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1 **Spreading Continents Kick-Started Plate Tectonics**

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6

7 **Plate tectonics characterises the present-day geodynamics of the Earth. Stresses acting on cold,**
8 **thick and negatively buoyant oceanic lithosphere are key to the initiation of subduction and the**
9 **operation of plate tectonics^{1,2}. In the Archaean, because the Earth interior was hotter, oceanic**
10 **crust may have been thicker, making oceanic lithosphere possibly more buoyant than at**
11 **present³. Whether subduction and plate tectonics occurred on the early Earth is ambiguous**
12 **both in the geological record and in geodynamic models⁴. Here we show that because they were**
13 **thick and buoyant⁵, early continents produced intra-lithospheric gravitational stresses large**
14 **enough to drive their gravitational spreading, to initiate subduction at their margins, and to**
15 **trigger subduction episodes. Our model predicts the co-occurrence of deep to progressively**
16 **shallow mafic volcanics and arc magmatism within continents in a self-consistent geodynamic**
17 **framework, explaining the enigmatic multimodal volcanism and tectonic record of Archaean**
18 **cratons⁶. Moreover, our model predicts a progressive petrological stratification and tectonic**
19 **structuration of the sub-continental lithospheric mantle, two predictions that are respectively**
20 **consistent with xenolith⁵ and seismic studies, and consistent with the existence of a mid-**
21 **lithospheric seismic discontinuity⁷. The slow gravitational collapse of early continents could**
22 **have kick-started transient plate tectonic episodes until, as the Earth interior cooled and**
23 **oceanic lithosphere became heavier, plate tectonics became self-sustaining.**

24 Present-day plate tectonics is primarily driven by the negative buoyancy of cold subducting plates.

25 Petrological and geochemical proxies of subduction preserved in early continents point to subduction-

26 like processes already operating before 3 billion years (Gyr) ago^{8,9} and perhaps as early as 4.1 Gyr

27 ago¹⁰. However, they are not unequivocal, and geodynamic modelling suggests that the thicker

28 basaltic crust produced by partial melting of a hotter Archaean or Hadean mantle would have

29 increased lithospheric buoyancy and inhibited subduction^{3,4}. Therefore, mantle convection under a
30 stagnant lid with extensive volcanism could have preceded the onset of subduction¹¹. In this scenario,
31 it is classically assumed that the transition from stagnant-lid regime to mobile-lid regime and the
32 onset of plate tectonics require that convective stresses overcame the strength of the stagnant lid¹² at
33 some stage in the Archaean.

34 On modern Earth, gravitational stresses due to continental buoyancy can contribute to subduction
35 initiation^{2,13}. The role of continental gravitational stresses as a driver of Archaean lithospheric
36 deformation has been emphasized^{14,15}, however their potential to initiate subduction has been
37 overlooked. Studies of xenolith in Archaean cratons show that the early continental crust was
38 underlain by a thick (~200 km), moderately- to strongly-depleted and therefore buoyant lithospheric
39 mantle⁵. A common model for the formation of early continental lithosphere invokes partial melting
40 in mantle plumes, leading to magnesium-rich mantle residues (e.g. refractory harzburgites and
41 dunites) under thick basaltic plateaux^{5,16,17}. Partial melting of these thick basaltic crusts, at depth
42 >40 km, further differentiates the crust into tonalite-trondjemite-granodiorite (TTG) and restitic
43 material^{16,18}.

44 First order calculations show that the horizontal gravitational force acting between a continent 200 km
45 thick and adjacent oceanic lithosphere is of the order of 10^{13} N m⁻¹ (see Extended Data Fig. 1),
46 comparable to that of present-day tectonic forces driving orogenesis¹. To explore the tectonic impact
47 of a thick and buoyant continent surrounded by a stagnant lithospheric lid, we produced a series of
48 two-dimensional thermo-mechanical numerical models of the top 700 km of the Earth, using
49 temperature-dependent densities and visco-plastic rheologies depending on temperature, melt fraction
50 and depletion, stress and strain rate (see Methods). The initial temperature field is the horizontally-
51 averaged temperature profile of a stagnant-lid convection calculation for a mantle ~200 K hotter than
52 at present (Fig. 1a₀ and Extended Data Fig. 2). The absence of lateral temperature gradients ensures
53 that no convective stresses act on the lid, allowing us to isolate the dynamic effect of the continent. A
54 225-km-thick, buoyant and stiff continent (170-km-thick strongly depleted mantle root overlain by
55 40-km-thick felsic crust; see Fig. 1b₁) is inserted within the lid, on the left side of the domain to
56 exploit the symmetry of the problem (Fig. 1a₀). A 15-km-thick mafic crust covers the whole system

57 (Fig. 1a₀), accounting for the common occurrence of thick greenstone covers on continents, as well as
58 thick basaltic crust on the oceanic lid³.

59 Our numerical solutions show that the presence of a buoyant continent imparts a horizontal force
60 large enough to induce a long period (~50 to 150 million years - Myr) of slow collapse of the whole
61 continental lithosphere (Fig. 1 and Extended Data Fig. 3), in agreement with the dynamics of
62 spreading for gravity currents¹⁹. Hence, a continent of larger volume leads to larger gravitational
63 power and faster collapse. Because of lateral spreading of the continent, the adjacent lithospheric lid
64 is slowly pushed under its margin (Fig. 1a₁, and Extended Data Fig. 3 a₁). For gravitational stress
65 lower than the yield stress of the oceanic lid, thickening of the margin of the lid is slow and viscous
66 drips (i.e. Rayleigh-Taylor instabilities) detach from its base (Extended Data Fig. 3 a₀₋₁). These
67 instabilities, typical for stagnant-lid convection²⁰, mitigate the thermal thickening of the lid.

