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Indian Plate paleogeography, subduction, and horizontal underthrusting below Tibet: paradoxes, controvercies, and opportunities

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Collision, orogenesis, subduction, reconstruction, Himalaya, Tibet

Abstract

The India-Asia collision zone is the archetype to calibrate geological responses of continent-continent collision, but hosts a paradox: there is no orogen-wide geological record of oceanic subduction after initial collision around 60-55 Ma, yet thousands of kilometers of post-collisional subduction occurred before arrival of unsubductable continental lithosphere that currently horizontally underlies Tibet. I show that kinematically restoring incipient horizontal underthrusting accurately predicts geologically estimated diachronous slab break-off, unlocking the Miocene of Himalaya-Tibet as natural laboratory for unsubductable lithosphere convergence. Additionally, three end-member paleogeographic scenarios exist with different predictions for the nature of post-collisional subducting lithosphere but each is defended and challenged based on similar data types. Here, I attempt at breaking through this impasse by identifying how the three paleogeographic scenario each challenge paradigms in geodynamics, orogenesis, magmatism, or paleogeographic reconstruction and identify opportunities for methodological advances in paleomagnetism, sediment provenance analysis, and seismology to conclusively constrain Greater Indian paleogeography.

Introduction

With major continents being too buoyant to subduct – the reason why they can become billions of years old (1) – colliding continents are associated with subduction arrest, plate reorganization, and orogenesis (2), seaway closure, mountain building, and atmospheric barrier formation (3), and exchange and diversification of terrestrial biota (4). The orogen at the India-Asia continental collision zone is the archetype to calibrate the relationships between collision, orogenic architecture, history, and dynamics, resulting magmatism and mineralization, as well as climatic and biological responses (3, 5-8). But long-standing paradoxes and controversies in tectonic history have led to an impasse, making using the full potential of the archetype difficult.

Geophysical imaging has revealed that Indian continental lithosphere has horizontally underthrust the Tibetan upper plate (9-14). This is consistent with the paradigm of unsubductability of thick continental lithosphere (2) and offers opportunities to study the dynamics of and response to convergence between buoyant lithospheres (15). But Indian lithosphere only reaches ~400-800 km north of the Himalayan front (9-14) and according to kinematic reconstructions of Indian plate consumption (11, 13, 16), and geological estimates of the last slab break-off in the Himalaya (17), accounts for only the last 25-13 Ma (diachronous along-strike) of India-Asia convergence (11, 16). Paradoxically, the youngest unequivocal geological records of plate-boundary-wide oceanic subduction between India and Asia are older than 60 Ma (18, 19), after which more than 5000 km of India-Asia plate convergence occurred (20, 21). So between the geologically recorded collision and the onset of horizontal underthrusting of Indian lithosphere, thousands of kilometers of post-collisional subduction occurred.

This paradox is not readily explained by dynamic models of continental collision. These rather portray a process of ~10 Ma, during which a few hundred kilometers of one continental margin is dragged down below another, causing deformation of both margins, after which convergence stops, the slab detaches, and the deformed belt rebounds and uplifts (22). Long-standing controvercy in the geological debate on the India-Asia collision history comes from different solutions to explain this paradox. End-member solutions fall into three classes that fundamentally differ in post-collisional paleogeography of the Indian plate. The first end-member predicts that all post-collisional subduction consumed continental lithosphere (19, 23, 24), and the second and third infer that after initial collision, oceanic lithosphere remained to the north (8, 25-28), or to the south (11, 29) of the initial collision zone, which subsequently subducted ‘post-collision’. The former option challenges the paradigm of continental unsubductability and if true, is key to advance understanding of mantle dynamics (24). The latter options challenge paradigms of orogenic architecture and evolution ensuing from oceanic subduction (23,

30) and if true, holds key lessons for reconstructing paleogeography from orogenic archives (31). In all cases, the records of magmatism, deformation, and topographic rise in Tibet and the Himalaya between the onset of collision and the onset of horizontal underthrusting occurred in context of, and contain key information on a-typical subduction, either in terms of the nature of the downgoing plate, or in terms of the orogenic and magmatic response.

In the last decade, the controvercy on India's paleogeography has reached an impasse: each of the end-member scenarios is argued for and against based on the same types of data, notably sediment provenance constraining upper plate sediments arriving on lower plate continental margins (8, 11, 19, 27, 32, 33), paleomagnetic data constraining paleolatitudes of continental margins and arcs (27, 29, 34-37), and seismic tomographic images revealing locations of past subduction zones (13, 16, 38, 39). Even though the volume of these databases has rapidly increased in recent years, they have mostly led to repetition of these views on Indian paleogeography, and somewhat distracted from using the unique opportunities of the archetype to challenge and develop paradigms of geodynamics, orogenesis, and environmental response.

The aims of this paper are three-fold: (i) I first attempt at formulating the paradox and explaining the controvercy and the key predictions of each proposed class of explanations; (ii) I then review geological constraints on Indian plate subduction provided by the Himalayan mountains that consist of offscraped and thrusted upper crustal rocks derived from Indian plate lithosphere and on coeval upper plate geological evolution of the Tibetan Plateau; (iii) I will use these constraints to identify which tectonic and magmatic reorganizations coincide with horizontal Indian underthrusting, and aim to identify the natural laboratory to analyze the dynamics of non-sudbuctable lithosphere convergence; (iv) Finally, I will discuss ways forward to reconcile existing datasets and find novel ones to break through the impasse in Greater India paleogeography reconstruction and show the opportunities that each of the three end-member scenarios would provide in using the India-Asia archetype to constrain the geological and dynamic consequences of its a-typical post-collisional subduction.

Review

The paradox: underthrust versus subducted Indian plate lithosphere

A key question in the analysis of the India-Asia collision history and dynamics is where and how post-collisional convergence has been accommodated. Kinematic reconstructions have shown that approximately 1000-1200 km of Cenozoic convergence was accommodated by shortening and extrusion in the overriding plate of Tibet (11, 40, 41). Reconstructing this convergence in the mantle reference frame aligns the southern Eurasian margin with underlying slabs imaged by seismic tomography, and in the paleomagnetic reference frame satisfies first-order vertical axis rotations and south Tibetan paleolatitudes for the Cretaceous and Paleogene (11). This reconstructed shortening of Tibet is by far the largest amount of intra-plate shortening recorded in post-Paleozoic orogens (31). Shortening records of the Indian-plate-derived thin-skinned Himalaya fold-thrust belt give somewhat smaller numbers, between 600-900 km (42). It is puzzling that post-collisional convergence far exceeds these numbers: the earliest estimates for post-collisional convergence assumed a 45 Ma collision and predicted a shortening deficit of ~1000 km (43), but stratigraphic ages of the oldest foreland basin clastics in the northernmost continental rocks of the Himalaya, as well as ages of (U)HP metamorphism in continent-derived rocks in the northern Himalaya has pushed the estimated initial collision age backward, to ~60-55 Ma (18, 44, 45). And where previous plate circuits, constrained by a few magnetic anomalies for the Indian ocean in the Cenozoic, predicted ~4500 km of post-60 Ma convergence (20), the recent high-resolution marine magnetic anomaly dataset of DeMets and Merkouriev (21) has brought this number up to well over 5000 km (Fig. 1). Much of the post-collisional subduction has thus not left an accreted rock record, either because of whole-sale subuction, or of (subduction-) erosion of previously accreted records.

Seismological research in the last two decades has painted a detailed image of the mantle below India and Tibet that helps identifying where lost lithosphere may now reside. First, lithosphere below Tibet is up to 260 km thick, which was at first surprising (46): major lithospheric thickening associated with intraplate shortening is predicted to lead to convective instability of lithosphere, that will then delaminate (47). However, since then the thick lithosphere below Tibet has become interpreted as horizontally underthrust Indian crust and continental mantle lithosphere (9-14). Tibetan lithosphere has indeed delimanated: Indian continental crust appears to directly underlie Tibetan crust, not intervened by a thick lithospheric mantle (14). In addition, seismic tomographic evidence for bodies of high-velocity material that may represent delaminated Tibetan lithosphere have been identified in the upper mantle below the horizontally underthrust Indian lithosphere, suggesting delamination prior to underthrusting (48). Moreover, recent seismological analysis has shown that delamination is not restricted to Tibet, but also affected the Yunnan region to the southeast of the eastern Himalayan syntaxis, where a conspicous, circular shaped hole in the continental lithosphere is underlain by a body of high-velocity material at the base of the upper mantle (49).

The first detailed seismological section that detected horizontally underthrust lithosphere revealed that the Indian continent protrudes ~400 km north of the southern Himalayan front (14). Since then, multiple seismic tomography models have reproduced this finding, but showed that the shape of the northern Indian margin is irregular, protruding ~800 km northward at the longitude of the eastern Himalayan syntaxis, abruptly stepping southward to the north of Bhutan, and then increasing to ~700 km again towards the longitude of the western syntaxis (Fig. 2) (9-13). An onset of horizontal underthrusting can be calculated when assuming that the body of lithosphere below Tibet is a rigid part of the Indian plate, reconstructing India-Asia convergence, and corrected for Tibetan shortening. This predicts that the onset of horizontal underthrusting started around the Himalayan syntaxes around 25 Ma, and becomes gradually younger to ~13 Ma at the longitude of Bhutan (11, 16) (Fig. 3). Geological reconstructions of uplift, heating, and resulting leucogranite intrusion in the Himalayan mountain range interpreted to reflect lateral propagation of slab detachment predicted 25 Ma for the eastern- and westernmost Himalaya, gradually younging towards 13 Ma in Bhutan (17). This match suggests that the thick body of lithosphere below Tibet is indeed horizontally underthrust Indian lithosphere.

All Indian plate lithosphere that was consumed before Miocene horizontal underthrusting must thus have subducted into the mantle. There is broad consensus that the majority of this subducted lithosphere resides in the lower mantle below India, with a smaller and younger slab that was the last to detach, overturned in the mantle to the north of the main India slab (Fig. 2) (11, 13, 38, 39, 50). An additional anomaly in the lower mantle below the equatorial Indian ocean has also long been interpreted as Neotethyan (29, 38, 39), but may instead be a relict of Mesozoic subduction between Tibetan blocks (16) (Fig. 2).

In summary, the paradox of the India-Asia collision is the following: there is no geological record of oceanic subduction along the width of the orogen after initial collision around 60 Ma, and the system is therefore widely believed to have been fully continental since this time (13, 23, 24); yet thousands of kilometers of Indian plate lithosphere was consumed without leaving an accretionary record, and subducted deeply into the mantle, which are both typically associated with oceanic subduction and not previously demonstrated for continents (31). Only in the early to middle Miocene, unsubductable Indian Plate lithosphere arrived in the collision zone, and horizontally underthrusted the upper plate.

