

Characterization of Trace and Rare Earth Element in the gneissic rocks from the Bundelkhand Craton, Central India

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Abstract

The geochemical compositions of gneissic rock samples from the Bundelkhand Craton were studied in order to determine their provenance, the nature of original sediments, and their tectonic setting. These rocks have an abundance of Rb, Ba, La, Ce, and Gd and depletion of Mo, Ho, Tm, Nb, Ta, Sr, Hf, and Ti. A negative anomaly of Nb and Ti suggests a subduction-related environment. The discrimination diagram of $\log(\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3/\text{K}_2\text{O})$ vs $\log(\text{SiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3)$ shows that the parental rock of the gneissic rocks is shale. The $\text{P}_2\text{O}_5/\text{TiO}_2$ vs MgO/CaO plot indicates the recycled sedimentary origin of the rocks. The SiO_2 vs $\log(\text{Na}_2\text{O}/\text{K}_2\text{O})$ diagram suggests that the gneissic rocks were deposited in the active continental margin setting. According to tectonic discrimination diagrams with a discrimination function and a binary plot of TiO_2 against Zr, the gneissic rocks were derived from felsic igneous rocks. The trace element plots $(\text{Th}/\text{Nb})_N$ vs $(\text{Y}/\text{Nb})_N$ and Nb/Zr vs Zr show that gneissic rocks were deposited in an active convergent margin from a felsic igneous source, then transported and metamorphosed.

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Introduction

Sediments are derived from rocks, soil, or biological material and then transported and deposited as particles or aggregates. As a general rule, all sediments are weathering products of basement rocks. Various mining and environmental studies use sediment chemistry to identify minerals and trace elements [1]. Geochemical investigations based on rock chemical analysis are a helpful instrument with many uses. Based on quantitative measurement and patterns of geochemical variations, geochemistry is the most effective tool to discriminate between igneous rock suits, identify involved magmatic processes, the nature of melt and protolith, and determine the tectonothermal environment. Geochemistry is a broad term for the science that deals with all geological studies that involve chemical change. It entails the investigation of element distributions in minerals, rocks, soils, and various earth materials. Our comprehension of many geological processes is based on visualizing major, minor, and trace elements in a rock. Rapid characterization of geochemical zoning in larger samples adds context to subsequent inquiry, permitting more robust

sub-sampling decisions for other analytical procedures and decreasing the total number of samples analyzed by more expensive techniques.

The most abundant oxides in rocks, which deal with the order of increasing atomic numbers, are the oxides of sodium (Na_2O), magnesium (MgO), aluminium (Al_2O_3), silicon (SiO_2), phosphorus (P_2O_5), potassium (K_2O), calcium (CaO), titanium (TiO_2), manganese (MnO) and iron (both ferric Fe_2O_3 and ferrous FeO). They are mostly used for rock classification and the construction of variation diagrams. Major elements are present in an amount on the Earth's crust of more than 1wt %, and trace elements are less than 1 wt %. The behaviour of the major oxides in magmas can be manifested in terms of the differentiation index. Likewise, trace elements behave similarly to major oxides because they substitute for some elements in major oxides. The term "rare earth elements" (REEs) does not imply that they are uncommon in nature; rather, REEs are quite common. In the average crust, the total amount of REEs exceeds 200 ppm. Some REEs are even more prevalent in the crust than copper or lead [2-3]. REEs are a group of 15 (trace) elements with atomic numbers ranging from 57 (La) to 71 (Lu); 14 of these elements occur naturally (except Promethium-Pm). For convenience, the REEs are divided into two sub-groups: (i) The light rare earth elements (LREE) range from La to Sm, while the heavy rare earth elements (HREE) range from Gd to Lu. However, middle rare earth elements (MREE) are elements from about Sm to Ho [4]. In nature, all of the rare earth elements exhibit a 3+ oxidation state (trivalent), except Ce^{4+} (oxidized) and Eu^{2+} (reduced) under most geological conditions. REEs are normally deemed immobile after igneous alteration and low-grade metamorphism. REE patterns help understand the petrogenesis process and the tectonic discrimination setting of different rocks. It is fascinating to decide whether the metamorphic rocks' protolith is of sedimentary or igneous origin, with many discrimination diagrams employed in the literature.

Most of the Bundelkhand Craton (BuC) consists of rocks with important mineral constituents. These are mainly igneous and metamorphic rocks. Till now, the geochemistry of the fine-grained rocks of the BuC has not been well investigated in order to understand its source rock properties, provenance, and tectonic setting. Using major, trace, and rare earth element (REEs) geochemistry, this study attempted to evaluate the geochemistry of the study area's gneissic rocks to offer information on source rock properties, provenances, and tectonic context.

Study area

Among the many Archean cratons of India, the Bundelkhand craton (BuC) has the most complex evolutionary history [5]. It is semicircular to triangular and has an area of about 45,000 km^2 , of which only 26,000 km^2 is exposed as an outcrop, and the rest is covered by the alluvium of the Ganga basin [6]. The east-west trending Son–Narmada lineament (SONA) bounds BuC in the south, the NE-SW trending Great Boundary Fault (GBF) in the west, and the WNW–ESE trending Yamuna fault in the north [7-8] ([Fig.1](#)).