68 When gravitational stresses overcome the yield stress of the lithospheric lid, subduction is initiated
69 (Figs. 1a₁₋₂). Depending on the half-width of the continent and its density contrast with the adjacent
70 oceanic lid (i.e. its gravitational power) three situations can arise: i/ subduction initiates and stalls
71 (Extended Data Fig. 3b), ii/ the slab detaches then the lid stabilizes (Figs. 1a₃₋₄ and Extended Data Fig.
72 3c), or iii/ recurrent detachment of the slab occurs until complete recycling of the oceanic lid followed
73 by stabilisation (Extended Data Fig. 3d). When the slab reaches a depth of ~ 200 km, slab pull
74 contributes to drive subduction and rapid rollback of the subducting lid, which in turn promotes
75 lithospheric boudinage and continental rifting (Fig. 1a₂ and Extended Data Fig. 3c₁₋₃). Through
76 spreading and thinning of the continent, its base rises from 225 km to ~75 km deep on average, and
77 shallower between lithospheric boudins (Figs. 1a₃ and 2b and Extended Data Figs. 3c₂₋₃ and 3d₁₋₅).
78 This triggers an episode of deep (~150 km) to shallow (<100 km) decompression melting and
79 progressive depletion of the ambient fertile mantle (Figs. 2 and 3b). Harzburgites of the continental
80 mantle are too refractory to melt upon decompression. Polybaric melting of fertile mantle produces a
81 6 km thick basalt cover and a mantle residue ~ 75 km thick with an averaged depletion of 7.5% (Figs.
82 2 and 3c). The bulk of depletion occurs over a volcanic episode lasting up to ~13 Myr, although
83 partial melting persists over a duration of 45 Myr (Fig. 2b). In the last ~25 Myr of melting, the sub-
84 continental mantle cools until melting stops (Figs. 1a₄ and 2). Decompression melting allows the

85 spreading continent to maintain a minimum chemical thickness of at least 140-150 km. Following the
86 melting phase, conductive cooling results in the thermal thickening and strengthening of a chemically
87 stratified cratonic lithosphere (Figs. 1a₄, 2 and 3d). Over the whole process, the buoyancy of the
88 continent decreases, subduction stops and a stagnant lid regime is re-established (Fig. 1a₄).

89 Trade-offs between yield stress, gravitational stress and continental volume determine the initiation of
90 subduction in our models (Extended Data Figs. 3b and 3d). For a yield stress of 150 to 300 MPa,
91 consistent with recent estimates of rheological parameters of the lithospheric mantle^{21,22}, increasing
92 the continent width favours subduction initiation (Extended Data Fig. 4). These results suggest an
93 increasing potential for subduction as continental area increased through time.

94 Our models not only confirm important results from previous studies, but they also provide innovative
95 explanations for key attributes of Archaean cratons. Both transient subduction and dripping styles are
96 consistent with previous models of Archaean²³ and modern¹³ subduction. As observed in previous
97 work, the length of the detached segments increases with the yield stress of the lid²³. Our models
98 confirm that a combination of the buoyancy, the large viscosity of Archaean sub-continental
99 lithospheric mantle (SCLM), and large plastic strain weakening prevent the recycling of the SCLM,
100 which explains its longevity²⁴. Our models account for the average thickness (~6 km) and duration of
101 volcanism (~10 to 50 Myr) of greenstones covers, and predict polybaric (5 to 2 GPa) partial melting,
102 involving deep (garnet-bearing) to shallow sources (Fig. 2). The MgO content of basaltic melts
103 produced at these pressures ranges between 11 and 17% (Fig. 2a), consistent with komatiitic basalts
104 (12-18% MgO) typical of Archaean greenstones^{17,26}. Tholeiitic basalts (6-12% MgO), abundant in
105 Archaean greenstones²⁶, can be produced in our model in regions of continental necking where partial
106 melting can occur at pressure < 3 GPa. Figure 2a shows that to account for the formation of
107 komatiites (MgO>18%) our model would simply require a mantle potential temperature greater than
108 1820 K. When subduction starts, arc volcanism is expected at convergent margins while continental
109 extension and rifting still operate (Fig. 1a₂). Therefore, our model can explain the metasomatism and
110 production of sanukitoid melts through migration of younger TTG melts generated by partial melting
111 of subducting eclogitised basaltic crust (Fig. 3c).

112 On modern Earth, mantle plumes mostly occur away from subduction zones²⁵. Hence, the eruption

113 duration and sequential inter-layering of komatiite, tholeiite, calc-alkaline and felsic volcanics,
114 ubiquitous in Archaean greenstone belts²⁶⁻²⁸, frequently attributed to repeated interaction between
115 mantle plumes and subduction zones over hundreds of millions of years⁶, remains enigmatic. Our
116 model predicts the co-occurrence of deep (up to 150 km) to shallow (<100 km) mafic volcanics (Fig.
117 2b) and arc magmatism in a self-consistent geodynamic framework.

118 Moreover, our model predicts a progressive chemical stratification of the SCLM concomitant with
119 that of the continental crust and growth of the greenstone cover. This explains the strong geochemical
120 layering of cratonic mantle inferred by geochemical and petrological studies of mantle xenolith⁵. Pure
121 shear stretching and thinning during the collapse promotes development of a sub-horizontal litho-
122 tectonic fabric in the refractory harzburgite and dunite, and to a lesser extent in the accreted
123 moderately depleted mantle (Fig. 2b). The predicted litho-tectonic layering explains the seismic mid-
124 lithospheric discontinuity around 100 km depth observed within cratons²⁹. This discontinuity⁷ could
125 correspond to the sharp transition predicted by our model between the strongly stretched, strongly
126 depleted primary root of the continent and the moderately stretched, moderately depleted-to-fertile
127 mantle accreted through cooling (Fig. 3).

128 We propose that the collapse of early continents was a key process in Archaean geodynamics,
129 resulting in the concomitant structuration of the mantle root and crust of cratons. This process would
130 have kick-started transient episodes of plate tectonics, until plate tectonics became self-sustained,
131 through increasing continental area³⁰ and decreasing buoyancy of oceanic plates³.

132

133 **METHODS SUMMARY**

134 We solve the problem of conservation of mass, momentum and energy for incompressible mantle
135 flow and lithosphere deformation in the top 700 km of the Earth, using the particle-in-cell finite-
136 element code Ellipsis¹² (freely available at <http://www.geodynamics.org/cig/software/ellipsis3d/>).