The controvercy: scenarios for Indian plate paleogeography and subduction history

The above paradox has led to paleogeographic reconstructions for post-collisional Greater India that fall into three classes (Fig. 4). The first and most commonly portrayed scenario (Model C, for Continental) assumes that all post-collisional convergence consumed continental lithosphere (19, 23, 24, 40). This scenario provides a straightforward explanation for the absence of accretion of OPS after 60 Ma in the Himalayan orogen, but requires thousands of kilometers of continental subduction, and this subduction must have been accommodated along a thrust in the Himalayas (24). The width of continental Greater India portrayed on published paleogeographic maps differs as function of collision age, plate circuit, and assumed Tibetan shortening, but predicts Gondwana reconstructions in which Greater India was conjugate to the entire western Indian margin (24) beyond the Argo Abyssal Plain (Fig. 4). This Argo Abyssal Plain is of importance because it recorded Jurassic continental break-up, around 155 Ma, well before the separation of India from Australia around 130 Ma, and was thus conjugate to a different continent and plate than India: Argoland (51).

The second scenario (model A, for Arc) points out that between the Himalaya and continental southern Eurasia, there are ophiolites and intra-oceanic arc rocks, and invokes that the 60 Ma collision recorded arrival of the north Indian continental margin in an intra-oceanic subduction zone, followed by obduction of ophiolites and arc rocks onto the continental margin (8, 25-28, 52). Following this collision, oceanic lithosphere remained between the initial collision zone and Eurasia, which was consumed until arrival of the obducted Indian continental margin at the Tibetan trench. Because there is no accretionary record of post-60 Ma oceanic subduction, the age of this arrival is based on interpretations of changes in magmatism in Tibet, or an a (contested) youngest age of marine sedimentation in the Himalaya, at 40±5 Ma (8, 26, 28). To explain how Tibet-derived sediments arrived at the north-Indian margin around 60 Ma, a recent modification of this model suggested that the north Himalayan ophiolites originated at the south Tibetan margin in the early Cretaceous, but migrated southward, together with overlying Tibet-derived sediments, due to opening of a back-arc basin (8). The intra-oceanic arc scenario thus predicts that part of the post-collisional subduction history consumed oceanic lithosphere that must have subducted along a trench between the Himalayan ophiolites and the south Tibetan margin. Additionally, the assumed 40±5 Ma collision age of the obducted Indian margin and Tibet would still require large amounts (~1000-2000 km at the longitude of Bhutan) of continental subduction prior to horizontal underthrusting (Fig. 4). The reconstructed width of continental Greater India depends on the assumed collision age with Tibet, but would bring the north Greater Indian margin adjacent to most of the west Australian margin up to the Argo Abyssal Plain.

The third scenario (model M, for Microcontinent) invokes that the 60 Ma collision in the north Himalaya involves a Tibetan Himalayan microcontinent that rifted and drifted away from Greater India in Cretaceous times, opening a conceptual Greater India Basin (GIB) ocean in its wake (29). Assuming that the horizontally underthrust portion of India below Tibet represents the southern paleo-passive margin of this basin leads to a reconstruction whereby Greater India in Gondwana times did not extend beyond the Wallaby Fracture Zone of the southwest Australian margin (11), far south of the Argo Abyssal Plain, but consistent with west Australian margin reconstructions that interpreted that Jurassic break-up of Argoland to continue to the Wallaby Fracture Zone (51). This model thus invokes that continental subduction was restricted to only the lower crustal and mantle underpinnings of the Tibetan Himalayan microcontinent. However, this model also requires that an oceanic basin was consumed along a thrust within the Himalayan mountain range without leaving a modern geological record anywhere in the Himalaya. Finally, this scenario does not require, but also does not exclude the intra-oceanic arc scenario of Model A – this would merely change the width of the GIB.

Each of these scenarios explains some first-order observations from the Greater Indian paradox, and satisfies some long-held paradigms in subduction behavior or orogenesis, but challenges others. And each of these models has been defended as well as contested based on paleomagnetic, structural geological, stratigraphic, and seismic tomographic data. Below, I will briefly review the geological architecture of the Himalaya and Tibet that is relevant to identify future research targets to advance the discussion, and to identify the main geological and geodynamic phenomena that occurred in the time window of horizontal Indian underthrusting.

The constraints: architecture and evolution of the Tibetan-Himalayan orogen

Elements of the Himalayan and Tibetan orogen that play a key role in the interpretations of its tectonic history since 60 Ma are (i) the accretionary fold-thrust belt of the Himalaya that was offscraped from now-underthrust/subducted Indian plate lithosphere ; (ii) a belt of overlying ophiolites, and in the west of the collision zone, Cretaceous-Eocene intra-oceanic arc rocks that represent the upper plate of an overriding oceanic lithosphere above a subduction zone; and (iii) continental crust of the Tibetan plateau that consists of pre-Cenozoic accreted terranes and intervening sutures, intruded by a Mesozoic-Cenozoic magmatic arc that also shows it was in an upper plate position above a subduction zone (Fig. 5). Below, I summarize these constraints and briefly indicate how they play a role in the three scenarios for Indian paleogeography summarized above.

Himalaya

The accretionary fold-thrust belt of the Himalaya consists continent-derived nappes that underlie of ocean-derived accreted units. These accreted rock units play a key role in reconstructing subducted plate paleogeography. Conceptually, accreted rock units fall into two broad types: ocean-derived units consist of Ocean Plate Stratigraphy (OPS), comprising pillow lavas (MORB, OIB, IAT), pelagic oceanic sediments, and foreland basin clastics (53). Continent-derived units consist of Continental Plate Stratigraphy (CPS) that in its simplest form comprises slivers of a basement from an earlier orogenic cycle, an unconformable cover of syn-rift clastic sediments and volcanics, shallow- to deep-marine platform to pelagic passive margin carbonates and occasional clastic series, and foreland basin clastics, although a more complex stratigraphic architecture may form due to climatic or relative sea level variation or a more complex rifting history of the continental margin (31). Key for analyzing the collision and accretion history are the foreland basin clastics: these not only date arrival of the accreted units at a trench, but also allow fingerprinting the nature of the overriding plate through sediment provenance analysis. The moment of accretion of thrust slices is bracketed between the youngest flysch deposits giving a maximum age and, if burial was deep enough, the age of metamorphism (in subduction setting normally of HP-LT type, except during subduction infancy, when HT-HP metamorphic soles may form (54)) of the accreted units, which gives a minimum age (31). Finally, in fold-thrust belts with continuous foreland-propagating thrusting in which almost all subducted lithosphere left its upper crust in the orogen, the youngest age of foreland basin clastics in the higher nappe tends to be similar to the oldest age of foreland basin clastics in the next-lower nappe (as for instance in the Apennines and Hellenides of the Mediterranean region (55)). Conversely, extended periods of non-accretion and wholesale subduction, or subduction erosion removing previously accreted rocks, are revealed by age gaps between foreland basin clastics in adjacent nappes (e.g., in the Japan accretionary prism (53)).

The Himalayan fold-thrust belt is commonly divided into four main units, three of which follow the logic outlined above. The highest units, located below the Indus-Yarlung ophiolites is a mélange that consists of deformed and in places metamorphosed

OPS. These include pillow basalts, cherts that are not older than Triassic in age reflecting the age of opening of the Neotethys ocean (56), and foreland basin clastics in which the youngest recognized ages are ~80 Ma (57). The first-accreted units are dismembered metamorphic sole rocks with ~130 Ma $^{40}Ar/^{39}Ar$ cooling ages that provide a minimum age for subduction initiation (58). HP-LT metamorphic OPS units found in the mélange below the ophiolites interpreted to have formed during oceanic subduction have ages of 100-80 Ma (45).

This OPS-derived mélange overlies the Tibetan Himalayan nappe. This nappe consists of Paleozoic basement, upper Paleozoic syn-rift clastics and volcanics, a carbonate-dominated passive margin sequence that continues into the Cenozoic (59), and Paleocene to lower Eocene foreland basin clastics whose age estimates range from ~61-54 Ma (18, 19, 60). Metamorphic ages of (U)HP-metamorphic, deeply underthrust equivalents of the Tibetan Himalaya reveal ages suggesting that burial was underway by 57 Ma (45). These records provide evidence that continental lithosphere on the Indian plate arrived in a subduction zone by ~60 Ma or shortly thereafter.

The Tibetan Himalayan nappes overlie crystalline rocks of the Greater Himalaya. These Greater Himalayan rocks are atypical for accretionary fold-thrust belts in their metamorphic grade as well as their stratigraphy. They consist of Paleozoic pre-Himalayan cystalline basement and sediments that were metamorphosed in Cenozoic times under high-grade metamorphic conditions, up to partial melting, and intruded by leucogranites (8, 61-63). These rocks underwent prograde metamorphism from ~50 Ma onward showing they have been part of the orogen since at least early Eocene time (61, 64). The Greater Himalayan sequence is separated from the overlying Tethyan Himalayan sequence by the South Tibetan Detachment (STD), a normal fault that has been active in latest Oligocene to middle Miocene time (61) and that represents a tectonic omission (62) (Fig. 6). No Mesozoic stratigraphy or Cenozoic foreland basin clastic sequences are known from the Greater Himalaya (8, 63). These may either have been cut out by the South Tibetan detachment, which would make the Greater Himalaya a separate nappe derived from crust that was paleogeographically to the south of the Tibetan Himalaya and that underthrust below the Tethyan Himalaya in the early Eocene, or it formed the original stratigraphic underpinnings of the Tethyan Himalaya making them part of the same nappe.

The base of the Greater Himalaya is the Main Central Thrust (MCT) a ductile shearzone with a downward decreasing metamorphic grade, signalling syn-exhumation activity, that reveals ages of latest Oligocene to middle Miocene (~26-13 Ma) activity coeval with the South Tibetan Detachment (61, 62). The coeval activity of the MCT and STD is commonly interpreted to reflect extrusion of a mid-crustal part of the orogen (65) that slowly heated up following burial since the Eocene (61). During Miocene extrusion, the Greater Himalayan crystalline rocks were emplaced onto the Lesser Himalayan sequence that contain Lower Miocene foreland basin clastics (see below) and were accreted to the orogen afterwards. There is no geological record of fault zones of Eocene to Miocene age between the Greater and Lesser Himalaya, and the MCT does not appear to reactivate an such a structure (23).

