Magnetic anisotropy reveals Acadian transpressional fabrics in an Appalachian ophiolite (Thetford Mines, Canada)

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SUMMARY

Magnetic anisotropy has proved effective in characterizing primary, spreading-related magmatic fabrics in Mesozoic (Tethyan) ophiolites, for example in documenting lower oceanic crustal flow. The potential for preservation of primary magnetic fabrics has not been tested, however, in older Palaeozoic ophiolites, where anisotropy may record regional strain during polyphase deformation. Here, we present anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility results from the Ordovician Thetford Mines ophiolite (Canada) that experienced two major phases of postaccretion deformation, during the Taconian and Acadian orogenic events. Magnetic fabrics consistent with modal layering in gabbros are observed at one locality, suggesting that primary fabrics may survive deformation locally in low strain zones. However, at remaining sites rocks with different magmatic origins have consistent magnetic fabrics, reflecting structurally controlled shape preferred orientations of iron-rich phases. Subhorizontal NW-SE-oriented minimum principal susceptibility axes correlate with poles to cleavage observed in overlying post-obduction, pre-Acadian sedimentary formations, indicating that the magnetic foliation in the ophiolite formed during regional NW-SE Acadian shortening. Maximum principal susceptibility axes plunging steeply to the NE are orthogonal to the orientation of regional Acadian fold axes, and are consistent with subvertical tectonic stretching. This magnetic lineation is parallel to the shape preferred orientation of secondary amphibole crystals and is interpreted to reflect grain growth during Acadian dextral transpression. This structural style has been widely reported along the Appalachian orogen, but the magnetic fabric data presented here provide the first evidence for transpression recorded in an Appalachian ophiolite.

Key words: Magnetic properties; North America; Magnetic fabrics and anisotropy; Folds and folding.

1 INTRODUCTION

Ophiolites are fragments of oceanic lithosphere emplaced onto continental margins during orogenesis and frequently preserve evidence of their intraoceanic tectonomagmatic evolution by seafloor spreading. Palaeomagnetic analyses have been used extensively to decipher the tectonic rotation history of various ophiolites, principally in the Tethyan realm (e.g. MacLeod *et al.* 1990; Morris *et al.* 1998; Inwood *et al.* 2009; Maffione *et al.* 2015), and magnetic fabric (anisotropy) techniques have previously been used to understand the

development of accretion-related petrofabrics in ophiolitic rocks. For example, in the slow spreading rate, Late Cretaceous Troodos ophiolite of Cyprus, anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS) has been used to determine both the emplacement directions of sheeted dykes (Staudigel et al. 1992) and the pattern of magmatic flow in lower crustal gabbros (Abelson et al. 2001), along with their relationship to the well-documented spreading structure of the ophiolite (MacLeod et al. 1990; Allerton & Vine 1991; Morris & Maffione 2016). Similarly, AMS has been used in the fast-spreading rate, Late Cretaceous Oman ophiolite to examine dyke emplacement (Rochette et al. 1991) and magmatic fabric development in layered and foliated gabbros (Yaouancq & MacLeod 2000; Meyer 2015). In the case of lower crustal gabbros in Oman, alteration (involving serpentinization of olivine crystals) has resulted in the production of secondary magnetite grains, but their orientation and distribution have been controlled by the crystallographic orientation of primary

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silicate phases, leading to AMS fabrics that still act as a reliable proxy for primary magmatic fabrics (Yaouancq & MacLeod 2000; Meyer 2015).

Here, we present magnetic fabric results from the more ancient, Thetford Mines ophiolite in the Canadian Appalachians. This Ordovician ophiolite formed in a forearc setting at 480 Ma (Laurent & Hébert 1989; Olive *et al.* 1997; Whitehead *et al.* 2000) and was obducted onto the Laurentian margin shortly afterwards (470–460 Ma; Tremblay *et al.* 2009). It experienced two Palaeozoic deformation episodes during regional contraction and shortening (Tremblay *et al.* 2009). We demonstrate that in this case magnetic fabrics within most of the ophiolite reflect the latest Acadian phase of regional deformation (related to accretion of Avalonia onto the Laurentian margin), rather than seafloor-spreading processes, with primary magmatic fabrics being obliterated by a pervasive tectonic overprint during folding in a dextral transpressive regime.

2 THE THETFORD MINES OPHIOLITE

The Thetford Mines ophiolite is located in the southern Québec Appalachians belt that consists of three lithotectonic assemblages: (1) the Cambrian-Ordovician Humber zone, a remnant of the Laurentian passive continental margin; (2) the Cambrian-Ordovician Dunnage zone (Williams 1979), a remnant of the Iapetus Ocean and (3) the Silurian-Devonian Gaspé Belt (Tremblay & Pinet 2005), representing a sedimentary cover sequence. The Humber and Dunnage zones were amalgamated during the Ordovician Taconian orogeny, involving closure of the Iapetus Ocean and emplacement of a large ophiolite nappe (now preserved in the dismembered Southern Québec ophiolites, Tremblay & Castonguay 2002; Tremblay & Pinet 2005). The Gaspé Belt successor basin and underlying Dunnage zone were subsequently regionally deformed and metamorphosed during the Devonian Acadian orogeny (Tremblay & Pinet 2005).

