 underflow (Ernst, 1988; 2006). Baziotis and Mposkos (2011) could show that the preservation
93 of peak metamorphic blueschist assemblages also depends on bulk rock composition. In their
94 example, preservation is promoted in Fe-rich bulk compositions because dehydration ends
95 earlier compared to relatively Fe-poor compositions (Baziotis and Mposkos, 2011). If distinct
96 protolith compositions can be identified as major cause for metamorphic heterogeneities,
97 these can be used to deduce pre-subduction tectonic settings and pre-metamorphic alteration
98 processes (Becker et al., 2000; Bebout, 2007; John et al., 2010; Hyppolito et al., 2014).
99 During high-pressure low-temperature (HP-LT) subduction zone metamorphism, rocks often
100 retain the geochemical characteristics of their protoliths, including hydrothermal alteration
101 before subduction (Dungan et al., 1983; Putlitz et al., 2000; El Korh et al., 2009; Halama et
102 al., 2011; van der Straaten et al., 2012). Fluids are not only important during pre-metamorphic
103 alteration, but they are particularly of interest during syn-metamorphic processes because they
104 facilitate the attainment of equilibrium and are a key factor for the transport of elements in
105 subduction zones. Hence, differences in the retrograde overprint and variable degrees of fluid
106 infiltration during the metamorphic evolution of a rock provide crucial information about
107 fluid release, fluid sources and element mobility during metasomatic processes and associated
108 metamorphic reactions (Bebout and Barton, 1993; Halama et al., 2011; Marschall et al., 2009;
109 Miller et al., 2009; Penniston-Dorland et al., 2010; van der Straaten et al. 2008; 2012). Fluids
110 can be internally derived by dehydration or local dissolution (Heinrich, 1982; Widmer and
111 Thompson, 2001; Wangen and Munz, 2004; Baziotis et al., 2009; Verlaguet et al., 2011) with

metamorphic mineral growth occurring by small-scale (mm-dm) diffusive mass transfer during closed-system conditions (Philippot and Selverstone, 1991; Kohn et al., 1993). Alternatively, fluids can be externally derived by large-scale advective mass transfer (Walther and Orville, 1982; Beitter et al., 2008; Bucholz and Ague, 2010). In the latter case, a significant geochemical variability can be generated in the metamorphic rocks by interaction with metasomatic fluids during high-pressure metamorphism (Halama et al., 2011) and such fluid-rock interaction has significant effects on interpretation of geochronological data (Glodny et al. 2002; 2008; Halama et al., 2014). Moreover, similarities in the geochemistry of the rehydrated rocks can be related to geochemical patterns in arc volcanic rocks and the direct examination of subduction zone metamorphic rocks provides insights about slab-derived agents added to arc magma sources in the mantle wedge (e.g. Sorensen et al., 1997; Breeding et al., 2004; El Korh et al., 2009; John et al., 2004; Spandler et al., 2004; Bebout, 2007; Beinlich et al., 2010; van der Straaten et al. 2008). In the context of interlayered rocks with apparently distinct metamorphic facies, it is important to note that syn-metamorphic compositional changes influence phase relations and phase compositions. As a result, spatial variations in the intensity of fluid-rock interaction and the amount of mass transfer may be more important for determining the rock's mineralogy than changes in P-T conditions (Goncalves et al., 2012). The effects of mass transfer, i.e. changes in composition due to metasomatic overprinting, can be explored through pseudosection thermobarometry (Goncalves et al., 2013; Evans et al., 2013).

This study investigates the causes of interlayering in a sequence of layered blueschists and greenschist from the Coastal Cordillera in Chile. The first major objective is the distinction between pre-subduction, inherited geochemical variability and elemental mobility during metamorphic fluid-rock interaction based on the systematic evaluation of geochemical differences between blueschists and greenschists in terms of pre- and syn-metamorphic processes. The second aim is to understand the effect of fluid-rock interaction on the

mineralogy of the rocks and the link between metasomatic overprint and retrogression by quantifying the phase relations and compositions as a function of bulk rock chemical transformations. We show that the interlayering of the investigated rocks results from compositional variations and is not due to tectonic juxtaposition because the rocks experienced the same P-T evolution. The compositional and mineralogical variations observed can be partly attributed to primary magmatic differences. For some blueschist-greenschist pairs, we are able to demonstrate that selective fluid infiltration in the greenschist facies caused different degrees of retrograde metasomatic overprinting.

2. Geological Setting

In the Coastal Cordillera of Chile, the crystalline basement of the Mesozoic and Cenozoic Andean sequences consists of metamorphic and associated magmatic rocks of Paleozoic to Triassic age (Hervé et al., 2007). Basement exposures in the Coastal Cordillera comprise fossil accretionary prisms, which are partly associated with a magmatic arc and high-temperature metamorphic belts (Hervé, 1988). Two units of this basement, the Western and the Eastern Series (Fig. 1), were recognized to constitute a classic Pacific-rim type paired metamorphic belt (Aguirre et al., 1972; Ernst, 1975). Geochronological studies in these units provided evidence for Late Paleozoic subduction along the western margin of South America (Munizaga et al., 1973; Hervé et al., 1974), corroborating the interpretation that the Western and Eastern Series constitute coeval parts of a Late Palaeozoic paired metamorphic belt (Willner, 2005).

Both, the Western and the Eastern Series, are dominated by metamorphosed and deformed siliciclastic sediments that represent former turbidite deposits. The Eastern Series comprise a very low-grade metapelite-metagreywacke sequence with minor calcsilicate rocks (Hervé,

1988; Willner et al., 2000), interpreted as frontally accreted sediments (Richter et al., 2007). Locally, the rocks of the Eastern Series experienced a thermal overprint at around 296-301 Ma at maximum temperatures of 720 °C (Willner, 2005) caused by the coeval Late Palaeozoic magmatic arc batholith formation (Willner, 2005; Hervé et al., 1988). In contrast to the Eastern Series, the Western Series comprise a mixture of continent-derived siliciclastic rocks and subordinate slices of dismembered upper oceanic crust. The metabasites of the oceanic crust, which partly exhibit relict pillow structures, form lenses of meter to kilometer size. Minor rock types associated with the metabasites include serpentinite, marble, metachert, black graphite-rich metapelite, and ferruginous metasediments with stilpnomelane (Hervé, 1988; Hervé et al., 2007; Hyppolito et al., 2014). Among the metabasites, greenschists are the most common rock type. They experienced peak P-T conditions of 0.70-0.93 GPa at 380-420 °C (Willner, 2005) and are interpreted to reflect conditions of basal accretion in the accretionary prism (Willner et al., 2009). Rare blueschists occur as lenses of 1-5 m thickness at only three locations within the Western Series, scattered over a distance of ~60 km. These blueschists yielded peak P-T conditions of 0.95-1.07 GPa and 350-385 °C (Willner, 2005), which are similar to those of the more typical greenschists. The blueschists are considered as fragments of the oceanic crust that were incorporated into the subduction channel (Willner, personal communication). Both, greenschists and blueschists, experienced a retrograde metamorphic stage at ~300-380 °C and ~0.4-0.8 GPa, indicating pressure release with little cooling (Willner, 2005).

A $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ phengite plateau age of 292 ± 2 Ma from a blueschist was interpreted as peak HP imprint coeval with the formation of the transposition foliation (Willner et al., 2005). Throughout the Western Series, variability in the timing of the HP event (292-319 Ma) is observed based on $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ UV laser ablation phengite plateau ages (Willner et al., 2005). The HP event is coeval with the main pulse of late Paleozoic arc magmatism (~305 Ma, $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ zircon evaporation). *In situ* $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ analyses of phengite in microfolds yielded

an absolute age range from 257 to 321 Ma and are interpreted to record long-lasting recrystallization (up to ~40 Myr for individual samples) during retrograde pressure release, considering that there is no indication of a potential excess argon component on inverse isochron diagrams (Willner et al., 2005). A retrograde metamorphic stage was identified in various rock types and reflects a pressure release of 0.3-0.4 GPa accompanied by only slight cooling to 300-380 °C (Willner, 2005). Later magmatic activity in the Western Series is represented by isolated granite plutons with intrusion ages between 257 ($^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ zircon evaporation; Willner et al., 2005) and 220 Ma (Rb-Sr mineral isochron; Lucassen et al., 2004). Afterwards, the retreat of the subducting slab caused termination of accretionary processes.

At Infiernillo Beach in Pichilemu (34°23.35 S, 72°01.33 W; Fig. 1), strongly foliated blueschists occur interlayered with greenschists, producing a pronounced banding on the cm to dm scale (Fig. 2). The sequence is interpreted to comprise various metavolcanic rocks (metatuffs, meta-agglomerates and metalavas) that are associated with metasedimentary rocks (pelitic schists, graphite-rich metapelites and quartzites; Hyppolito et al., 2014). Willner (2005) described structures resembling hyaloclastites and suggested that the presence of white mica in metabasite may point to former tuffitic deposits. The layering is parallel to the main foliation, which has transposed an earlier foliation and the stratigraphic surface (Hyppolito et al., 2014). Hyppolito et al. (2014) provide a detailed outcrop description of Infiernillo Beach and an interpretation of geochemical data in terms of the geodynamic setting of protoliths and the regional terrane assembly in central Chile. Here, we concentrate on several selected blueschists and greenschists from this location in the context of retrograde metasomatic overprinting.

3. Methodology

3.1 Geochemistry

In total, 11 samples from the layered sequences were analyzed for bulk rock major and trace element contents. We selected three interlayered blueschist-greenschist pairs for detailed microscopic and mineral chemical analyses. These sample pairs were taken either in direct contact (<10 cm apart) in the outcrop (sample pair CH-1-18 and CH-1-19) or carefully cut using the rock saw (samples CH-1-12 and CH-1-15) to ensure an accurate separation of blue and green parts of individual pairs.

Major element compositions of rock-forming minerals were determined using a JEOL JXA 8900R electron microprobe at the University of Kiel, operated with 15 kV, a 15 nA beam current and a beam diameter of 5 μm . Measurement times were 15s on the peak and 7s on the background, except for Cl, which was measured 30s and 15s, respectively. Natural standards were used for calibration and a CITZAF matrix correction was applied.

Whole rock major element contents were analyzed by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) on fused glass discs with a Philips PW1480 XRF spectrometer at the University of Kiel. The relative standard deviation (RSD) for all oxides is generally $\leq 1.3\%$ based on multiple analyses of reference material BHVO-1 (see van der Straaten et al., 2008, for details on precision and accuracy). Concentrations of 37 trace elements were determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), after HF-HNO₃-HClO₄ acid digestion in Teflon bombs at 180°C, using an Agilent 7500c instrument at the University of Kiel. Details of sample preparation and the analytical protocol are given in Garbe-Schönberg (1993) and John et al. (2008). Analyses of the reference material and representative duplicate analyses are given in Table 1, and data for the procedural blank analyzed during the course of this study are given in Halama et al. (2013). Instrumental precision, as determined by multiple analyses of one sample solution and expressed as relative standard deviation (RSD), is typically $\leq 1.5\%$ for most trace elements, including the REE and Th, and up to 4 % for Sc, Cr, Co, Ni, Ta and Hf.

3.2 Phase diagram calculations

Phase diagrams were calculated using version 6.6.6 of the Perple_X software package (Connolly, 1990, 2005) in the system CNKFMASHO (CaO-Na₂O-K₂O-FeO-MgO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂-H₂O-O₂). Pseudosection calculations were performed at 300-500 °C and 0.2-1.2 GPa for water-saturated conditions. The chemical potential of oxygen in the system was controlled by the hematite-magnetite (HM) buffer. The advantage of buffering the oxygen fugacity is that open-system processes can be investigated by assuming that the oxidation state is controlled by a metamorphic stable mineral paragenesis and not by the amount of oxygen brought in or removed from the system (Konrad-Schmolke et al., 2008; Scott et al., 2013). The HM buffer assemblage seems appropriate because hematite is present in several samples, indicating relatively oxidizing conditions. The P-T positions of water isopleths, showing the molar percentage of water bound to 100% solids, were superimposed on the calculated pseudosections to evaluate the hydration/dehydration behavior under closed-system conditions. Pseudo-binary P-X_{H₂O} diagrams were calculated to compare calculated mineral assemblages and modal and chemical mineral variations in the two samples for water-saturated and water-undersaturated conditions. Moreover, we calculated pseudo-binary P-X diagrams, using the blueschist and greenschist bulk compositions as compositional end-members, to evaluate the dependence of modal mineralogy and mineral chemistry on the different bulk chemistries. For all calculations, we used the updated database from Holland and Powell (1998) and solution models from Fuhrman and Lindsley (1988) for feldspar and from Holland et al. (1998) for chlorite, potassic white mica, epidote, garnet and omphacite. For amphibole, we used the solution model “GITrTsMr” of Massonne and Willner (2008), which is based on the four end-members glaucophane, tremolite, tschermakite and magnesio-riebeckite and considers the incorporation of ferric iron into amphibole. We chose this model because it was specifically developed to take into account the compositional constraints of amphiboles at low-grade, medium-to-high pressure conditions, such as Si contents close to 8

per formula unit (pfu) and an almost vacant A site (Massonne and Willner, 2008). These compositional features are also present in the investigated samples, and this improved amphibole solution model has been successfully used to simulate the expected amphibole compositions for metabasites at low-grade metamorphic conditions (Massonne and Willner, 2008). We did not consider the andradite and acmite components in garnet and omphacite, respectively.