The Lesser Himalaya consists of a Palezoic and older, low-grade metasedimentary, and discontinuous Cretaceous to Paleocene clastic sedimentary rocks, in places overlain by Eocene and Miocene foreland basin clastics (60). Upper Cretaceous to Eocene clastic sedimentary rocks become more prominent towards the west, in Pakistan, where Eocene and younger foreland basin clastics are also found on the undeformed Indian continent (33, 66, 67). The provenance of Upper Cretaceous and Eocene foreland basin clastics in the Lesser Himalyas and on the NW Indian continent reveal erosion of Indian margin rocks and ophiolites that signal Eocene or older obduction, and is commonly interpreted to reflect collision recorded in the Tethyan Himalaya to the north (33, 60, 66, 67). However, the western margin of India was also the locus of orogenesis due to ophiolite emplacement, in a Late Cretaceous and an Eocene phase, but this obduction was governed by convergence between the Indian and Arabian plates and the collision of the Kabul microcontinent with west India (68, 69). So far, the sediment provenance studies have not identified whether the west and north Indian margin have distinctly different signatures presenting an unresolved challenge in interpreting sediment provenance (11). Duplexing of the Lesser Himalayan rocks occurred in the last ~15-13 Ma and accounted for hundreds of kilometers of shortening that is similar to contemporaneous Indian plate consumption (42, 70).

The structure of the Himalaya summarized above show an overall foreland propagating fold-thrust belt, but with a clear omission of accretion between the Eocene (Tibetan and Greater Himalaya) and Miocene (Lesser Himalaya). There are two end-member interpretations of this hiatus in accretionary record. Before their Miocene emplacement onto the Lesser Himalaya, the rocks exposed in the Greater Himalaya must have been overlying rocks that have now been transported farther below the orogen and the nature of these rocks is unknown. On the one hand, these rocks may have been the original underlying Indian basement (23, 70) (Fig. 7). In that case, there has been no net convergence between the Greater and Lesser Himalaya between Eocene burial of the former and Miocene burial of the latter. The Eocene-Miocene India-Asia plate boundary must then have been located north of the Himalaya. Of the three models for Indian paleogeography (Fig. 4), only Model A (intra-oceanic arc) could allow for this scenario: in that case, early Eocene burial of the Greater Himalaya follows upon obduction, and activation of the MCT would reflect final collision of the obducted margin with Tibet – but this would require a diachronous Miocene collision age, instead of the proposed 40±5 Ma collision ages. All other scenarios require that a subduction plate boundary (intra-continental, or ocean-below continent) existed within the Himalaya. In that case, the Greater Himalayan sequence must have decoupled from its Indian basement sometime after its early Eocene arrival in the orogen, and subsequently formed part of a slowly thickening and heating orogen. In that case, the activation of the MCT displaced the modern Greater Himalayan from a deeper part of the orogen and emplaced it onto the Lesser Himalayan foreland. Such a scenario is typically implied in numerical simulations of Himalayan extrusion and channel flow (71) and interprets the MCT as an out-of-sequence thrust. Importantly any Eo-Oligocene accretionary record and associated thrusts that formed below the Greater Himalayan sequence were then removed from the orogen through subduction erosion upon activation of the MCT (Fig. 7). In Model C and A, this removed part of the orogen consisted of accreted CPS, in Model M (microcontinent), it may also have included OPS.

Indus-Yarlung ophiolites and Kohistan-Ladakh arc

Overlying the accretionary orogen of the Himalaya are a series of ophiolites concentrated in a narrow belt along the northern Himalaya (8) (Figs. 5 and 6). These 'Indus-Yarlung' ophiolites are predominantly Early Cretaceous in age (~130-120 Ma), during which time they formed by extension in the forearc above a (presumably incipient) subduction zone (8, 58). In some places also older, Jurassic oceanic crust is found in ophiolites, which may reflect the ocean floor trapped above the subduction zone in which the Cretaceous ophiolites formed (8). In addition, in the western Himalaya, a long-lived intra-oceanic arc sequence (150-50 Ma) that is located between the ophiolites and the continental units of southern Eurasia is known as the Kohistan-Ladakh arc (72). These sequences showed that the accretion of the Himalayan rocks occurred below a forearc that consisted of oceanic lithosphere, which plays a central role in the controvercy about Greater Indian paleogeography.

The Kohistan-Ladakh arc is overlain by a Cretaceous to Eocene sedimentary sequence and is separated from Tibetan continental rocks by the Shyok Suture (Fig. 5). Convergence across this suture zone has been proposed to be either significant and continuing to Eocene time (27, 28) or minor and pre-dating the late Cretaceous (32), but in any case testifies to the existence of a paleo-subduction zone between the Kohistan-Ladakh arc and Eurasia. The Indus-Yarlung ophiolites are overlain by sediments of the Xigaze forearc basin that form a major syncline with 4-5 km of sediments along 550 km of the subduction zone (73, 74). The oldest sediments are ~130 Ma old and unconformably overlie exhumed oceanic core complexes of the ophiolites and elsewhere interfinger with the ophiolites' pelagic sedimentary cover (75), and the youngest part of the continuous section is ~50 Ma (73, 74). Low-temperature thermochronology revealed that the succession may have been almost twice as thick and suggested that sedimentation and burial may have continued until ~35 Ma (73). The Xigaze forearc has been shortened along the north-dipping Gangdese Thrust, which brought Tibetan rocks over the forearc between ~27 and 23 Ma (76), and the Great Counter thrust that backthrusted the Xigaze forearc over the south Tibetan margin between ~25 and 17 Ma (8) (Fig. 6). Sediment provenance studies of the Xigaze forearc sequence typicaly depict southern Tibet and its overlying magmatic arc as source (73-75), although others prefer an intra-oceanic arc derivation (26, 27) and there is no known accretionary record of OPS or melange along the strike of the Xigaze forearc basin that may reflect the location of a post-60 Ma paleosubduction zone.

The Indus-Yarlung ophiolites have been interpreted as the forearc of the Eurasian plate, whereby they formed by (hyper)-extension of the Tibetan continental lithosphere, occasionally trapping ocean floor that existed before subduction initiation next to the south Tibetan passive margin (77, 78). In this case, the Kohistan-Ladakh arc forms an along-strike, offshore continuation of a contemporaneous arc in Tibet (the Gangdese arc, Fig. 6) and the Shyok suture accommodated only minor convergence that eastwards was accommodated within the Tibetan Plateau (11, 32). This scenario is required by Model C (fully-continental Greater India), and preferred by model M (microcontinent). On the other hand, Model A predicts that the Kohistan-Ladakh arc and Indus-Yarlung ophiolites formed at (or migrated to (8)) equatorial latitudes, far south of the south Tibetan margin, at a separate subduction zone (26-28) from the south Tibetan active margin. This model predicts major convergence across the Shyok Suture, but requires that a long-lived subduction zone is hidden between the Xigaze Basin and the adjacent south Tibetan margin.

Tibetan Plateau

The Tibetan Plateau consists of a series of Gondwana-derived continental fragments and intervening suture zones that amalgamated in Mesozoic time (8, 79). The southernmost of these fragments is the Lhasa Block that accreted to the Tibetan Plateau in early Cretaceous time (8, 79), around the same time as the formation of the south Tibetan ophiolites above a nascent subduction zone to the south of Lhasa (58). Shortening of the Tibetan upper plate above this subduction zone already started in late Cretaceous time, and amounted perhaps already 400 km before initial collision (41, 80, 81) in addition to the 1000-1200 km of post-60 Ma shortening (11, 41). Detailed stratigraphic records reveal that shortening in the plateau may have been pulsed, but there is no evidence of a shortening pulse associated with initial collision around 60 Ma; the recorded pulses may rather reflect changes in Indian subduction rate (21, 81). In Eocene-Oligocene time, shortening was concentrated in the central Tibetan Plateau. Sometime in late Eocene or Oligocene time (~30±7 Ma), Tibetan shortening started to affect the southern margin of the rigid Tarim block to the north of the modern Plateau. To the west of this block, Eurasian lithosphere started to subduct southward, accommodated along the Kashgar-Yecheng transform fault, whereas to the southeast of Tarim, Tibetan crust started to move NE-ward along the Altyn Tagh fault (82). In late Oligocene time, ~25 Ma, shortening propagated beyond the Tarim block into the Tien Shan, intensifying at ~13-10 Ma (83). Throughout this history, also NE Tibet underwent outward growth by foreland-propagating thrusting (8, 84).

Paradoxically, even though the Tibetan Plateau and Tien Shan underwent ongoing shortening in Oligocene to Early Miocene time, south-central Tibet experienced dynamic subsidence, or even extension. On the southern margin of the Lhasa block, close to the suture zone, formed the 1300 km long Kailas Basin, which forms a southward thickening wedge of >3 km of sediments whose architecture and sedimentology suggests it formed in the hangingwall of a north-dipping normal fault, even though the fault itself is not exposed, perhaps cut out by the Great Counter Thrust (85, 86) (Fig. 6). The stratigraphy in any section of the basin accumulated within only 2-3 Ma, but the timing of basin formation propagates diachronously along-strike, between 26 and 24 Ma in the west, and becoming as young as 18 Ma in the east (86).

Upper plate deformation also involved lateral extrusion (40). In the east of the plateau, crust was extruded eastwards already in the Eocene, first accommodated by rotations and thickening in northwest Indochina and later, sometime between ~30 and 15 Ma also by motion of entire Indochina along the Red River Fault (87) (Fig. 5). In western Tibet, a similar process may have played a role, although the lack of detailed knowledge of the geology of Afghanistan limits constraints (25). A recent reconstruction of Central Iran (88) pointed out major late Cretaceous to Eocene mobility and E-W convergence across the east Iranian Sistan suture requires that continental fragments of Afghanistan may have undergone major westward displacement (Fig. 5). Restoring such displacement would bring the Aghanistan fragments north of the Kohistan-Ladakh arc and is thus relevant in interpreting its paleolatitudinal history in terms of Greater Indian paleogeography, but awaits future detailed constraints.

Around 15-10 Ma, a prominent change in deformation of the Tibetan Plateau occurred, which most famously marks the onset of regional E-W extension in the plateau interior (89, 90) (Fig. 6). Towards the west, this extension is bounded by the Karakoram Fault that accommodated ongoing convergence in the Pamir region (41) (Figs. 5 and 6) and to the east, it is accommodated by E-W shortening in the Longmenshan range, and by a deflection of motion towards the Yunnan region in the southeast, accommodated along major strike-slip faults (3, 90). This motion is prominent today as reflected by GPS measurements. Eastward surface motion components increase from near-zero at the Karakoram Fault eastward to a maximum of ~2 cm/yr on the central plateau (91). Eastward motion components then decrease further to the east due to an increasing southward velocity component in eastern Tibet, as well as E-W shortening in the Longmenshan (90, 91). The extension of the plateau interior and the motion of crust towards the southeast is widely interpreted as driven by excess gravitational potential energy resulting from plateau uplift (3, 47), facilitated by a partially molten middle crust (92). The trigger of extension is thought to reflect middle Miocene uplift of Tibet due to lithospheric delamination (3, 47, 90), or due to Indian continental underthrusting (15).