137 These equations are solved along with constitutive relations for visco-plastic rheology depending on
138 temperature, stress and strain rate, and melt fraction and depletion (see Methods and Extended Data
139 Table 1). Over 200 calculations were conducted varying the lateral extent of the model domain (4200
140 to 16800 km), the half-width (400 to 1400 km) and thickness (175 or 225 km) of the continents, the

141 limiting yield stress of mantle rocks (100 to 500 MPa), density of the top 75 km of the oceanic lid
142 mantle (3395 down to 3360 kg m⁻³), and various modes of melt extraction. The reference densities of
143 all mantle rocks depend on temperature (Extended Data Table 1), and the density of basalts also
144 depends on pressure to simulate eclogitisation. Our experiments take into account the thermo-
145 mechanical impacts of partial melting, which allows us to map the evolution of the depletion and
146 reveal the development of the lithospheric mantle layering. The specific version of Ellipsis and input
147 scripts used for this work are available from the first author upon request.

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231 The authors declare no competing interests. Readers are welcome to comment on the online version of
 232 the paper. Correspondence and requests for Ellipsis code and input scripts should be addressed to
 233 P.F.R. (patrice.rey@sydney.edu.au).

234

235 **Figure 1 | Numerical solution of an example of continent collapse leading to subduction.**

236 Modelling setup (**a**₀) and computed snapshots (**a**₁₋₄) for a 700-km-deep, 6300-km-long box including a
 237 225-km-thick continent, of half-width 800 km. All mantle rocks have a limiting yield stress of
 238 300 MPa. Mantle cooler than 1620 K is in blue (darker blue is hotter), mantle hotter than 1620 K is in
 239 pink (darker pink is hotter). Regions of depletion due to partial melting of ambient fertile mantle are
 240 hatched. Compositional structure, reference densities and reference rheological profile are shown in
 241 (**b**₁) for the continent, and (**b**₂) for the adjacent lithospheric lid. This numerical solution documents the
 242 long phase of slow continental spreading leading to the initiation of a slab (**a**₁₋₂). Once the slab
 243 reaches a depth of ~200 km, slab pull contributes to drive subduction, rollback and continental
 244 boudinage (**a**₂, in some experiments boudinage leads to rifting) and slab detachment (**a**₃). In this
 245 experiment, the detachment of the slab is followed by a long period of thermal relaxation and
 246 stabilisation during which the thickness of the continent increases through cooling and incorporation
 247 of the moderately depleted mantle (**a**₄).

248 **Figure 2 | Layering of the continental lithosphere through thinning and progressive accretion of**

249 **moderately depleted mantle.** a/ Points located at depth A_0 to A_3 before spreading, are exhumed
 250 during spreading to locations A_0' to A_3' following the blue pressure-temperature-time (P-T-t) path.
 251 The geotherm intersects the solidus and the temperature in the partially molten column remains close
 252 to the solidus because latent heat is continuously extracted with the melt once melt fraction reaches

253 1%. Melt is extracted from various depths following the melt adiabat (yellow arrows). The region
254 between the hydrous fertile mantle solidus and liquidus is mapped for MgO content (see Method).
255 The deeper part of the column produces komatiitic basalts (dark blue shading), while partial melting
256 at pressure < 3 GPa produces tholeiitic basalts (pale blue shading). b/ Temporal evolution of the
257 laterally averaged depletion (cyan), partial melting (yellow), and density interfaces (thick dashed
258 lines). As spreading and thinning proceeds, pure shear fabrics (shown as finite strain ellipses) develop
259 in the refractory mantle and in the moderately depleted mantle, which records a shorter strain history.
260 The base of the partially molten column remains close ~150 km whereas its top progressively rises
261 from ~150 km at the beginning of partial melting (at ~44 Myr) to an average of ~75 km below the
262 surface (at ~55 Myr). From 55 Myr, spreading slows down and progressive cooling reduces the
263 amount of melt, until partial melting stops at ~82 Myr. This results in the progressive chemical
264 stratification of the sub-continental lithospheric mantle.

265 **Figure 3 | Proposed model for the co-evolution of cratonic crust and sub-continental**
266 **lithospheric mantle.** Integrating the results of our numerical experiments with petrological data
267 supports a model linking the formation of continents to the initiation of subduction at their margins,
268 through the process of continent collapse. This model predicts the layering of the sub-continental
269 lithospheric mantle (SCLM), polybaric and multimodal volcanism recorded in greenstone covers, and
270 the metasomatism of the SCLM. **a**, Deep mantle partial melting leads to the formation of an oceanic
271 plateau that differentiates into a continent. The residue of mantle melting forms the strongly depleted
272 harzburgite root of the continent, while the deeper part of the basaltic crust differentiates via partial
273 melting into tonalite-trondjemite-granodiorite (TTG). **b**, As the continent grows in thickness and
274 length, excess gravitational potential energy drives its collapse and the shortening of the adjacent
275 oceanic lid (in grey). During collapse and thinning of the continent, decompression melting (yellow)
276 of the fertile ambient mantle and extraction of deep (komatiitic basalt) to shallow (tholeiite) melt
277 contribute to the growth of the greenstone cover, and to the formation of a moderately depleted
278 mantle layer. **c**, Due to the horizontal push of the collapsing continent, the thickened margin of the
279 oceanic lid subducts underneath the continental margin. Partial melting of the thick, eclogitised
280 oceanic crust produces TTG melts (purple), which metasomatise both the mantle wedge and the

281 lithospheric mantle. Melting of the hydrated and metasomatised mantle wedge produces calc-alkaline
282 to sanukitoid melts (orange). **d**, Following the detachment of the slab, and once the gravitational
283 power of the continent is too small deform its surrounding, the continent thicken through thermal
284 relaxation and cooling, first incorporating the layer of moderately depleted mantle and then a layer of
285 un-melted fertile mantle.

286

287 **METHODS**

288 We use Ellipsis, a Lagrangian integration point finite-element code^{12,31}, to solve the governing
289 equations of momentum, mass and energy in incompressible flow. Our reference Cartesian 2D
290 numerical model is 700 km deep and 6300 km long. The Stokes equation that balances buoyancy
291 forces, viscous stresses and pressure gradients is solved on a Eulerian computational grid made of
292 32 x 288 cells with uniform spacing. We have verified validity of our results by testing a higher
293 resolution grid of 64 x 576 cells. Each cell is populated by 100 Lagrangian particles (total > 920,000
294 particles) tracking the material properties and therefore material interfaces during mantle flow and
295 lithospheric deformation. A free slip condition is applied to the vertical and horizontal boundaries of
296 the modelling domain. The temperature in the upper horizontal boundary is maintained at 293 K,
297 while the base is maintained at 1873 K.

