

Abstract

The vast eastern-Tethyan oceanic domain that throughout the Mesozoic extended between Gondwana and Eurasia was a puzzle of larger and smaller microcontinents separated by larger and smaller oceans, the paleogeographic reconstruction of which poses major challenging problems. This review article summarizes the available stratigraphic, sedimentological, petrological, geochronological, geochemical, tectonic, and paleomagnetic evidence on the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone and adjacent geological domains now at the heart of the Tibetan Plateau, with the final aim to reconstruct the history of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean from its birth to its growth and final demise. The vivid debate on these highly controversial geological issues touches on several key problems in plate tectonics, including the birth of an ocean, the nature of microcontinents and seamounts, the initiation of oceanic subduction, the implications of subduction polarity, and the timing of continental collision. Rifting between South Qiangtang and the Lhasa blocks took place in the Early to Middle Permian. The Bangong-Nujiang Ocean was still narrow in the Late Permian. The Triassic saw the rapid northward drift of South Qiangtang and active sea-floor-spreading in the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean, which reached a maximum north-south width of ~4000 km in about 50 million years. In the Early Jurassic (~190-180 Ma), Bangong-Nujiang oceanic lithosphere began to subduct northward. After some 30-40 million years of oceanic subduction, documented by arc magmatism and high-pressure metamorphic rocks, the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean closed its northern branch (the Dongqiao-Amdo ocean) in the latest Middle Jurassic (166-163 Ma), when the Amdo and Dongkacuo microcontinents collided with South Qiangtang. The southern oceanic branch (the Beila-Nagqu ocean) closed in the latest Jurassic (150-145 Ma) at the onset of collision between the Lhasa and Qiangtang blocks. Early Cretaceous (140-120 Ma) syncollisional arc-type magmatism was widely distributed in the Lhasa-Qiangtang collisional zone. At earliest Late Cretaceous times, the complete demise of seaways and the transition to widespread deposition of continental red beds along the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone marked the onset of intracontinental convergence leading to initial uplift of the Tibetan Plateau.