Finally, the Lhasa terrane contains the prominent Gangdese batholith that represents a long-lived volcanic arc (8) (Fig. 6). Arc magmatism in the Lhasa terrane related to Neotethys closure has been active since at least early Cretaceous time and perhaps longer (8). Magmatism of the Gangdese arc since early Cretaceous time contained flareups and periods of reduced activity, but was mostly active until ~45-40 Ma, after which there was a lull until 25 Ma (5, 8). During this lull, potassic and ultrapotassic magmatism was active in the Qiangtang terrane, hundreds of kilometers to the north of the Gangdese batholith, after which magmatism resumed in the Lhasa terrane, ultrapotassic or shoshonitic/adakitic in composition (5, 8), associated with economic porphyry copper deposits (6). Since 20 Ma such magmatism also resumed in the Qiangtang and adjacent Songpan Garzi zones of the Tibetan Plateau (5). Interestingly, this Miocene magmatism in the Lhasa terrane migrated eastward, 25-20 Ma in western Tibet but 15-10 Ma in the east, towards the longitude of Bhutan (7). The chemistry of these magmatic rocks is interpreted to be mostly derived from a previously subduction-enriched asthenospheric source that became stirred by the underthrusting continental Indian lithosphere (5-7).

Discussion

Opportunities, 1: Natural laboratory of converging unsubductable lithospheres

The kinematic reconstruction constraining of horizontal continental underthrusting of the Indian continent below Tibet identifies (only) the Miocene and younger history of the Tibetan-Himalayan geological history as natural laboratory for the convergence of unsubductable lithospheres. While and extensive analysis of the dynamics of this system is beyond the scope of this paper, several first-order temporal and spatial relationships between horizontal underthrusting and geological evolution are clear and may be used as basis to discern between existing hypotheses, or develop new.

Most importantly, the irregular shape of the seismically imaged northern Indian continental margin shows that initial horizontal underthrusting must have been diachronous: the coinciding age estimates from the kinematic restoration of this margin (16) (Fig. 3) and geological estimates of the youngest phase of slab break-off from the Himalaya (17) of ~25 Ma at the Himalayan syntaxes, decreasing to ~13 Ma in at the longitude of Bhutan, may provide means to discern between the effects of horizontal underthrusting and unrelated events. For instance, the re-initiation of magmatism between 25 and 8 Ma in the Lhasa terrane follows the same age progression, lending independent support to the interpretation that magmatism resulted from incipient Indian continental lithosphere plowing through and stirring of a previously subduction-enriched asthenosphere (5-7, 93). On the other hand, Miocene magmatism farther north in the Tibetan plateau that started around 20 Ma is located far away from the horizontally underthrusting northern Indian continental margin, and does not show a lateral age progression, making a direct link unlikely.

The formation and deposition of the Kailas basin follows the same diachronous trend, but precedes the reconstructed slab break-off by a few Ma (86). The recognition of diachronous initial horizontal underthrusting allows explaining this trend, as well as the apparent paradox of N-S extension in the Kailas Basin of southern Tibet (85, 86) and the coeval ongoing upper plate shortening in the Pamir, along the Altyn Tagh fault, and in NE Tibet (82, 84). The subsidence of the Kailas basin is well explained as the result of negative dynamic topography, or even upper plate extension, caused by the Himalayan slab resisting slab advance, just prior to its detachment (16, 86, 94) (Fig. 8). This resistance only occurs where the slab is still attached, explaining the diachroneity in Kalias Basin formation and its subsequent uplift. But where slab detachment has already occurred, i.e. at the longitude of the Himalayan syntaxes, the Pamir and eastern Tibet, horizontal Indian underthrusting may already have caused enhanced friction to drive the apparently paradoxical simultaneous upper plate shortening and extension (Fig. 8).

The reconstructed horizontal Indian underthrusting also sheds light on the long-standing debate on the trigger of E-W extension in Tibet. There is widespread consensus that this extension reflects the gravitational collapse of the Tibetan Plateau (3, 15, 47, 90), whereby as final trigger, lithosphere delamination of south-central Tibet (3, 47, 90) or uplift due to horizontal Indian underthrusting (15) have been suggested. Horizontally underthrust Indian continental lithosphere directly underlies Tibetan crust, and its lithospheric mantle must thus have delaminated prior to the 25 Ma onset of horizontal underthrusting in western and eastern Tibet. In addition, not only the source area below the Tibetan Plateau, but also the ‘sink’ of Middle Miocene and younger crustal motion in the Yunnan region has undergone lithospheric delamination (49). This suggests that the 15-10 Ma onset of E-W extension was likely not triggered by delamination. More likely, collapse was driven by the final onset of horizontal underthrusting below the entire plateau following final slab break-off (15). If horizontal underthrusting indeed caused uplift, the easternmost part of the Indian continental promontory north of the eastern syntaxis may have first formed a barrier against plateau collapse, which was only overcome after the entire Tibetan Plateau became horizontally underthrust by India since middle Miocene time.

Also middle Miocene changes in the Himalaya may be studied in context of the transition from subduction to horizontal underthrusting. Webb et al. (17) already interpred syntaxis formation and Himalayan oroclinal bending as result of the change to horizontal underthrusting. Also the transition from extrusion of the Greater Himalayan crystalline rocks along the STD and MCT, to duplexing of the Lesser Himalayan nappes appears to coincide with the transition to horizontal underthrusting, but future analyses may test whether there was diachroneity in these processes. The coincidence of intraplate deformation events, e.g. in the Tien Shan with the onset of horizontal underthrusting in western Tibet around 25, and along the entire Tibetan margin around 13 Ma, may suggest a causal relationship linking convergence between unsubductable lithosphere to intraplate deformation. On the other hand, the shortening in the Tien Shan may also be a natural northward progression of intraplate deformation that had long been ongoing in the Tibetan plateau. Future numerical experiments may test such dynamic hypotheses built on the Miocene Tibetan-Himalayan natural laboratory for the convergence of unsubductable lithosphere.

Opportunities, 2: Improving methodology to unlock the post-collisional subduction laboratory

The ongoing controversy of Greater Indian paleogeography currently hampers using the interval between initial collision, around 60 Ma, and the 25-13 Ma of horizontal Indian underthrusting as a conclusive natural laboratory for post-collisional subduction. Regardless of which of scenarios of Model C, A, or M will turn out to be correct, if any, this natural laboratory holds great promise. Models C and A so far offer no explanation for why there was a transition from subduction to horizontal underthrusting, or what caused the diachroneity of that transition, but if these scenarios are correct, that explanation must provide a unique constraint on the subductability of continental lithosphere. Moreover, Models C and A predict that continental subduction is also possible without preservation of upper crustal units, or with large-scale subsequent removal of accreted continental crust through subduction erosion. If these models are correct, it is thus possible that paleogeographic reconstructions strongly underestimate the paleogeographic area occupied by continental lithosphere. In fact, if large portions of continental lithosphere can subduct without leaving a geological record, accreted geological records such as in the Tibetan Himalaya cannot provide conclusive constraints on initial collision, but only give a minimum age (31). Finally, model C (since 60 Ma) and model A (since 40±5 Ma) would provide the opportunity to calibrate magmatic responses to continental subduction.

The subduction history of model M is entirely on par with current geodynamic paradigms, with a short-lived, late Paleocene to early Eocene phase of microcontinental lower crust and mantle lithosphere subduction combined with upper crustal accretion that is well-documented elsewhere (55) and found plausible in numerical experiments (95). In model M, upper crustal nappes of all subducted or horizontally underthrust continental lithosphere still remain in the Himalayan orogen (11). The transition from subduction to horizontal underthrusting in model M is simply caused by the change from oceanic to continental subduction. But model M invokes that the anomalous magmatic history of Tibet between 45 and the 25 Ma onset of horizontal underthrusting occurred during oceanic (perhaps flat slab (11, 86)) subduction and would thus allow calibrating possible magmatic arc expressions of anomalous oceanic subduction.

The three models provide strongly different boundary conditions and have far-reaching consequences for the analysis of the dynamic drivers of upper and intraplate deformation, the causes of rapid plate motion changes of India, or the causes and paleogeographic context of terrestrial biota exchange and radiation. It is therefore important to attempt at breaking through the impasse in Greater Indian paleogeography reconstruction. I will attempt at briefly identifying where opportunities may lie to achieve this.

The only quantitative constraint on paleogeographic position comes from paleomagnetic data providing paleolatitudinal control. Paleomagnetic analyses on rocks derived from Greater India such as the Tibetan Himalayan sequence, of ophiolites and intra-oceanic arcs and their cover, and of the Lhasa terrane of southern Tibet in principle allows discerning between Model C, A, and M. But each of these models has been defended and and challenged based on paleomagnetic data (27, 29, 34-37). So are paleomagnetic data inconclusive? Rowley (34) recently pointed out that the widely used method to compare paleomagnetic study means (‘paleopoles’) with apparent polar wander paths that provide the global reference against which these data are compared and that are based on averages of study means, is indeed barely conclusive. The paleopoles underlying APWPs are scattered by ~20° around the mean, and Rowley (34) argued that individual paleopoles cannot constrain paleolatitude at a higher resolution. Vaes et al. (96), however, recently analyzed the source of this scatter, and showed that alongside common paleomagnetic artifacts such as undersampling of paleosecular variation, and inclination shallowing in sediments, scatter is mostly caused by the degree to which paleosecular variation is averaged: scatter is a function of the number of paleomagnetic datapoints used to determine a paleopole. And because this number is arbitrary, the statistical properties of APWPs calculated from paleopoles are arbitrary. Vaes et al. (96) provided a way forward in which paleopoles are compared to a reference curve that is also calculated from paleomagnetic readings rather than paleopoles, and developed a comparison metric that demonstrates a paleolatitudinal difference or vertical axis rotation with 95% confidence. This would provide a means to compare datasets of unequal magnitude and propagate uncertainties, and may provide a more conclusive, quantitative, and robust paleomagnetic analysis that may discern between the Greater Indian paleogeography models.