298 Each material is characterised by a range of thermal and mechanical properties (Extended Data
299 Table 1) including: density, coefficient of thermal expansion, heat capacity ($1000 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$), heat
300 diffusivity ($9 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$), radiogenic heat production, cohesion, coefficient of friction, limiting
301 pressure-independent yield stress, dislocation creep parameters (A , n , E , Extended Data Table 1), and
302 limiting lower and upper viscosities respectively 10^{18} Pa s and $5 \times 10^{23} \text{ Pa s}$.

303 Our strategy consists in setting up a model in which the mantle convects under a stagnant lid, the top
304 15 km of which are made of weak basaltic crust simulating hydrothermally altered basalts (Extended
305 Data Fig. 2). After reaching steady-state equilibrium, the temperature field is laterally averaged
306 (Extended Data Fig. 2) and linearised (i.e. temperature at the surface is 293 K, temperature at 150 km
307 depth and below is 1820 K). This ensures that no convective stress acts on the lid in the initial
308 condition. Finally, we replace a segment of the oceanic lid by a continent made of depleted mantle

309 underneath a continental crust. We take advantage of the symmetry of the model, and we insert the
 310 continent along the left side of the model.

311 We model the mantle as a visco-plastic material with temperature, stress, strain-rate and melt
 312 dependent viscosity. The viscous rheology of the mantle is based on dry olivine³² (Extended Data
 313 Table 1). Its plastic rheology is approximated with a Coulomb failure criterion³³ with cohesion
 314 40 MPa, a coefficient of friction (μ_{ref}) 0.268, and a weakening factor dependent on the accumulated
 315 plastic strain (ϵ_p). The coefficient of friction (μ) evolves as a function of the total plastic strain as:

316 for $\epsilon_p < 0.15$: $\mu = \mu_{ref} \times (1 - (1 - 0.0373) \times (\epsilon_p / 0.15)^{0.25})$

317 for $\epsilon_p > 0.15$: $\mu = \mu_{ref} \times 0.0373$

318 This weakening leads to fault-like strain localisation with nominal viscosity ~ 25 times weaker than
 319 that of the surrounding rocks when plastic strain reaches 15%. This weakening, which is a key factor
 320 for the operation of plate tectonics on present Earth²⁰, simulates the formation of phyllosilicates
 321 (serpentine, talc, micas) during the strain-induced hydration of mantle rocks and basalts. For semi-
 322 brittle deformation independent of pressure, we impose an upper limiting yield stress^{34,35} in the range
 323 of 100 to 500 MPa.

324 The top 15 km of the model consist of a thick layer of basalts, which simulates both the oceanic crust,
 325 and the greenstone cover on the Archaean continent. Because these basalts were largely emplaced
 326 below sea level³⁶, they are strongly hydrothermally altered. For simplicity, we assume that this layer
 327 has a nominal viscosity 1000 times weaker than the underlying mantle, a weak cohesion of 1 MPa, a
 328 reference coefficient of friction of 0.134 and the same weakening properties than the rest of the lid.

329 This weak layer of basalt helps the decoupling between the subducting slab and the upper plate
 330 allowing for one side subduction. It also mitigates the absence of free surface, by allowing the upper
 331 plate to bend downward more realistically to form a deeper trench. The reference density of this
 332 material (3000 kg m^{-3}) is sensitive to pressure, and increases upon burial up to 3540 kg m^{-3} to
 333 simulate eclogitisation³⁷. When subduction initiates, this weak material lubricates the Benioff plane,
 334 which, with eclogitisation, facilitates subduction by decoupling the slab from the continental margin.
 335 This simulates the impact of slab dehydration, which in nature lubricates the Benioff plane.

336 Modelling continent differentiation is beyond the scope of this paper, and we simply replace a 400 to
337 1200 km long segment of the oceanic lid by a continent, which includes a 40-km-thick crust (density
338 2850 kg m^{-3}), covered by a 15 km thick flood basalt (density 3000 kg m^{-3}). This crust stands above
339 170 km of depleted mantle (density 3310 kg m^{-3}) with a nominal viscosity 100 times stronger than the
340 adjacent lid to account for dehydration³⁸. We assume the same limiting yield stress than that of other
341 mantle rocks that we vary in the range of 100 to 500 MPa. The continental crust is assumed to be 100
342 times more viscous than a weak mafic granulite³⁹ (Extended Data Table 1). A limiting yield stress of
343 250 MPa is imposed in the crust to simulate semi-brittle regime. This strong continent represents a
344 significant buoyant anomaly, imparting a horizontal gravitational force on its surrounding.

345 We use the hydrous mantle solidus and liquidus of ref. 40 to model partial melting in the sub-
346 continental fertile mantle. For the depleted root of the continent we increase the hydrous mantle
347 solidus by 200 K, a reasonable assumption for the harzburgite solidus⁴¹. Melt fraction is calculated at
348 each time step using eq. 21 of ref. 42, whereas MgO content of accumulated melt in Fig.2 is
349 calculated using ref. 43. Because decompression and exhumation of the mantle occur very slowly (\sim
350 to 4 mm y^{-1}) at the pace imposed by the spreading of the continent, one can expect the melt to
351 segregate and to pond at the top of the partially molten column, before it escapes to the surface
352 through dikes. Therefore, we assume that melt in the partially molten column is extracted when the
353 melt fraction reaches 1%. In this case, latent heat escapes with the melt, and the ascending depleted
354 residue follows the solidus closely. We assume the fusion entropy to be $400 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$. We have also
355 tested the isentropic case in which the melt stays in the source. In this case, lithospheric boudinage
356 controls continental spreading rather than homogeneous thinning.

357 The small fraction of melt ($<1\%$) has only a modest impact on the buoyancy of the partially molten
358 region. However, the density of the residue decreases as it becomes more depleted. We assume a
359 maximum density decrease of 1.5% upon full depletion. Because even a small fraction of melt
360 lubricates grain boundaries, it affects the viscosity of the partially molten column. Hence, we impose
361 a linear viscosity drop to a maximum of one order of magnitude when the melt fraction reaches 1%.