Oceanic rocks of the Dunnage zone in the area of the present study consist of the following assemblages (Fig. 1): (1) the Thetford Mines ophiolite; (2) the Saint-Daniel Mélange and (3) sedimentary rocks of the Magog Group. The ophiolite has a boninitic geochemistry and is inferred to have formed in a forearc setting (Laurent & Hébert 1989; Olive et al. 1997; Tremblay et al. 2009). U/Pb dating of plagiogranites in the ophiolite indicate formation at 479 \pm 3 Ma (Whitehead *et al.* 2000), whereas amphibole and mica ages from its metamorphic sole yielded ages of 477 \pm 5 and 469–461 Ma, respectively (Whitehead *et al.* 1995; Castonguay et al. 2001). This indicates that oceanic detachment of the ophiolite occurred immediately after crustal formation. Debris flow deposits of the Saint-Daniel Mélange and the overlying Magog Group rocks are both interpreted to represent a sequence of forearc basin sediments developed on the ophiolitic basement (Schroetter et al. 2006), with a major erosional unconformity at the base.

The Thetford Mines ophiolite is approximately 40 km long and 10–15 km wide, and may be divided into the Thetford Mines and AHM (Fig. 1), with the former dominated by a \sim 5 km thick mantle section and the latter by a thicker crustal sequence of plutonic and extrusive rocks. Plutonic sequences in both massifs consist of dunitic, pyroxenitic and gabbroic cumulates, cross-cut by mafic and ultramafic dykes, which grade up locally into a poorly exposed sheeted dyke complex (Tremblay *et al.* 2009). The extrusive sequences are dominated by boninitic lava flows and pillow lavas and felsic pyroclastic rocks.

Structural reconstructions suggest that the seafloor spreading history of the Thetford Mines ophiolite involved development of an oceanic core complex, marked by detachment faults that exhumed the upper mantle and lower crustal sections to the seafloor (Tremblay *et al.* 2009), as seen in slow-spreading systems in the present-day Atlantic and Indian Oceans (e.g. Blackman *et al.* 2011; MacLeod *et al.* 2017). Structures associated with this early phase of spreadingrelated intraoceanic deformation were then superimposed by synobduction NW-verging shear zones and folds associated with the Taconian orogeny and then by post-obduction NW-verging folds and faults developed during the Acadian orogeny (Figs 1b and c). This last regional deformation event resulted from collision between the Avalonia terrane and the irregular margin of Laurentia and its Taconian accreted terranes in the Devonian (Malo & Kirkwood 1995; Sacks *et al.* 2004)

3 SAMPLING AND METHODS

Samples were collected from 12 sites representing four localities in the Thetford Mines ophiolite (Fig. 1) using a portable rock drill. The orientation of drill cores was measured using both magnetic and sun compasses, along with the orientation of any magmatic structures present. Layered gabbros were sampled at three sites in the southwest sector of the ophiolite (sites TM05-07; Fig. 1), along a road cut adjacent to the shore of Lac Breeches, where a clear and consistent magmatic foliation defined by variations in modal composition was observed between sites. Nine sites were collected in the northeast of the study area near the Mount Adstock-Ham Massif (AHM: Fig. 1). north of Lac St. François. Site TM10 was sampled in pillow lavas and tabular lava flows sampled as sites TM11 and 12, with pillows and flows having very similar orientations. Sites TM02-04 were collected in a road cut where subvertical dykes (sites TM03 and 04) cut through well-developed, elongate pillow lavas (site TM02) at a high angle. Site TM09 sampled elongate pillow lavas exposed in a disused quarry, and site TM08 was located in serpentinized dunite adjacent to Lac Rond. The average orientations of pillow lavas and dykes were determined from multiple measurements at each site for use as structural corrections, and the way-up of lavas noted (based on typical pillow morphologies). All sampled lavas had subvertical or overturned orientations, dipping $\sim 80^{\circ} - 105^{\circ}$ and appear tectonically stretched (Table 1). Finally, a roadside exposure of massive gabbro was sampled at site TM01. No primary structures were observed at either this site or in the serpentinized dunite (site TM08).

We measured the anisotropy of low-field magnetic susceptibility (AMS) of 145 standard (11 cm³) samples using an AGICO KLY-3S Kappabridge. AMS is a petrofabric tool that reflects the preferred orientation of grains, grain distributions and/or the crystal lattices of minerals that contribute to the magnetic susceptibility of a rock (e.g. Tarling & Hrouda 1993; Borradaile & Jackson 2004). AMS corresponds to a second-order tensor that may be represented by an ellipsoid specified by the orientation and magnitude of its principal axes $(k_{\text{max}}, k_{\text{int}} \text{ and } k_{\text{min}}, \text{ being the maximum, intermediate,}$ and minimum susceptibility axes respectively, Tarling & Hrouda 1993). The AMS of a rock may result from contributions from diamagnetic, paramagnetic and ferromagnetic minerals. Susceptibility tensors and associated eigenvectors and eigenvalues were calculated using AGICO Anisoft 4.2 software. The relative magnitude of the susceptibility axes defines the shape of the AMS ellipsoid, which can be: (1) isotropic ($k_{\min} = k_{int} = k_{max}$) when crystals are not aligned preferentially and when strongly magnetic grains have