4. Petrography

All of the three blueschist-greenschist pairs investigated in detail are fine-grained with matrix minerals typically between 5 and 50 μm and rarely exceeding 100 μm in size. Major mineral phases are amphibole (amph), phengitic white mica (phg), chlorite (chl), and albite (ab) with subordinate amounts of titanite, epidote, hematite, apatite and K-feldspar (Fig. 3). Zircon and rutile occur as rare accessory phases. The mineralogy of blueschist and greenschist layers is similar, but the modal proportions of the major mineral phases differ (Table 2). Blue, sodic amphibole is significantly more abundant (>10%) in the blueschists compared to the greenschists. The proportion of blue amphibole as to all amphibole present is about 30-50% in blueschists, whereas it is <5% in greenschists. Modal chlorite increases in the greenschists to about 20-40% compared to the adjacent blueschists (~10%). Proportions of phengite and albite are variable and K-feldspar is typically lacking in the blueschists.

The presence of glaucophane in blueschists and greenschists provides evidence for a high-pressure metamorphic stage that affected the whole sequence. Rare rutile in one of the blueschists also reflects a high-P metamorphic stage. In contrast, the typical greenschist-facies minerals albite and chlorite demonstrate recrystallization at lower pressures during

exhumation. Alkali feldspar also appears texturally as a late-stage phase, whereas phengite may have been crystallizing and re-crystallizing over a wide P-T range on the retrograde path.

5. Mineral chemistry

Mineral chemical data of the major mineral phases are given in the electronic appendix. The two feldspars are essentially pure albite ($\sim\text{An}_{0.002}\text{Ab}_{0.996}\text{Or}_{0.002}$) and K-feldspar ($\sim\text{Ab}_{0.02}\text{Or}_{0.98}$), respectively. White mica has Mg# ($\text{Mg\#} = \text{Mg}/(\text{Mg}+\text{Fe}^{2+})$) of 0.54-0.75 and Na/(Na+K) ratios <0.4 . Silica content in white mica varies widely, both within and between different samples, from 6.5 to 7.2 Si pfu. In chlorite, Si pfu is relatively constant (5.6-6.0), whereas Mg# ranges from 0.55 to 0.67. Individual samples have a very restricted range of chlorite compositions with a variation in $\text{Mg\#} \leq 0.02$.

Amphibole has very wide compositional range. Sodic, sodic-calcic and calcic compositions are present (allocation of amphibole names following Locock (2014) based on Leake et al. (1997)). The majority of amphiboles has close to 8 Si pfu, between 0.3 and 1.8 Na_B and Mg# ($\text{Mg\#} = \text{Mg}/(\text{Mg}+\text{Fe}_\text{T})$) of 0.48-0.75 (Fig. 4). These amphiboles can be classified as actinolites, winchites, ferri-winchites and glaucophanes and represent a compositional continuum (Fig. 4). In both blueschist and greenschist samples, glaucophane cores are overgrown by sodic-calcic or calcic amphibole (Fig. 3A-D). In some cases, however, glaucophane appears to be surrounding sodic-calcic amphibole (Fig. 3E). Rare Ti-rich ferropargasite with TiO₂ between 3.2 and 6.2 wt.% occurs in two samples (blueschist CH-1-18 and greenschist CH-1-19), constituting the innermost parts of larger amphibole grains (Fig. 3F). Based on its textural position and its Ti-rich composition, the Ti-rich ferropargasite most likely formed prior to subduction zone metamorphism and is considered as the only remnant of the pre-metamorphic evolution.

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6. Major and trace element chemistry

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The eleven analyzed blueschists and greenschists are very variable in their major element composition, encompassing ultramafic, mafic and intermediate compositions (Table 1). The range in SiO_2 (40-56 wt.%), MgO (5.3-14.5 wt.%), total iron as Fe_2O_3 ($\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3^{\text{T}}$, 9.1-16.5 wt.%), CaO (2.7-10.0 wt.%) and Na_2O (1.5-6.1 wt.%) is particularly large. Among the trace elements, Sr (23-681 $\mu\text{g/g}$), Li (20-56 $\mu\text{g/g}$), the large ion lithophile elements (LILEs), such as Rb (13-164 $\mu\text{g/g}$) and Ba (170-1360 $\mu\text{g/g}$), as well as the transition metals Cr (80-850 $\mu\text{g/g}$) and Ni (60-380 $\mu\text{g/g}$) show a considerable range. Whole-rock abundances of rare earth elements (REE) are also highly variable ($\text{La} = 4\text{-}34 \mu\text{g/g}$; $\text{Yb} = 1.0\text{-}2.6 \mu\text{g/g}$), resulting in distinct chondrite-normalized (CN) REE patterns (Fig. 5) and ratios ($(\text{La/Yb})_{\text{CN}} = 1.5\text{-}12.6$, $(\text{La/Sm})_{\text{CN}} = 0.9\text{-}2.7$ and $(\text{Gd/Yb})_{\text{CN}} = 1.9\text{-}4.6$). Compared to typical oceanic basalts, the REE patterns of most samples resemble ocean island basalts (OIBs) but are quite distinct from normal mid-oceanic ridge basalt (N-MORB). In contrast to volcanic rocks from the Chilean Volcanic Front, the main differences are the tendency to higher absolute REE contents and the lack of a flattening HREE slope. In the Th/Yb vs. Nb/Yb diagram (Pearce, 2008), used to discriminate between oceanic basalts and subduction-related basalts, most samples broadly fall between the alkalic and tholeiitic OIB compositions (Fig. 6).

In adjacent blueschist-greenschist pairs, blueschist layers are typically enriched in SiO_2 and Na_2O and depleted in MgO , $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3^{\text{T}}$ and H_2O compared to the associated greenschist, whereas CaO and K_2O lack systematic relationships with respect to rock type. The sequence CH-1-48, comprising a blueschist layer sandwiched in between two greenschists with distinctly different hues (Fig. 2), exhibits significant compositional differences not only between blueschist and greenschists but also between the two greenschists (Table 1, Fig. 5). In contrast, the adjacent blueschists and greenschists of three pairs have very similar REE slopes

compared to the respective greenschist/blueschist counterpart (Fig. 5). Moreover, the blueschists of the two pairs CH-1-12 and CH-1-18/19 are indistinguishable in terms of their Th/Yb and Nb/Yb ratios from the corresponding greenschists.

7. Discussion

7.1. Protolith composition

For altered and metamorphosed magmatic rocks, ratios of trace elements that are considered as immobile during low-grade alteration and metamorphism (Pearce and Cann, 1973; Pearce, 2008) can be used to determine the protolith composition. The Th/Yb versus Nb/Yb diagram combines Th/Yb as geochemical proxy for crustal input (via subduction, crustal recycling or magma-crust interaction) and Nb/Yb as proxy for mantle source/melting variance (Pearce, 2008). All samples fall into the field of oceanic basalts and do not show elevated Th/Yb ratios and low Nb/Yb ratios that are typical for the arc-related magmatic rocks from the Chilean volcanic front (Jacques et al., 2013). Hence, we exclude a subduction-related origin and favor formation in an oceanic setting. Hyppolito et al. (2014) also noted the lack of a subduction signature in blueschists and greenschists from the Coastal Cordillera of central Chile and attributed the observed N-MORB, E-MORB and OIB signatures to an oceanic origin.

On outcrop scale, blueschists and greenschists are interlayered with metasedimentary rocks, and hence a contribution of sedimentary material, either as detritus during deposition or by incorporation during subduction, has to be evaluated. In the Th/Yb vs. Nb/Yb diagram (Fig. 6) Chilean trench sediments (Lucassen et al., 2010) with high Th/Yb and low Nb/Yb ratios are geochemically distinct from the analyzed samples. Therefore, we do not consider that

admixing of a sedimentary component was a significant process in affecting the whole rock geochemistry of the blueschists and greenschists.

The overall heterogeneity in REE patterns from N-MORB-like to alkalic OIB-like (Fig. 5) is evidence for chemically heterogeneous precursor rocks. Most samples, however, have strongly negative REE slopes and correspondingly high (>5) $(\text{La/Yb})_{\text{CN}}$ ratios, pointing to an ocean island origin, consistent with relatively high Nb/Yb ratios (Fig. 6). The chemical heterogeneity in the metavolcanic rocks can be explained by an origin at a plume-influenced ridge (Hyppolito et al., 2014) or at seamounts (John et al., 2010). Both scenarios can produce the coexistence of chemically diverse meta-igneous rocks in HP subduction complexes. The presence of Ti-rich ferropargasite relicts provides further support for an origin as igneous oceanic lithosphere because similarly Ti-rich pargasitic amphibole has been observed in ocean-floor ultramafic-mafic plutonic suites (Arai et al., 1997). Texturally similar inclusions of hornblende in metamafic rocks from the Attic-Cycladic blueschist belt were also assigned to an early, pre-HP metamorphism stage (Baziotis et al., 2009). In the context of this study, the key observation is that the metavolcanic rocks exhibit primary geochemical differences related to their magmatic origin, which are determined based on the REE patterns and distinct immobile trace element ratios (Nb/Yb, Th/Yb). The sample sequence CH-1-48 (Figs. 2, 5) provides an example for geochemical inheritance from the pre-metamorphic precursor rocks. On the other hand, three adjacent blueschist-greenschist pairs (samples CH-1-12, CH-1-15 and CH-1-18/19) have almost identical REE patterns (Fig. 5) and similar key HFSE ratios (Fig. 6). Since these elemental features typically remain unchanged during subduction-related metamorphism and retrogression (El Korh et al., 2009; 2013; John et al., 2004; 2010), these sample pairs are considered to reflect geochemically similar protoliths and to be suitable for the evaluation of additional, secondary effects on the bulk rock geochemistry.

7.2. Effects of igneous differentiation processes

Pre-metamorphic major and trace element variations that may have been caused by magmatic processes are assessed by comparing general fractional crystallization trends to the blueschist-greenschist pairs (Fig. 7). Some features of the major element abundances of individual blueschist-greenschist pairs, such as higher Na₂O and lower MgO contents in the more SiO₂-rich samples, are broadly compatible with a fractional crystallization relationship. However, there is evidence that typical magmatic relationships between major elements are disturbed, both for the entire sample set and individual blueschist-greenschist pairs.

Features that are inconsistent with igneous differentiation trends of ocean island volcanic rocks include (Fig. 7): (i) For a given MgO content, several blueschists have significantly higher SiO₂ and Na₂O contents compared to the igneous fractionation trend (ii) One greenschist is displaced to very low SiO₂ and shows an unusual, extreme enrichment in FeO^T. (iii) The slopes that connect matching blueschist-greenschist pairs in SiO₂-MgO space are oblique to the differentiation trend. (iv) CaO is relatively depleted in all samples except one. (v) The positive correlation of K₂O and Rb with MgO for two pairs is opposite to the igneous differentiation trend. (vi) There is a general enrichment in Ni, whereas the Cr contents scatter unsystematically. (vii) The behavior of incompatible trace elements relative to major elements is also difficult to explain with fractional crystallization alone because the more SiO₂-rich blueschists have similar or lower Zr, La and U contents than the greenschists (Table 1), whereas higher contents of these elements would be expected if fractional crystallization alone were responsible for the chemical variations. To conclude, many of geochemical variations present require element mobilization subsequent to the magmatic/volcanic history.