BuC is mainly characterized by Bundelkhand Granite, tonalite trondjemite granodiorite (TTG) gneisses, dyke swarms of mafic composition trending NW–SE, NE–SW trending quartz reefs, and high-grade supracrustals and metavolcanic. Supracrustal rocks of pelitic composition have also been delineated in the BuC [9]. Based on new geological and geophysical data, two tectonic divisions are established: the Central Bundelkhand terrain and the Southern Bundelkhand

terrain [7]. The central Bundelkhand terrain consists mainly of the Babina-Mauranipur-Mahoba belt. This belt comprises a granite-greenstone complex striking in an E–W direction. This granite-greenstone complex embraces TTG of the Paleo-Neoproterozoic age, greenstone rocks of the Meso-Neoproterozoic age, a granodiorite-granite suite of the Neoproterozoic age, and oceanic rocks of the Paleoproterozoic age. Despite these rocks, lavas of mafic to ultramafic composition, volcanic of felsic composition (lava and dykes), and metasedimentary rocks (BIFs) are also present [10]. The Central and Southern Bundelkhand terrains display a singular crustal architecture, evolution, geological structure, and Sm–Nd model age of granitoid. The four main stages that indulge in continental crust formation for BuC were described [11], which are (1) 3.55–3.2 Ga-granitoids (tonalite–trondhjemite–granodiorite association), the oldest. (2) 2.82–2.8 Ga Central-Bundelkhand greenstone complex is composed of felsic volcanic from the Mauranipur greenstone belt. (3) 2.56–2.53 Ga-late felsic volcanics in the Babina belt during 2542 ± 17 Ma. (4) 3.3Ga-the Bundelkhand Gneissic Complex (BnGC) of the Meso- Neoproterozoic age [12]. BuC also consists of different types of gneisses named after their mineral assemblages, such as garnet sillimanite gneisses, biotite sillimanite gneiss, garnet biotite amphibolites gneiss, amphibolites, calc-silicates, and granite gneisses. Two events of metamorphism and four major deformation phases are identified in the core region of BuC [13].

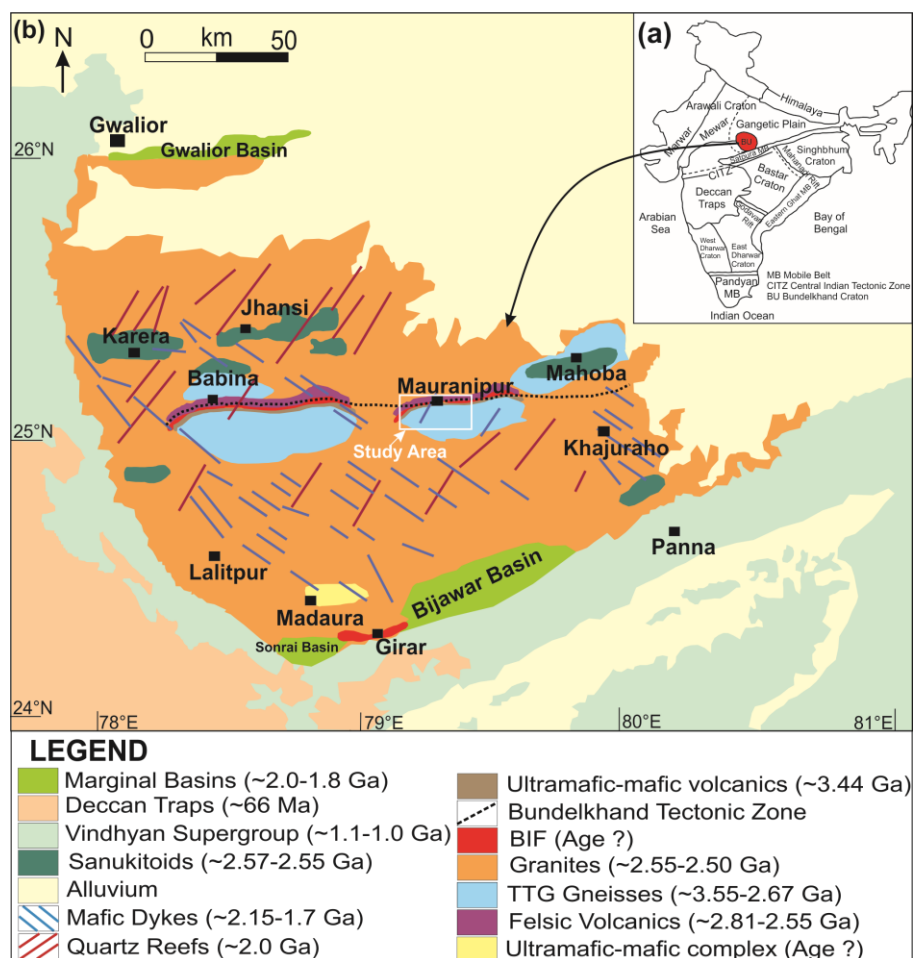


Figure 1. (a) Map of India showing the location of BuC. (b) Geological map of BuC [6]

The studied area is the Saprar river section near Kuraicha, Mauranipur, where unweathered rocks are exposed. Here, gneissic rocks are exposed in patches. There are also scattered ESE–WNW trending outcrops of banded magnetite quartzite and NE–SW trending quartz reefs. Multiphase deformation and folding are common. Deformation occurred in four events, D1–D4, in the area. The mesoscopic folds of the F1, F2, and F3 generations represent D1–D3 deformation, whereas the D4 deformation is characterized by rock shear structures [13].

Materials and methods

Sampling

Almost 30 samples of the garnet-bearing rocks were collected from the study area, from which five representative samples (K-2, K-3, K-4, K-5, K-6, and K-7) were chosen for the various analyses. In the field, these gneissic rocks are commonly associated with other igneous and metamorphic rocks. Gneissic rocks are dark-coloured in comparison to other rocks. Because of the prevalence of garnet, gneissic rocks are medium-to-coarse-grained, with a grey-to-pinkish tint and a greasy appearance. The collected samples are generally fresh. Garnet occurs as a significant constituent, having a pinkish hue. Light pink to white plagioclase crystals can be easily seen in hand specimens.

