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Focus paper

Origins of the supercontinent cycle

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ABSTRACT

The supercontinent cycle, by which Earth history is seen as having been punctuated by the episodic assembly and breakup of supercontinents, has influenced the rock record more than any other geologic phenomena, and its recognition is arguably the most important advance in Earth Science since plate tectonics. It documents fundamental aspects of the planet's interior dynamics and has charted the course of Earth's tectonic, climatic and biogeochemical evolution for billions of years. But while the widespread realization of the importance of supercontinents in Earth history is a relatively recent development, the supercontinent cycle was first proposed thirty years ago and episodicity in tectonic processes was recognized long before plate tectonics provided a potential explanation for its occurrence. With interest in the supercontinent cycle gaining momentum and the literature expanding rapidly, it is instructive to recall the historical context from which the concept developed. Here we examine the supercontinent cycle from this perspective by tracing its development from the early recognition of long-term episodicity in tectonic processes, through the identification of tectonic cycles following the advent of plate tectonics, to the first realization that these phenomena were the manifestation of episodic supercontinent assembly and breakup.

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1. Introduction

Although the existence of the supercontinent Pangea (Fig. 1) was first proposed a century ago (Wegener, 1912), the proposition that other supercontinents existed prior to Pangea (e.g., Valentine and Moores, 1970; Piper, 1974, 1975; Piper et al., 1976) has only become widely accepted over the past two decades (e.g., Hoffman, 1989, 1991; Dalziel, 1991, 1992, 1997; Williams et al., 1991; Stump, 1992; Powell et al., 1993; Powell, 1995). This has led, in recent years, to a rapidly widening recognition that much of Earth history has been punctuated by the episodic amalgamation and breakup of supercontinents (e.g., Zhao et al., 2002, 2004; Murphy and Nance, 2003, 2013; Rogers and Santosh, 2003, 2004; Santosh and Zhao,

2009; Condie, 2011; Yoshida and Santosh, 2011; Huston et al., 2012; Mitchell et al., 2012) with profound consequences to the Earth's geologic, climatic and biological records (e.g., Hoffman et al., 1998; Hoffman and Schrag, 2002; Lindsay and Brasier, 2002; Dewey, 2007; Condie et al., 2009, 2011; Goldfarb et al., 2010; Hawkesworth et al., 2010; Santosh, 2010a,b; Bradley, 2011; Hannisdal and Peters, 2011; Strand, 2012; Young, 2012a,b). This history of episodic supercontinent assembly and breakup, which constitutes the supercontinent cycle, has influenced the rock record more profoundly than any other geologic phenomenon (e.g., Condie, 2011). Its existence points to fundamental aspects of the Earth's interior dynamics (e.g., Condie, 2003; Evans, 2003; Zhong et al., 2007; Santosh et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2009) and its recent recognition is arguably the most important advance in Earth Science since the advent of plate tectonics.

Yet the idea of a supercontinent cycle was first advanced thirty years ago, and the notion of episodicity in tectonic processes predates plate tectonics by decades. So while the widespread recognition of the significance of supercontinents in Earth history is a relatively recent phenomenon, a long history has led to this fundamental realization. In this paper, we provide an historical perspective to this important and rapidly growing development in Earth Science by tracing the history of the supercontinent cycle

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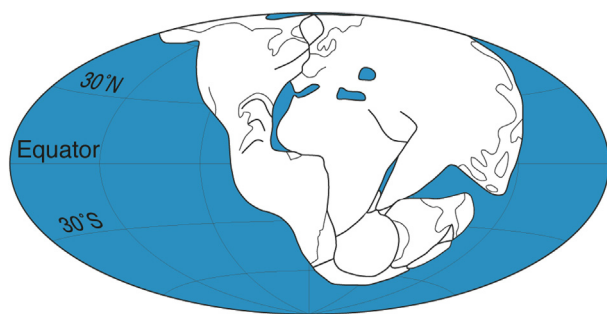


Figure 1. The late Paleozoic supercontinent Pangea as envisioned by [Wegener \(1922\)](#) (from [Domeier et al., 2012](#)).

from its beginnings in the many pre-plate tectonic ideas on episodicity in geologic processes to the first recognition that this episodicity was a manifestation of the assembly and breakup of supercontinents.

2. Episodicity prior to plate tectonics

Recognition of episodicity in tectonic processes occurred long before plate tectonics provided the framework to account for its occurrence. Of the many early advocates for such tectonic episodicity, one of the first, and certainly the most prescient, was the Dutch geologist Johannes Umbgrove who was arguing for periodicity in terrestrial processes more than two decades before the seminal papers on sea-floor spreading by [Dietz \(1961\)](#), [Hess \(1962\)](#) and [Vine and Matthews \(1963\)](#) ushered in the theory of plate tectonics ([Umbgrove, 1940](#)). In his remarkably modern book, “The Pulse of the Earth” [Umbgrove \(1947\)](#) compiled a wealth of data in support of a ~250 m.y. periodicity in Phanerozoic sea level, orogeny, basin formation, climate and magmatic activity ([Fig. 2](#)). Consistent with the assembly and breakup of a supercontinent, he further argued that there were stages to this periodicity in which global sea level regression accompanied by increased crustal compression, continental erosion and climatic deterioration, was followed by orogeny, granitoid magmatism and glaciation, and finally, by mafic magmatism, global transgression and climatic amelioration.