7.3. Chemical differences due to fluid-rock interaction

If igneous differentiation cannot explain several of the major element features, seafloor alteration and subduction and/or exhumation-related metamorphic processes remain as factors for the metasomatic overprint. The three selected blueschist-greenschist pairs, which show no

or little primary magmatic geochemical differences based on similar REE patterns and HFSE ratios, have unsystematic major element variations, indicating that metasomatic changes affected the rocks subsequent to the magmatic history. Hydrothermal alteration of oceanic crust is often observed in HP terranes (e.g., Putlitz et al., 2000; Spandler et al., 2004; Halama et al., 2011; El Korh et al., 2013), and metasomatic processes specific for ocean floor alteration, such as rodingitization and spilitization, have also been observed (Li et al., 2004; Arghe et al., 2011; Halama et al., 2013). Regarding major elements, gains and losses during seafloor alteration are highly variable and uncertainties in their quantification are high (Staudigel, 2003). For instance, Na is lost during submarine glass alteration (Staudigel and Hart, 1983), but spilitization leads to an increase in Na (Arghe et al., 2011). Therefore, potential effects of pre-metamorphic seafloor alteration are evaluated based on trace element abundances and ratios in diagrams that discern between seafloor alteration and high-pressure metasomatic processes (Fig. 8; Bebout, 2007; 2014). Increasing degrees of seafloor alteration in basaltic oceanic crust cause Ba/Rb and Th/U ratios to strongly decrease and K/Th to strongly increase (Fig. 8). Importantly, these trends are distinct from those observed for high-pressure metasomatic alteration (Bebout, 2007; 2014). None of the samples investigated falls onto any of the seafloor alteration trends, suggesting that this process had a negligible influence on the whole rock compositions. Instead, the samples plot close to typical OIB compositions, as expected from their immobile trace element signatures, or along the metasomatic alteration trends that illustrate chemical changes during subduction metamorphism. In particular, the three blueschist-greenschist pairs with negligible magmatic geochemical differences show trends that are subparallel to the general metasomatic alteration trend (Fig. 8). The apparent lack of typical seafloor alteration trends suggests that any metasomatic alterations of the whole rock geochemistry are related to fluid-rock interaction during the subduction-related metamorphic evolution.

For illustrative purposes, the chemical variations between individual blueschist-greenschist pairs are shown in isocon diagrams (Fig. 9). Isocon diagrams (Grant, 1986; 2005) are used to quantify chemical changes during metasomatism, and they have been successfully applied in elucidating transformation of eclogite into epidote amphibolite (El-Shazly et al., 1997) and eclogite into blueschist (van der Straaten et al., 2012). For the graphic representation of isocon diagrams, altered compositions are plotted against an original composition. Elemental species that have remained immobile in the investigated process define the isocon, which is a straight line through the origin (Grant, 2005). Here, the isocon diagrams reflect the integrated chemical variations of the rock's entire evolution and we use them to visualize geochemical variations and the general patterns of elemental behavior rather than the quantification of metasomatic changes. Although it is unlikely that blueschist and greenschist of individual pairs had exactly the same precursor, the near-identical REE patterns of the three selected pairs allows an evaluation of secondary metasomatic changes superimposed onto the primary magmatic differences.

The isocon analysis is based on a set of selected "immobile" reference elements and robust isocons can be defined based on >10 trace elements for each blueschist-greenschist pair (Fig. 9). Based on petrographic observations, we assume that blueschists are the less overprinted equivalents to the greenschists. The following observations can be made independent from absolute concentrations in the rocks: (i) SiO_2 , CaO and Na_2O are relatively depleted in the greenschists. As SiO_2 and Na_2O increase but CaO decreases during igneous differentiation, these combined effects must be related to the metasomatic overprint. (ii) Greenschists are enriched in H_2O , consistent with the assumption of more intense fluid-rock interaction. (iii) MgO , $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3^{\text{T}}$ and transition metals show variable behavior. The observed scatter is partly due to differences in degree of fractionation, but the strong relative enrichment of these elements in one greenschist (Fig. 9C) suggests metasomatic mobilization of transition metals, as observed in several other studies of metamorphic fluid overprinting (El Shazly et al., 1997;

van der Straaten et al., 2012) and presumably linked to interaction with ultramafic lithologies. (iv) The four LILE K, Ba, Rb and Cs follow a distinct, linear array in all three examples, and the slope of this linear array is distinct from the slope defined by the reference elements. These trends point to a mineralogical control by potassic white mica (Sorensen et al., 1997; Bebout et al., 2007) and are probably related to fluid equilibration with metasedimentary lithologies. In two cases (Fig. 9A, B), LILE were added during fluid infiltration together with H₂O, whereas in the third case (Fig. 9C), LILE were removed during fluid-rock interaction.

7.4. Pseudosections

The application of thermodynamic modeling to metasomatized rocks faces the difficulties that textures produced by fluid-rock interaction are difficult to distinguish from those caused by P-T changes and that the selection of equilibrated minerals may be hampered by the variability in the scale of mass transfer and equilibration (Goncalves et al., 2013). For the Pichilemu rocks, relict glaucophane cores in both blueschist and greenschist (Fig. 3) bear evidence for a high-pressure metamorphic stage of the whole sequence. The textural evidence suggests that glaucophane is not in equilibrium with albite and K-feldspar, pointing to a distinct retrograde metamorphic stage (see also Willner, 2005). To explore phase assemblage and compositional variations, we calculated pseudosections for the blueschist-greenschist pair CH-1-18 – CH-1-19. This sample pair was selected because of a distinct difference in visual appearance and negligible differences in REE abundances and patterns reflecting a similar igneous protolith. Key features observed for these two samples also occur in the pseudosections calculated for the two other sample pairs, so that showing the entire set of diagrams for all samples is deemed redundant. We assume that the rocks are water-saturated at peak conditions, which is likely if continuous dehydration occurred along the prograde path (Konrad-Schmolke et al., 2011). The pseudosections for the two samples show broadly similar topologies despite small differences in detail (Fig. 10A-B). At peak conditions of around 1.0 ± 0.1 GPa and 400 ± 20 °C,

the predicted equilibrium assemblage is chlorite + epidote + phengite + amphibole. Albite becomes stable below about 0.5 ± 0.1 GPa and is joined by K-feldspar at still lower pressures. Maximum equilibration pressures during retrograde overprint are constrained by the presence of albite to about 0.4-0.6 GPa. The presence of K-feldspar in the greenschist constrains P to < 0.5 GPa, whereas minimum pressures are approximately 0.25 GPa based on the presence of phengite. Hence, the best estimate for the retrograde overprint is 0.4 ± 0.1 GPa at $\leq 400^\circ\text{C}$. These estimates are clearly below peak pressure estimates of up to 1.1 GPa for blueschists from the region (Willner, 2005), demonstrating that incomplete greenschist-facies equilibration occurred after peak P-T on the retrograde path during exhumation. These findings are in accordance with a significant pressure release with only slight cooling during the retrograde P-T evolution (Willner, 2005). Based on the geochemical evidence presented earlier, we suggest that the retrograde overprint is associated with layer-parallel fluid infiltration, causing the different degrees of metasomatism under greenschist-facies conditions.

7.5. Influence of water on mineral assemblages and compositions

The amount of structurally bound water in minerals is critical for the formation and preservation of mineral assemblages during metamorphism (Guiraud et al., 2001; Clarke et al., 2006; Konrad-Schmolke et al., 2011). To examine the mineral assemblage evolution along the retrograde P-T path, we contoured the pseudosections for H_2O content of the mineral assemblage (Fig. 10 A-B). Moreover, we modeled isothermal ($T = 400^\circ\text{C}$) P- $\text{X}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ pseudo-binary phase diagrams to study the influence of water undersaturation and water infiltration on mineral assemblages as well as modal and chemical mineral variations (Fig. 10 C-F). The water isopleths patterns of the examined blueschist and greenschist are very similar, showing a positive slope above about 0.4-0.6 GPa, i.e. for all phase assemblages where albite is lacking (Fig. 10 A-B). In contrast, water isopleths have a negative slope where albite is

present in the calculated mineral assemblage. Along the retrograde P-T path of the blueschist-greenschist sequence, successively lower isopleths are encountered within the 4-phase assemblage field chlorite+epidote+phengite+amphibole. Hence, decompression from peak pressure would result in dehydration because the capability of the rock to retain water diminishes (cf. Heinrich, 1982; Guiraud et al., 2001). Consequently, water saturation during decompression is attained without external water influx. The rock would remain water-saturated until albite joins the stable paragenesis where it becomes water-undersaturated as all the available water will be incorporated into the hydrous solid phases, rendered possible by the significant increase in the modal chlorite abundance (Fig. 10 A-B).

As inferred from the water isopleth patterns, the rocks remain at or above the water saturation line during decompression until pressures < 0.4 GPa are reached (Fig. 10 C-D). The absence of garnet and omphacite and the presence of K-feldspar in the Pichilemu samples also suggest crystallization conditions at or near water saturation. Only where the water saturation curve has a negative slope, external water addition is required to maintain water saturation (see also Konrad-Schmolke et al., 2011). The modal abundances of both chlorite (Fig. 10 C-D) and amphibole (Fig. 10 E-F) are strongly dependent on the degree of water-undersaturation, increasing with increasing water amounts, but show only moderate changes in water-saturated regions. The amphibole composition shows distinct patterns for water-undersaturated and water-saturated conditions (Fig. 10 E-F). The glaucophane component strongly decreases with increasing water content and shows only minor pressure dependence at water-undersaturation. However, once water saturation is reached, the amphibole composition solely depends on pressure, with a significant decrease in glaucophane component below pressures of ~0.35 GPa, i.e. where two feldspars are coexisting.

In summary, water-saturated or water-oversaturated conditions on the retrograde P-T path and the near-isothermal decompression are reflected in extensive albite crystallization and the growth of sodic-calcic and calcic amphibole around glaucophane. The almost mylonitic

textures that reflect high strain also favor extensive recrystallization of the Pichilemu rocks on the retrograde P-T path. Although these features do not necessarily require influx of external water, they are certainly consistent with fluid influx during the final equilibration stage. Moreover, the significant deviations from igneous differentiation trends for major elements are inconsistent with a closed system evolution and point to the presence of an external metasomatic fluid triggering the retrograde equilibration. Supportive evidence for fluid influx comes from the sharp compositional boundaries between glaucophane cores and winchite/actinolite overgrowths. The lack of a continuous compositional trend in individual amphiboles suggests discontinuous growth, which can be explained by a distinct fluid influx as observed in eclogite-facies rocks from the Sesia Zone (Konrad-Schmolke et al., 2011; Halama et al., 2014).

7.6. Bulk compositional effects on mineral assemblages and compositions

Previous studies have highlighted the important role of the bulk rock chemistry on amphibole chemistry in interlayered blueschists and greenschists. Maruyama et al. (1986) proposed that higher Fe contents expand the glaucophane stability, as glaucophane-bearing layers with higher Fe contents were described (Oberhänsli et al., 1978; Dungan et al., 1983). Other chemical variables, such as lower MgO and higher Na/Ca ratios in blueschists have also been invoked to explain blueschist-greenschist interlayering (Baziotis et al., 2009; Dungan et al., 1983). Evidently, phase stabilities depend on a complex interplay of major element abundances. To accommodate for the complete major elemental variation of the rocks, we calculated pseudo-binary phase diagrams for the selected blueschist-greenschist pair in order to evaluate the influence of bulk chemical properties on modal phase abundances and mineral compositions.

Calculated modal phase changes show that the chlorite abundance increases towards the end-member greenschist component (Fig. 11A), which can be related to the relative increase of

MgO compared to SiO₂. Modal amphibole contents are higher for the blueschist. Both of these modeled features agree with the observed modal abundances and the restricted occurrence of glaucophane in greenschist layers. Interestingly, the calculated glaucophane component is higher for the greenschist composition at any given pressure, demonstrating that the scarcity of glaucophane in the greenschist must be related to a more intense degree of retrograde overprinting in the greenschist relative to the blueschist at low pressure where a more Ca-rich amphibole becomes stable. The pseudo-binary phase diagrams demonstrate that chemical variations in adjacent lithologies are the dominant factor in determining their appearance as “blue” or “green”, without the necessity to invoke distinct P-T equilibration conditions. Chemical variations can be related to two main causes, both of which are observed in the Pichilemu rocks: 1) Primary compositional differences, inherited from a pre-subduction stage, as in the sequence CH-1-48 A-B-C, and 2) Compositional changes that are induced by fluid infiltration, affecting distinct layers to different degrees, as observed in the sample pair CH-1-18/19.