Models C, A, and M each invoke that a plate boundary must have existed south of the Tibetan Plateau between the Paleocene to Early Eocene accretion of the Tibetan and Greater Himalayan units in the orogen, and the accretion of the Miocene Lesser Himalayan units. If this plate boundary was located in the Himalayas during all or some of the period between 60 and 25/13 Ma, as currently required by all three scenarios, there may be no record due to out-of-sequence thrusting along the MCT removing the pre-Miocene underpinnings (Fig. 7). But this refocuses the attention on the process of extrusion and channel flow, this time not to explain the presence of the Greater Himalayan rocks in the orogen, but to explain the absence of its pre-Miocene underpinnings. In addition, Models C and A require that a subduction plate boundary was present between the Xigaze forearc and underlying ophiolites, and the Lhasa terrane (8). Detailed mapping, or identifying structures that could explain the lack of a record such as

I argue for the MCT (Fig. 7), may establish whether, when, and where such a subduction zone may have existed.

Also sediment provenance studies have been used to argue for and against Models C, A, and M. Part of this may underlie the qualitative nature of comparing e.g. detrital geochronology peaks between the sedimentary record of a sink and a suspected source area, and recently developed quantitative approaches that identify the likelyhood of the contribution of a given source area to a sediment may advance the discussion (97). In this analysis, the range of possible source areas for sediments, particularly for Eocene stratigraphic records in the NW Lesser Himalaya and the Pakistani foreland should include not only the Himalaya-Kohistan-Ladakh-Tibetan orogen at the India-Asia plate boundary, but also the Sulaiman-Kabul Block orogen and associated ophiolites that formed independently at the India-Arabia plate boundary (68, 69) (Fig. 4).

Seismic tomographic records of subducted slabs are useful in identifying regions of paleo-subduction (38, 39), although global correlations suggest that the lower mantle hosts slabs of the last ~250 Ma (50). Analysis of mantle structure should hence be done in context of Mesozoic and Cenozoic subduction history and uncertainties therein (16) (Fig. 2). Nonetheless, a recent seismological study of a slab below Kamchatka was able to identify thick crust, on the order of 20 km, in a lower mantle slab (98). Once a slab can be firmly tied to lithosphere that subducted after initial collision, such as the overturned Himalayan slab that straddles the transition zone (13, 38), such seismological analyses may provide novel constraints on their composition and crustal nature.

In summary, on the one hand, the current controvercy on Indian paleogeography stemming from the inability of geological and geophysical techniques to conclusively identify between vastly different paleogeographic scenarios, stands in the way of using the India-Asia collision zone to calibrate the geological and dynamic responses to post-collisional subduction. On the other hand, this controvercy provides the opportunity (and requires) to question and improve geological methodology to constrain paleogeography, including orogen structure, sediment provenance analysis, and paleomagnetism. Solving those issues have impact far beyond the analysis of the India-Asia collision history.

Conclusions

Seismological images reveal that 400-800 km of Indian continental lithosphere is currently horizontally underthrust below Tibet. Using plate reconstructions that incorporate Tibetan shortening predict that the onset of horizontal underthrusting started around 25 Ma around the Himalayan syntaxes, gradually younging to 13 Ma at the longitude of Bhutan. This reconstruction coincides with independent estimates of diachronous slab break-off in the Himalaya, and identifies the Miocene history of Tibet as a natural laboratory for convergence of unsubductable lithospheres. This time period was marked by major changes in accretionary style in the Himalayas, including the extrusion of the Greater Himalayan crystalline rocks and the transition to Lesser Himalayan duplexing, but also by the onset of E-W extension and collapse of the Tibetan Plateau, and upper plate shortening reaching as far north as the Tien Shan. Also marked changes in magmatism in southern Tibet, and associated economic mineralizations spatially and temporally correlate with the reconstructed inception horizontal underthrusting. These processes may provide key ingredients of the natural laboratory for convergence of unsubductable lithosphere. Importantly, lithospheric delamination of Tibet, often cited as potential trigger for Miocene Tibetan uplift and collapse, must instead have occurred prior to horizontal Indian underthrusting, hence before the Miocene.

Between initial collision recorded in the Himalaya at 60 Ma and the onset of horizontal Indian underthrusting, thousands of kilometers of subduction consumed Indian plate lithosphere. I discuss three end-member scenarios that invoke that all or part of this lithosphere was continental, challenging geodynamic and paleogeographic reconstruction paradigms, or that most of this lithosphere was oceanic, challenging magmatic and orogenic architecture paradigms. But an impasse is reached because each of these reconstructions is argued for and against based on the same datatypes. I identify opportunities for methodological advances in fields including paleomagnetism, sediment provenance analysis, and seismology to overcome this impasse, unlocking the 60-25/13 Ma interval of Tibetan and Himalayan evolution as natural laboratory for typical geological responses for a-typical post-collisional subduction, or for a-typical geological responses to typical oceanic subduction.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Reconstructed India-Asia convergence (21), which, when corrected for Tibetan shortening (11) predicts Indian plate subduction/underthrusting for the last 60 Ma. The amount of post-collisional subduction is a function of initial collision age recorded in the Himalaya (60-55 Ma) (18, 19, 45) and the width of horizontally underthrust India, which varies along-strike from 400-800 km (at the longitude of the reference location, this width is ~400 km, Fig. 2).

Fig. 2. Seismic tomographic images taken from the UU-P07 tomography model (50, 99). **A**) Vertical section from the Indian Ocean to Central Asia (drawn using the Hades Underworld Explorer, www.atlas-of-the-underworld.org). Deep, flat-lying slabs relate to Mesozoic Paleotethys and Mesotethys subduction during the amalgamation of Tibetan terranes (16). The India slab contains the bulk of Neotethys lithosphere that subducted northward below the Lhasa terrane, whereas the northward subducted but overturned Himalaya slab contains subducted Greater Indian lithosphere (11, 13, 16, 38, 39). Horizontally underthrust Indian continental lithosphere protrudes northward from the Main Frontal Thrust over a distance of 400-800 km, varying along-strike (9-12, 16). **B**). Horizontal cross-section at 110 km depth through the UU-P07 tomography model, overlain by outlines of modern geology and geography. The yellow dotted line depicts the outline of the northern margin of horizontally underthrust Indian continent below Tibet, protruding ~800 km northward north of the Himalayan syntaxes, decreasing to ~400 km towards ~90°E (9, 11, 12)

Fig. 3. Reconstructions of the diachronous onset of horizontal Indian underthrusting at (**A**) 25 Ma; (**B**) 13 Ma, and (**C**) the Present Day, using the outline of horizontally underthrust continental lithosphere of India shown in Figure tomography, using the

kinematic reconstruction of Tibet and the Himalaya of reference (11), and India-Asia convergence following reference (21).

Fig. 4. Paleogeographic maps at the time of initial collision (~60 Ma (18, 19, 45)) and in Gondwana fits at 155, corresponding to the timing of continental breakup in the Argo Abyssal Plain between Northwest Australia and the conceptual Argoland continent (51), for three end-member models discussed in the text. Models are placed in the paleomagnetic reference frame of reference (100). **A**) Model C, with a fully continental Greater India (19, 23, 24, 40); **B**) Model A, in which initial collision occurred with an intra-oceanic subduction zone around the equator. The size of continental Greater India is here constructed with a 40 Ma closure age of the remaining oceanic lithosphere (8, 25-28, 52); Model **C**), in which 60 Ma collision occurs between a microcontinent that broke off Northern India in the Cretaceous, opening a Greater India Basin in its wake (11, 29). AAP = Argo Abyssal Plain; KLA = Kohistan-Ladakh Arc; PAO = Pakistan Ophiolites; TH = Tibetan Himalaya; WBB = West Burma Block; WFZ = Wallaby Fracture Zone; XFB = Xigaze Forearc Basin.

Fig. 5. Tectonic map of the India-Asia collision zone, modified after reference (11). Mct = Main Central Thrust; mft = Main Frontal Thrust; RRF = Red River Fault; std = South Tibetan Detachment.

Fig. 6. A) Tectonic map of the Himalaya and Tibet, simplified after references (58, 85, 86). **B**) Schematic cross section through the Himalayas and southern Tibet, modified from reference (8). ATF = Altyn Tagh Fault; GCT = Great Counter Thrust; GT = Gangdese Thrust; IYSZ = Indus-Yarlung Suture Zone; KF = Karakoram Fault; MCT = Main Central Thrust; MFT = Main Frontal Thrust; MHT = Main Himalayan Thrust; STD = South Tibetan Detachment.

Fig. 7. Conceptual evolution of Himalayan architecture if **A**) all Eocene-early Miocene India-Asia convergence is accommodated to the north of the Himalaya. In this case, the MCT can have formed when the GH rocks decoupled from their original Indian lower crustal and lithospheric underpinnings, or **B**), all or part of the Eocene-early Miocene India-Asia convergence is accommodated within the Himalaya. In this case, the MCT is an out-of-sequence thrust that formed within the early Miocene Himalayan fold-thrust belt and Eocene-Miocene units that may have accreted below the Greater Himalaya have been removed by subduction erosion.

Fig. 8. Cartoon illustrating geometrical relationships between diachronous slab detachment and onset of horizontal Indian continental lithospheric underthrusting below Tibet between 25 and 13 Ma, and geological expressions in the Tibetan Plateau.