Over the following two decades, tectonic episodicity was advocated by some of the foremost geologists of the day and was recognized in a wide variety of phenomena. For example, orogenic episodicity was recognized in Precambrian fold belts by [Holmes \(1951\)](#), [Wilson et al. \(1960\)](#) and [Burwash \(1969\)](#), and periodicity in the formation of continental crust was proposed by [Holmes \(1954\)](#) and further developed by [Gastil \(1960\)](#). Distinct peaks were also noticed in early radiometric age compilations ([Voitkevich, 1958](#); [Vinogradov and Tugarinov, 1962](#); [Runcorn, 1962, 1965](#); [Dearnly, 1966](#)), and the notion of tectonic episodicity was inherent in the cratonic sequences recognized by [Sloss \(1963\)](#), whereby the late Precambrian to recent sedimentary record of the continental interior of North America was shown to comprise six major rock-stratigraphic units separated by regional unconformities.

But of all the early advocates for tectonic episodicity, it was [Sutton \(1963\)](#) who came closest to formulating a supercontinent cycle. His “chelogenic cycles”, or global-scale shield-forming events, called for the episodic clustering of continents. However, rather than producing a supercontinent, the chelogenic cycle resulted in the periodic recurrence of two antipodal continental clusters, the assembly and breakup of which were held to be responsible for the record of orogenic episodicity. The cycle was thought to occur because small subcontinental convection cells first resulted in continental clustering and orogeny in continental

interiors, but then coalesced into larger cells that fostered continental breakup, orogenic quiescence, and the later regrouping of the rifted continental blocks into two new antipodal clusters. According to Sutton, the cycle had a periodicity of 750–1250 m.y. and had been repeated at least four times during Earth history.

3. Plate tectonics and tectonic cycles

Following the introduction of plate tectonics, the concept of tectonic episodicity was specifically advocated by [Wilson \(1966\)](#) in what are now known as the “Wilson cycles” of ocean opening and closure. The concept was also employed in regard to evolutionary biogenesis by [Valentine and Moores \(1970\)](#) and [Hallam \(1974\)](#) who showed how Phanerozoic marine diversity and sea level fluctuations could be related to patterns of continental fragmentation and reassembly with close correspondence to the observed geological record.

Episodicity was also observed in the pattern of Phanerozoic sedimentary cycling by [Mackenzie and Pigott \(1981\)](#), who argued that the cyclic nature of Phanerozoic sedimentary rock distribution and material transfer among sedimentary reservoirs were controlled by tectonic factors, and that a strong tectonically controlled correlation existed between the long-term cyclicity in the Phanerozoic global sea level curve and the distribution of carbon and sulfur among the major exogenic reservoirs.

Tectonic episodicity was also identified in the distribution of ore-forming processes through time by [Meyer \(1981\)](#), who linked such episodicity to characteristic peaks in the abundance of specific styles of metallic mineralization. Tectonic cycling was also recognized in the Phanerozoic record of strontium isotopes by [Burke et al. \(1982\)](#), whose curve for the variation of seawater $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ with time was shown to be strongly influenced by the history of both plate interactions and sea-floor spreading. The episodicity in orogeny observed by earlier workers also found support in increasingly precise radiometric ages, most clearly illustrated in the compilation ([Fig. 3](#)) of [Condie \(1982\)](#).

The case for episodicity in geologic phenomena was brought to a culmination by [Fischer \(1981, 1984\)](#), who revived [Umbgrove's \(1947\)](#) visionary model in a plate tectonic context. Using a geologic timescale 100 m.y. longer than that employed by Umbgrove, Fischer's compilation of the available data made a compelling case for two ~300 m.y. supercycles in the Phanerozoic record of climate, sea level and granitoid magmatism ([Fig. 4](#)). He interpreted the “greenhouse” to “ice house” climatic supercycles as reflecting variations in the levels of atmospheric CO_2 caused by changes in the pattern of mantle convection recorded in concordant variations in global sea level and the proxy record of felsic volcanism in the emplacement of granitoids. Fischer further linked oceanic aeration to periods of global cooling and showed that several major biotic crises coincided with the boundaries between climatic states.

4. Recognition of the supercontinent cycle

Despite compelling evidence for episodicity in geologic processes, it would be seventy years after [Wegener's \(1912\)](#) vision of moving continents, and more than forty years following [Umbgrove's \(1940, 1947\)](#) insightful claim for periodicity in terrestrial processes, that a case would be made that this long-recognized history of tectonic episodicity was the manifestation of a long-term cycle of supercontinent assembly and breakup. The case for such a supercontinent cycle was first put forward by [Worsley et al. \(1982, 1984\)](#).