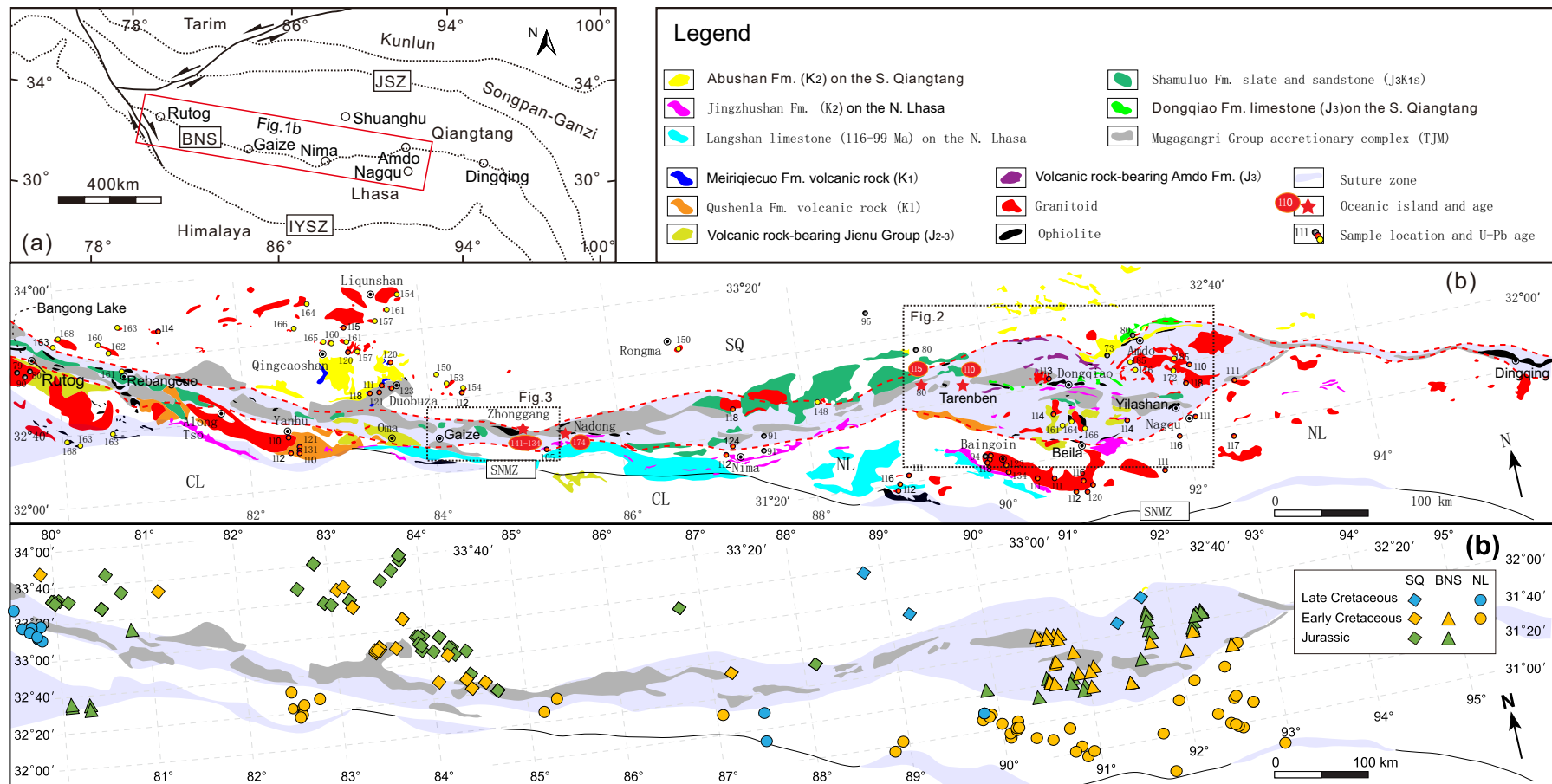


Fig. 1

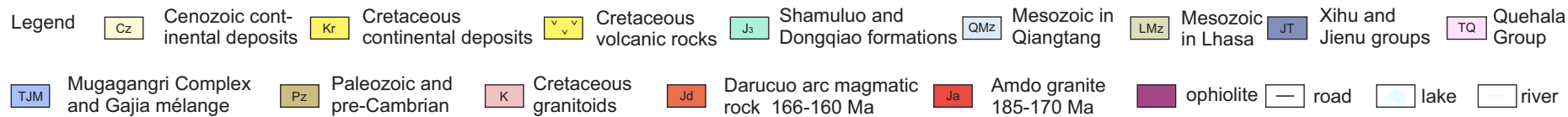
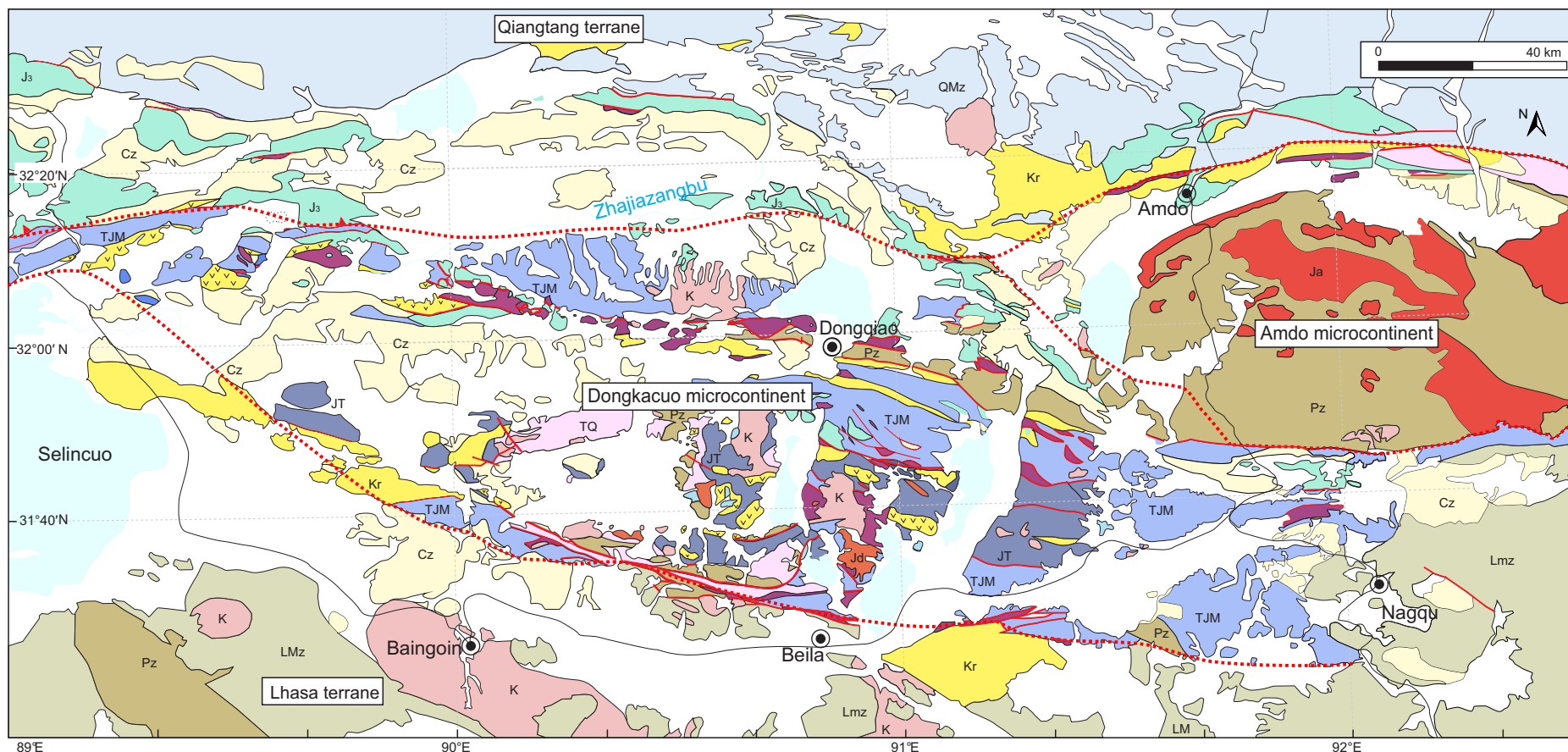