Figure 1. (a) Simplified geological map of the Thetford Mines ophiolite showing site locations (after Pagé *et al.* 2009); (b) structural profile along line A-A' on the geological map (after Tremblay *et al.* 2009) showing the current geometry of the ophiolite resulting from two superimposed folding events, with upright folds due to the final, Acadian phase of regional deformation and (c) schematic cross-section along the same line illustrating retro-deformation of the ophiolite and restoration to its inferred geometry prior to Acadian folding (after Tremblay *et al.* 2009).

es	Т	0.220	0.105	-0.003	0.178	0.225	0.290	0.549	0.359	0.224	0.147	0.317	0.299
	P_J	1.099	1.015	1.016	1.016	1.339	1.093	1.030	1.025	1.068	1.040	1.139	1.029
rincipal axe	k_{\min}	164/20	149/01	330/10	333/05	154/16	176/05	305/16	307/21	302/14	040/55	013/64	001/47
Normalized principal susceptibilities	$k_{ m int}$	265/28	239/24	236/21	242/11	248/16	266/08	214/05	213/11	208/16	199/33	197/26	188/43
	$k_{ m max}$	044/55	057/66	083/67	088/78	021/67	052/81	106/73	99// <i>6</i> 0	071/69	296/10	106/02	095/04
	k_{\min}	0.966	0.993	0.992	0.992	0.855	0.964	0.984	0.987	0.967	0.987	0.939	0.986
	$k_{ m int}$	1.005	1.000	1.000	1.001	1.019	1.001	1.005	1.003	1.004	0.999	1.011	1.003
	$k_{ m max}$	1.029	1.007	1.008	1.007	1.126	1.035	1.011	1.010	1.030	1.014	1.050	1.011
	Mean k (x 10 ⁻⁶ SI)	430	480	492	505	71 100	1050	438	392	532	8840	30 800	503
Z		10	16	13	14	5	15	10	10	6	13	11	19
	Unit orientation	I	210/105 (O/T)	166/85	166/88	Ι	278/98 (O/T)	115/85	115/85	115/85	202/32	202/32	202/32
	Description	Massive gabbro	326 698 Massive gabbro 327 185 Pillow lava 327 210 Dyke cutting TM02 327 205 Dyke cutting TM02 325 902 Serpentinized dunite 326 845 Pillow lavas 326 845 Pillow lavas 329 636 Lava flow 329 636 Lava flow 329 636 Lava flow 328 635 Lava flow		Layered gabbro	Layered gabbro	Layered gabbro						
	Easting	326 698			329 636	308 603	308 686	308 801					
	Northing	5 097 790	5 097 747	5 097 728	5 097 732	5 098 226	5 097 330	5 098 523	5 098 523	5 098 523	5 088 336	5 088 295	5 088 280
	Location	Lac St Francois	Lac St Francois	Lac St Francois	Lac St Francois	Lac Rond	Lac St Francois	Mount Adstock	Mount Adstock	Mount Adstock	Lac de Breeches	Lac de Breeches	Lac de Breeches
	Site	TM01	TM02	TM03	TM04	TM08	TM09	TM10	TM11	TM12	TM05	TM06	TM07

Table 1. AMS results from the Thetford Mines ophiolite

a random distribution; (2) oblate ($k_{\min} < < k_{int} \approx k_{max}$) when crystal alignment defines a foliation plane; (3) triaxial $(k_{\min} < k_{int} < k_{max})$; or (4) prolate ($k_{\min} \approx k_{int} \ll k_{max}$) when crystal alignment defines a lineation. However, the presence of some minerals (e.g. single domain magnetite: Potter & Stephenson 1988) and/or interference between signals carried by different minerals may complicate the structural interpretation of AMS data. Here, we describe the strength of anisotropy using the corrected anisotropy degree $(P_J;$ Jelínek 1978), where $P_J = 1.0$ indicates an isotropic fabric and, for exmple $P_J = 1.05$ indicates 5 per cent anisotropy. The shape of the ellipsoid is described by the shape parameter (T), where -1.0 < T< 1.0 with positive/negative values of T indicate oblate/prolate fabrics respectively (Jelínek 1978). We also determined the anisotropy of isothermal remanent magnetization (AIRM) for selected specimens in order to check for presence of inverse magnetic fabrics, following the methodology of Potter & Stephenson (1988). A direct field of 80 mT was applied sequentially along specimen x, y and z-axes, with alternative field (AF) demagnetization of specimens at 100 mT between IRM acquisition steps. Although higher direct fields would be required to achieve a saturation IRM, 80 mT was selected to ensure complete AF demagnetization could be achieved between field applications. Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the AIRM tensors were calculated using the 'EigenCalc' v. 1.1.0 program of Rick Allmendinger.

Rock magnetic experiments were performed to investigate the nature of the ferromagnetic minerals contributing to the AMS. Curie temperatures were determined from the high-temperature (20–700 °C) variation of magnetic susceptibility of representative samples, measured using an AGICO KLY-3S Kappabridge coupled with an AGICO CS-3 high-temperature furnace apparatus. Curie temperatures were determined from these data using the method of Petrovský & Kapička (2006).

Isothermal remanent magnetization (IRM) acquisition experiments were conducted on representative samples using a Molspin pulse magnetizer to apply peak fields up to 800 mT with resulting IRMs measured using an AGICO JR6A fluxgate spinner magnetometer. Finally, scanning electron microscope (SEM) observations of oriented thin sections were used to further establish the source of the AMS signal. Polished thin sections were carbon coated and analysed with a JEOL 7001 FEG-SEM at the Electron Microscopy Centre of the University of Plymouth. Backscattered electron (BSE) images were acquired with 15 kV accelerating voltage and 10 mm working distance. Energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) point analysis was used for phase identification. The preferred orientations of crystal long axes in BSE images were then determined using ImageJ software (Schneider *et al.* 2012) and analysed using OSXStereonet (Cardozo & Allmendinger 2013).