XRF Analysis

A whole rock analysis of representative samples for major oxides from the Mauranipur area, Jhansi, was done at the Birbal Sahni Institute of Palaeosciences (BSIP), Lucknow, India. Firstly, fresh rock samples were chipped with the help of a jaw crusher, and then an agate mortar was used for powdering the chips of the rock samples. All the work was done with precision to prevent contamination. In the pressed powder method, boric acid was used as the binder (sample ratio, 2:3) for preparing the sample. The XRF technique was used to analyze major oxides using a wavelength dispersive (WD-XRF AXIOS MAX) machine with 4KW, 60kV-160 mA analytical power on a pressed powder pellet machine using 'kameyo' at a pressure of 15-20 tonnes with a 4mm pallet thickness. All the data sets will be below 5% error with a good calibration curve.

Results

Geochemical characterization

The main, trace and REE data of the garnet-bearing rocks analyzed are presented in [Table 1](#), with ignition loss ranging from 0.27 to 0.54 for all samples. The gneissic rocks are compositionally variable in major oxides such as SiO_2 (62.25–66.32 wt%), Al_2O_3 (17.58–19.09 wt%), MgO (1.50–3.40 wt%), FeO (7.10–8.01 wt%), K_2O (1.86–2.68 wt%), and also contain lesser amounts of TiO_2 (0.61–0.72 wt%), CaO (1.33–2.75 wt%), Na_2O (1.26–2.36 wt%), and P_2O_5 (0.07–0.27 wt%). From the Harker variation diagrams ([Fig. 2](#)), it has been deduced that the MgO , CaO , MnO , Na_2O , and K_2O continuously decrease with increasing SiO_2 , whereas the Al_2O_3 , FeO , and TiO_2 increase with increasing SiO_2 . The total alkali vs silica [14] diagram ([Fig. 3a](#)) illustrates that the gneissic rocks are diorite and granodioritic in nature, implying that the gneissic rocks were derived from different sedimentary environments. Moreover, the (SiO_2) versus $(\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O}-\text{CaO})$ plot shows calcic to calc-alkalic composition ([Fig. 3b](#)). Most of the samples are ferroan, with two samples of gneissic rocks

showing magnesian character (Fig. 3c). However, the SiO_2 versus K_2O diagram (Fig. 3d) illustrates that the medium K calc-alkaline series dominates gneissic rocks. The A/NK vs A/CNK diagram (Fig. 3e) shows that all samples are peraluminous ($\text{A/CNK} = 2.48\text{--}4.28$). The Na_2O versus K_2O diagram (Fig. 3f) represents shoshonitic and ultra-potassic composition. The variation of the different major oxides with SiO_2 illustrates a substantial role in the fractionation and crystallization of minerals during the successive evolution of parental magma. The fractionation of feldspar can be depicted by the fall of Al_2O_3 with increasing SiO_2 . The variation diagrams of trace elements such as Ba and Sr have been effectively used to evaluate fractional crystallization processes [15]. In this study, Ba and Sr decrease with increasing SiO_2 , suggesting an early fractionation of plagioclase and K-feldspar in gneissic rocks. This is supported by the presence of negative Eu and Sr anomalies.