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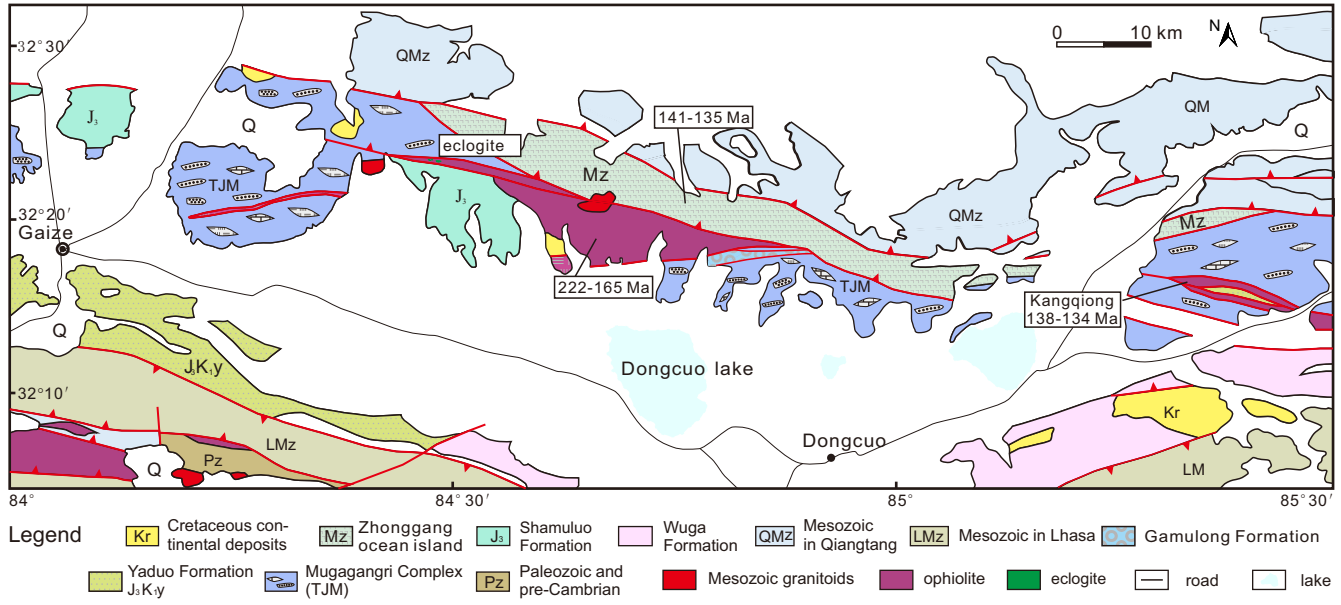