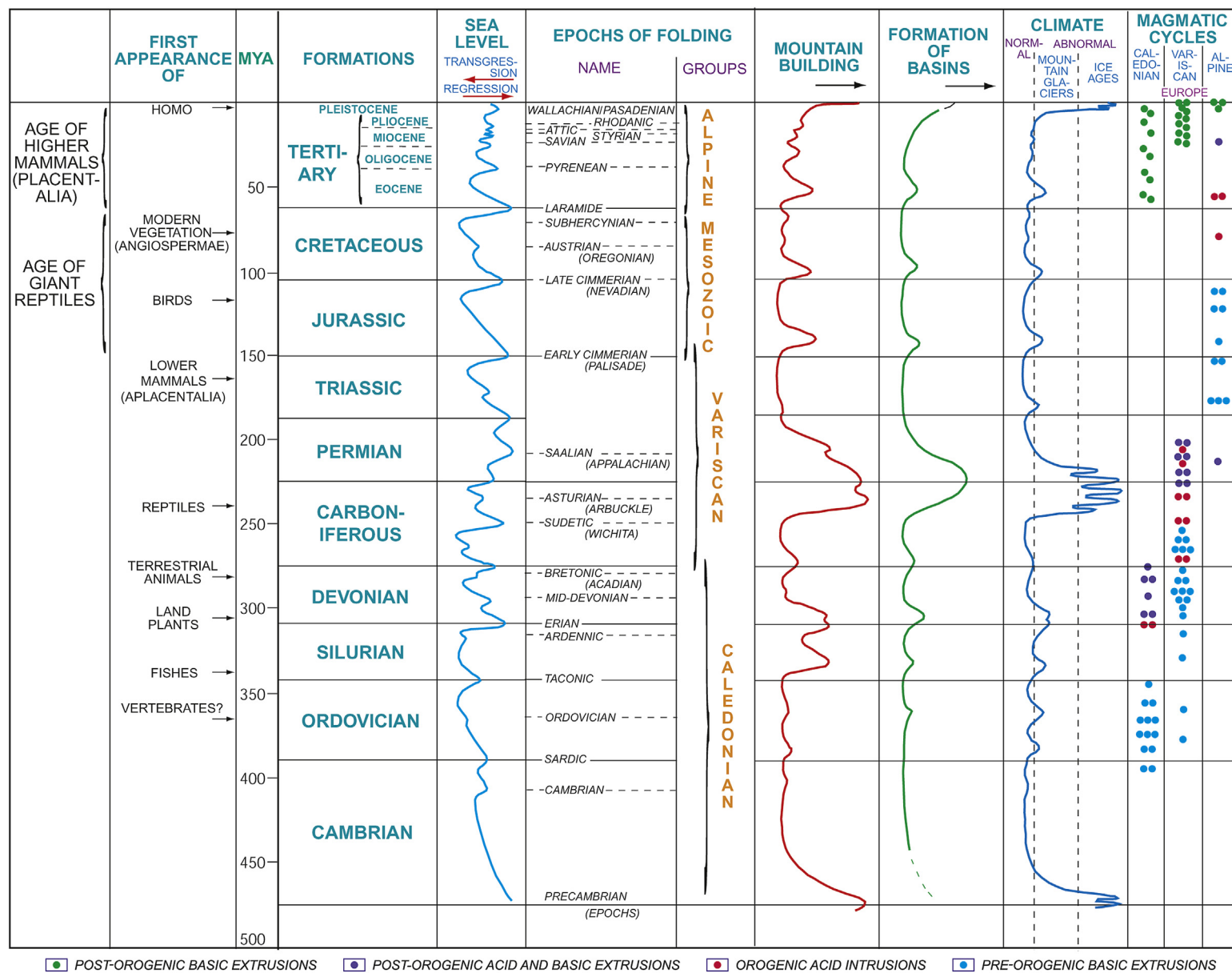


Figure 2. Summary of Umbgrove's (1947) ~250 m.y. "pulse" in the Phanerozoic history of sea level, mountain building, basin formation, climate and magmatic cycles.

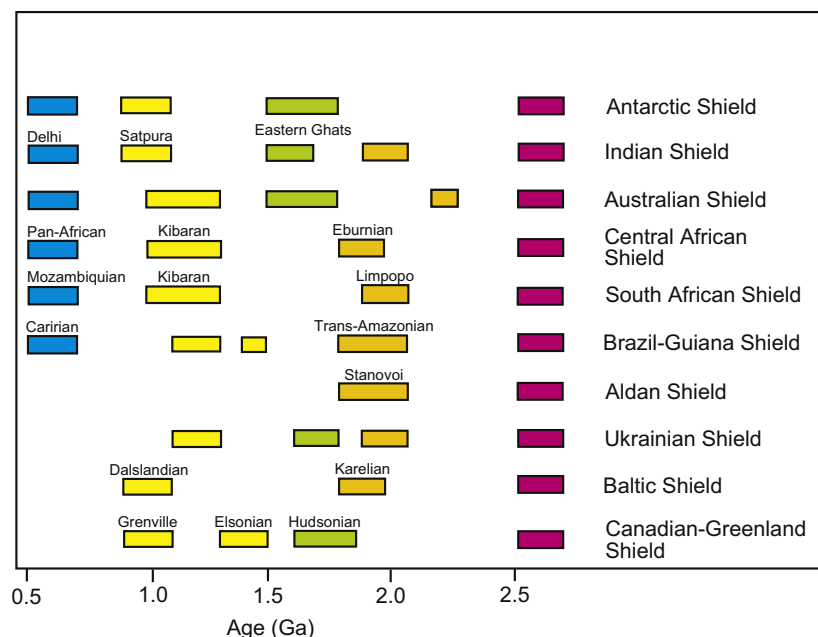


Figure 3. Compilation of radiometric ages (chiefly Rb/Sr) for periods of major orogenesis in Earth history (after [Condie, 1982](#)). These data were taken by [Worsley et al. \(1984\)](#) to document the “quasi-periodic” assembly of supercontinents.