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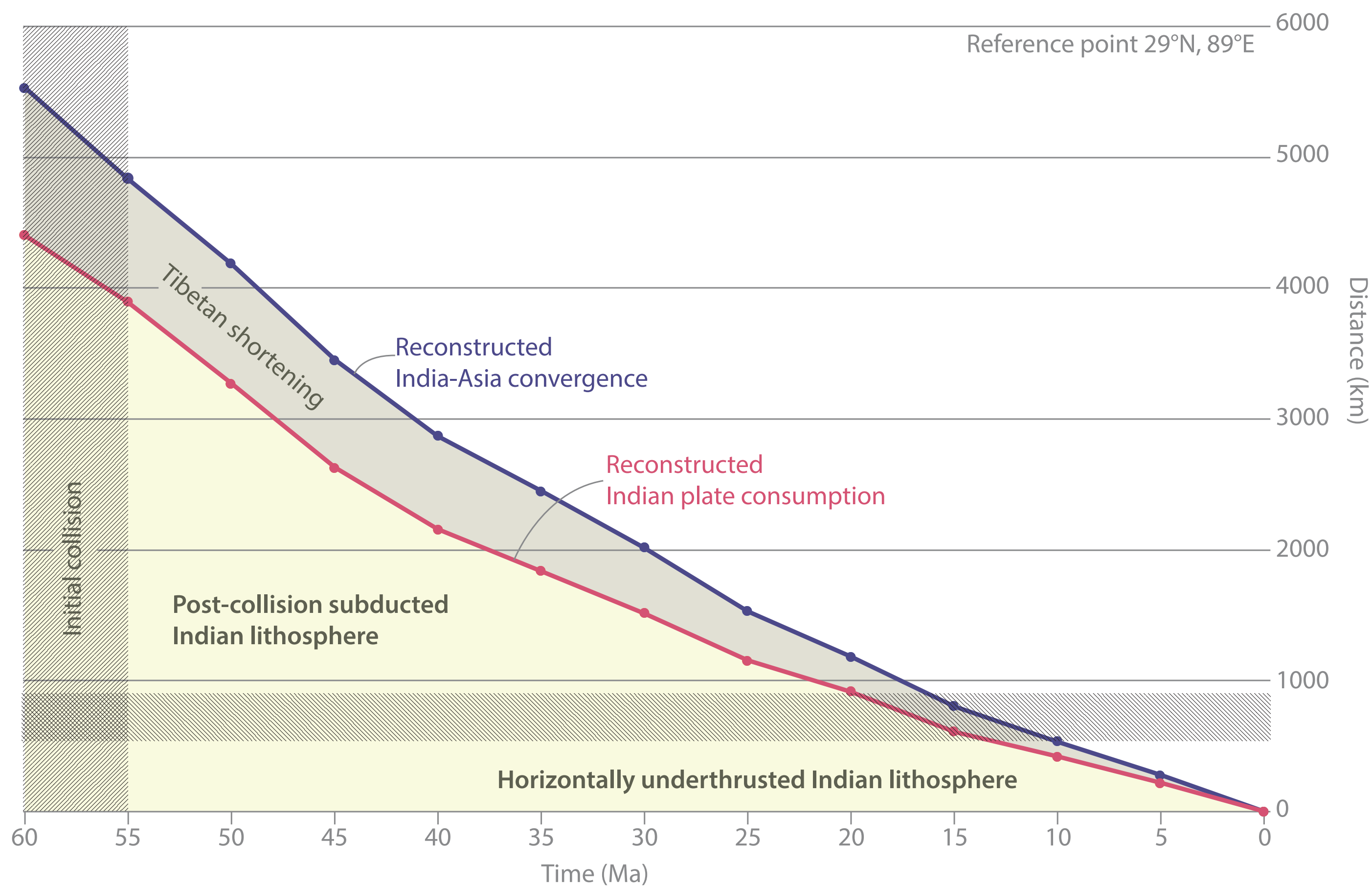

Reference point 29°N, 89°E
6000
5000
4000
3000
2000
1000
0
Distance (km)
Initial collision
Tibetan shortening
Reconstructed
India-Asia convergence
Reconstructed
Indian plate consumption
Post-collision subducted
Indian lithosphere
Horizontally underthrusted Indian lithosphere
60
55
50
45
40
35
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
Time (Ma)

Figure 1

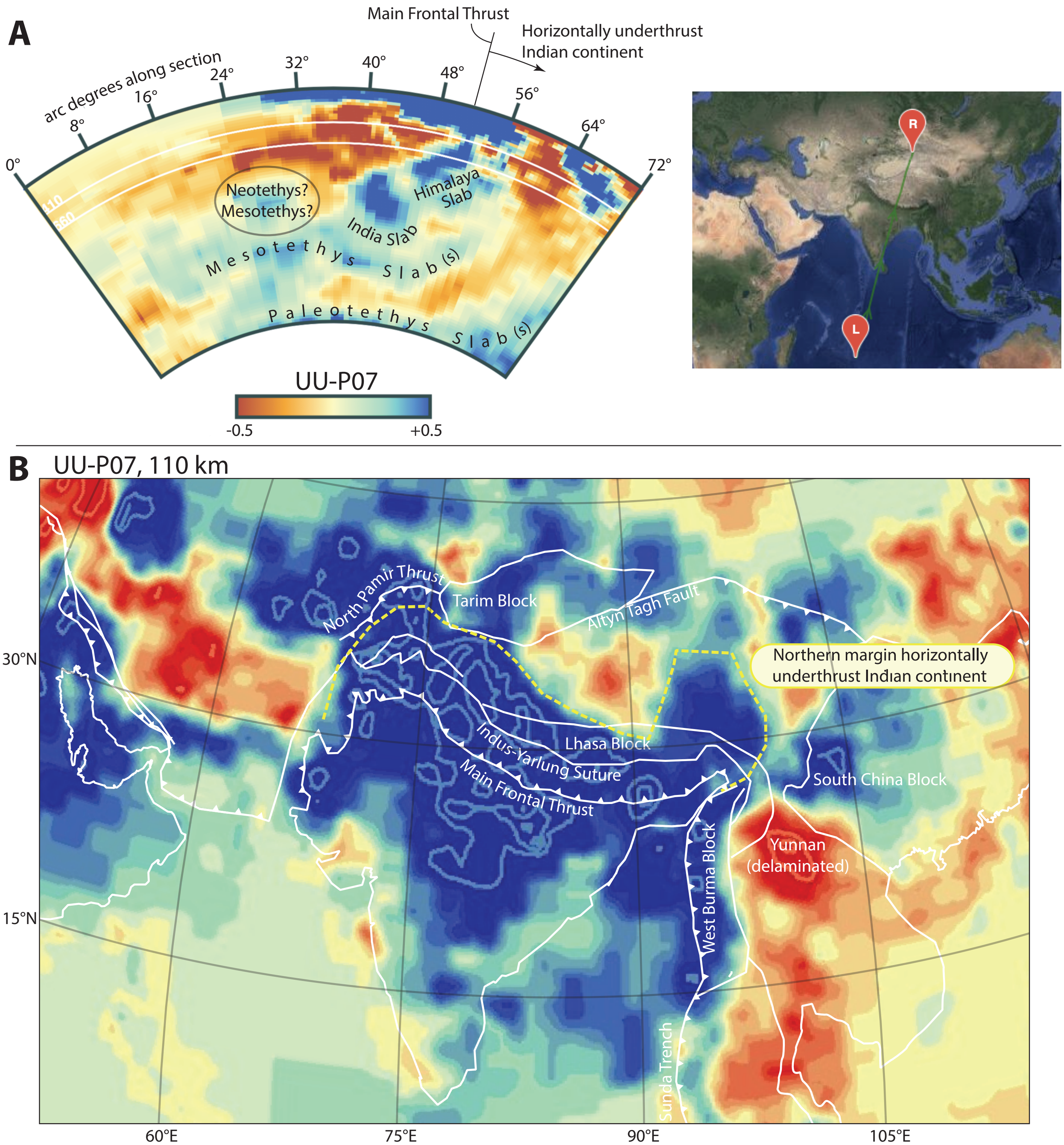
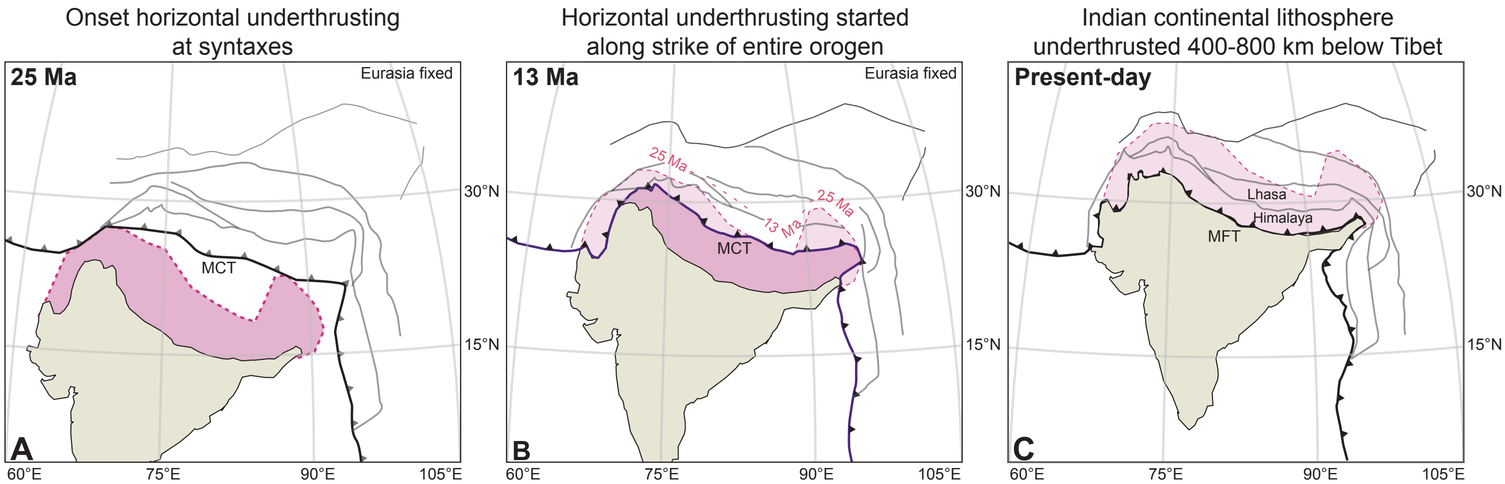

A
Main Frontal Thrust
Horizontally underthrust
Indian continent
arc degrees along section
0°
8°
16°
24°
32°
40°
48°
56°
64°
72°
Neotethys?
Mesotethys?
Himalaya
Slab
India Slab
Mesotethys Slab(s)
Paleotethys Slab(s)
UU-P07
-0.5
+0.5
R
L
B
UU-P07, 110 km
North Pamir Thrust
Tarim Block
Altyn Tagh Fault
Northern margin horizontally
underthrust Indian continent
30°N
Lhasa Block
Indus-Yarlung Suture
Main Frontal Thrust
South China Block
Yunnan
(delaminated)
West Burma Block
15°N
Sunda Trench
60°E
75°E
90°E
105°E

Figure 2



Onset horizontal underthrusting
at syntaxes
25 Ma
Eurasia fixed
MCT
A
Horizontal underthrusting started
along strike of entire orogen
13 Ma
Eurasia fixed
25 Ma
13 Ma
25 Ma
MCT
B
Indian continental lithosphere
underthrusted 400-800 km below Tibet
Present-day
Lhasa
Himalaya
MFT
C
30°N
15°N
60°E
75°E
90°E
105°E