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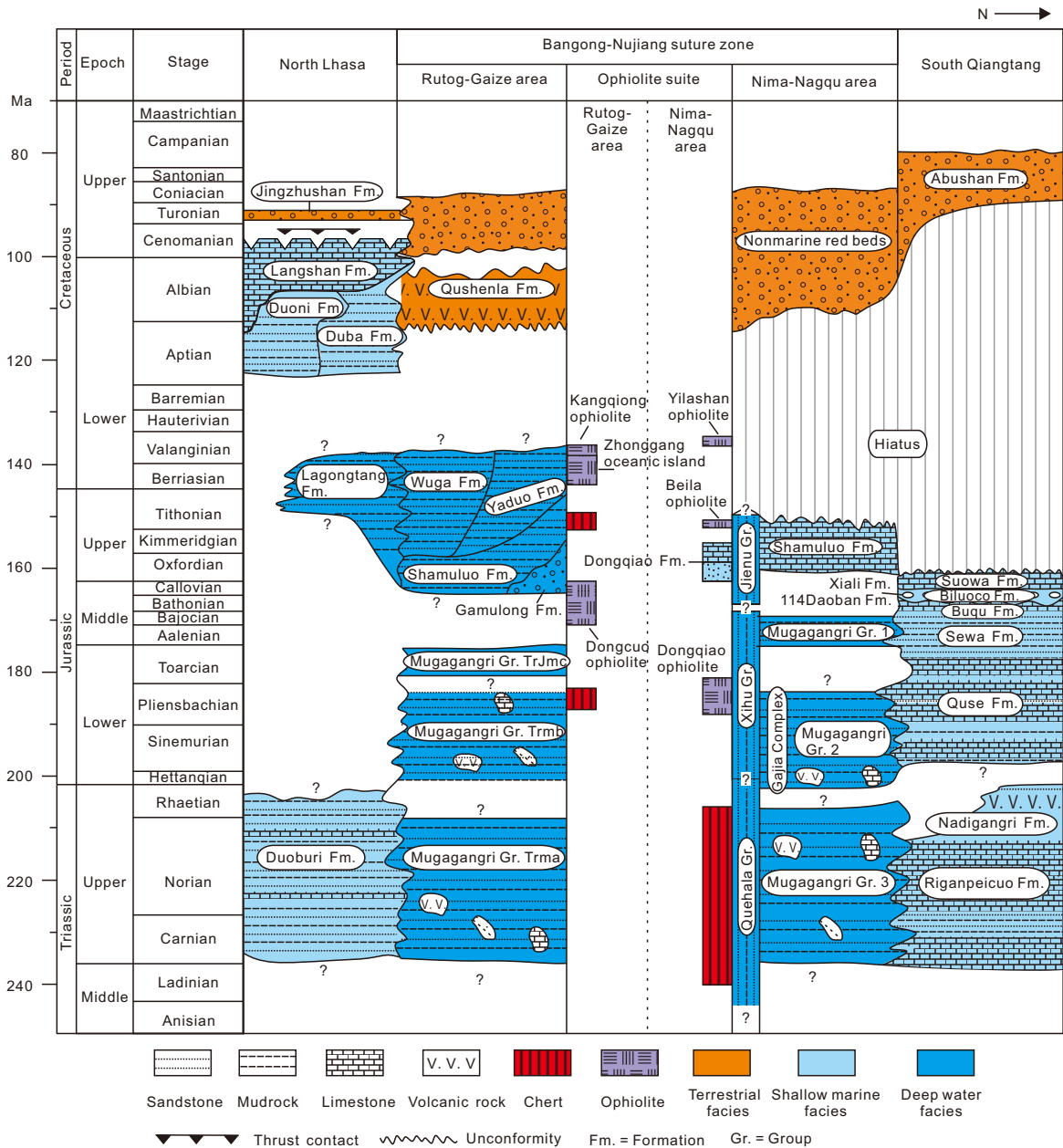