4.1. A case presented

Since the amalgamation of supercontinents requires continents to collide, whereas supercontinent breakup requires them to rift, [Worsley et al. \(1984\)](#) argued that evidence of a supercontinent cycle would be documented in the geologic record by episodic peaks in collisional orogenesis and rift-related mafic dike swarms. Using the available age data for such events (chiefly Rb/Sr and K/Ar), then recently compiled by [Condie \(1976, 1982\)](#) and [Windsley \(1977, 1984\)](#), they suggested that such peaks could be distinguished and that global episodes of orogenic activity lagged slightly by mafic dike swarms had punctuated Earth history at relatively regular intervals of about 500 m.y. for at least the past 2.5 billion years.

Based on these data, [Worsley et al. \(1984\)](#) predicted the existence of four, and later five ([Worsley et al., 1985; Nance et al., 1986](#)),

pre-Pangean supercontinents at ca. 0.6, 1.1, 1.8–1.6, 2.0 and 2.6 Ga ([Fig. 5](#)). From this compilation, they additionally recognized an apparent coincidence of supercontinents with ice ages, and a correspondence of supercontinent breakup with major evolutionary events. This suggested a controlling connection between supercontinents, climate and biogenesis, which they suggested was a likely consequence of the profound effect of the supercontinent cycle on sea level.

[Worsley et al. \(1984\)](#) attempted to model the cycle's effect on sea level by applying [Parsons and Sclater's \(1971\)](#) age-versus-depth relation for oceanic lithosphere to [Berger and Winterer's \(1974\)](#) calculations for the average age of the world's oceanic crust as a function of the breakup of Pangea. These calculations determined the changes in sea floor age and, hence, ocean volume, that would occur when an entirely “Pacific-type” world ocean bordered by active margins (i.e., supercontinentality) evolves toward one with a uniformly increasing proportion of “Atlantic-type” ocean bordered by passive margins (i.e., supercontinent dispersal). In this way, they were able to broadly quantify the changes in global sea level that might be expected to result from the supercontinent cycle's independent effects on ocean basin volume and continental elevation ([Fig. 6](#)).

For supercontinental breakup, their calculations suggested (like those of [Heller and Angevine, 1985](#)) that crustal extension and the formation of young ocean basins would first cause sea level to rise, only to fall as the floors of the new oceans aged. On the other hand, during supercontinent assembly, subduction of old oceanic lithosphere coupled with the crustal shortening associated with orogenesis would cause sea level to rise again.

In addition, drawing on [Anderson's \(1982\)](#) assertion that continental lithosphere should act as a thermal insulator to mantle heat flow, [Worsley et al. \(1984\)](#) argued that supercontinents would become epeirogenically uplifted as heat accumulated beneath them. They suggested a minimum figure of 400 m for this epeirogenic uplift based on available data ([Hay and Southam, 1977; Harrison et al., 1981](#)) for the present day thermal elevation of near-stationary Africa. The resulting model curve ([Fig. 6](#)) simply combined the sea floor and continental components.

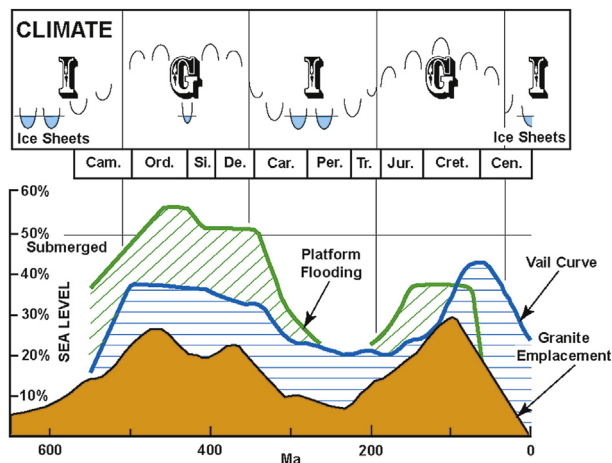


Figure 4. Outline of the two ~300 m.y. supercycles of [Fischer \(1981, 1984\)](#) in the Phanerozoic record of climate, sea level (after [Vail et al., 1977](#)) and granitoid magmatism (after [Engel and Engel, 1964](#)).