Besides major element compositional variations, the oxidation state of metamorphic rocks influences the stable mineral parageneses (Konrad-Schmolke et al., 2008; Diener and Powell, 2010) and their dehydration behavior (Massonne and Willner, 2008). For blueschist-facies and greenschist-facies rocks, the preferential uptake of ferric iron by both sodic amphibole and epidote relative to actinolite, chlorite and lawsonite exerts the most significant compositional effect (Evans, 1990). Hence, the field of epidote and glaucophane is largest for compositions rich in Fe³⁺, i.e. for relatively oxidizing conditions (Evans, 1990), and the addition of ferric iron moves the glaucophane-in boundary down to lower pressures (Diener et al., 2007). In the Pichilemu samples, sodic amphibole is the major host of ferric iron because epidote is only a minor phase and omphacite and garnet are absent. Hence, more oxidized conditions would result in a larger stability field of sodic amphibole. However, we have relinquished a more detailed discussion about the effects of oxygen fugacity because of two

reasons: First, despite recent improvements in the formulation of mineral solid solutions that consider incorporation of Fe^{3+} (e.g. Diener et al., 2007), present knowledge about thermodynamic properties of Fe^{3+} end-members is still incomplete and large uncertainties exist about the Fe^{3+} standard state data and for the parameters of the mathematical formulation of solid solution data (Scott et al., 2013). Second, it is difficult to relate observed to modeled data because of the inability of the electron microprobe to resolve Fe valence (Scott et al., 2013) and because bulk rock values of Fe_2O_3 may not reflect the oxidation state during the main metamorphic evolution and may be modified by superficial alteration (López-Carmona et al., 2013).

7.7. Pre-metamorphic variability versus metamorphic overprinting

The alternating layering on a cm-to-dm scale, the lack of structural breaks between the different layers and the similar mineralogy of blueschists and greenschists suggest that the whole sequence experienced a similar P-T evolution. If there is an appropriate spread in whole rock compositions, reflected by mineral chemical variations along the exchange vectors $\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{Al}_1$ and $\text{Fe}^{2+}\text{Mg}_{-1}$, blueschists and greenschists can coexist over a pressure range of at least 0.3 GPa and 400 °C (Evans, 1990). However, the Pichilemu rocks show abundant evidence for retrogression in both rock types: Presence of albite $\pm$ K-feldspar, overgrowth of winchite/ferrowinchite around glaucophane and actinolite and chlorite as abundant matrix minerals. These observations and the pressure estimate of 0.4 ± 0.1 GPa based on pseudosection modeling demonstrate that an early blueschist event was followed by variable retrograde overprint in the greenschist facies.

For several layers, exemplified in the chemically very heterogeneous sequence CH-1-48 (Figs. 2, 5, 7), the interlayering is best explained by metamorphism of layered volcanic rocks (tuffs and/or basaltic lava flows) of different composition. In addition to primary magmatic compositional differences, some features of the interlayered sequence were acquired by syn-

metamorphic fluid overprinting. Interlayering of blueschists and greenschists on a cm scale may be due to heterogeneous alteration of pillow lavas and subsequent flattening during metamorphism (Dungan et al., 1983). If metabasite layers are pervasively altered prior to metamorphism, they are likely to show greater effects of retrogression because of enrichment in Na and H₂O (El Korh et al., 2013). In the Pichilemu sequence, there is little evidence of pre-metamorphic alteration based on trace element systematics (Fig. 8) and because the blueschists, which are relatively enriched in Na, are also less retrogressed.

The detailed investigation of several blueschist-greenschist pairs revealed continuous gradations from blueschist to greenschist facies mineralogies in parts of the interlayered sequence and the persistence of blueschist-facies relicts in all rock types, pointing to an important role of synmetamorphic fluid-rock interaction and incomplete re-equilibration during uplift. Bröcker (1990) and Barrientos and Selverstone (1993) suggested that the retrograde blueschist-to-greenschist transformation is catalyzed by the availability of synmetamorphic fluid as the rocks pass through the greenschist facies by a selective infiltration overprinting process. All of the Pichilemu rocks show evidence for retrograde infiltration, but the effects were different in individual layers. We interpret these features as channeled infiltration subparallel to pseudo-stratigraphic layering, most likely controlled by differences in permeability (Bröcker, 1990).

8. Conclusions

Interlayered blueschists and greenschists occur in a fossil accretionary prism in the Coastal Cordillera of Chile. Their close spatial association on a cm-to-dm scale and the lack of structural breaks in between the layers argue against a large-scale tectonic transport of rocks with different metamorphic facies. The geochemical differences between blueschist and greenschist layers involve primary magmatic and secondary metasomatic processes. The

primary differences reveal that the rocks had oceanic basalts with dominantly OIB and subordinately MORB affinities as protoliths. Glaucophane relicts occur in both blueschists and greenschists, recording a high-pressure metamorphic event. The metasomatic overprint occurred under greenschist-facies conditions during exhumation and affected the rocks to different degrees. Gradational contacts between blueschists and greenschists on hand specimen and thin section scale and the persistence of blueschist-facies minerals in both rock types point to a selective infiltration overprinting during retrogression. Selected blueschist-greenschist pairs with similar REE patterns and immobile trace element ratios were used to evaluate geochemical effects of metasomatic overprinting. Key features of the metasomatic event include addition of water and depletion of Si and Na in greenschists relative to blueschists, mobilization and non-systematic behavior of most major elements and transition metals, and concurrent mobilization trends for K, Ba, Rb and Cs. Pseudosection calculations constrain the final equilibration to about 0.4 ± 0.1 GPa at $T < 400$ °C. The array of water isopleths shows that the rocks were dehydrating for the major segments of the retrograde P-T path, in agreement with the water saturation required to explain the modal mineralogy. Influx of an additional, external fluid is nevertheless indicated based on the geochemical arguments. Pseudo-binary phase diagrams of the metasomatic rocks reveal that the different bulk rock geochemistry of blueschists and greenschists, related to element mobilization by the external fluid, is responsible for a higher modal abundance of chlorite in greenschists. The second effect of the retrograde fluid-rock interaction is the preferential preservation of glaucophane in blueschists caused by a less intense overprint compared to the greenschists. Hence, layer-parallel, selective fluid infiltration is a key factor for the distinct visual appearance.

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Figure captions:

Fig. 1: Geological map of the Western and Eastern Series between 34° and 35°40' S with the sample location at Pichilemu (modified from Willner et al., 2005; 2009).

Fig. 2: Photographs of layered blueschist-greenschist outcrops at Infiernillo Beach in Pichilemu. Note the distinct color difference between the blueschist and the greenschist layers.

Fig. 3: Back-scattered electron images of blueschist and greenschist layers. A) Blueschist layer comprising glaucophane cores overgrown by sodic-calcic to calcic amphibole (winchite-actinolite), together with larger winchites and small actinolites. Winchite contains inclusions of titanite. Albite, chlorite and phengite are present in the matrix. B) Greenschist layer showing the typical fine-grained texture of both greenschist and blueschist layers. Compared to the blueschist layer, albite occurs less frequently and large patches of chlorite are conspicuous. C) Blueschist layer with a patchy occurrence of glaucophane and winchite and aggregates of titanite. D) Greenschist layer that contains a relatively large glaucophane overgrown by actinolite. E) Amphibole porphyroblast comprising a core of ferro-winchite surrounded by glaucophane. Note that the porphyroblast is not aligned with the foliation, in contrast to actinolite in the matrix. F) Greenschist layer with relict Ti-rich ferropargasite in actinolite. Similar relicts, interpreted to derive from the igneous protolith, occur in the corresponding blueschist sample. Mineral abbreviations: ab – albite, act – actinolite, ap – apatite, chl – chlorite, gln – glaucophane, phg – phengite, Ti-fpg – Ti-rich ferropargasite, ttn – titanite, win – winchite, zrn – zircon.

Fig. 4: Amphibole major element chemistry. A) Na_B versus Si_T . Note the large compositional variation from almost pure actinolite to almost pure glaucophane. B) $\text{Mg\#}$, defined as $\text{Mg}/(\text{Mg} + \text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{Fe}^{3+})$, versus Ca_B . There is a general broad positive correlation, only the relict Ti-rich ferropargasites fall off the trend.

Fig. 5: Chondrite-normalized (Boynton, 1984) REE diagrams. Panels A)-C) show three blueschist-greenschist pairs with similar REE patterns. In contrast, panel D) shows large compositional differences between the three adjacent layers of sample CH-1-48 and the overall variability observed in the entire sequence. REE patterns of typical oceanic OIBs (alkalic OIB and N-MORB from Sun and McDonough (1989), tholeiitic OIB is the standard BHVO-1) and volcanic rocks from the Chilean volcanic front (Jacques et al., 2013) are shown for comparison.

Fig. 6: Layered blueschists and greenschists plotted in the Th/Yb vs. Nb/Yb diagram of Pearce (2008). All samples fall into the field of the oceanic basalts and are distinct from volcanic rocks of the Southern Volcanic Zone (Jacques et al., 2013) and Quaternary trench sediments from the Chilean coast (Lucassen et al., 2010). E-MORB and alkalic OIB compositions are from Sun and McDonough (1989), tholeiitic OIB is the standard BHVO-1.

Fig. 7: Evaluation of igneous differentiation trends. In most cases, blueschist-greenschist pairs show variations that are inconsistent with igneous differentiation alone as the compositions plot either off typical differentiation trends, or they show compositional changes that are oblique to the trends (see text for details). Typical ocean island igneous differentiation trends are shown as small grey dots, represented by 161 selected analyses from the island of Jan Mayen (North Atlantic) taken from the GEOROC database. Blue and green symbols represent blueschist and greenschists, respectively.

1025

1026 Fig. 8: Diagrams based on key trace element abundances and ratios to distinguish between
1027 seafloor alteration and subduction-related metasomatic alteration with trends from Bebout
1028 (2007). Data sources for MORB and OIB compositions as in Figs. 5 and 6.

1029

1030 Fig. 9: Isocon diagrams (after Grant, 2005) of three blueschist-greenschist pairs to illustrate
1031 the geochemical variability. The solid lines are the slopes based on the elements considered as
1032 immobile, dashed lines are the slopes for the four LILE K, Ba, Rb and Cs. The 1:1 line is
1033 shown for comparison.

1034

1035 Fig. 10: Thermodynamic calculations (see Methodology for details) for a representative
1036 blueschist-greenschist pair. A) and B) show pseudosections calculated for H₂O-saturated
1037 conditions buffered by the hematite-magnetite (HM) buffer. The molar percentage of water
1038 bound in solids is indicated by the contours and the corresponding black numbers. The white
1039 lines give the modal proportion of chlorite in vol%. The thick white arrow indicates the
1040 retrograde P-T path of Willner (2005). C) and D) show P-X_{H₂O} diagrams with the appearance
1041 of major mineral phases indicated at the boundaries of the different phase assemblages and
1042 the modal abundance of chlorite shown by the grey contours. E) and F) show P-X_{H₂O}
1043 diagrams with contours of modal amphibole abundance. To illustrate the compositional
1044 variation of amphibole, the glaucophane component is shown by the thin black lines. The
1045 glaucophane component was calculated as Na₂O – 0.5 × O₂ based on the definition in the
1046 amphibole solution model. Mineral abbreviations: Ab – albite, Chl – chlorite, Phg – phengite,
1047 Ep – epidote, Law – lawsonite, Omph – omphacite, Amph – amphibole, Grt – garnet, Kfsp –
1048 alkali feldspar.

1049

Fig. 11: P-X diagrams of a representative blueschist-greenschist pair using the blueschist (left) and greenschist (right) composition as end-members on the x-axis. The appearance of key mineral phases shows only small differences between the two compositions. A) Diagram contoured for the modal proportions of chlorite. B) Diagram contoured for the modal proportion of amphibole with the values for the glaucophane component shown by the white lines. Mineral abbreviations are as for Fig. 10.

Tables:

Table 1: Whole-rock geochemical analyses of blueschist and greenschist samples from Pichilemu and basaltic reference material BHVO-2.

Table 2: Modal mineral proportions of three selected blueschist-greenschist pairs.

Electronic Appendix:

Representative microprobe analyses of amphibole, white mica, chlorite and feldspar in blueschists and greenschists from Pichilemu.