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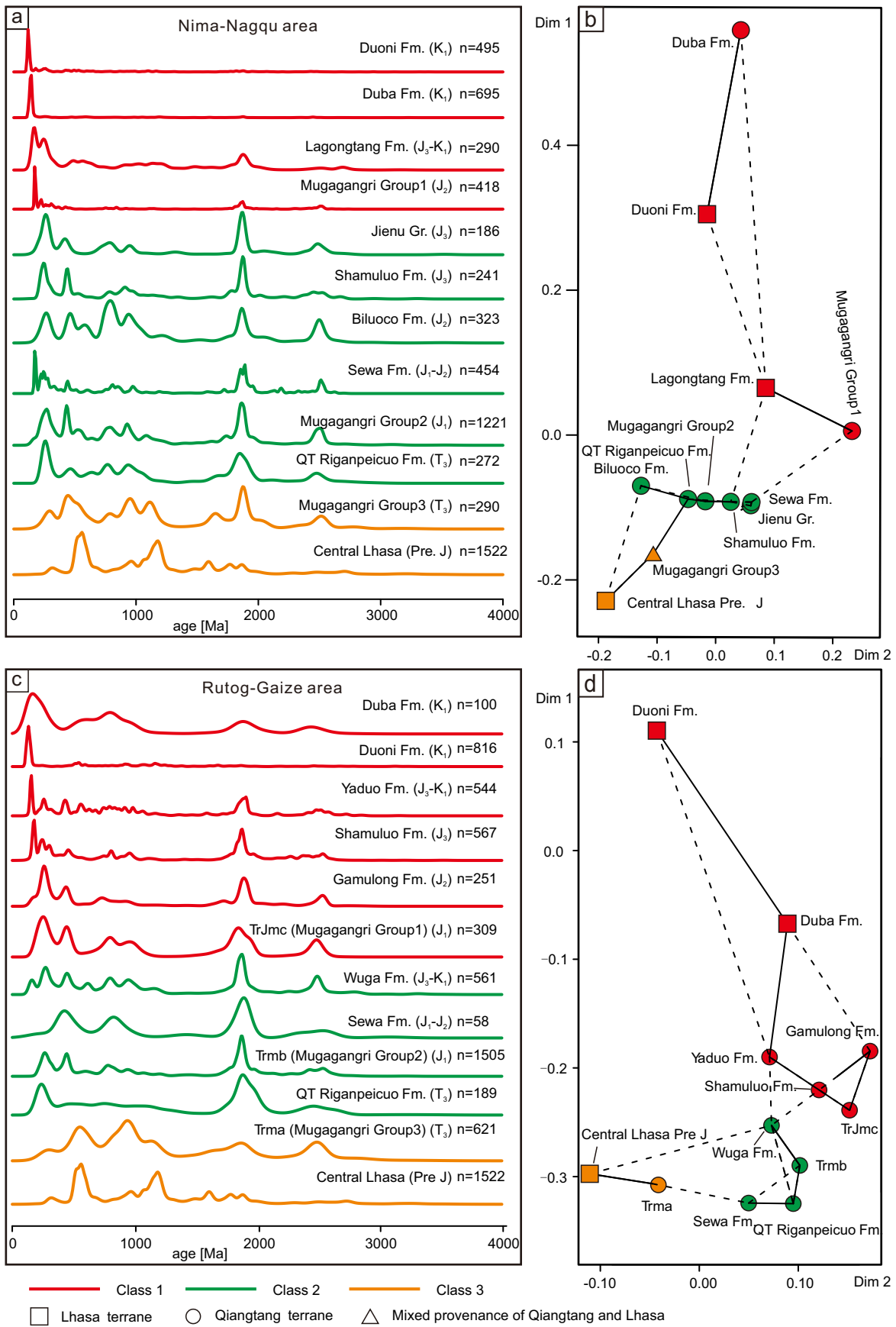