4 RESULTS

as site mean azimuth/plunge; $P_{J} = \text{corrected}$ anisotropy degree and T = shape factor (Jelinek 1978)

4.1 Rock magnetic properties

Lavas, dykes and massive gabbros of the Thetford Mines ophiolite have consistently weak low-field magnetic susceptibilities of ~400-500 × 10⁻⁶ SI (Table 1 and Fig. 2). These values suggest a dominant contribution from paramagnetic silicate minerals or a combined paramagnetic and ferromagnetic signal but with <0.03 wt per cent of magnetite present (Fig. 2). In contrast, serpentinized dunite samples have much higher susceptibilities (~70 × 10⁻³ SI) consistent with a dominantly ferromagnetic source. The temperature dependence of susceptibility in lavas and dykes



Figure 2. (a) Histogram of low-field magnetic susceptibilities for rocks of the Thetford Mines ophiolite; and (b) relationship between bulk susceptibility and mineral concentrations (wt per cent, Tarling & Hrouda 1993). Note that low susceptibilities in most of the Thetford Mines ophiolite indicate less than 0.1 wt per cent magnetite in these rocks or a major contribution from paramagnetic silicate minerals.

(Fig. 3a) shows initial decreases with temperature, consistent with a dominantly paramagnetic signal following the Curie-Weiss law (Tarling & Hrouda 1993) in these rocks, combined with a minor ferromagnetic signal with Curie temperatures of \sim 570–600 °C, indicating presence of minor magnetite. Some samples show evidence for magnetite production during laboratory heating, shown by higher susceptibilities during the cooling cycle and by peaks in susceptibility above 400 °C (Fig. 3a). IRM experiments on these rocks (Fig. 3b) confirm the presence of a low coercivity phase (most likely to be magnetite), but with saturation IRMs that are very low in intensity (<100 mA m⁻¹) and again consistent with low weight percentages of magnetite. In contrast, thermomagnetic curves for samples of layered gabbro (sites TM05-07) show evidence for susceptibilities dominated by a ferromagnetic signal with magnetite Curie temperatures of ~580 °C and with no discernable contribution from paramagnetic phases (Fig. 3a), although saturation IRM values are again lower than comparable rocks in younger (Tethyan) ophiolites or in drill core samples from the lower oceanic crust (e.g. Morris et al. 2016; MacLeod et al. 2017).

Serpentinized dunites sampled at site TM08 have Curie temperatures of ~580 °C and IRM curves showing presence of a low coercivity phase (Fig. 3), indicating production of near stoichiometric magnetite in these rocks during serpentinization. The degree of serpentinization, *S*, may be determined using a linear, inverse correlation between *S* and bulk density (ρ) defined by Miller & Christensen (1997):

 $S = (3.3 - \rho)/0.785 \times 100 \text{ per cent}$

Densities of samples from site TM08 range from 2.62 to 2.71 g cm⁻³, corresponding to serpentinization degrees of 69–86 per cent. Bulk susceptibilities of 0.059–0.079 SI correspond to volume fractions of magnetite of ~2.0–2.5 per cent (Thompson & Oldfield 1986). These values are consistent with relationships derived from an extensive data base of abyssal and ophiolitic serpentinized peridotites reported by Maffione *et al.* (2014).

4.2 Magnetic anisotropy results

The majority of individual specimens exhibit oblate AMS fabrics, with a mean *T* value of 0.33, although 22 per cent of specimens have prolate fabrics with a mean *T* value of -0.18 (Fig. 4a and Table S1, Supporting Information). The strength of anisotropy is described by the corrected anisotropy degree, P_J , and ranges from 1.01 to 1.60 for individual specimens (Fig. 4a). Mean P_J values vary by lithology, from 1.04 in the lavas and dykes, through 1.07 for gabbros, to 1.34 in the serpentinized dunites (where high values may reflect a strong distribution anisotropy carried by magnetite within serpentinized olivine crystals). There is no preferred relationship between P_J and *T* (Fig. 4a), and no correlation between P_J and mean susceptibility (Fig. 4b), indicating that the degree of anisotropy is not dependent on variations in ferromagnetic concentration.

At a site level, clustering of k_{max} and k_{min} axes define the magnetic lineation and the pole to the magnetic foliation, respectively. Oblate fabrics are characterized by clustered k_{min} axes orthogonal to girdle distributions of k_{max} and k_{int} axes, whereas prolate fabrics by clustered k_{max} axes orthogonal to girdle distributions of k_{max} axes orthogonal to girdle distributions of k_{int} and k_{min} axes. In triaxial fabrics, the three principal susceptibility axes form distinct groups.

In the layered gabbro sites, k_{\min} axes coincide with the pole to the magmatic layering observed in the field, with a girdle distribution of k_{\max} and k_{int} axes, defining an oblate fabric parallel to the modal layering (Fig. 5a). Combined with evidence for magnetite dominating the rock magnetic properties of these rocks, this suggests that the fabric is due to the shape-preferred orientation of magnetite grains distributed in the plane of layering. This fabric compares well with those observed in layered gabbros in other ophiolites [e.g. in Oman (Meyer 2015); Fig. 5c], and indicates that magmatic fabrics are preserved at this locality.