Fig. 1

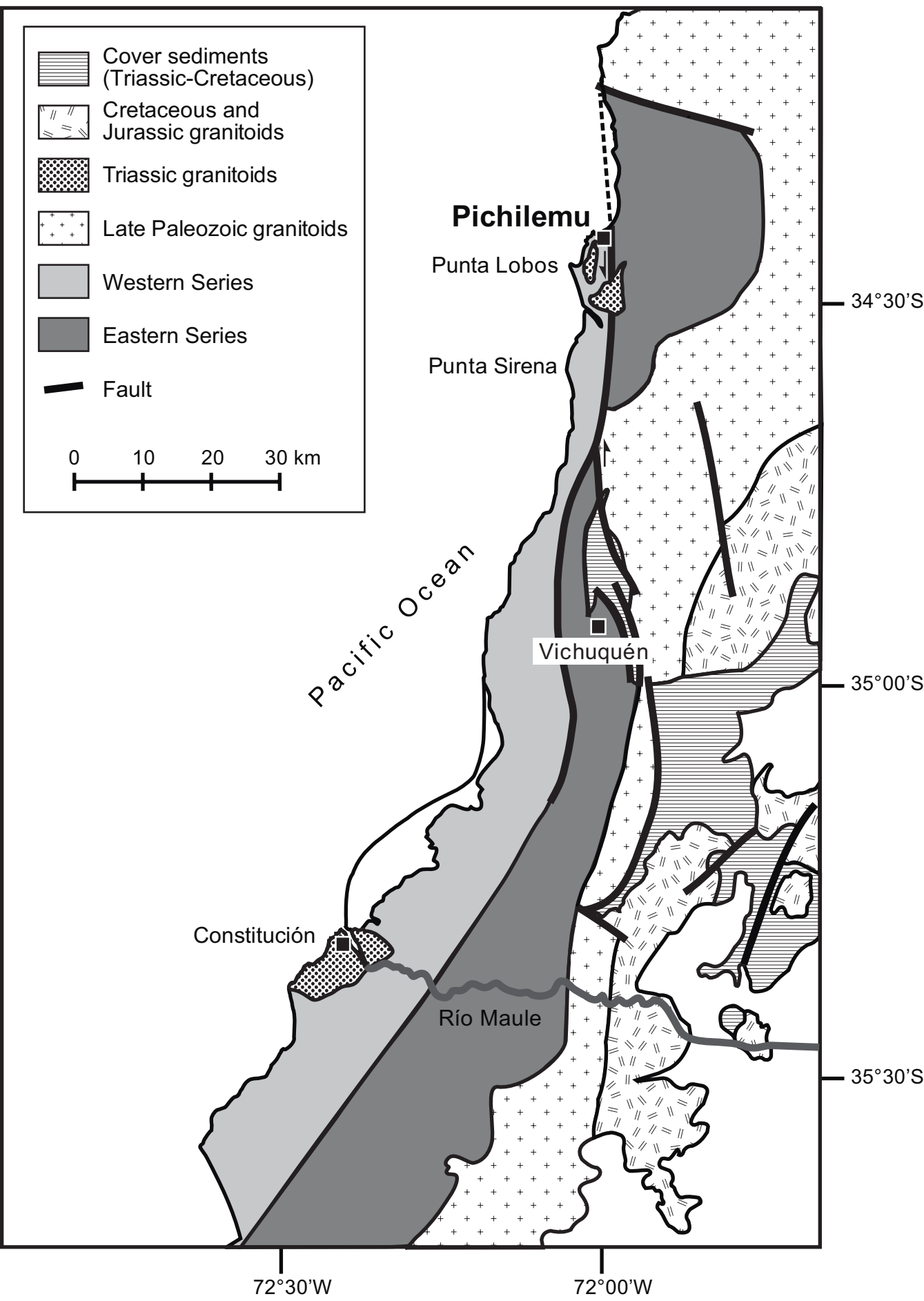


Fig. 2

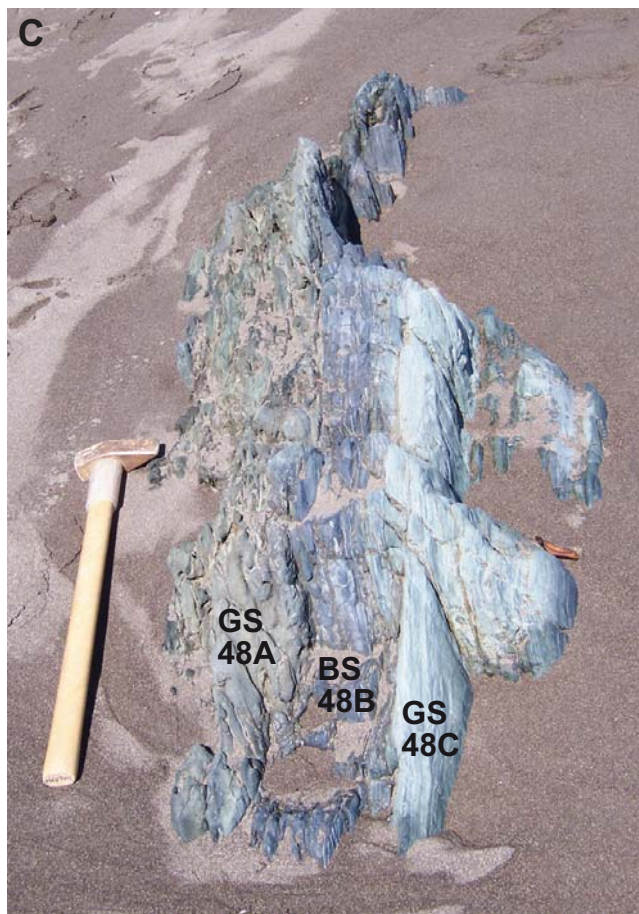
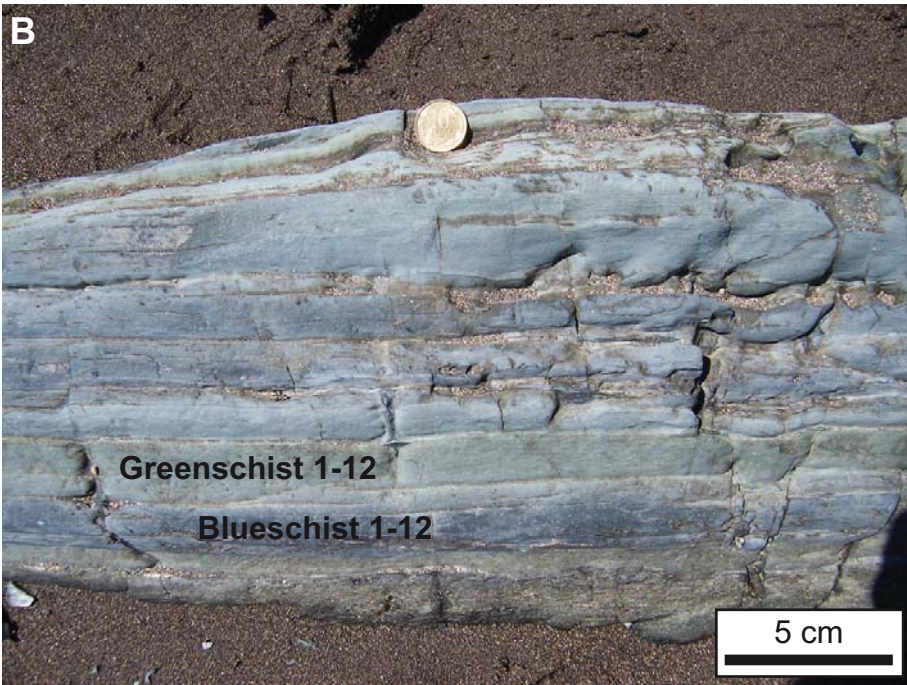
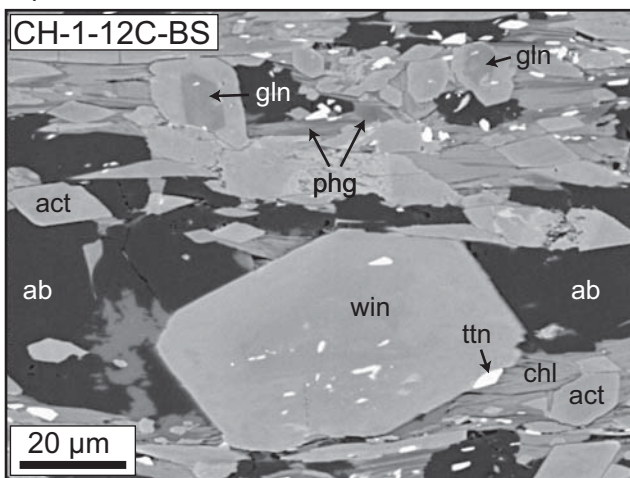
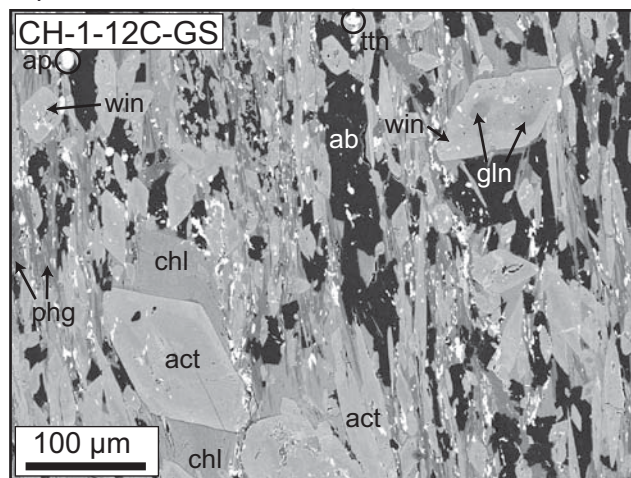


Fig. 3

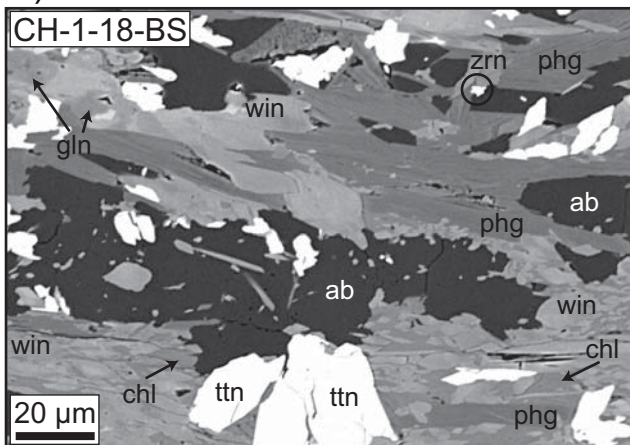
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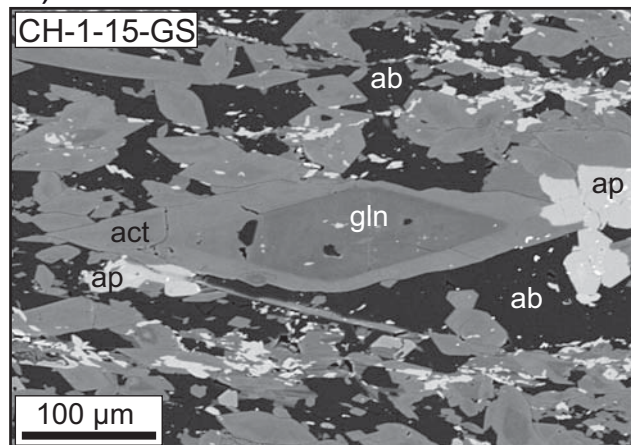
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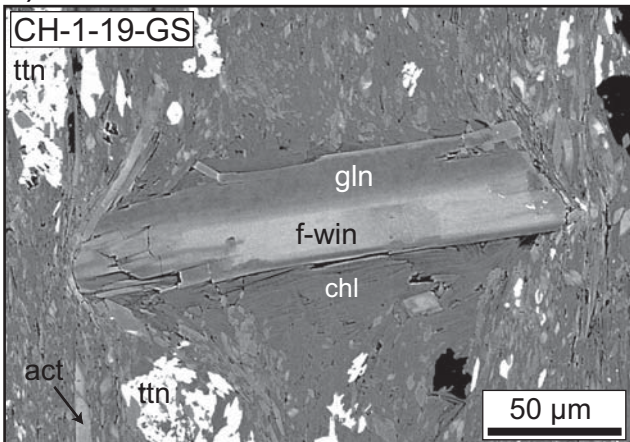
C)



D)



E)



F)