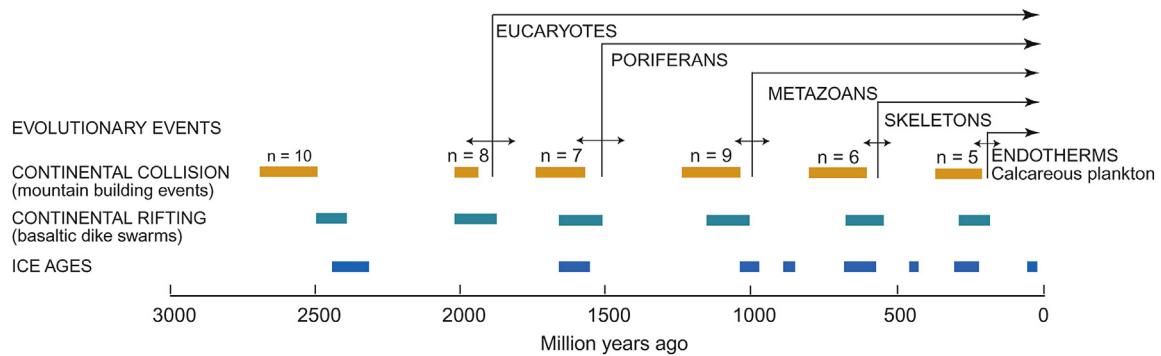


Figure 5. Summary of episodic events in Earth history linked to the supercontinent cycle by Worsley et al. (1984, 1985). Orogenic peaks (supercontinent assembly) from Condie (1976, 1982), lagging mafic dike swarms (supercontinent breakup) from Windley (1977), major evolutionary events from Cloud (1968a,b, 1976), and major glacial intervals from Frakes (1979) and Christie-Blick (1982).

Calibrated to the Phanerozoic using the known amalgamation and breakup ages for Pangea, Worsley et al. (1984) were able to show (Fig. 7) that their model sea level curve closely matched the first-order sea level curve of Vail et al. (1977). The supercontinent cycle so defined had a duration of about 440 m.y., and predicted amalgamation of the next supercontinent in roughly 150 m.y.

4.2. A potential mechanism proposed

Worsley et al. (1984) suggested a potential driving mechanism for the supercontinent cycle might be found in the counteracting influences of the insulating effect of supercontinents on mantle heat flow (Anderson, 1982), and the cooling effect of age on the buoyancy of oceanic lithosphere (Parsons and Sclater, 1971; Hynes, 1982). They argued that the former might be expected to lead to the eventual breakup of supercontinents as heat accumulated beneath them, whereas the latter might be expected to result in supercontinent assembly since it ensured that the new oceans created by supercontinent breakup would eventually close (Nance et al., 1988). This mechanism was based on the history of Pangea and has come to be known as introversion (Murphy and Nance, 2003), which Worsley et al. (1984) preferred over extroversion, by which supercontinents are assembled by the closure of the exterior ocean (e.g., Gurnis, 1988), since this required the interior oceans to age well beyond their maximum age in today's world of 180 m.y.

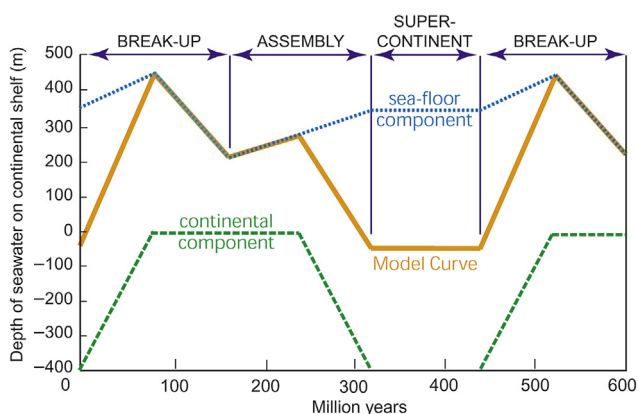


Figure 6. Tectonic components (ocean basin volume and continental elevation) of sea-level change for the three main phases of the supercontinent cycle (breakup, assembly, supercontinentality) and the model sea level curve obtained by their summation (Worsley et al., 1982, 1984).

4.3. Potential consequences examined

Worsley et al. (1985, 1986, 1991), Nance et al. (1986) and Worsley and Nance (1989) subsequently explored the potential influence of the supercontinent cycle on the Earth's tectonic, biogeochemical and paleoceanographic record (Fig. 8). Subdividing the cycle into three main phases – supercontinentality, breakup and dispersal, and supercontinent assembly – they identified a variety of trends in tectonic activity, platform sedimentation, climate, life, and the stable isotope record that might be expected to accompany each phase.

Among these trends, they argued that, during supercontinentality: (1) tectonic activity should be dominated by epeirogenic uplift as trapped mantle heat accumulates beneath the largely stationary supercontinent, (2) accretionary orogeny might be expected at the margins of the exterior (Panthalassic) ocean, now at its largest size, (3) with sea level at its lowest elevation, terrestrial deposition should be enhanced, (4) sequestering of isotopically light carbon in non-marine and organic-rich sediments, and heavy sulfur in evaporites, might be expected to produce a record of low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ in the reciprocal marine platform reservoir, (5) massive extinctions might be expected to accompany loss of shallow marine habitat, and (6) cold climates (potentially leading to continental glaciation) might be expected to develop as CO_2 is removed from the atmosphere by the weathering of large areas of subaerially exposed continental crust.