362 On the other hand, partial melting drains water out of the solid matrix and reduces the number of

363 phases. Although the impact of dehydration on the viscosity may not be as significant as previously
364 thought⁴⁴, both processes should contribute to increase the viscosity of the depleted residue once its
365 temperature drops below the solidus. In our experiment we impose an increase in viscosity
366 proportional to depletion, assuming a viscosity increase of two orders of magnitude for 100%
367 depletion.

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401 **Extended Data Figure 1 | Gravitational force between continent and oceanic lid. a**, Depth profile
402 of the difference in lithostatic pressure σ_{zz} between an oceanic lid 150 km thick and a continent (1)
403 150 km, (2) 200 km and (3) 250 km thick. The vertical integration of the lithostatic pressure
404 difference ($\Delta\sigma_{zz}$) is the resulting gravitational force Fg acting between the Archaean continent and the
405 adjacent lithospheric lid. In all cases, this force is $> 7 \times 10^{13} \text{ N m}^{-1}$, comparable to or larger than the
406 present-day tectonic forces driving orogenesis¹. **b**, Reference density structure of the continent and
407 oceanic lithosphere (densities of depleted and fertile mantle are from Ref. 5). All densities vary with
408 temperature with a coefficient of thermal expansion $\alpha = 3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ K}^{-1}$. We assume a linear geotherm in
409 the oceanic plate ($T_{(z=0)} = 293 \text{ K}$, $T_{(z=150\text{km})} = 1820 \text{ K}$) above a convective mantle with an average
410 temperature of 1820 K.

411 **Extended Data Figure 2 | Stagnant lid convection model before lateral averaging and**
412 **introduction of a continent.** The temperature field in our experiments derives from the lateral
413 averaging of an experiment in which the mantle is let to convect under constant top boundary
414 temperatures (293 K) and internal radiogenic heat production ($1.36 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W m}^{-3}$). The coefficient of
415 thermal expansion is equal to $3 \times 10^{-5} \text{ K}^{-1}$, the thermal diffusivity to $0.9 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and the heat
416 capacity to $1000 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, and the Rayleigh number of the convecting mantle is between 10^6 and 10^7 .
417 The snapshot shows the temperature field after ~ 1 Gyr of evolution. In this experiment, a lid develops
418 that remains stagnant. The formation of cold drips from the lower, unstable, part of the stagnant lid,

419 and conductive cooling balance each other to maintain the thickness of the stagnant lid. In the lid, the
420 conductive geotherm is such that a temperature of 1620 K is reached at ~100 km depth, and 1820 K
421 (the average temperature in the convecting mantle) is reached at ~150 km depth.

422 **Extended Data Figure 3 | Numerical solutions for various models showing contrasting tectonic**
423 **evolution. a**, In this experiment, all parameters are as in Fig. 1 except the continent half-width that is
424 500 km. In the case of stable continental collapse, cold drips form faster than subduction can initiate,
425 which stabilises the oceanic lid. **a₁**, During and after spreading and thinning of the continent, a layer
426 of mostly fertile mantle is accreted at the base of the continent through cooling. **b**, This experiment is
427 in all aspects similar to that presented in Fig. 1, but for the oceanic lid that includes 75 km of buoyant
428 lithospheric mantle (in purple) with a reference density of 3365 kg m^{-3} (i.e. 35 kg m^{-3} less dense than
429 non-depleted mantle rocks). **b₀₋₁**, shows i/ homogeneous continental spreading with decompression
430 melting, and ii/ the initiation of a slab which stalls underneath a long-lived orogenic wedge. The same
431 experiment with a buoyant mantle lid with a reference density of 3370 kg m^{-3} leads to subduction. **b₂**,
432 **b₃**, However, because of its buoyancy the oceanic slab stalls, although the very base of the oceanic lid
433 is dragged into the asthenosphere. **c**, In this experiment, the continent has a half-width of 600 km and
434 all mantle rocks have a limiting yield stress of 200 MPa. **d**, In this experiment, the limiting yield
435 stress of the strongly depleted continental mantle (in green) is increased to 500 MPa to take into
436 account the possible plastic strengthening of the depleted, and therefore dry, mantle (all other mantle
437 rocks have a limiting yield stress of 300 MPa). Comparison to Fig. 1 - which shows the same
438 experiment but with all mantle rocks with a limiting yield stress of 300 MPa - illustrates that a
439 stronger continent deforms in a more heterogeneous manner since following an episode of spreading
440 and thinning (**d₁**), strain localisation and rifting divide the continent in two (**d₂**), before stabilisation
441 and cooling (**d₃**). **d₀₋₂**, The continental spreading is heterogeneous, subduction of the oceanic lid
442 initiates, the slab detaches and a continental rift initiates. **d₃**, Continental rifting, recurrent slab
443 detachment and trench-retreat occur, and two continental blocks move away from each other with
444 little internal deformation. **d_{4,5}**, Rifting and subduction stop, while cooling re-establish a stagnant lid.
445 In all cases, a protracted phase of decompression melting lasting several tens of Myr is coeval with
446 spreading and rifting.

447 **Extended Data Figure 4 | Tectonic phase diagram: subduction versus stable lid regime as a**
 448 **function of yield stress and continent width.** Two series of calculations were carried out (with
 449 continental thickness of 175 km and 225 km), systematically varying the half-width of the continent
 450 (from 400 to 1200 km) and the limiting yield stress of all mantle rocks (from 100 to 500 MPa).
 451 Depending on the competition between the gravitational driving power of the buoyant continent and
 452 the combined viscous resistance of the continent and oceanic lid, the continental collapse either leads
 453 to the subduction of the oceanic lid under the continental margin, or not. Coloured dots and the
 454 continuous black thick line represent outcomes of numerical experiments for the 175 km thick
 455 continent. The thick dashed line separates the stable-lid domain from the subduction domain in the
 456 case of the 225 km thick continent. The arrow illustrates that continental rifting, because it reduces the
 457 half-width of continents, stabilises Archaean oceanic lids.