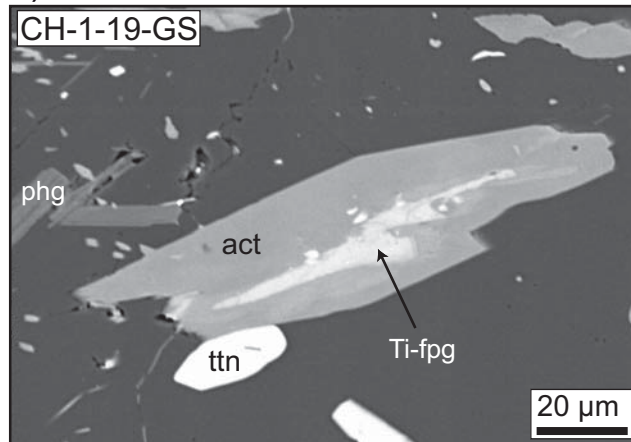


Fig. 4

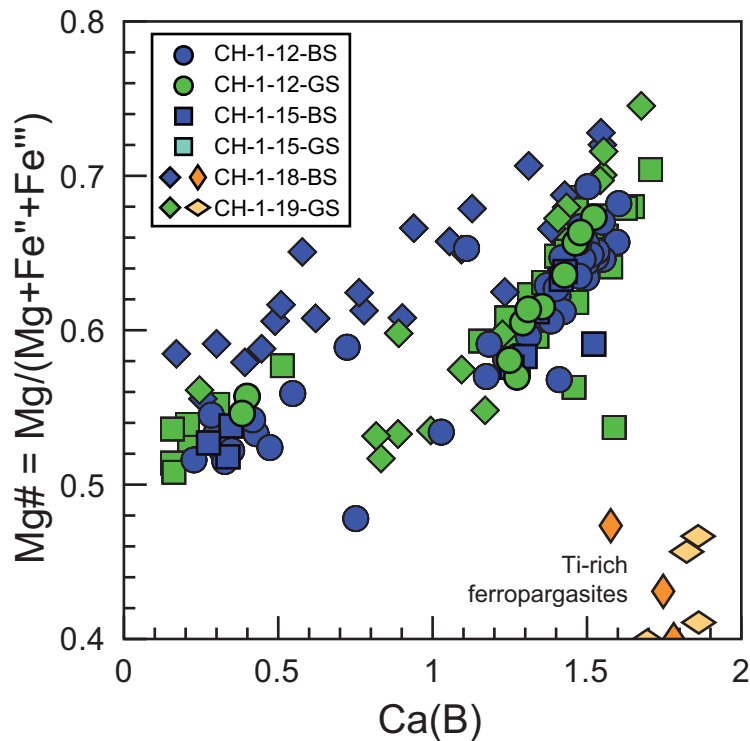
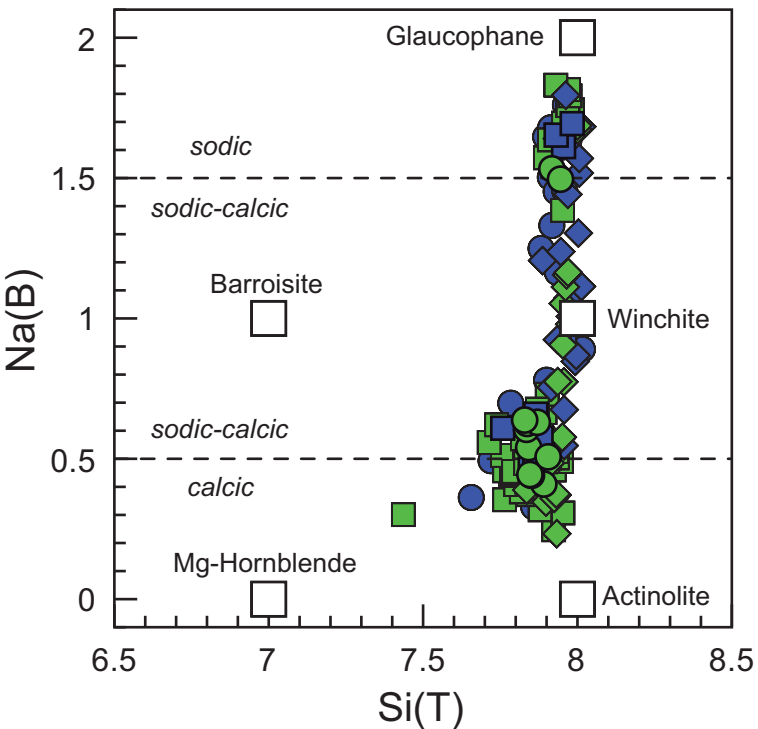