During supercontinent breakup and dispersal, they argued that: (1) younging of the world ocean floor through rifting and the opening of new (interior) ocean basins, coupled with subsidence of dispersing continental fragments, should raise sea level to its maximum elevation, (2) collisional orogeny should be minimal, although accretionary orogeny and terrane accretion might be

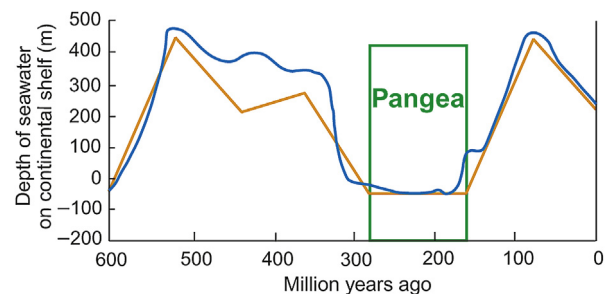


Figure 7. Comparison of the calculated effect of the supercontinent cycle on sea level (Worsley et al., 1982, 1984) with first-order eustasy (Vail et al., 1977) during the Phanerozoic.

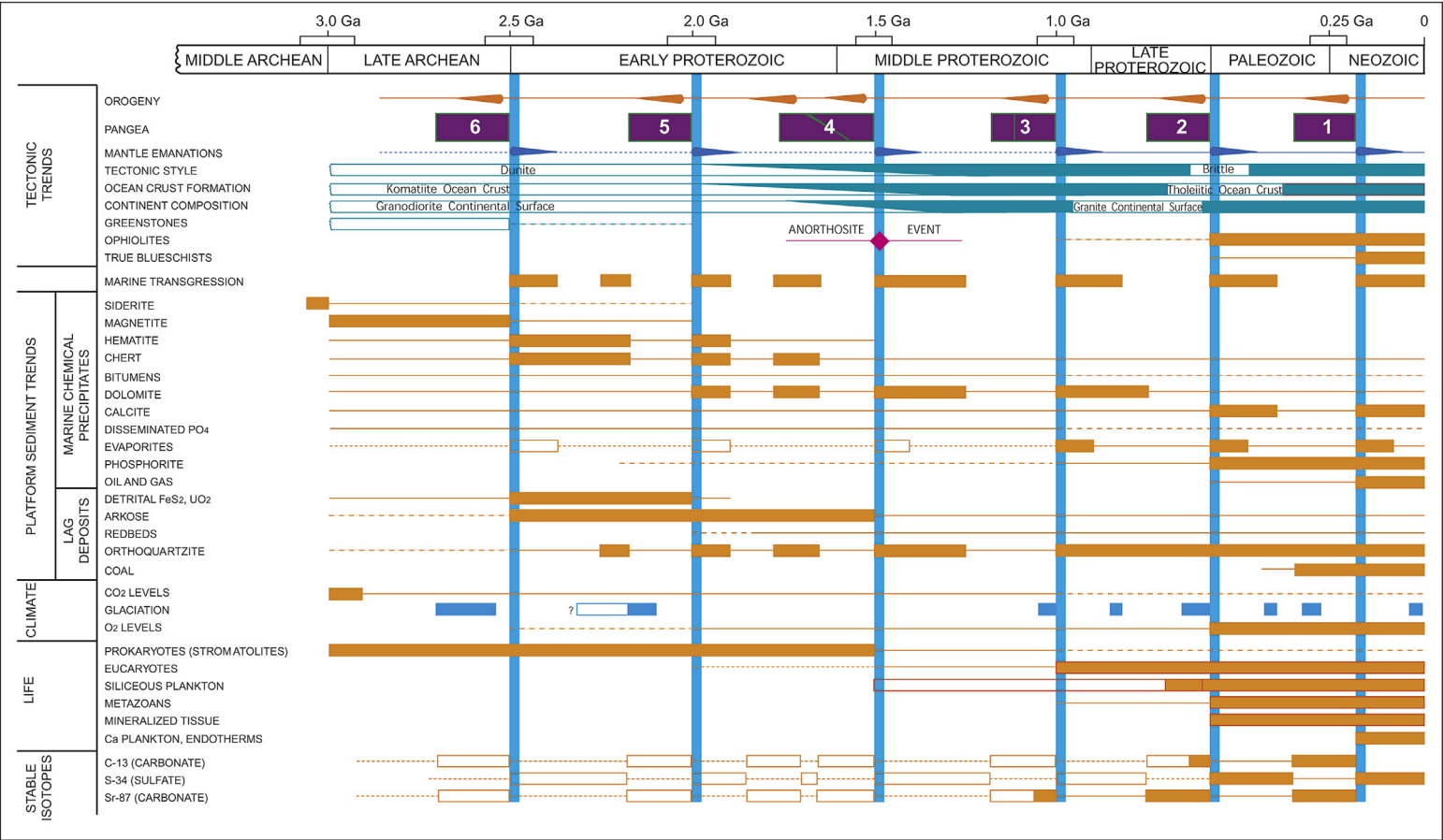


Figure 8. Qualitative summary (Worsley et al., 1985; Nance et al., 1986) of late Archean to present tectonic, platform sedimentary, climatic, biotic and stable isotope trends tuned within allowable dating errors to a quasi-periodic, ~0.5 b.y. supercontinent cycle. Trends: abundant, intense or heavy shown by solid bars (documented) and stippled bars (speculative); common or moderate shown by solid and dashed lines (documented) and dotted lines (speculative).