458

459 **Extended Data Table 1 | Thermal and mechanical parameters**

	Reference Density (kg m ⁻³)	Thermal expansion (K ⁻¹)	Radiogenic Heat (W kg ⁻¹)	Cohesion (MPa)	Coefficient of friction	Limiting yield stress (MPa)	<i>A</i> (MPa ⁻ⁿ s ⁻¹)	<i>E</i> (kJ mol ⁻¹)	<i>n</i>
Continental crust	2850	0	2.52 10 ⁻¹⁰	40	0.268	250	2 10 ⁻²	244	3.2
Basalts	3000	0	2.52 10 ⁻¹⁰	1	0.134	50	7 10 ⁷	520	3
SCLM	3310	3 10 ⁻⁵	4 10 ⁻¹²	40	0.268	100-500	7 10 ²	520	3
Mantle	3395	3 10 ⁻⁵	4 10 ⁻¹²	40	0.268	100-500	7 10 ⁴	520	3

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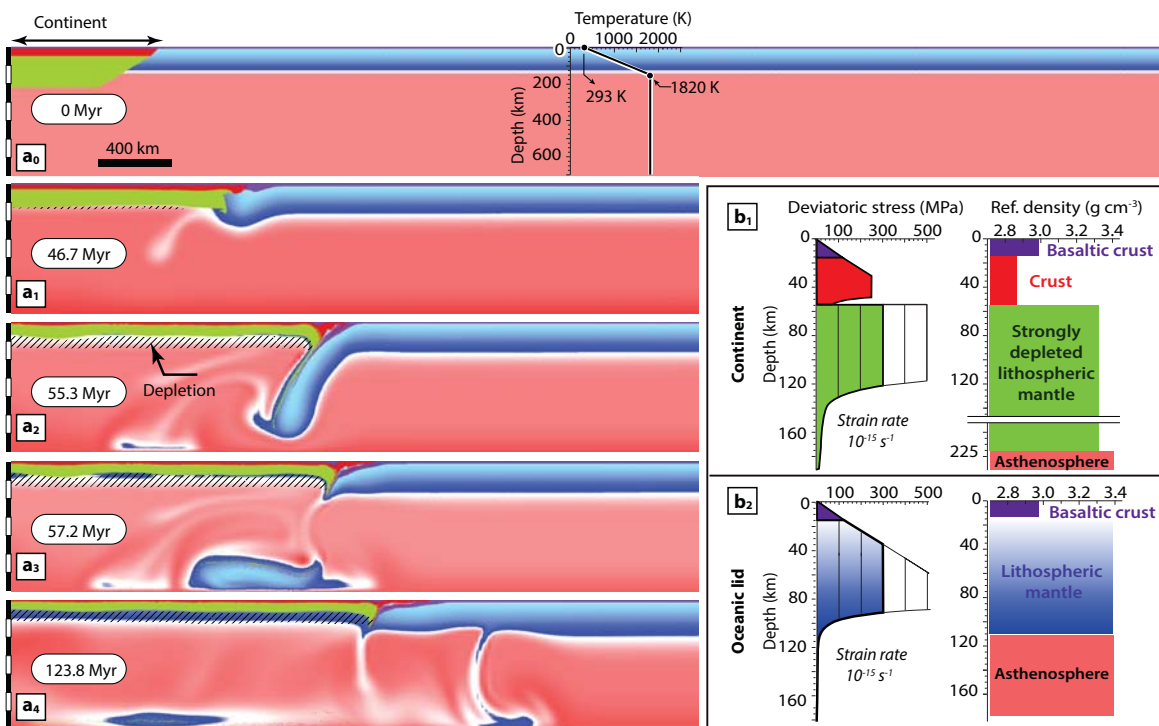


Figure 1 | Numerical solution of an example of continent collapse leading to subduction.