Figure 3

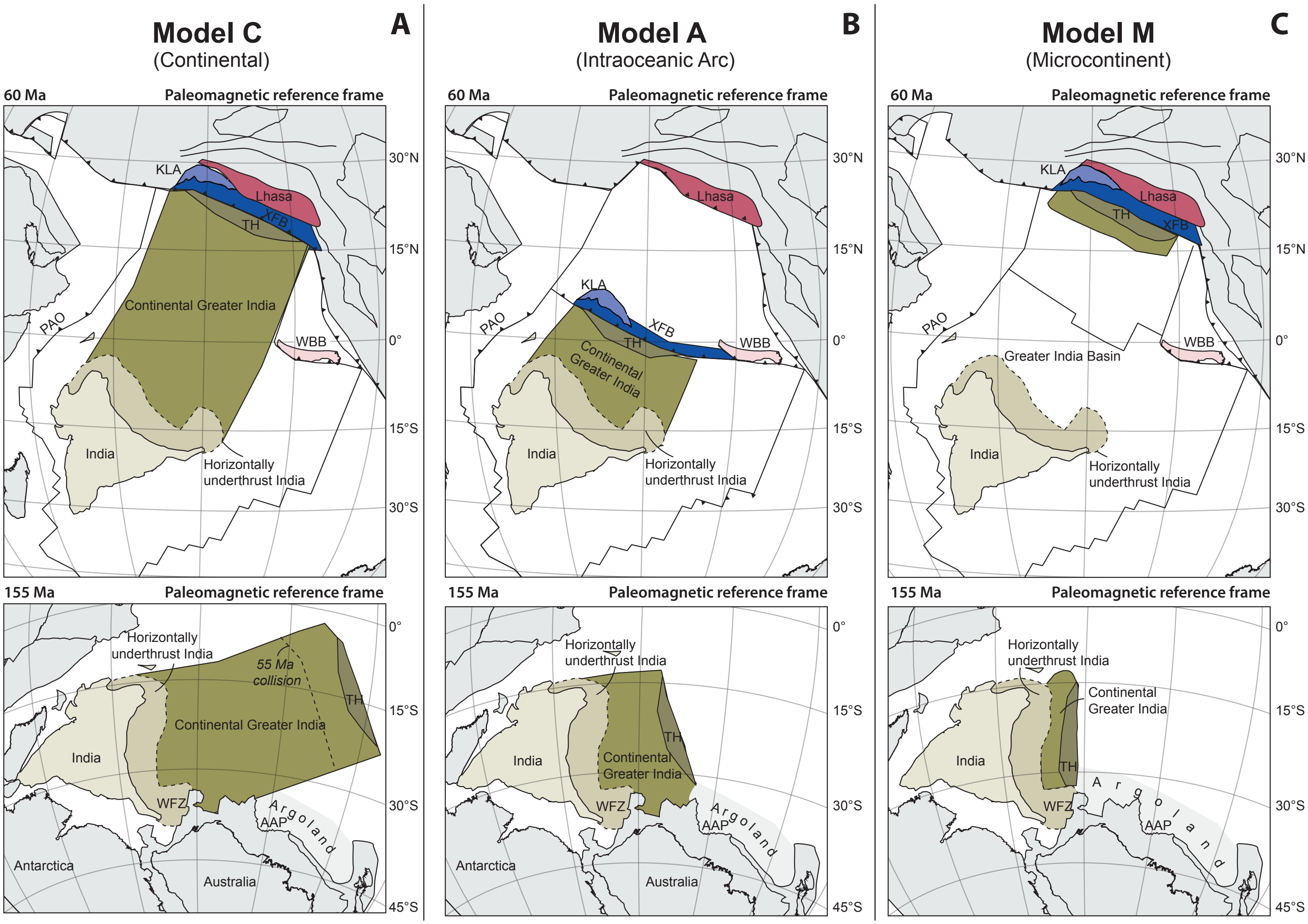

Model C
(Continental)
A
Model A
(Intraoceanic Arc)
B
Model M
(Microcontinent)
C
60 Ma
Paleomagnetic reference frame
KLA
Lhasa
XFB
TH
Continental Greater India
PAO
WBB
India
Horizontally underthrust India
Continental Greater India
Greater India Basin
30°N
15°N
0°
15°S
30°S
155 Ma
55 Ma collision
WFZ
AAP
Argoland
Antarctica
Australia
45°S

Figure 4

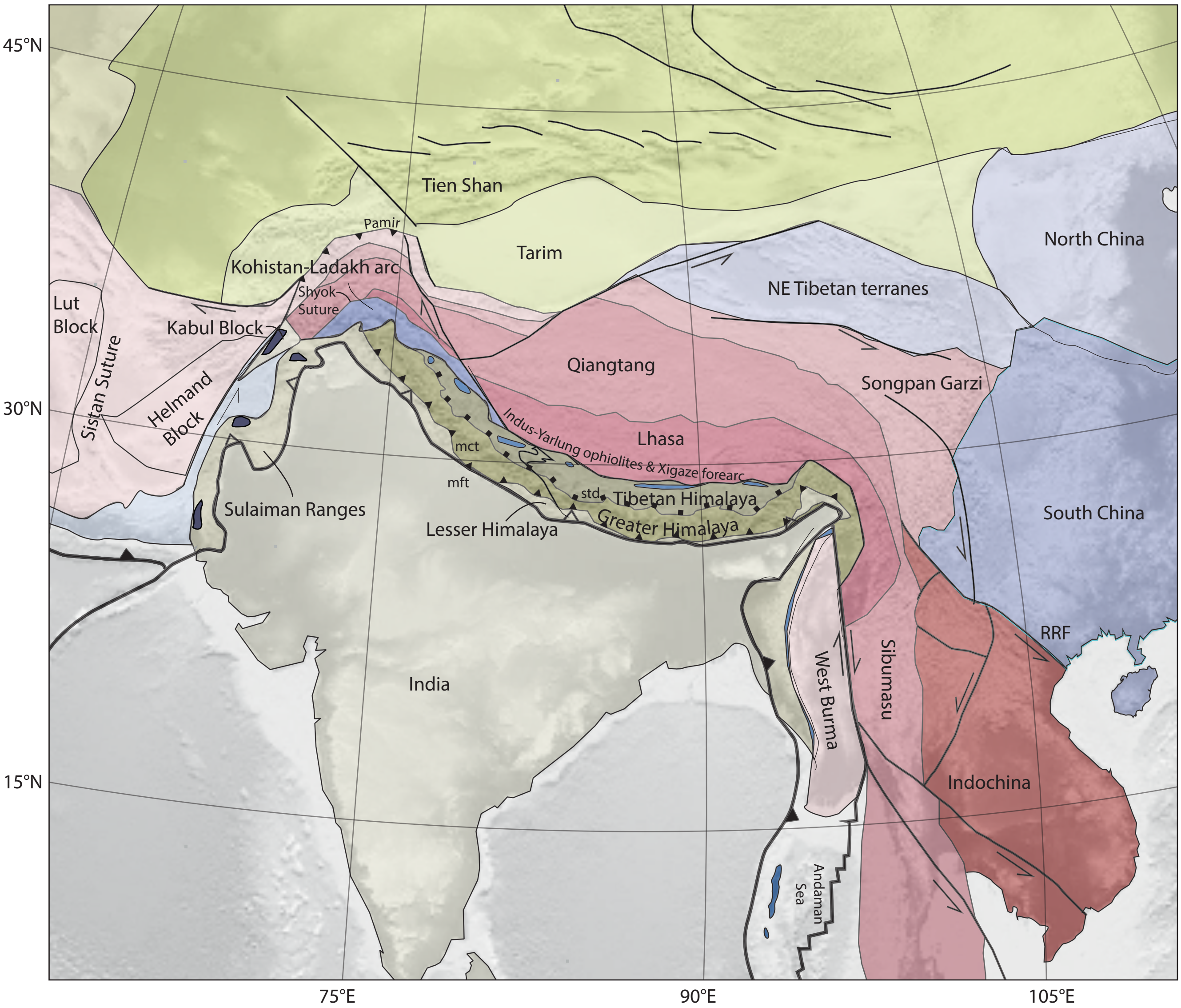

45°N
30°N
15°N
75°E
90°E
105°E
Tien Shan
Tarim
Pamir
Kohistan-Ladakh arc
Shyok Suture
Lut Block
Kabul Block
Sistan Suture
Helmand Block
Sulaiman Ranges
North China
NE Tibetan terranes
Qiangtang
Songpan Garzi
Lhasa
Indus-Yarlung ophiolites & Xigaze forearc
mct
mft
std
Tibetan Himalaya
Greater Himalaya
Lesser Himalaya
South China
India
RRF
West Burma
Sibumasu
Indochina
Andaman Sea