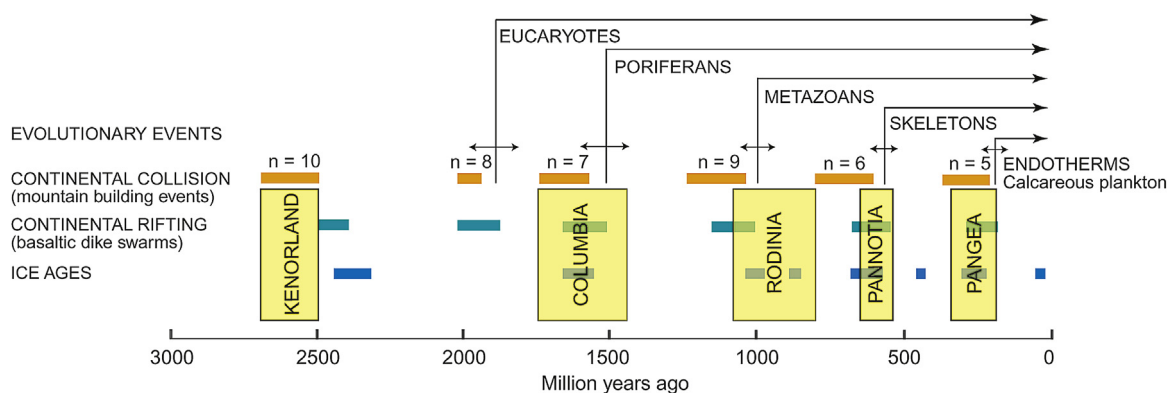


Figure 9. Comparison of episodic events in Earth history linked to the supercontinent cycle by Worsley et al. (1984, 1985) with the duration of supercontinents as they are presently known. See Fig. 5 for sources.

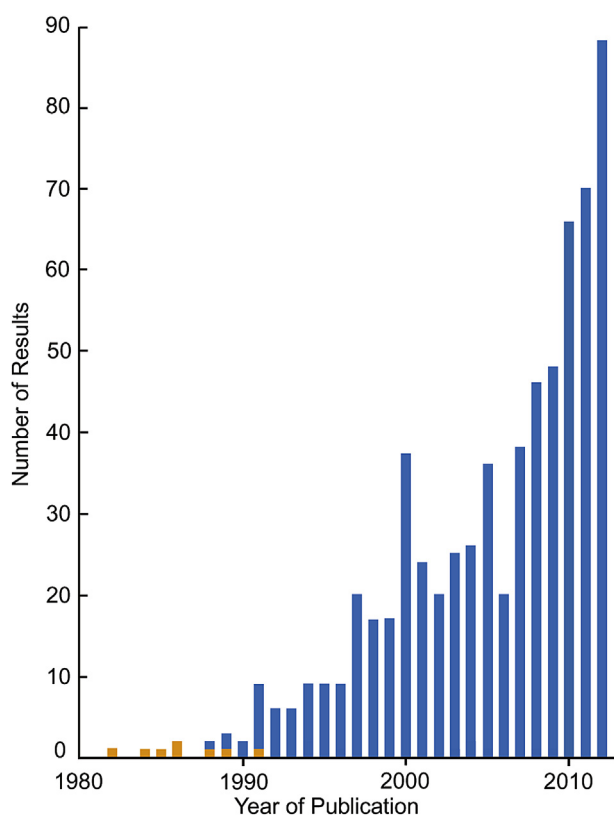


Figure 10. Histogram of data from Google Scholar showing the responses by year to a search using the keyword “supercontinent cycle”. The pioneering position of the papers on the supercontinent cycle by T.R. Worsley and his co-authors are shown in orange.

expected on the exterior ocean margins, (3) rapid biotic diversification and enhanced preservation of platform sediments with increasing high values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ should accompany continental drowning, and (4) warm, equable climates should develop as continental flooding allows atmospheric CO_2 levels to build.

Finally, during supercontinent assembly, they argued that: (1) accretionary and collision orogenesis should increase to a maximum, (2) global sea level should first rise and then fall as subduction consumes first the old and then the young floor of the interior oceans (opening and then closing back-basins along their margins), (3) active margin sedimentation should increase, and (4) atmospheric CO_2 levels should fall, causing global climates to deteriorate.

5. Concluding remarks

Worsley et al. (1984) were by no means the first to suggest that supercontinents had formed prior to Pangea. On the contrary, the existence of a late Neoproterozoic supercontinent had already been proposed on the basis of paleomagnetic data (Morel and Irving, 1978), and had long since been implied on the basis of the fossil record (Valentine and Moores, 1970) and the history of continental rifting (Sawkins, 1976). Likewise, Piper (1974, 1975) had previously argued for the existence of a single supercontinent throughout much of the Proterozoic, although the evidence was disputed (McGlynn et al., 1975). The model of the supercontinent cycle proposed by Worsley et al.'s (1984) was also necessarily simplistic, and it is apparent from contemporary U-Pb age data (e.g., Hawkesworth et al., 2010; Condie et al., 2011) that the cycle is not as regular as the Rb/Sr data originally suggested (Fig. 9), assuming all pre-Pangean supercontinents have been identified. Likewise, the mechanism they proposed for its operation lacked any detailed knowledge of mantle tomography and the fate of subducting slabs (e.g., Condie, 2004; Maruyama et al., 2007; Murphy and Nance, 2008).