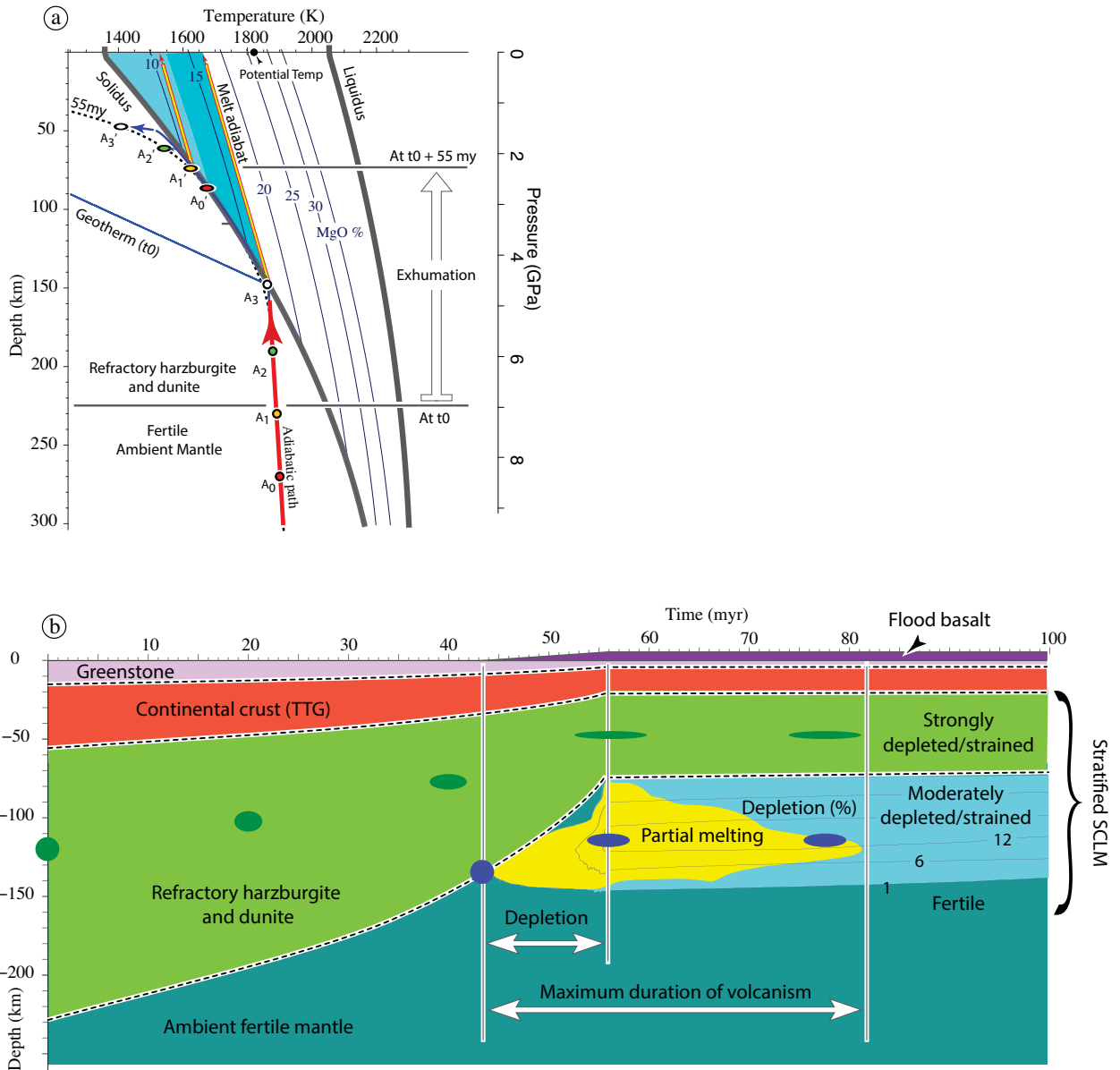


Figure 2 | Layering of the continental lithosphere through thinning and progressive accretion of moderately depleted mantle.

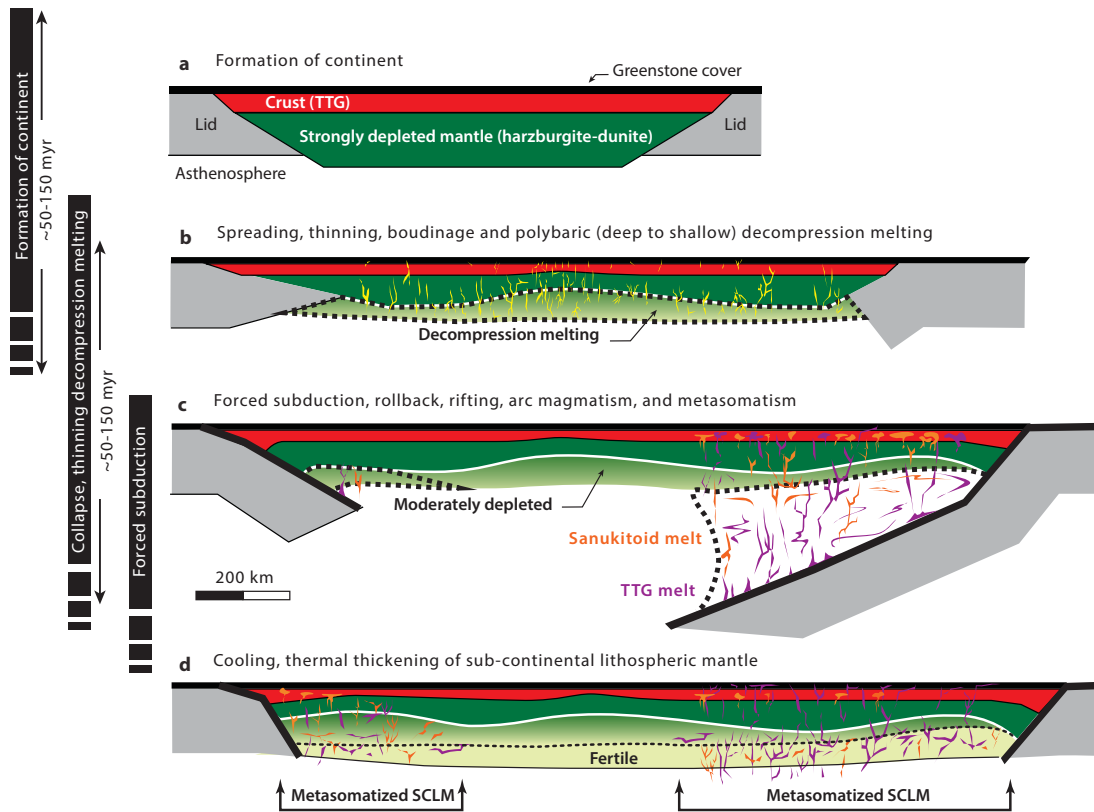
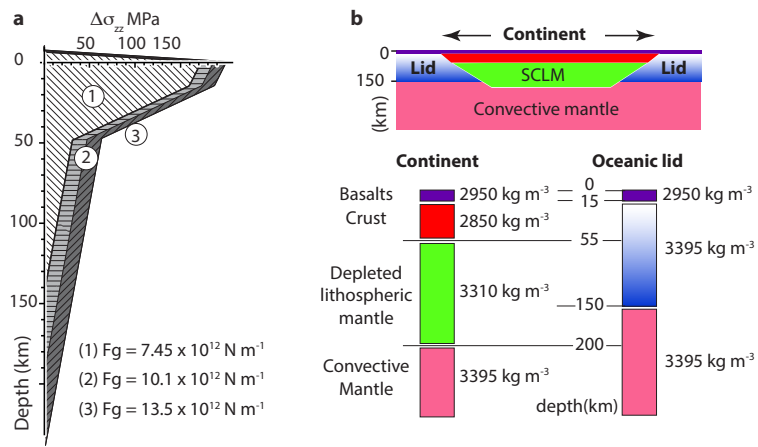
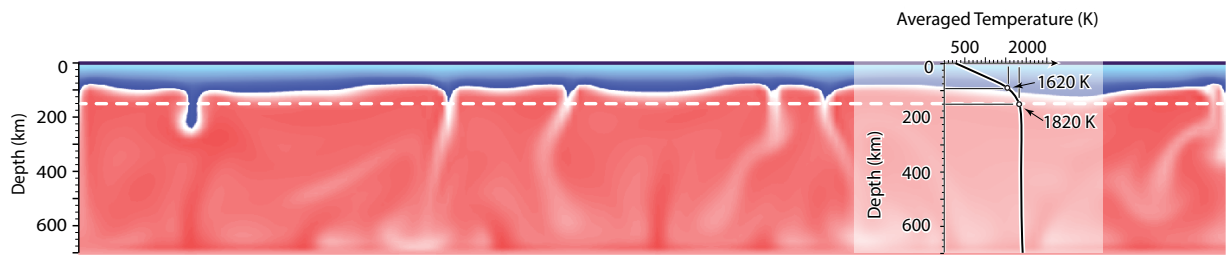