At the majority of other sites fabrics are triaxial and marked by discrete clusters of principal axes, with the exception of the massive gabbros sampled at site TM01 where a prolate site-level fabric is developed (Fig. 6). At all these sites, k_{min} axes are subhorizontal/shallowly plunging and aligned NW-SE whereas k_{max} axes plunge steeply to the NE. This arrangement of principal axes is consistent across all sites regardless of both their magmatic origin and the orientation of associated magmatic structures (where observable in the field), with pillow lavas, lava flows, dolerite dykes, massive gabbros and serpentinized dunites all sharing the same fabric style. This strongly suggests that the fabric in these rocks developed tectonically and does not reflect primary magmatic processes. The origin of this tectonic fabric is discussed below by comparison with the regional structural framework of the Thetford Mines ophiolite and the Canadian Appalachians in general.

AIRM ellipsoids (Table S2, Supporting Information) show widely varying degrees of alignment with the orientation of the corresponding AMS principal susceptibility axes. Fig. 7(a) shows AIRM principal axes rotated to align the corresponding k_{max} axes to the vertical and k_{min} axes to a horizontal north direction to allow comparison of the degree of alignment of AIRM and AMS fabrics, and Fig. 7(b) shows the relationship between the angular difference between maximum anisotropy axes and the intensity of IRM acquired at 80 mT. Specimens from the layered gabbros have angular differences of $<25^{\circ}$, confirming presence of normal AMS fabrics in these rocks. Serpentinized dunite from site TM08 shows near perfect alignment of AMS and AIRM fabrics in these magnetite-rich rocks, again confirming presence of a normal AMS fabric. Specimens from all other sites, however, show widely scattered AIRM axes, showing no correspondence between weakly developed AIRM



Figure 3. Representative examples of (a) the variation of low-field magnetic susceptibility with temperature and (b) isothermal remanent magnetization acquisition curves for rocks from the Thetford Mines ophiolite.



Figure 4. (a) Borradaile–Jackson polar plot of corrected anisotropy degree, P_J , and shape parameter, T (Jelínek 1978; Borradaile & Jackson 2004) and (b) plot of corrected anisotropy degree, P_J , against bulk susceptibility.



Figure 5. (a) Equal area stereographic projection of principal anisotropy axes of samples from layered gabbros in the Thetford Mines ophiolite. Principal directions of the mean tensor are represented by large symbols, with ellipses representing 95 per cent confidence regions calculated according to Jelínek (1978). Great circle/star = plane/pole to plane of modal compositional layering measured in the field and shown in (b) and (c) equal area stereographic projection of an example of AMS data from layered gabbros in the Oman ophiolite (Meyer 2015). Symbols as in (a).

fabrics carried by magnetite and AMS fabrics dominated by silicate phases (see below).

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Source of the AMS signal

The dominantly triaxial AMS fabrics in the Thetford Mines ophiolite samples are likely to reflect a combination of flattening during deformation (producing clustering of k_{\min} axes) and a preferred orientation of the long axes of minerals (producing clustering of $k_{\rm max}$ axes). The source of the dominant fabric signal in these generally fine-grained rocks may be determined via examination of oriented thin sections using backscatter SEM microscopy. These observations reveal that k_{max} axes in the lavas are parallel to the preferred orientation of the long axes of secondary amphibole crystals (Fig. 8), inferred to represent an alignment of crystal *c*-axes. This supports a secondary origin for the observed fabrics involving grain growth during deformation, resulting in alignment of newly formed amphibole crystals parallel to the long axis of the finite-strain ellipsoid. Biedermann *et al.* (2015) recently showed that k_{max} axes in single amphibole crystals lie parallel to their crystallographic b-axes, rather than their c-axes. However, Biedermann et al. (2018) demonstrated that in rocks where amphibole c-axes are preferentially aligned (their 'c-fiber texture') then mean AMS k_{max} axes lie parallel to the lineation defined by the preferred alignment of crystals.

Fabrics due to the growth of secondary amphiboles during alteration and deformation may also account for the low quantities of magnetite present in the Thetford Mines ophiolite compared to other ophiolites and oceanic crustal rocks, as magnetite may be destroyed during alteration, mobilizing iron that then becomes incorporated into the newly formed amphibole crystals.

5.2 Implications of the magnetic fabric results for the regional tectonic regime

The consistent AMS fabric between sites that have different magmatic origins in the NE of the study area is consistent with complete tectonic overprinting of any primary fabrics in this part of the ophiolite. In contrast, the layered gabbro locality preserves magnetic fabrics that parallel the modal layering observed in the field (Fig. 5a). This clearly shows that primary fabrics of magmatic origin are preserved in the SW part of the Thetford Mines ophiolite, presumably within a low-strain domain. Alternatively, the moderate dip of the layered gabbros may indicate a position close to a hinge zone within the major upright fold structures that dominate the present-day structure (Fig. 1b), allowing this locality to escape pervasive overprinting by a tectonic fabric that developed elsewhere. The consistency of fabrics at all other sites is illustrated in Fig. 9a, which shows Kamb contoured distributions (Cardozo & Allmendinger 2013) of the k_{\min} and k_{\max} axes combined from all sites (excluding the layered gabbros). The origin and timing of acquisition of this tectonic fabric can be established by comparing the AMS results with fold geometries and field structural data from the wider region.