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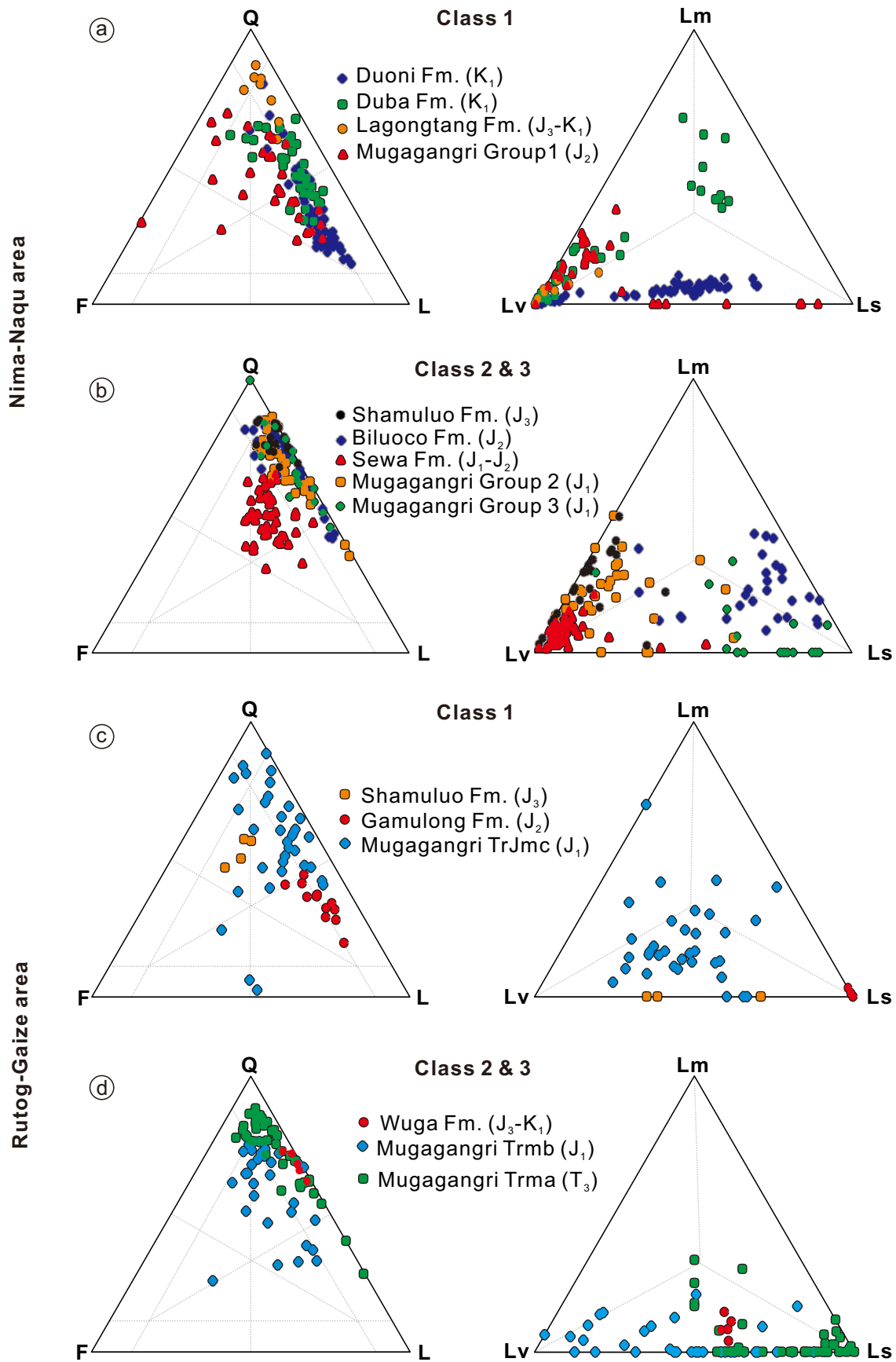


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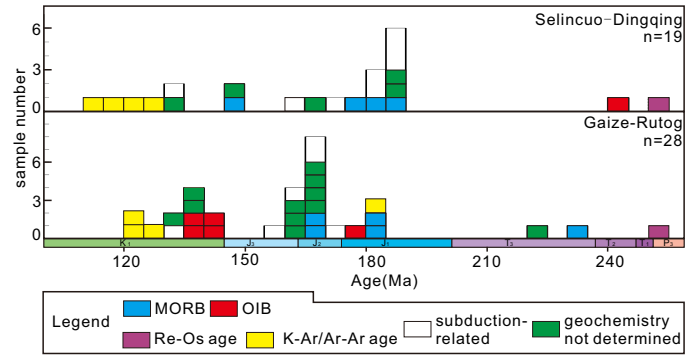


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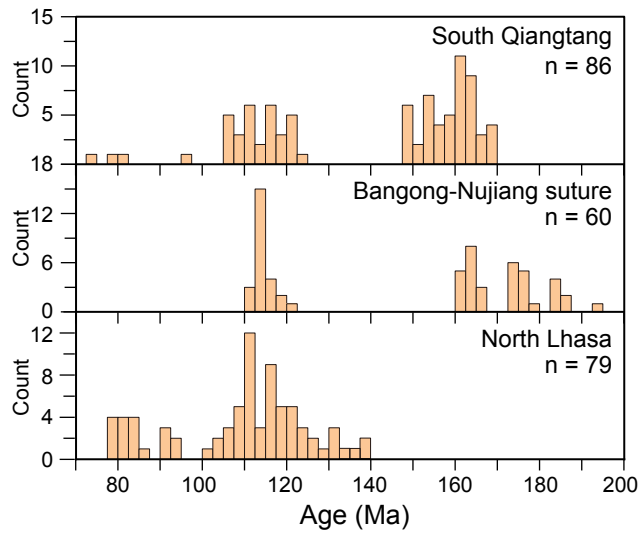