Figure 5

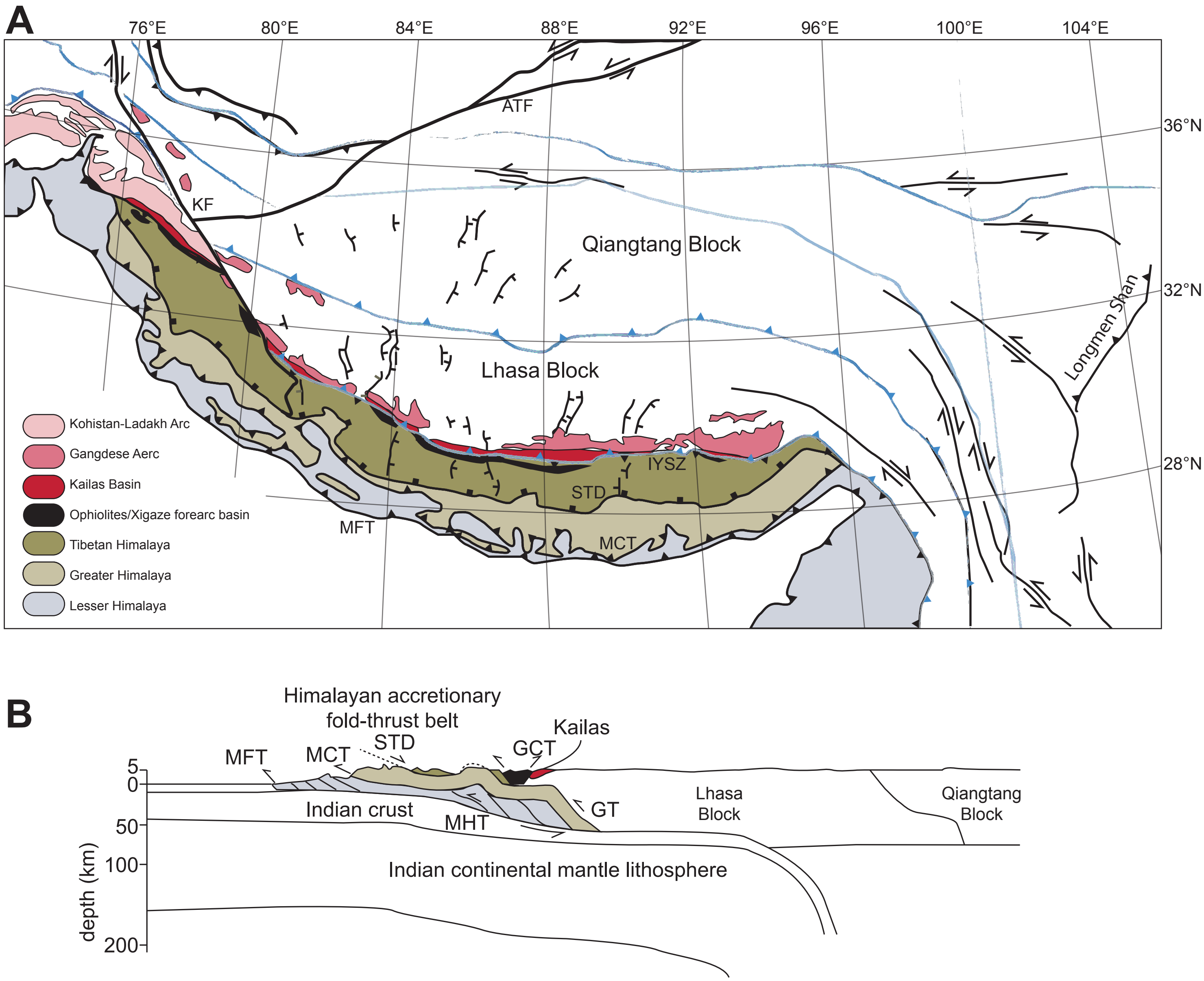

A
76°E
80°E
84°E
88°E
92°E
96°E
100°E
104°E
36°N
32°N
28°N
ATF
KF
Qiangtang Block
Lhasa Block
Longmen Shan
IYSZ
STD
MFT
MCT
Kohistan-Ladakh Arc
Gangdese Aerc
Kailas Basin
Ophiolites/Xigaze forearc basin
Tibetan Himalaya
Greater Himalaya
Lesser Himalaya
B
Himalayan accretionary
fold-thrust belt
Kailas
MFT
MCT
STD
GCT
GT
MHT
Indian crust
Lhasa
Block
Qiangtang
Block
Indian continental mantle lithosphere
depth (km)
5
0
50
100
200

Figure 6

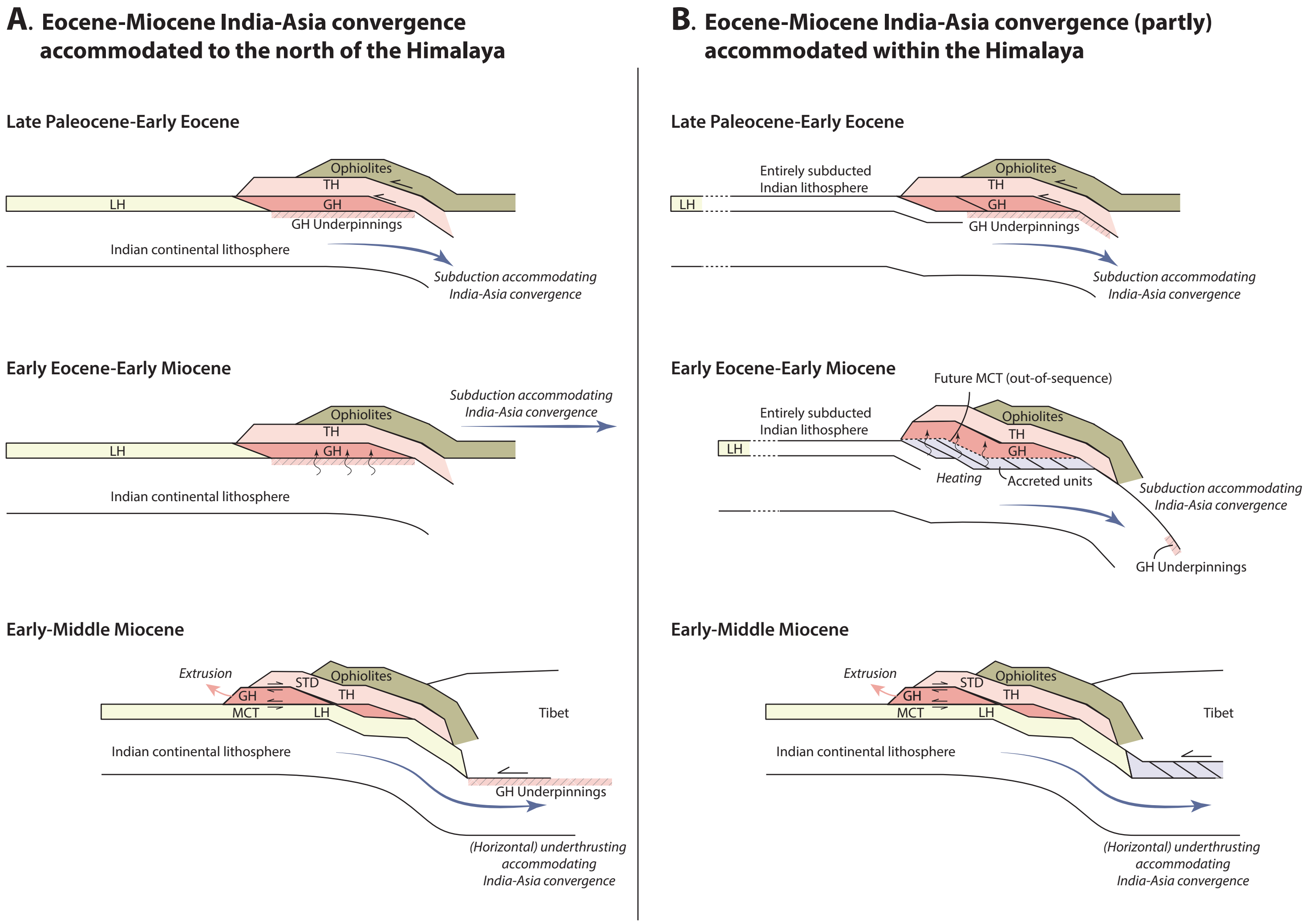

A. Eocene-Miocene India-Asia convergence accommodated to the north of the Himalaya
Late Paleocene-Early Eocene
Ophiolites
TH
GH
LH
GH Underpinnings
Indian continental lithosphere
Subduction accommodating India-Asia convergence
Early Eocene-Early Miocene
Subduction accommodating India-Asia convergence
Ophiolites
TH
GH
LH
Indian continental lithosphere
Early-Middle Miocene
Extrusion
STD
Ophiolites
GH
TH
MCT
LH
Tibet
Indian continental lithosphere
GH Underpinnings
(Horizontal) underthrusting accommodating India-Asia convergence
B. Eocene-Miocene India-Asia convergence (partly) accommodated within the Himalaya
Late Paleocene-Early Eocene
Entirely subducted Indian lithosphere
Ophiolites
TH
LH
GH
GH Underpinnings
Subduction accommodating India-Asia convergence
Early Eocene-Early Miocene
Future MCT (out-of-sequence)
Entirely subducted Indian lithosphere
Ophiolites
TH
LH
GH
Heating
Accreted units
Subduction accommodating India-Asia convergence
GH Underpinnings
Early-Middle Miocene
Extrusion
STD
Ophiolites
GH
TH
MCT
LH
Tibet
Indian continental lithosphere
(Horizontal) underthrusting accommodating India-Asia convergence

Figure 7

Miocene diachronous slab detachment and onset of horizontal underthrusting below Tibet

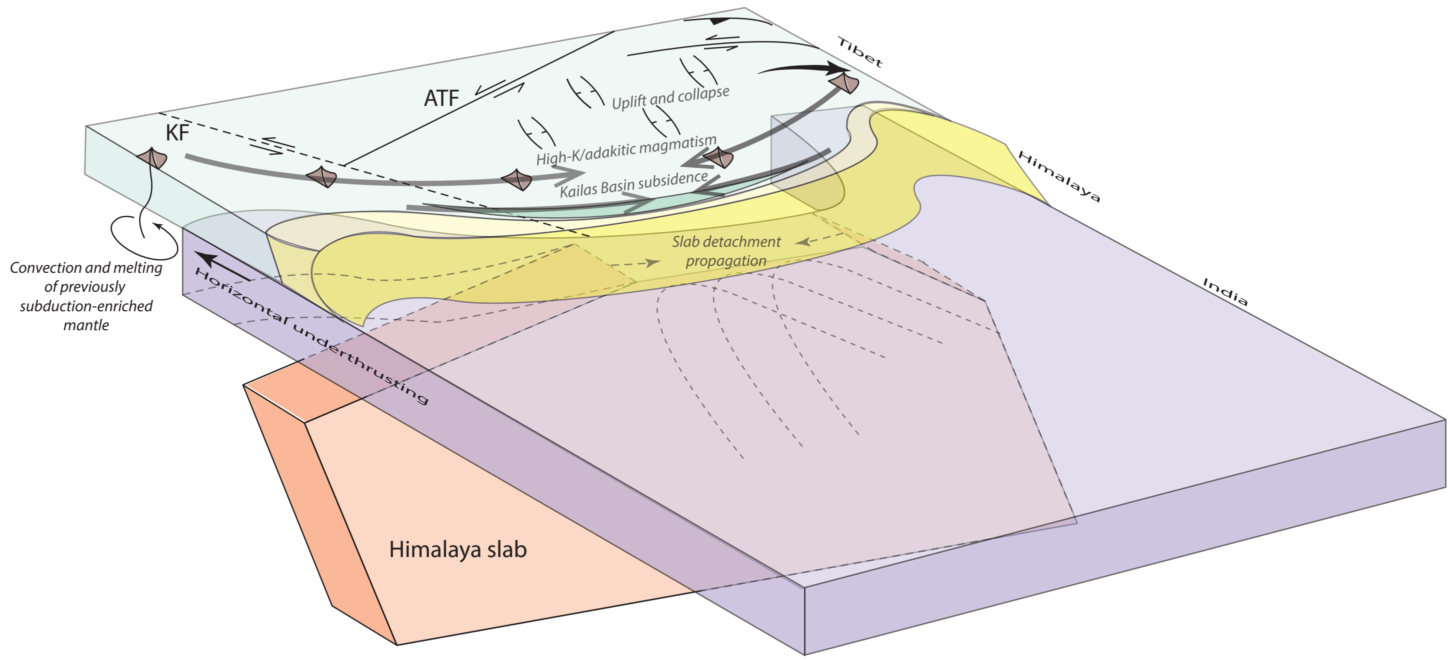


Figure 8