The major deformation phases in the Canadian Appalachians that could potentially produce the observed fabric are the Taconian (Ordovician) and Acadian (Devonian) orogenic events. The Taconian event resulted from closure of the Iapetus Ocean and obduction of the Southern Québec ophiolites (Pinet & Tremblay 1995; Tremblay & Castonguay 2002; Sacks *et al.* 2004). The Acadian event involved collision between the Avalonia terrane and the margin of Laurentia and its Taconian-accreted terranes, including the Thetford Mines ophiolite (Malo & Kirkwood 1995; Sacks *et al.* 2004). Acadian deformation dominates the present-day structure of the area and resulted in development of upright folds during NW-SE contraction (Fig. 1b), and is superimposed on a series of earlier SE-verging recumbent folds (Fig. 1c; Tremblay *et al.* 2009).



Figure 6. Site-level AMS results from the Thetford Mines ophiolite. Principal directions of mean tensors at each site are represented by large symbols, with ellipses representing 95 per cent confidence regions calculated according to Jelínek (1978). Great circles = orientation of magmatic structures measured in the field (lava and dyke planes).

The structural style of the Acadian folding is best described using field structural data from the overlying, post-obduction but pre-Acadian sedimentary sequences. Field data from St-Julien (1987) shows that poles to bedding define a great circle distribution forming a π -girdle that indicates Acadian fold axes plunging shallowly to the SW (Fig. 9b). Poles to Acadian cleavage planes are oriented NW-SE with shallow plunges, while bedding cleavage intersection lineations and fold axes observed in the field have shallow plunges to the SW (consistent with the π -axis determined from bedding data; Fig. 9c). The correlation between k_{\min} axes (Fig. 9a) and poles to cleavage (Fig. 9c) strongly suggests that the tectonic fabric represented by the magnetic fabric data formed during upright folding associated with Acadian contraction.

Magnetic fabrics in folded rocks commonly show an alignment of k_{max} axes along the intersection of axial planar cleavage and primary foliation planes (e.g. bedding; Borradaile & Tarling 1981; Hrouda *et al.* 2000; Parés 2015; Fig. 10a). This relationship results from overprinting of an initial magnetic fabric (characterized by alignment of k_{min} axes perpendicular to the primary foliation) by a tectonic fabric (characterized by k_{min} axes aligned perpendicular to cleavage) (e.g. Housen *et al.* 1993). Such composite magnetic fabrics are usually dominantly oblate in shape with k_{max} axes typically aligned perpendicular to the direction of maximum tectonic shortening and parallel to fold axes (e.g. Averbuch *et al.* 1995; Hirt *et al.* 2000; Parés 2015; Fig. 10a). However, AMS k_{max} axes in the Thetford Mines ophiolite plunge steeply to the NE (Fig. 9a) and are demonstrably not related to fold geometries in this way, as fold axes in the ophiolite and associated sedimentary cover sequences are shallowly plunging and oriented NE-SW. Instead, k_{max} axes form a magnetic lineation that is broadly orthogonal to the regional fold axes (Fig. 10b), implying a component of sub-vertical stretching during NW-SE contraction and fabric development.

Deformation processes capable of producing sub-vertical stretching during folding include: (i) flexural flow along fold limbs during shortening; and (ii) transpression (resulting from a combination of pure shear and simple shear deformation). Importantly, Tikoff & Greene (1997) showed that transpression will produce horizontal stretching lineations in systems where the convergence angle is $<20^{\circ}$, but that the long axis of the finite strain ellipsoid (and hence the stretching lineation) will soon become vertical in any high-strain transpressional zone that deviates even slightly from simple shear. Strain modelling indicates that stretching lineations are always vertical for systems with high convergence angles (i.e. undergoing pure shear dominated transpression; Tikoff & Greene 1997).

Both the Taconian and Acadian orogenies in the Canadian Appalachians are known to have been characterized by transpressive regimes. Transpression during Acadian continental collision has



Figure 7. (a) Equal area stereographic projection of AIRM principal axes (small symbols) for selected specimens after rotating the corresponding AMS principal axes to a common reference frame (k_{max} vertical, k_{min} horizontal to the north, k_{int} horizontal to the east; large symbols). Squares/triangle/circles = maximum/intermediate/minimum principal axes of anisotropy, respectively and (b) the relationship between the angular difference between AIRM and AMS maximum principal axes and the intensity of IRM acquired in an 80 mT field.



Figure 8. (a) Example of a backscatter SEM image of a pillow lava specimen from the Thetford Mines ophiolite. *K*max for this specimen (white arrow) lies in the X-Y plane; (b) rose diagram showing the preferred orientation of secondary amphibole crystals in the specimen X-Y plane. The mean orientation of 867 measurements of amphibole crystal long-axes (azimuth = 017° ; black arrow) is parallel to k_{max} (azimuth = 016°). This is consistent with the AMS signal being carried by paramagnetic amphiboles formed by secondary grain growth during deformation.

been reported in the Gaspé Peninsula (to the NE of the Thetford Mines ophiolite; Malo *et al.* 1995; Sacks *et al.* 2004), in contrast to thrust-dominated, dip-slip tectonics in southern Québec (SW of the ophiolite; Malo *et al.* 1995). These along-strike variations in

structural style are interpreted to result from collision during the Devonian of Gondwana-derived terranes with an irregular Laurentian margin inherited from the opening of the Iapetus Ocean (Malo *et al.* 1995; Sacks *et al.* 2004). Further to the SW in the northern