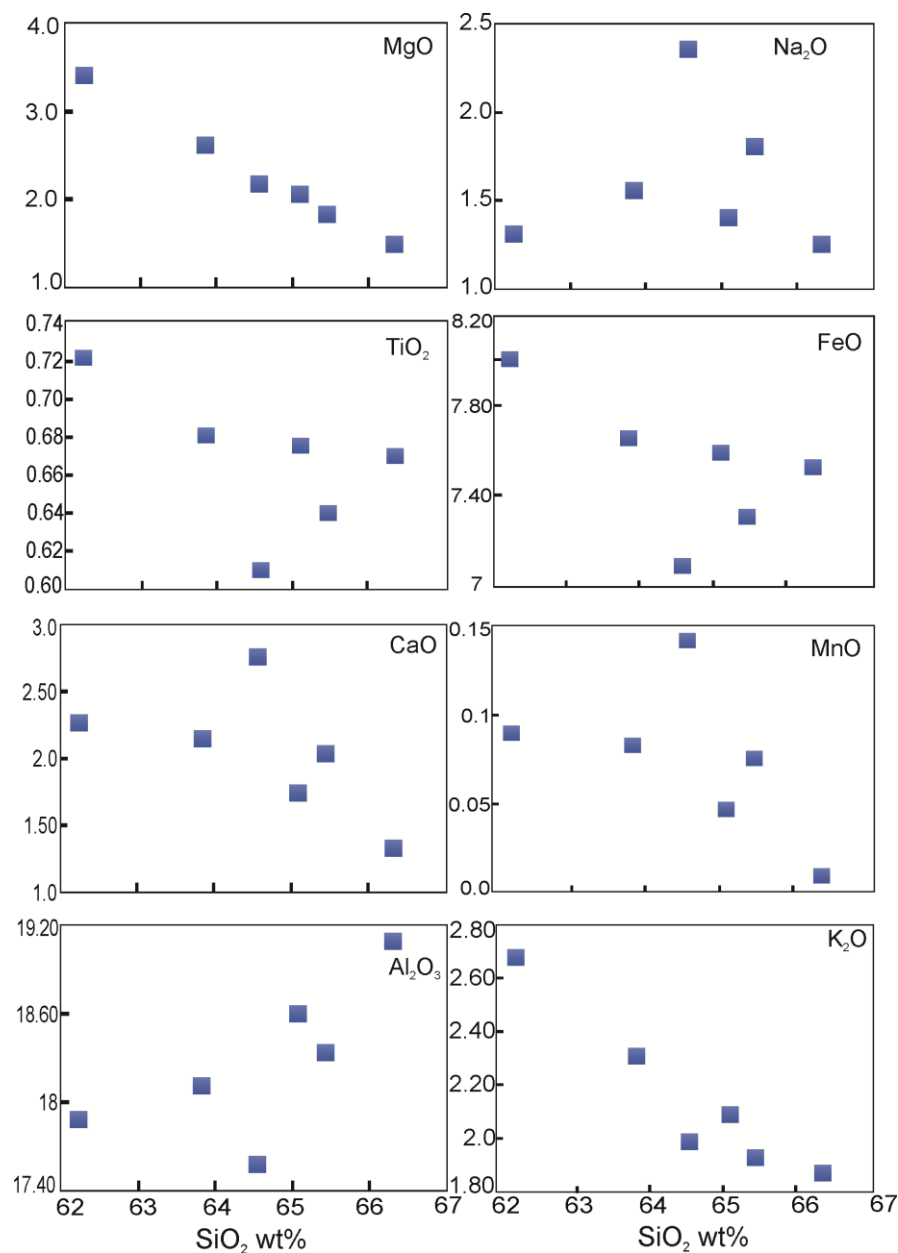


Figure 2. Harker Variation plot of major oxides vs SiO_2 .

Table 1. Representative major oxides (in wt%), trace elements and REEs (in ppm) compositions of gneissic rocks.

Major oxides	K-2	K-3	K-4	K-5	K-6	K-7
SiO ₂	66.32	64.56	65.44	62.25	63.85	65.08
Al ₂ O ₃	19.09	17.58	18.34	17.89	18.11	18.60
TiO ₂	0.67	0.61	0.64	0.72	0.68	0.67
FeO	7.53	7.10	7.32	8.01	7.66	7.60
MnO	0.01	0.14	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.05
MgO	1.50	2.18	1.84	3.4	2.62	2.06
CaO	1.33	2.75	2.04	2.26	2.15	1.74
Na ₂ O	1.26	2.36	1.81	1.32	1.57	1.41
K ₂ O	1.86	1.99	1.93	2.68	2.30	2.08
P ₂ O ₅	0.08	0.27	0.17	0.07	0.12	0.10
LOI	0.27	0.42	0.34	0.54	0.44	0.35
TOTAL	99.93	99.95	99.94	99.23	99.59	99.76
V	72.06	56.89	64.48	60.68	68.27	58.79
Co	19.28	17.06	18.17	17.62	18.73	17.34
Ni	33.8	28	30.90	29.45	32.35	28.73
Cu	102.8	175	138.90	156.95	120.85	165.98
Zn	96.8	112.2	104.50	108.35	100.65	110.28
Rb	125.1	141.8	133.45	137.63	129.28	139.71
Sr	16	25	20.50	22.75	18.25	23.88
Zr	201	165.6	183.30	174.45	192.15	170.03
Nb	7.3	9.7	8.50	9.10	7.90	9.40
Mo	2.69	3.64	3.17	3.40	2.93	3.52
Cd	0.12	0.24	0.18	0.21	0.15	0.23
Ba	569	459	514.00	486.50	541.50	472.75
Hf	3.62	2.64	3.13	2.89	3.38	2.76
Ta	0.25	0.3	0.28	0.29	0.26	0.29
Pb	8.5	17.2	12.85	15.03	10.68	16.11
Th	28.1	21.59	24.85	23.22	26.47	22.40
U	2.6	2.78	2.69	2.74	2.65	2.76
La	90.17	73.57	81.87	86.02	83.95	77.72
Ce	198	119	158.5	178.25	168.38	138.75
Pr	22	19.2	20.6	21.30	20.95	19.90
Nd	81	64.5	72.75	76.88	74.81	68.63
Sm	14.6	9.4	12	13.30	12.65	10.70
Eu	1.92	1.41	1.665	1.79	1.73	1.54
Gd	13.98	8.82	11.4	12.69	12.05	10.11
Tb	1.65	1.09	1.37	1.51	1.44	1.23
Dy	7.21	4.63	5.92	6.57	6.24	5.28
Ho	1.12	1.54	1.33	1.23	1.28	1.44
Er	2.42	1.64	2.03	2.23	2.13	1.84
Tm	0.25	0.19	0.22	0.24	0.23	0.21
Yb	1.31	1.75	1.53	1.42	1.48	1.64
Lu	0.17	0.38	0.275	0.22	0.25	0.33
Y	30.08	21.78	25.93	28.01	26.97	23.86
(La/Sm) _N	3.99	5.05	4.40	4.18	4.28	4.69
(La/Lu) _N	56.85	20.75	31.91	41.43	36.17	25.43
Eu/Eu*	0.41	0.47	0.44	0.42	0.43	0.45