Fig. 5

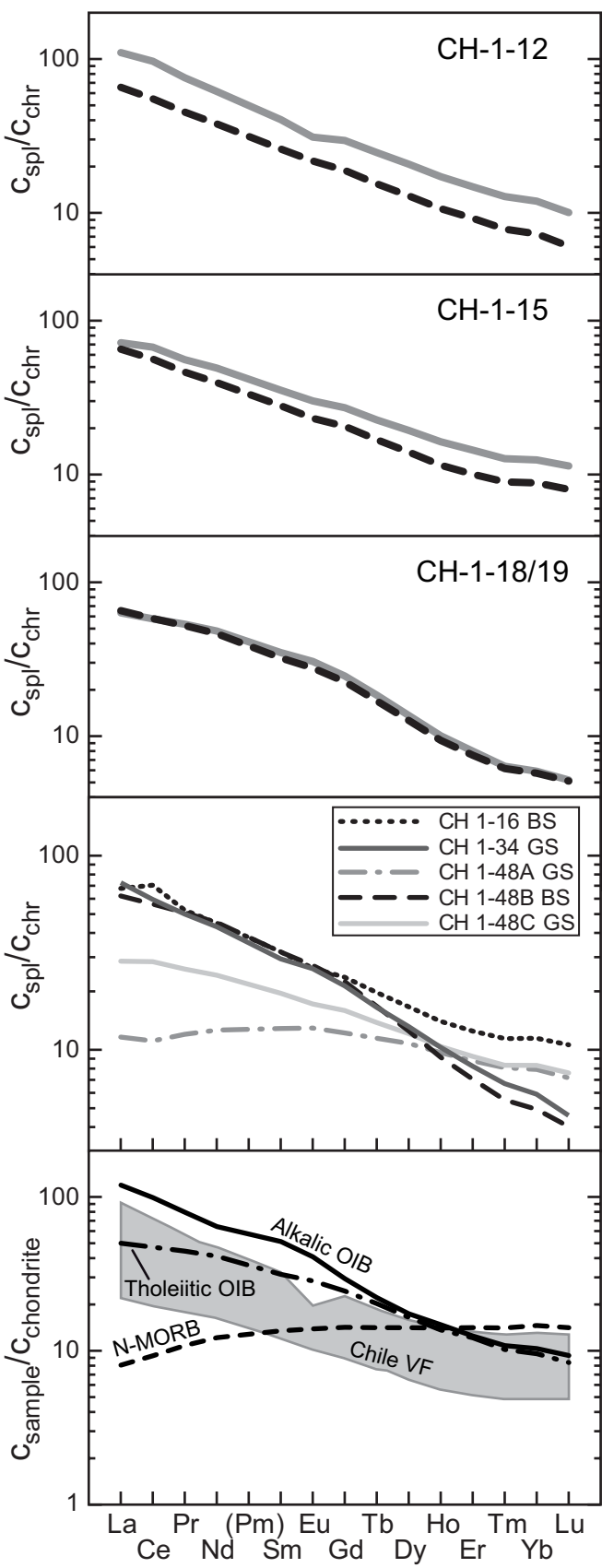


Fig. 6

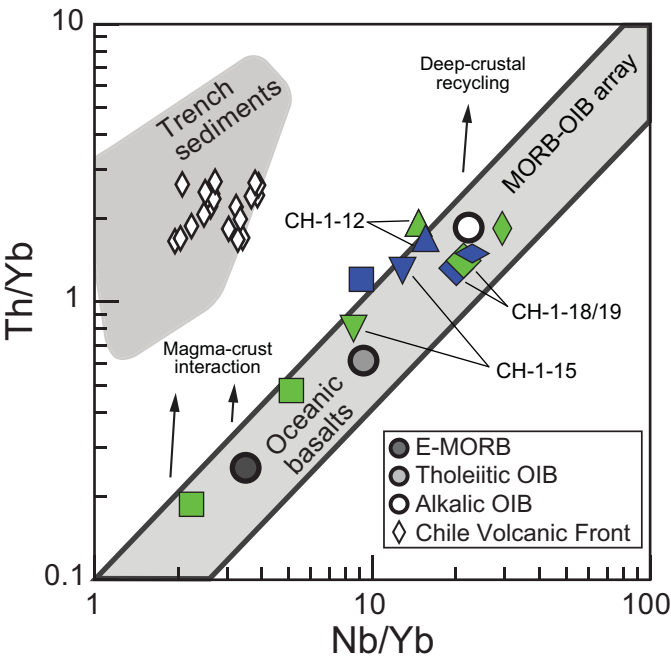


Fig. 7

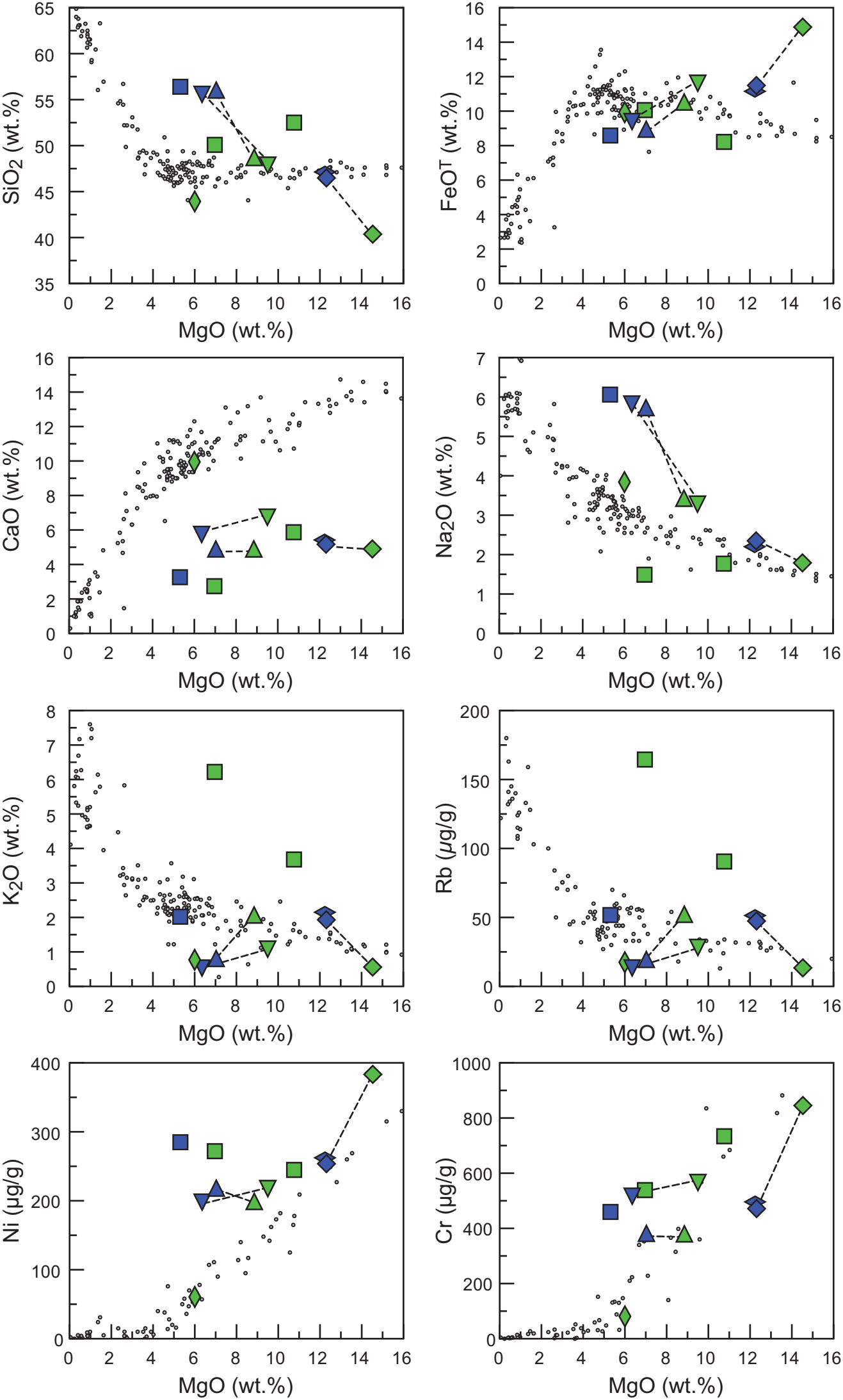


Fig. 8

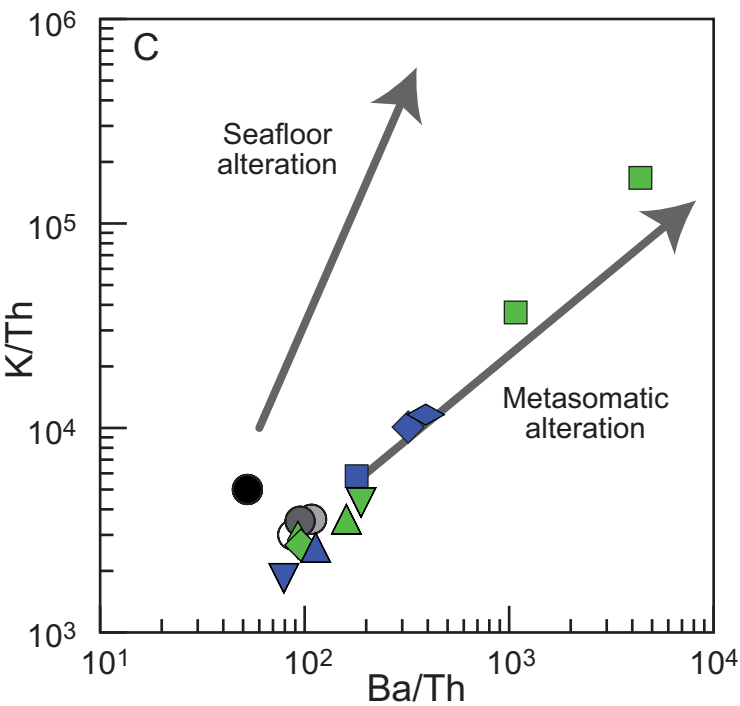
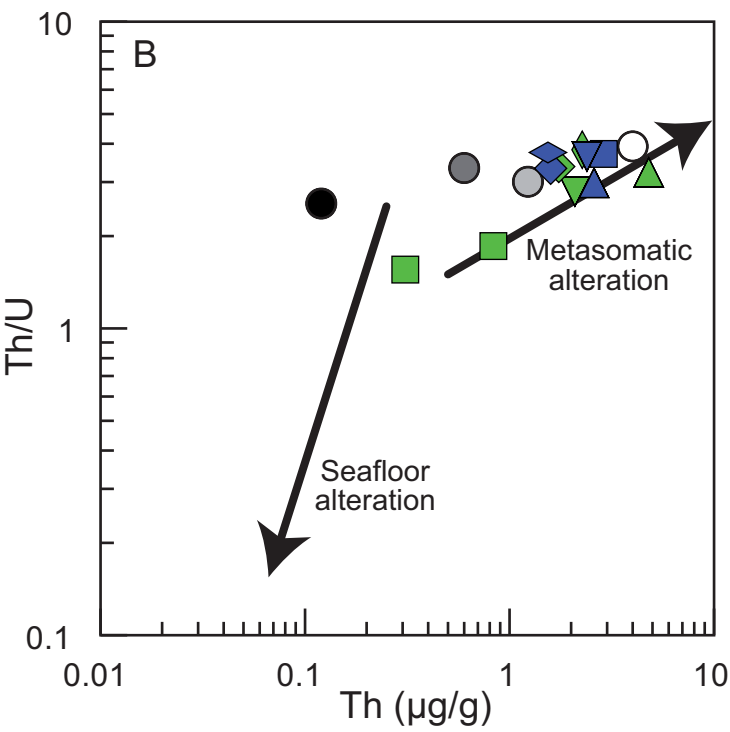
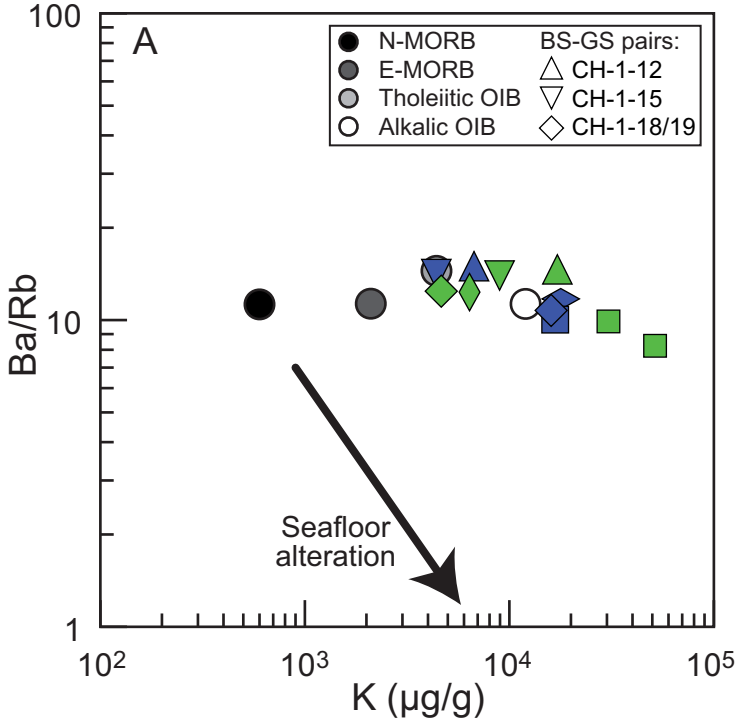