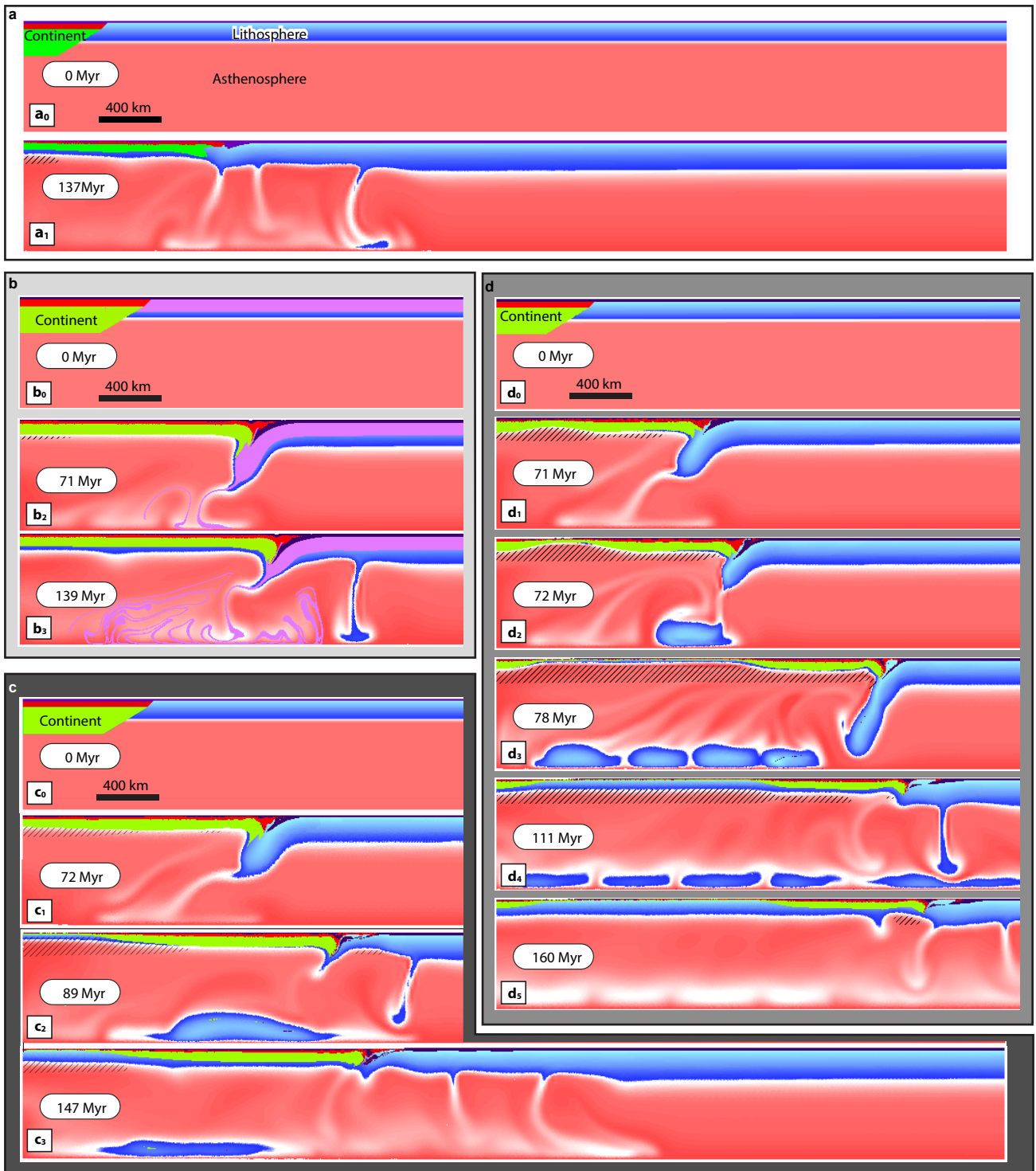
Figure 3 | Proposed model for the co-evolution of cratonic crust and subcontinental lithospheric mantle.



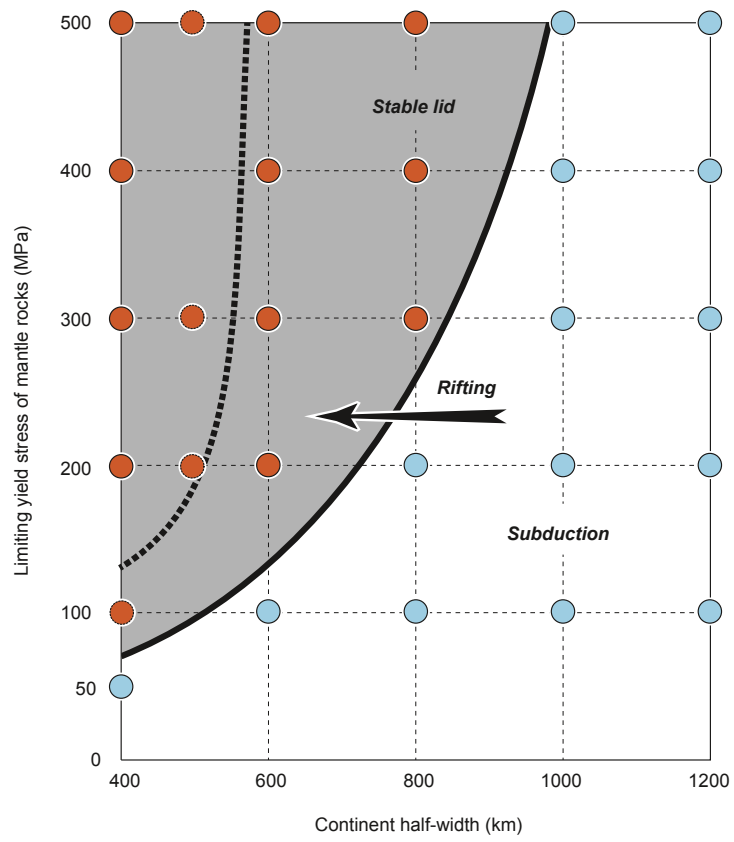
Extended Data Figure 1| Gravitational force between continent and oceanic lid.



Extended Data Figure 2 | Stagnant lid convection model before lateral averaging and introduction of a continent.



Extended Data Figure 3 | Numerical solutions for various models showing contrasting tectonic evolution.



Extended Data Figure 4 | Tectonic phase diagram: subduction vs stable lid regime as a function of yield stress and continent width.