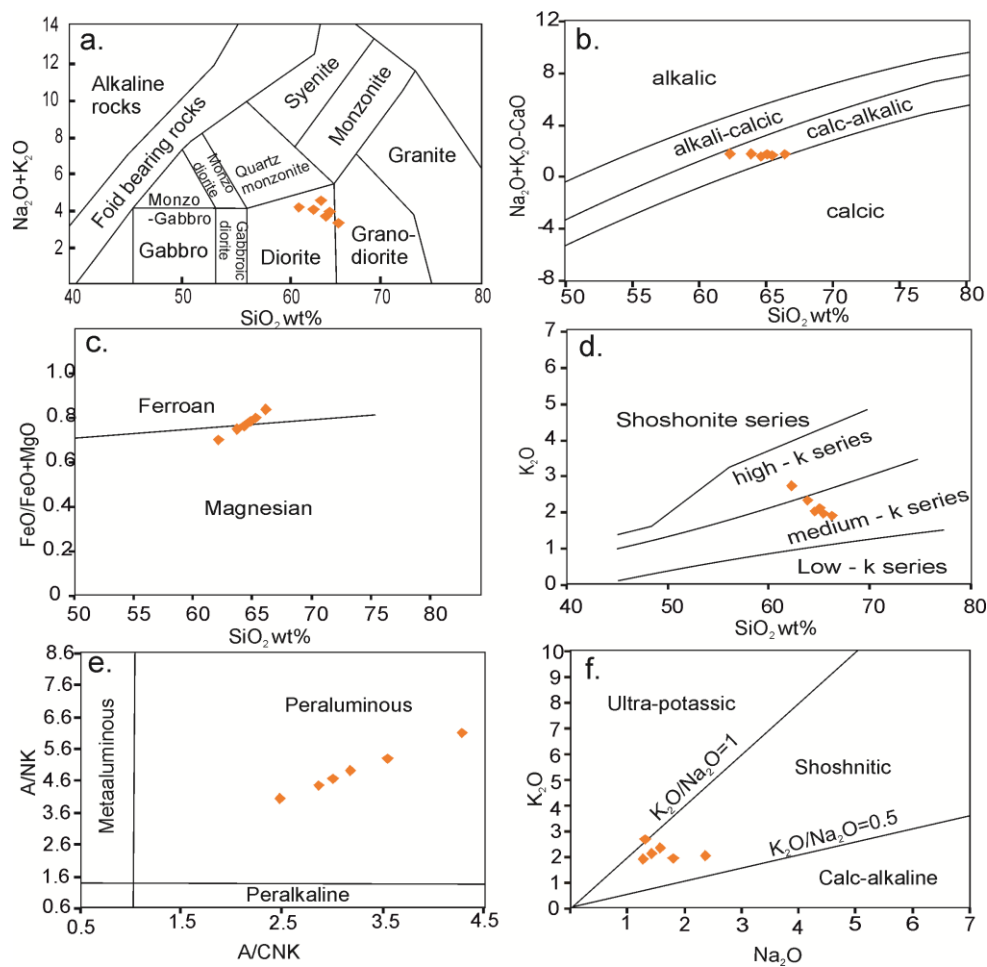


Figure 3. Chemical classification diagrams using major element composition of the studied rocks. (a) Total alkali versus silica (TAS) diagram for plutonic rocks after [14], (b) Calcic to alkali-calcic via calc-alkaline nature of studied rocks. (c) Granitoid classification scheme [26] revealing magnesian to ferroan. (d) K_2O versus SiO_2 plot after [27]. (e) A/NK versus A/CNK diagram. (f) Na_2O versus K_2O diagram [28].

The trace and REEs element data of gneissic rocks show contrast values of incompatible elements such as Rb (125.1–141.8 ppm), Sr (16–25 ppm), Ba (486.50–569 ppm), Y (21.78–30.08 ppm), Th (21.59–28.1 ppm) and U (2.6–2.78 ppm) as well as compatible elements such as Ni (28–33.8 ppm), and Co (17.06–19.28 ppm) (Table 1). Multi-element diagrams normalized on the primitive mantle reveal distinctive depletion of Mo, Ho, Tm, Nb, Ta, Sr, Hf, Ti, and an abundance of Rb, Ba, La, Ce, and Gd (Fig. 4a). The wide range of high field-strength elements (HFSEs) may be due to the degrees of mobility of the elements during the evolution of rock from the parental rock and under varying conditions of metamorphism. The presence of ilmenite can lead to the depletion of Ti. The chondrite normalized REE plot is depicted in Figure 4b. All the samples of gneissic rocks show a steady and nearly smooth REE pattern. The REE chondrite normalized patterns (Fig. 4b) show enriched LREE and depletion in HREE with negative Eu anomalies (0.41–0.47). The europium anomaly indicates the fractionation of the plagioclase during the evolution of magma. The LREE to HREE (La/Lu)_N ratio varies from 20.75–56.85. The chondrite normalized REEs pattern

has an enriched LREE relative to HREE and a negative Eu anomaly, which explains the parental rock's plagioclase-rich composition. The observed geochemical data and variation plots for the gneissic rocks support the idea of fractional crystallization during the evolution of their parental rock. Specific elemental ratios can assess the source rock and evolutionary trend characteristics [16]. The HFSEs such as Ti, Zr, Y, V, Cr, Ni, and REEs are the elements that remain immobile in comparison to the large ion lithophile elements (LILEs) such as K, Rb, Sr, and Ba, as well as Th and U during metamorphism and erosion. Therefore, they are suitable for determining the parental rock's nature and chemical characteristics before metamorphism [17]. The high Rb/Sr and Ba/Sr ratios and relative enrichment of HFSE suggest that a source of felsic nature is the protolith of gneissic rocks.