Fig. 9

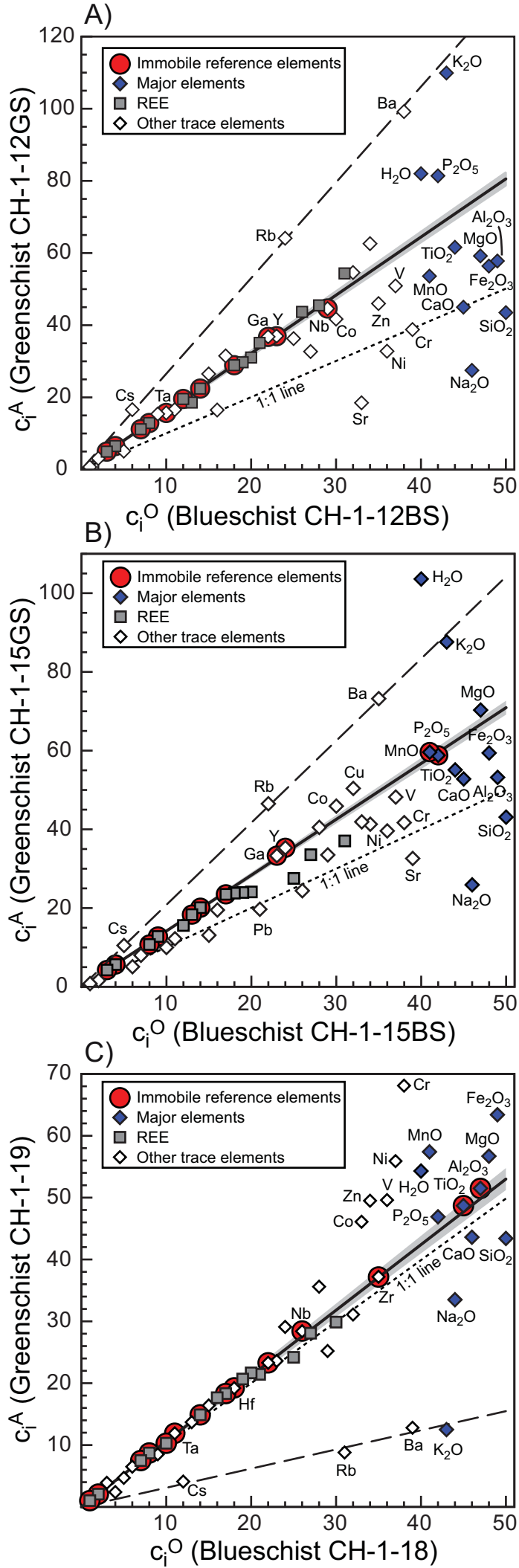


Fig. 10

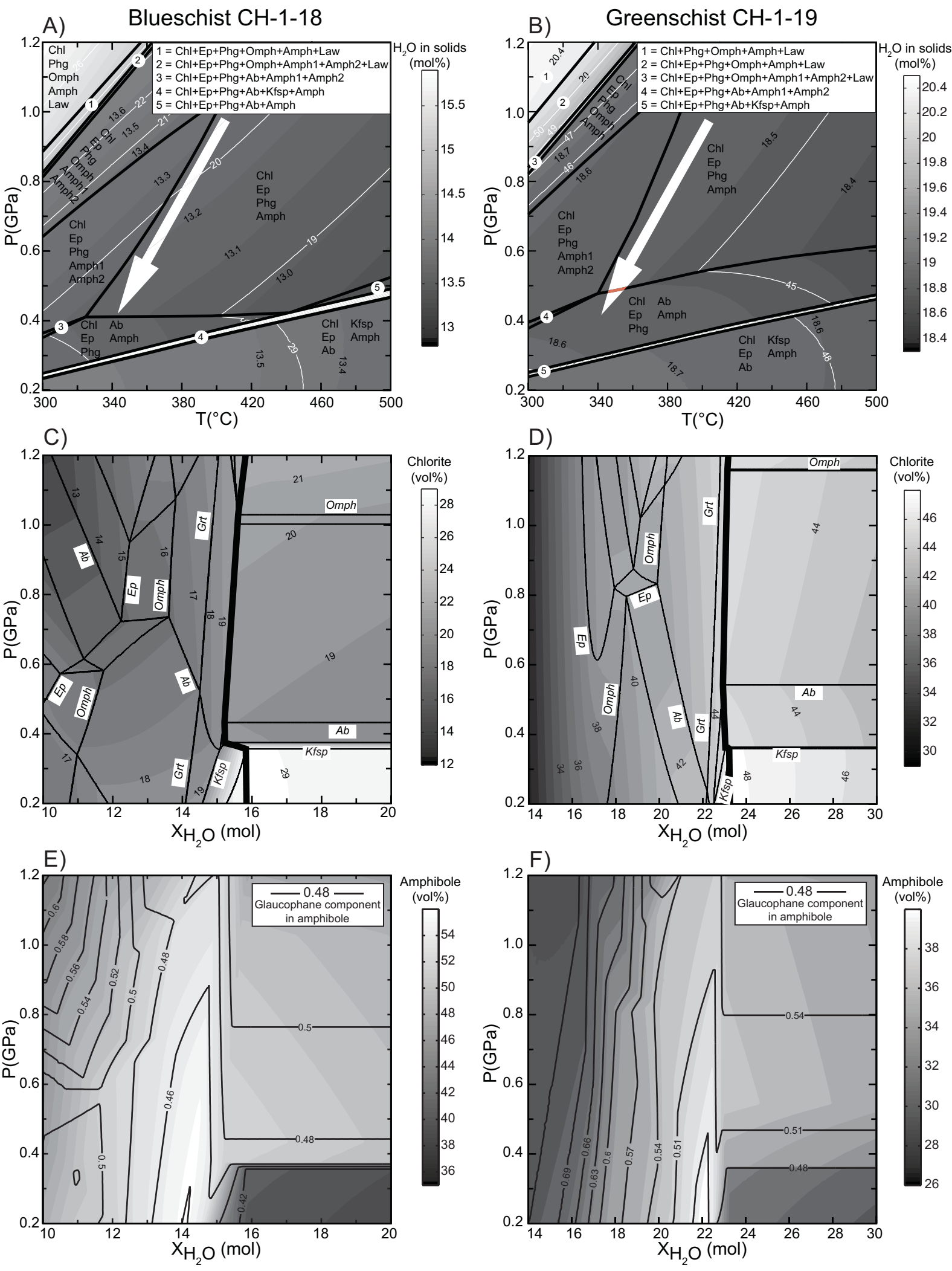


Fig. 11

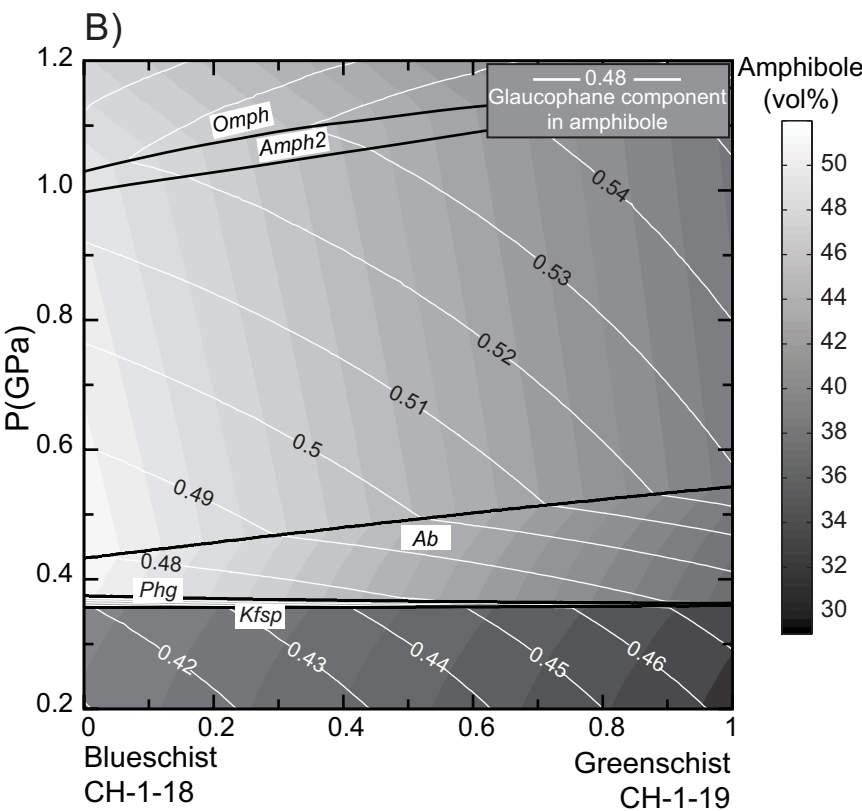
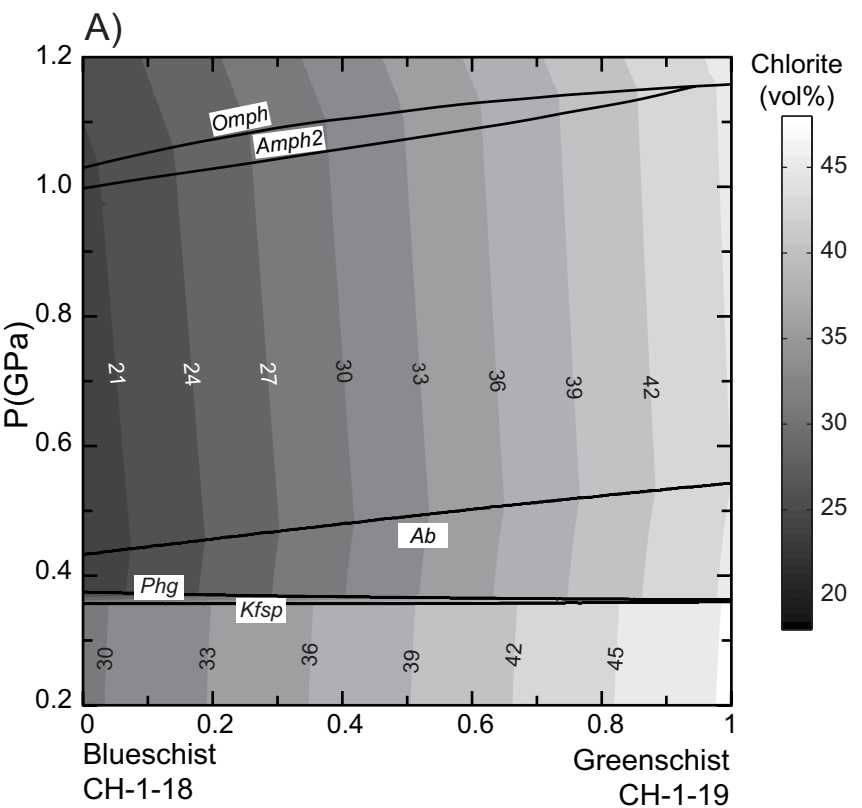


Table 1: Whole-rock geochemical analyses of blueschist and greenschist samples from Pichilemu and basaltic reference material BHVO-2.

Rock Type Sample ICPMS No.	Greenschist CH 1-12-GS 32541	Blueschist CH 1-12-BS 32542	Greenschist CH 1-15GS 32678	Blueschist CH 1-15BS 32677	Blueschist CH 1-16 32560	Blueschist CH 1-18 32669	Blueschist CH 1-18 32670	Blueschist CH 1-18 Average	Greenschist CH 1-19 32671	Greenschist CH 1-34 32562	Greenschist CH 1-48A 32674	Blueschist CH 1-48B 32675	Greenschist CH 1-48C 32676	Basalt BHVO-2 32668	Basalt BHVO-2 GeoReM*
Major elements (wt.%)															
SiO ₂	48.71	56.04	47.87	55.57	47.13			46.48	40.37	43.93	50.08	56.40	52.50		
TiO ₂	2.59	1.85	2.43	1.94	2.53			2.55	2.76	2.66	1.19	1.96	1.49		
Al ₂ O ₃	13.50	11.45	12.16	11.21	11.20			11.31	12.39	15.28	15.78	12.24	11.02		
Fe ₂ O ₃	11.70	9.95	12.91	10.44	12.39			12.77	16.53	11.04	11.18	9.54	9.13		
MnO	0.17	0.13	0.16	0.11	0.15			0.15	0.21	0.15	0.13	0.13	0.18		
MgO	8.85	7.03	9.50	6.35	12.24			12.31	14.53	6.00	6.96	5.31	10.76		
CaO	4.90	4.90	6.74	5.74	5.42			5.17	4.90	9.95	2.74	3.26	5.87		
Na ₂ O	3.43	5.73	3.28	5.82	2.20			2.35	1.79	3.84	1.49	6.06	1.77		
K ₂ O	2.07	0.81	1.08	0.53	2.15			1.93	0.56	0.77	6.22	2.02	3.68		
P ₂ O ₅	0.31	0.16	0.28	0.20	0.32			0.34	0.38	0.37	0.09	0.16	0.10		
CO ₂	n.a	n.a	0.01	0.01	0.02			0.01	0.01	2.95	0.01	0.01	0.01		
H ₂ O	3.73	1.82	3.73	1.44	3.95			4.28	5.81	3.24	3.77	2.51	2.95		
Total	99.96	99.87	100.15	99.36	99.70			99.65	100.24	100.18	99.64	99.60	99.46		
Trace elements (µg/g)															
Li	28.6	19.7	28.6	24.8	53.1	44.1	44.2	44.2	56.1	26.8	25.2	34.2	21.9	4.43	4.8±0.2
Sc	27.4	22.6	34.6	23.9	18.8	19.0	19.1	19.0	19.5	27.6	32.0	22.1	27.4	31.2	32±1
V	315	229	320	246	304	304	306	305	284	300	335	210	215	330	317±11
Cr	380	382	566	516	496	468	475	472	845	80.9	539	460	734	291	280±19
Co	52.0	37.5	58.2	38.1	62.3	64.0	64.4	64.2	89.8	38.7	51.5	45.4	44.0	44.3	45±3
Ni	199	218	218	198	262	253	254	254	383	60.6	272	285	245	119	119±7
Cu	110	64.4	127	80.9	45.7	45.3	45.1	45.2	39.3	85.9	108	158	216	125	127±7
Zn	135	102	127	99.7	104	110	111	110	161	85.9	75.6	87.4	102	105	103±6
Ga	25.0	15.0	21.6	14.9	18.6	19.1	19.2	19.1	23.2	21.2	21.4	12.5	16.7	21.1	22±2
Rb	52.3	19.6	28.2	13.3	51.4	47.4	47.4	47.4	13.4	17.5	164	51.7	90.5	9.04	9.11±0.04
Sr	40.8	72.5	486	582	54.3	50.1	50.1	50.1	48.6	681	22.5	42.8	25.6	397	396±1
Y	29.1	18.1	28.5	19.3	15.9	16.6	16.7	16.6	17.6	19.0	17.0	23.2	17.8	25.0	26±2
Zr	172	93.5	176	145	141	194	194	194	206	104	65.0	168	98.7	175	172±11
Nb	36.5	23.7	22.3	23.7	23.6	24.1	24.1	24.1	26.3	37.9	3.70	21.9	8.88	17.8	18.1±1
Mo	0.080	0.108	0.074	0.088	0.372	0.275	0.284	0.280	0.168	0.088	0.162	0.286	0.057	5.68	4±0.2
Sn	2.14	1.42	1.64	1.48	1.61	1.55	1.57	1.56	1.64	1.53	0.726	1.66	1.05	1.69	1.7±0.2
Sb	0.411	0.401	0.430	0.502	0.348	0.340	0.341	0.340	0.323	0.343	0.202	0.275	0.399	0.094	0.13±0.4
Cs	1.57	0.565	0.853	0.407	1.73	1.50	1.51	1.50	0.508	0.846	4.83	1.43	2.75	0.087	0.1±0.01
Ba	765	293	394	189	603	504	515	510	167	217	1356	519	896	134	131±1
La	34.1	20.3	22.3	20.2	19.2	20.3	20.3	20.3	19.6	23.8	3.60	21.0	8.87	15.9	15.2±0.1
Ce	78.1	44.6	54.4	45.5	45.5	47.0	46.9	47.0	46.8	50.9	8.98	56.9	23.0	39.3	37.5±0.2
Pr	9.21	5.51	6.80	5.65	6.21	6.39	6.37	6.38	6.51	6.52	1.47	6.39	3.18	5.62	5.35±0.17
Nd	36.9	22.7	29.5	23.7	27.2	27.8	27.8	27.8	28.9	27.5	7.58	27.0	14.5	25.8	24.5±0.1
Sm	7.87	5.07	6.88	5.46	6.22	6.27	6.30	6.28	6.81	6.08	2.51	6.23	3.81	6.41	6.07±0.01
Eu	2.28	1.60	2.21	1.70	2.00	2.03	2.04	2.04	2.25	2.04	0.951	1.93	1.27	2.16	2.07±0.02
Gd	7.65	4.89	7.04	5.33	5.82	5.85	5.86	5.85	6.37	5.86	3.16	6.12	4.13	6.52	6.24±0.03
Tb	1.17	0.732	1.07	0.798	0.794	0.802	0.804	0.803	0.875	0.844	0.544	0.935	0.655	0.982	0.92±0.03
Dy	6.67	4.15	6.23	4.51	4.03	4.04	4.10	4.07	4.39	4.52	3.47	5.36	3.90	5.57	5.31±0.02
Ho	1.23	0.765	1.17	0.825	0.657	0.672	0.676	0.674	0.722	0.786	0.694	1.01	0.746	1.02	0.98±0.04
Er	3.10	1.94	3.03	2.11	1.48	1.57	1.59	1.58	1.68	1.85	1.84	2.62	1.94	2.56	2.54±0.01
Tm	0.414	0.254	0.411	0.290	0.179	0.201	0.198	0.199	0.206	0.230	0.262	0.370	0.270	0.339	0.33±0.01
Yb	2.49	1.53	2.60	1.84	1.03	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.24	1.30	1.66	2.40	1.74	2.09	2±0.01
Lu	0.323	0.195	0.366	0.258	0.129	0.164	0.165	0.164	0.167	0.158	0.231	0.342	0.245	0.286	0.274±0.005
Hf	3.87	2.19	4.15	3.42	3.07	4.30	4.32	4.31	4.61	2.56	1.71	3.82	2.51	4.43	4.36±0.14
Ta	2.07	1.32	1.27	1.26	1.36	1.36	1.38	1.37	1.48	2.13	0.20	1.27	0.48	1.07	1.14±0.06
W	0.229	0.149	0.151	0.185	0.267	0.237	0.245	0.241	0.313	0.269	0.259	0.169	0.183	0.244	0.21±0.11
Pb	2.40	2.32	5.45	5.82	1.65	1.17	1.15	1.16	1.10	3.27	1.31	1.82	1.46	1.78	1.6±0.3
Th	4.79	2.59	2.09	2.39	1.54	1.60	1.57	1.59	1.74	2.39	0.31	2.89	0.83	1.19	1.22±0.06
U	1.49	0.869	0.747	0.658	0.411	0.483	0.473	0.478	0.517	0.620	0.199	0.780	0.449	0.412	0.403±0.001

n.a. = not analyzed

* GeoReM preferred values (<http://georem.mpch-mainz.gwdg.de/>) are given for comparison

Table 2: Modal mineral proportions of three selected blueschist-greenschist pairs

Sample	Sodic amphibole	Sodic-calcic & calcic amphibole	Phengite	Chlorite	Albite	Titanite	Epidote	Alkali feldspar	Hematite	Apatite	Other phases (<<1%)
CH 1-18 BS	12	22	25	7	20	8	3	–	3	<1	zircon
CH 1-19 GS	1	21	10	37	20	9	<1	1	<1	1	
CH 1-12 BS	10	39	2	11	28	6	2	2	<1	<1	zircon, rutile
CH 1-12 GS	3	37	9	20	24	5	–	2	<1	<1	
CH 1-15 BS	16	24	4	10	34	3	8	–	1	<1	
CH 1-15 GS	3	39	3	23	22	1	5	<1	2	2	

Mineral proportions of each sample were estimated based on several representative BSE images