Nevertheless, Worsley et al. (1982, 1984) were the first to propose that the assembly and breakup of supercontinents had occurred episodically throughout much of geologic time with profound consequences to the course of Earth history. Of the five supercontinents they predicted, four are now recognized as corresponding to the amalgamation of Pannotia (Gondwana), Rodinia, Columbia (or Nuna) and Kenorland (Fig. 9). And while data in support of the proposed effects of the supercontinent cycle on sea level, climate and biogeochemical trends were limited at the time, many of the effects predicted by Worsley et al. (1985, 1986) have since been borne out by more sophisticated analyses of the contemporary database (e.g., Eriksson et al., 2005, 2012, 2013; Miller et al., 2005; Dewey, 2007; Bradley, 2008, 2011; Cogné and Humler, 2008; Young, 2012a,b).

The concept of the supercontinent cycle has evolved significantly in the thirty years since it was first proposed, largely as a result of developments in mantle tomography (e.g., Zhao et al., 2012) and significant advances in precise geochronology (e.g., Condie et al., 2009, 2011) and geophysical modeling (e.g., Yoshida and Santosh, 2011; Rolf et al., 2012). This has led to a rapidly widening interest in the supercontinent cycle and a near-exponential increase in the literature (Fig. 10). A list of the many milestones driving this trend would have to include: (i) the SWEAT connection of Moores (1991) and the papers by Hoffman (1991) and Dalziel (1991) that stemmed from this idea in the early 1990s; (ii) the interest in supercontinents generated by the Snowball Earth hypothesis (e.g., Hoffman et al., 1998; Kirschvink et al., 2000) in the

late 1990s; (iii) Unrug and Powell's highly successful project (IGCP 440) on Rodinia Assembly and Breakup, which culminated in the consensus reconstruction of Li et al. (2008), and the investigation of earlier supercontinents championed by Rogers and Santosh (2003, 2004) in the early 2000s; and (iv) a steady stream of provocative papers throughout this period from Condie (1998, 2002, 2003).

With the rapidly emerging capability of using precisely dated and paleomagnetically constrained mafic dike swarms as piercing points for continental reconstructions (e.g., Ernst et al., 2011), and the newly developed ability to visualize and manipulate both plate tectonic reconstructions and the geological data on which they are based through geologic time with programs such as GPLATES (e.g., Boyden et al., 2011; Gurnis et al., 2012), we are, for the first time, close to developing reliable supercontinent reconstructions for the Proterozoic. Coupled with increasingly sophisticated geophysical modeling and increasingly sensitive seismic tomography, we also stand poised at a comprehensive understanding of mantle dynamics from which the mechanism of the supercontinent cycle will doubtless emerge.

Yet the original tenet of the supercontinent cycle that post-Archean Earth history has been punctuated by the episodic assembly and breakup of supercontinents with profound consequences to the geologic record has stood the test of time. In this respect, the supercontinent cycle as it is currently envisaged remains a prodigy (Fig. 10) of the pioneering contributions by Worsley et al. (1984, 1985, 1986) and those that came before.

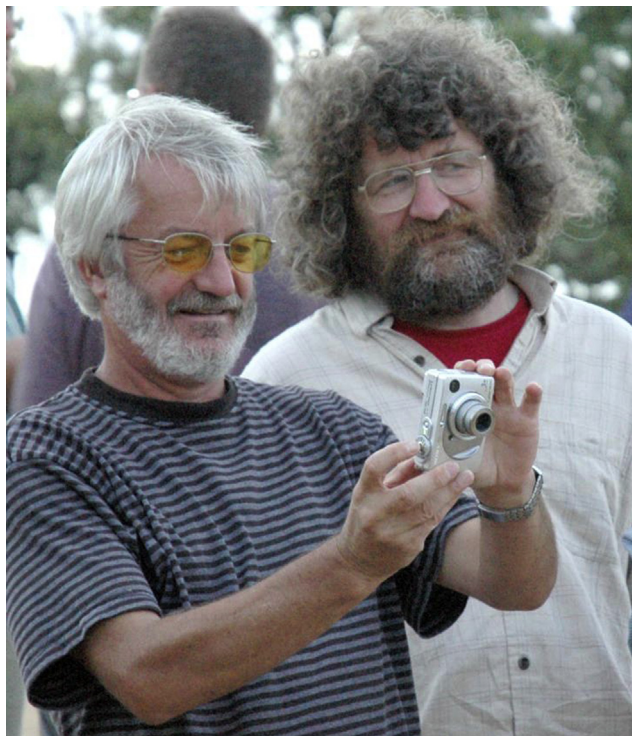
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