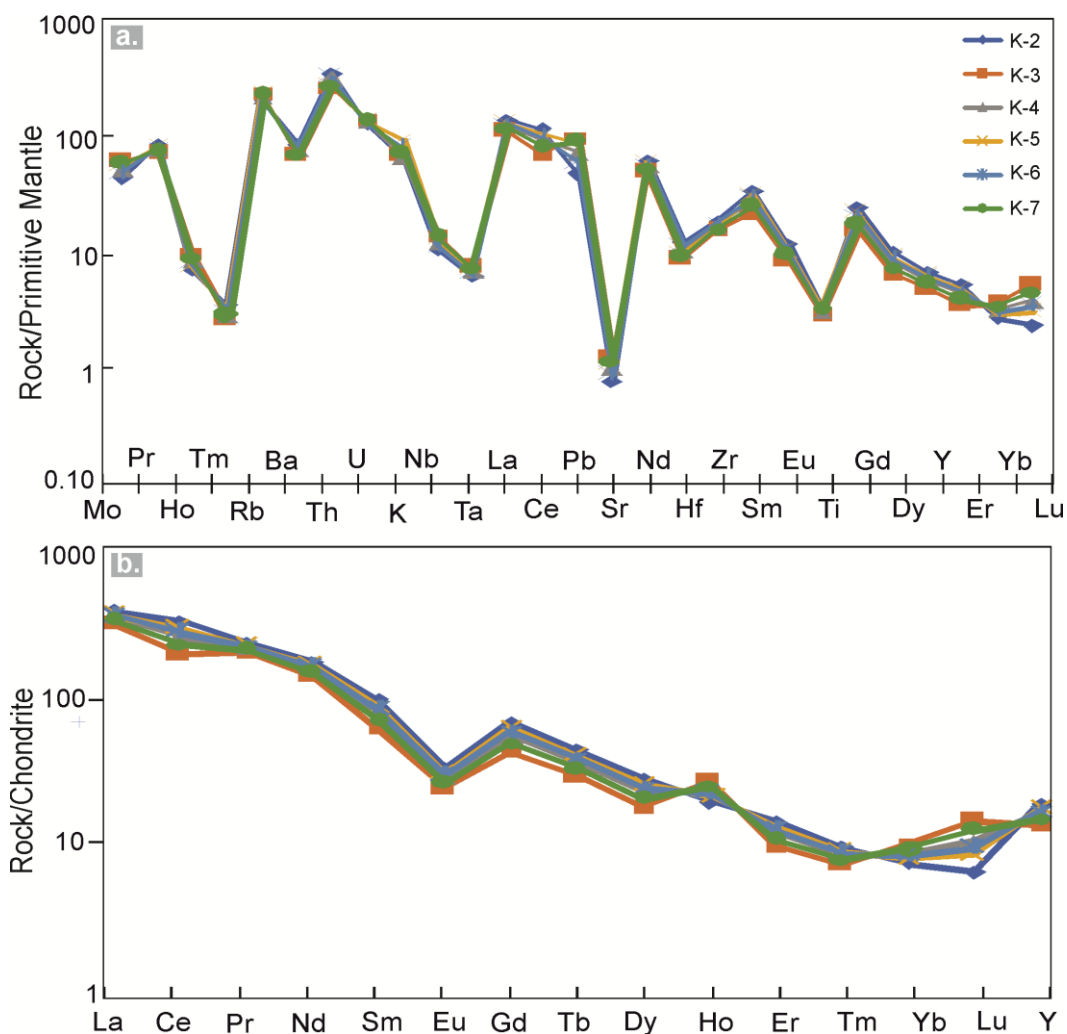


Figure 4. (a) Primitive mantle normalized multi-element spider diagram of aluminium silicate rocks. Normalized values are after [29]. (b) Chondrite normalized rare earth element plot. Normalized values are after [29].

The Nature of the Original Sediments

Sample data plots have been shown on the discrimination diagram (Fig.5a) of $\log(\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3/\text{K}_2\text{O})$ vs $\log(\text{SiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3)$ [18] to characterize the lithological characteristics of the original

sediment. It represents a distinct set of data plots in the shale field, whereas one sample lies on the line between shale and Fe-shale fields. The P_2O_5/TiO_2 vs MgO/CaO [19] plot indicates the recycled sedimentary origin of the rocks (Fig.5b). However, there are no decisive criteria to recognize the characteristics of the primitive magmatic material of the reworked sediments. However, [20] has developed some discrimination plots. Elements have minimal mobility during sedimentary processes and are used to distinguish between different igneous source rocks. The Chemical Index of Alteration (CIA) vs. Index of Compositional Variability (ICV) discrimination diagram also shows the recycled metasediments as the protolith of the gneissic rocks themselves, which originated from an andesitic source (Fig.5c) [21]. The data point cluster on the SiO_2 vs $\log(K_2O/Na_2O)$ diagram [22] for the protolith of gneissic rocks suggests that the depositional environment was an active continental margin (ACM) (Fig.5d).