Figure 9. Equal area stereographic projections of: (a) the contoured distributions of k_{\min} and k_{\max} axes of anisotropy of low-field magnetic susceptibility ellipsoids of samples from the Thetford Mines ophiolite (excluding the layered gabbro locality), showing clusters of NW-SE-oriented shallowly plunging k_{\min} axes and NE-oriented steeply plunging k_{\max} axes and (b) poles to bedding in the post-emplacement, pre-Acadian sedimentary cover of the ophiolite, defining a girdle distribution indicating a shallowly plunging SW Acadian fold axis orientation. Star = π axis (= 222/23) (data from St-Julien 1987); and (c) L1 fold axes and bedding-cleavage intersection lineations (mean orientation = 217/28) and contoured poles to Acadian cleavage planes (data from St-Julien 1987).



Figure 10. (a) Schematic diagram illustrating the commonly observed relationship between fold geometries and k_{max} axes, whereby k_{max} lies parallel to fold axes and the bedding-cleavage intersection lineation; (b) relationship between fold geometry and k_{max} axes in the Thetford Mines ophiolite, where k_{max} is orthogonal to fold axes, indicating a sub-vertical tectonic stretch inferred to result from deformation in a transpressive setting.

Appalachian region of Maine in the United States, Early Devonian (Acadian) oblique convergence also involved dextral transpression (Solar & Brown 2001). This resulted in dextral, SE-sideup displacement within the Central Maine Belt shear zone system (Solar & Brown 2001). Dextral transpression resulting in vertical stretching lineations has also been reported by Waters-Tormey & Stewart (2010) even further to the SW in the Blue Ridge area of Southern Carolina, with variations in lineation orientation across this area inferred to result from changes in the effective convergence angle across structural domains (as in Tikoff & Greene 1997).

Given the extensive evidence for Acadian transpression in the Appalachian orogen and the clear correlation between k_{\min} orientations and the NW-SE Acadian shortening direction (Fig. 9), we suggest that the sub-vertical stretching implied by the steeply plunging k_{\max} axes provides the first evidence for transpressive shear recorded in the Thetford Mines ophiolite. Assuming a pure-shear dominated transpressive regime characterized by NE-SW trending major structures, the orientation of the k_{\max} axes would be consistent with dextral shear superimposed on a SE-side-up pure shear component (as observed elsewhere in the Appalachian orogen; Solar & Brown 2001).

5.3 Implications for the interpretation of AMS data in complexly deformed terranes

With the exception of the layered gabbros sampled in the far SW of the study area, AMS results from the Thetford Mines ophiolite provide evidence for complete tectonic obliteration of any magmatic or tectonic fabric that existed prior to the Acadian orogeny. This suggests that the AMS signal in these deformed ophiolitic rocks reflects only the last major stage of the regional strain history. This has also been suggested in a number of other tectonic settings. For example, Anderson & Morris (2004) demonstrated that folded lowgrade metasedimentary rocks at Widemouth Bay in the Variscan belt of SW England exhibit AMS fabrics that record late-stage normal faulting, with no record of prior depositional or fold related fabrics. Similarly, Hrouda et al. (2014) describe AMS fabrics in an ophiolite in the Bohemian Massif (Czech Republic) that are carried by paramagnetic mafic silicates (including amphiboles and biotite) and that relate to the last exhumation and retrogression event experienced by the ophiolite. Interestingly, Hrouda et al. (2014) showed that massive metagabbros in this example suffered only weak deformation and partially preserve intrusive magnetic fabrics, similar to the situation described here.

Finally, we note the potential for erroneous interpretation of the AMS data from any one lithology or site within the Thetford Mines ophiolite, as AMS principal axes at individual sites are observed to coincide with macroscopic magmatic structures (e.g. dyke margins; Fig. 6). Only a comparison of data from multiple sites sampled in different lithologies allows identification of the dominant tectonic overprint in these rocks, highlighting the danger of interpreting results from sites in isolation in complexly deformed terranes.

6 CONCLUSIONS

AMS data are frequently used as a proxy for magmatic and tectonic fabrics in a wide range of rock types in various geological settings (e.g. Borradaile & Jackson 2004; Parés 2015). Previous studies of AMS in ophiolites have been used mainly to examine magmatic fabrics developed during crustal accretion, but the majority of studies have been conducted in Mesozoic ophiolites that have not experienced polyphase deformation during multiple orogenic events. Our data from the Ordovician Thetford Mines ophiolite of the Canadian Appalachians demonstrate that primary magmatic fabrics in more ancient, Palaeozoic ophiolites may be completely obliterated during post-obduction deformation, and may only survive locally in low strain zones. A clear correlation between AMS principal axes and the geometry of Acadian upright folding in the Thetford Mines ophiolite indicates that fabrics in this example record only

the last phase of its complex strain history. Importantly, the AMS data provide the first evidence for sub-vertical stretching within the ophiolite related to the transpressional deformation of the Appalachians that has previously only been documented in deformed sedimentary successions.-

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Supplementary data are available at GJI online.

 Table S1. Specimen-level AMS results from the Thetford Mines ophiolite.

 Table S2.
 Specimen-level AIRM results from the Thetford Mines ophiolite.