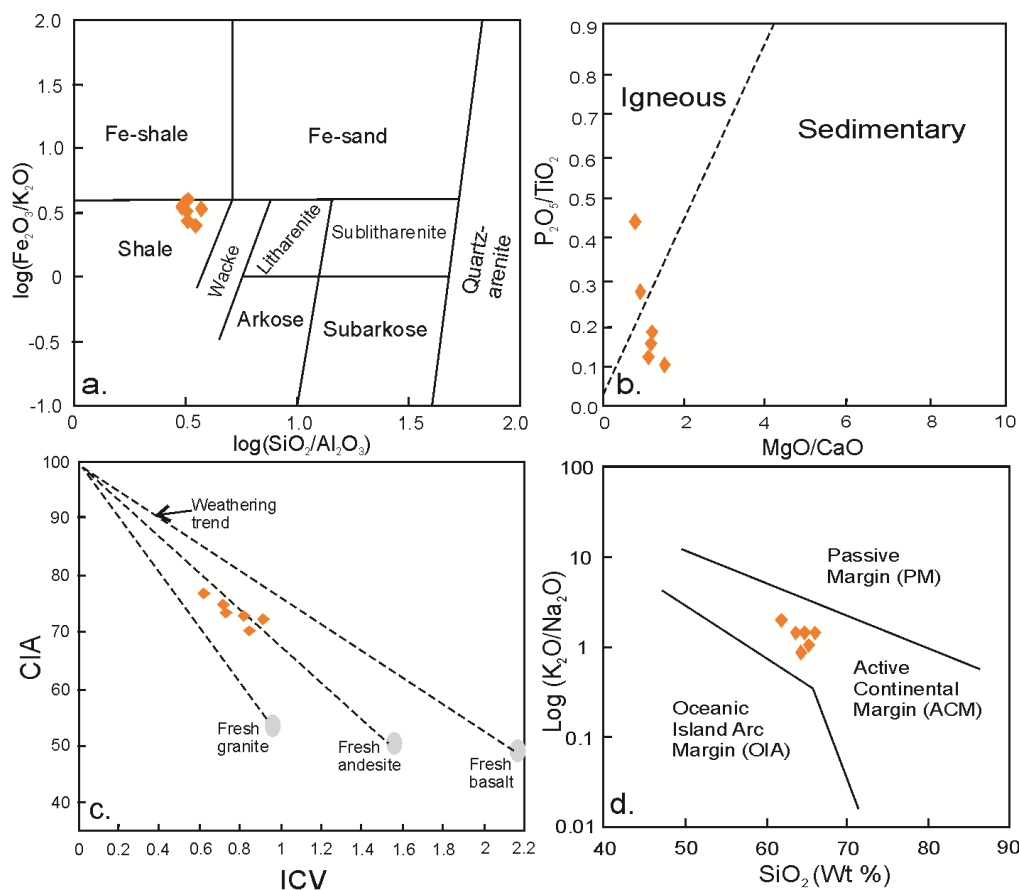


Figure 5. (a) $\log(SiO_2/Al_2O_3)$ vs $\log(Fe_2O_3/K_2O)$ plot after [18], (b) The MgO/CaO vs P_2O_5/TiO_2 diagram after [19], (c) CIA versus ICV diagram of [21], (d) SiO_2 vs. $\log(K_2O/Na_2O)$ diagram after [22].

Provenance and tectonic setting

The provenance of the gneissic rocks is established with the help of discrimination function analysis, in which the major oxides and trace elements have been utilized [22]. This discrimination function analysis differentiates four provenance fields: mafic igneous, intermediate igneous, felsic igneous, and quartzose sedimentary or recycled provenance. When plotted in the

discrimination function diagram (Fig. 6a), the gneissic rocks acquire the domain of felsic igneous provenance. The TiO_2 versus Zr plot confirms this, as all the gneissic rocks are again plotted in the felsic igneous rock field (Fig. 6b). The trace-element data are used to generate tectonic discrimination diagrams that highlight the parental rock's characteristics and the type of tectonism. The $(\text{Th}/\text{Nb})_N$ vs $(\text{Y}/\text{Nb})_N$ ratio indicates that the gneissic rocks form in a convergent tectonic setting (Fig. 6c). The Nb/Zr vs Zr plot shows that the studied rocks are formed by the subduction process (Fig. 6d). The Y vs Nb plot suggests that the protolith of the gneissic rocks was derived from volcanic arc granite (VAG) and a syn-collisional tectonic environment (Fig. 6e), whereas the Y+Nb vs Rb plot clarifies that the protolith was derived from VAG (Fig. 6f).

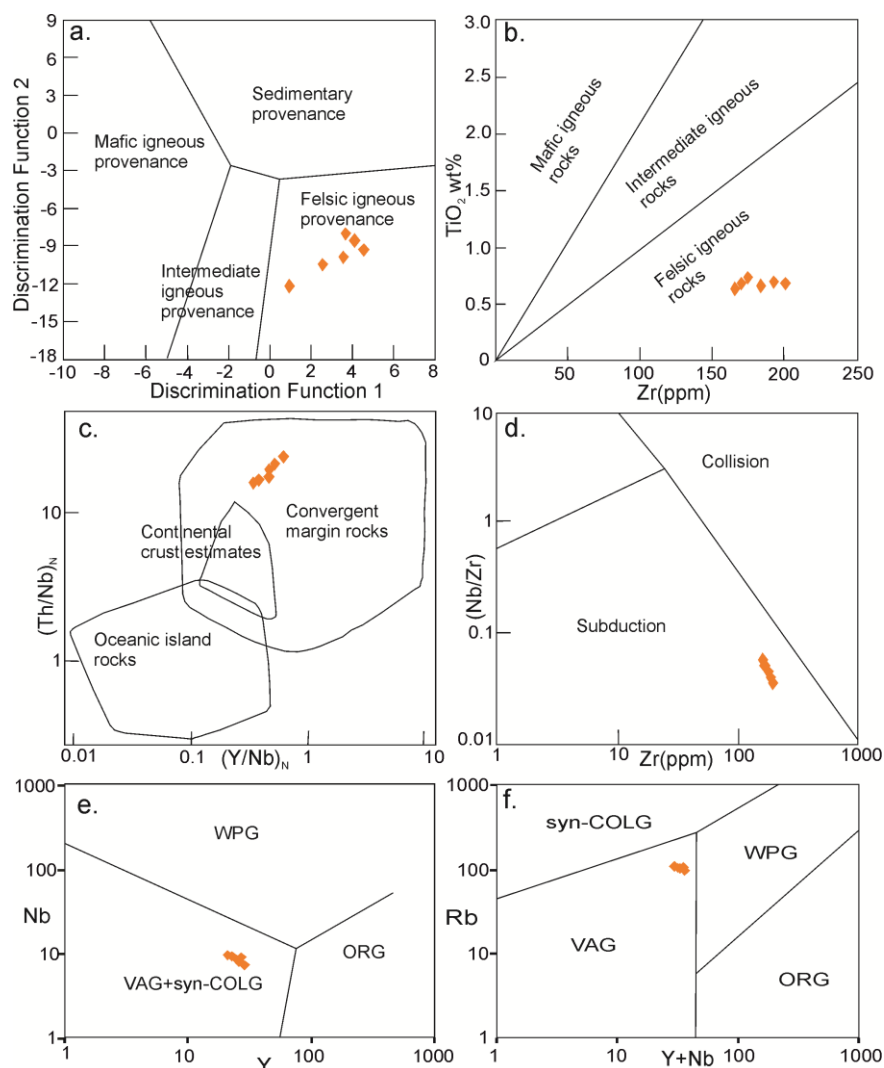


Figure 6. (a) Major element Discriminant Function diagram for provenance [30] where Discriminant Function 1 = $(-1.773 \text{ TiO}_2) + (0.607 \text{ Al}_2\text{O}_3) + (0.760 \text{ Fe}_2\text{O}_3) + (-1.500 \text{ MgO}) + (0.616 \text{ CaO}) + (0.509 \text{ Na}_2\text{O}) + (-1.224 \text{ K}_2\text{O}) + (-9.090)$; Discriminant Function 2 = $(0.445 \text{ TiO}_2) + (0.070 \text{ Al}_2\text{O}_3) + (-0.250 \text{ Fe}_2\text{O}_3) + (-1.142 \text{ MgO}) + (0.438 \text{ CaO}) + (1.475 \text{ Na}_2\text{O}) + (-1.426 \text{ K}_2\text{O}) + (-6.861)$. (b) TiO_2 –Zr plot [31] (c) $(\text{Y}/\text{Nb})_N$ versus $(\text{Th}/\text{Nb})_N$ diagram [32], (d) Zr versus Nb/Zr plot [33] (e) Y vs Nb tectonic discrimination diagram. (f) Y+Nb vs Rb tectonic discrimination plot. Syn-COLG: syn-collisional granite; WPG: within plate granite; VAG: volcanic arc granite; ORG: ocean ridge granite [34].

Discussion and conclusions

Based on the normalized trace and rare-earth element (REE) patterns and discrimination diagrams, we have concluded the nature of the parental rock and tectonic settings of the studied gneissic rocks during their formation. Geochemical attributes added with field observations and discrimination diagrams appear to be helpful for the characterization of gneissic rocks. According to the geochemical study, the gneissic rocks are formed by the deposition of felsic sediments in a convergent margin and are then metamorphosed. The time since sedimentation and their source locality with the metamorphism after the deposition play a vital role in uncovering the tectonic history. Gneissic rocks are formed by the accumulation and diagenesis of weathering products from pre-existing rocks. However, these rocks are continuously exposed to erosion, leading to severe discordant patterns in the BuC. The present study concludes:

- The gneissic rocks of the study area have preserved various deformation structures, indicating that they experienced multiple phases of deformation events.
- Based on Harker variation diagrams, gneissic rocks evolved from the magma separation process (Fig. 2).
- These rocks were plotted on the TAS plot (Fig.3a), showing the provenance is of the dioritic composition. The granodioritic magma has concentrated plagioclase during fractional crystallization, and its ascent must have given rise to the parental rock of the gneissic rocks.
- Gneissic rocks are enriched in K, Th, Rb, Zr, Sm, and Y and depleted in Ba, Nb, Ta, and Ti. A negative anomaly of Nb and Ti suggests a subduction-related environment. Mixing of magma with the Earth's crust can explain the high concentration of Rb. LREE to HREE are in moderate concentration in the samples, and a negative anomaly of Eu is also considerable ($\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^* = 0.41\text{--}0.47$). Usually, feldspars are responsible for Eu anomalies since Eu in its bivalent state is compatible with calcium feldspars, while the rest of the trivalent REEs are not. As a result, when calcium feldspar is separated from the parental rock, Eu leads to a negative anomaly.
- The $\log(\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3/\text{K}_2\text{O})$ vs $\log(\text{SiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3)$ plot (Fig.5a) demarcates that the sediments were derived from the dioritic arc to form shale after the deposition in the sedimentary basin. Furthermore, another discrimination diagram, CIA vs ICV, depicts the recycled metasediments, where the protolith is generated from the granitic source (Fig.5c). The tectonic discrimination diagram suggested the protolith of gneissic rocks were deposited in the ACM (Fig.5d). The ICV range is 0.79 to 1.08, suggesting gneissic rocks were initially formed as immature sediments and are likely to have been deposited in ACM tectonic settings. Silicification and K-metasomatism are significant processes that play an important role in modifying post-depositional sediments [23–25]. Subsequently, significant changes were observed. Major elements like; Fe, Mg, Ca, and Na leached out of the sediments, whereas Si and K concentrated [23].
- The parental rock of gneissic rocks was derived from felsic igneous provenance (Fig. 6a&b) within a convergent margin tectonic setting (Fig. 6c&d). Although, the various geochemical ratios (e.g., Y/Nb, Y+Nb/Rb) demonstrate that the parental rock of gneissic rocks was derived from the volcanic arc granite and syn-collisional setting (Fig. 6e&f).

This study proposes that the Bundelkhand gneissic rocks are derived mainly from a granitic source in a subduction zone. However, detailed research to determine this tectonic evolution would require more geochemical and geochronological data on various rock types.

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