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COMPOSITION and PHYSICAL PROPERTIES Composition and structure of the continental crust Space geodetic surveys Composition and structure of the core Composition and structure of the mantle Composition and structure of the oceanic crust Composition of the planets Creep and deformation Defects Elasticity and anelasticity Electrical properties Equations of state Fault zone rheology Fracture and flow Friction High-pressure behaviour Magnetic properties Microstructure Permeability and porosity Phase transitions Plasticity, diffusion, and creep GENERAL SUBJECTS

Core Gas and hydrate systems Geomechanics Geomorphology Glaciology Heat flow Hydrogeophysics Hydrology Hydrothermal systems Infrasound Instrumental noise Ionosphere/atmosphere interactions Ionosphere/magnetosphere interactions Mantle processes Ocean drilling Structure of the Earth Thermochronology Tsunamis Ultra-high pressure metamorphism Ultra-high temperature metamorphism

GEODESY and GRAVITY Acoustic-gravity waves Earth rotation variations Geodetic instrumentation Geopotential theory Global change from geodesy Gravity anomalies and Earth structure Loading of the Earth Lunar and planetary geodesy and gravity Plate motions Radar interferometry Reference systems Satellite geodesy Satellite gravity Sea level change

Seismic cycle Tides and planetary waves Time variable gravity Transient deformation

GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION

Africa Antarctica Arctic region Asia Atlantic Ocean Australia Europe Indian Ocean Japan New Zealand North America Pacific Ocean South America

GEOMAGNETISM and ELECTROMAGNETISM PLANETS Archaeomagnetism Biogenic magnetic minerals Controlled source electromagnetics (CSEM) Dynamo: theories and simulations Electrical anisotropy Electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) Electromagnetic theory Environmental magnetism Geomagnetic excursions Geomagnetic induction Ground penetrating radar Magnetic anomalies: modelling and interpretation Magnetic fabrics and anisotropy Magnetic field variations through time Magnetic mineralogy and petrology Magnetostratigraphy Magnetotellurics Marine electromagnetics Marine magnetics and palaeomagnetics Non-linear electromagnetics Palaeointensity Palaeomagnetic secular variation Palaeomagnetism Rapid time variations Remagnetization Reversals: process, time scale, magnetostratigraphy Rock and mineral magnetism Satellite magnetics

GEOPHYSICAL METHODS Downhole methods Fourier analysis Fractals and multifractals Image processing

Instability analysis Interferometry Inverse theory Joint inversion Neural networks, fuzzy logic Non-linear differential equations Numerical approximations and analysis Numerical modelling Numerical solutions Persistence, memory, correlations, clustering Probabilistic forecasting Probability distributions Self-organization Spatial analysis Statistical methods Thermobarometry Time-series analysis Tomography Waveform inversion Wavelet transform

Planetary interiors Planetary volcanism

SEISMOLOGY Acoustic properties Body waves Coda waves Computational seismology Controlled source seismology Crustal imaging Earthquake dynamics Earthquake early warning Earthquake ground motions Earthquake hazards Earthquake interaction, forecasting, and prediction Earthquake monitoring and test-ban treaty verification Earthquake source observations Guided waves Induced seismicity Interface waves Palaeoseismology Rheology and friction of fault zones Rotational seismology Seismic anisotropy Seismic attenuation Seismic instruments Seismic interferometry Seismicity and tectonics Seismic noise Seismic tomography Site effects Statistical seismology Surface waves and free oscillations Theoretical seismology

Key words

Tsunami warning Volcano seismology Wave propagation Wave scattering and diffraction

TECTONOPHYSICS Backarc basin processes Continental margins: convergent Continental margins: divergent Continental margins: transform Continental neotectonics Continental tectonics: compressional Continental tectonics: extensional Continental tectonics: strike-slip and transform Cratons Crustal structure Diapirism Dynamics: convection currents, and mantle plumes Dynamics: gravity and tectonics Dynamics: seismotectonics Dynamics and mechanics of faulting Dynamics of lithosphere and mantle Folds and folding Fractures, faults, and high strain deformation zones Heat generation and transport

Hotspots Impact phenomena Intra-plate processes Kinematics of crustal and mantle deformation Large igneous provinces Lithospheric flexure Mechanics, theory, and modelling Microstructures Mid-ocean ridge processes Neotectonics Obduction tectonics Oceanic hotspots and intraplate volcanism Oceanic plateaus and microcontinents Oceanic transform and fracture zone processes Paleoseismology Planetary tectonics Rheology: crust and lithosphere Rheology: mantle Rheology and friction of fault zones Sedimentary basin processes Subduction zone processes Submarine landslides Submarine tectonics and volcanism Tectonics and climatic interactions Tectonics and landscape evolution Transform faults Volcanic arc processes

VOLCANOLOGY Atmospheric effects (volcano) Calderas Effusive volcanism Eruption mechanisms and flow emplacement Experimental volcanism Explosive volcanism Lava rheology and morphology Magma chamber processes Magma genesis and partial melting Magma migration and fragmentation Mud volcanism Physics and chemistry of magma bodies Physics of magma and magma bodies Planetary volcanism Pluton emplacement Remote sensing of volcanoes Subaqueous volcanism Tephrochronology Volcanic gases Volcanic hazards and risks Volcaniclastic deposits Volcano/climate interactions Volcano monitoring Volcano seismology

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2