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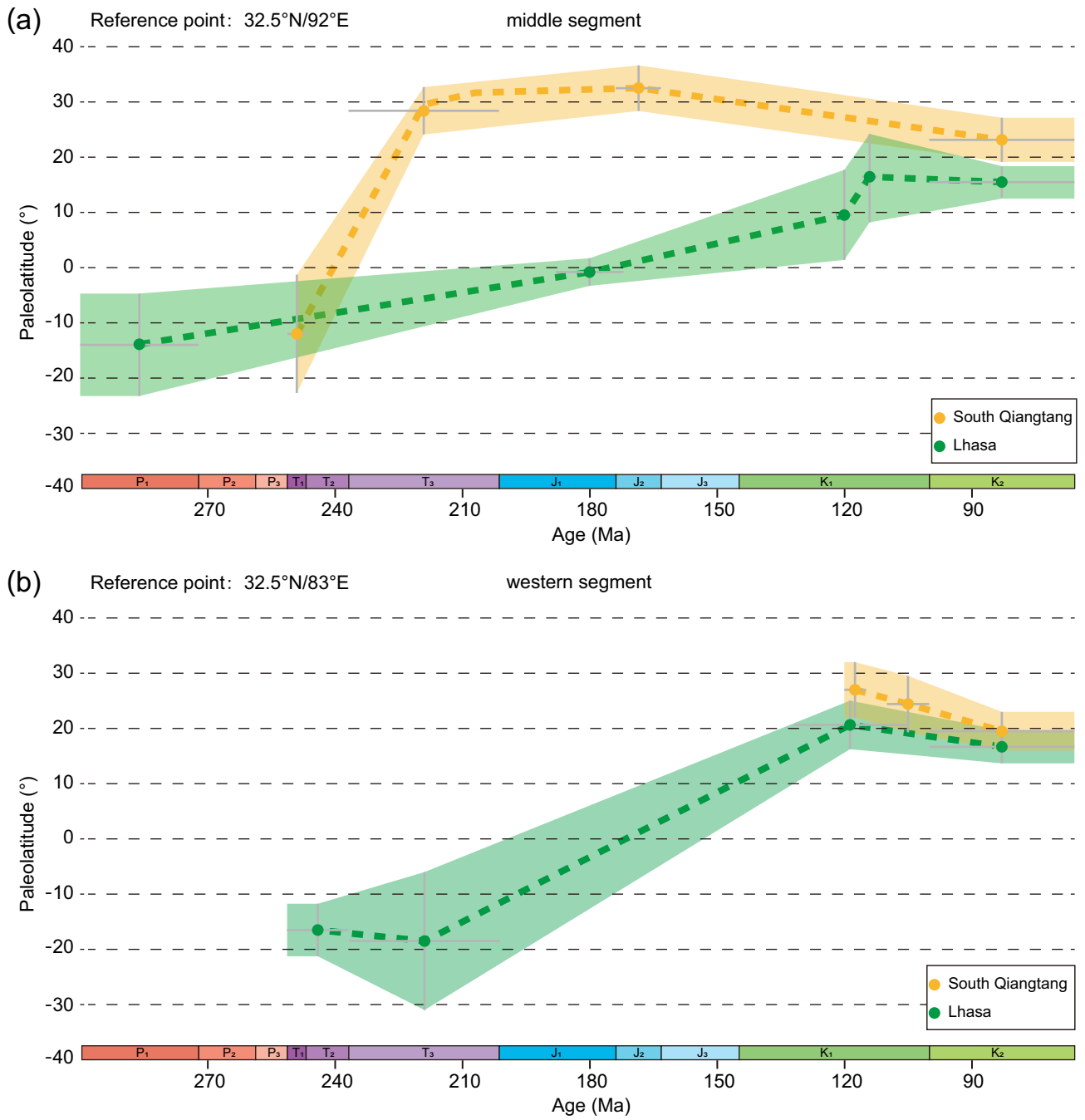


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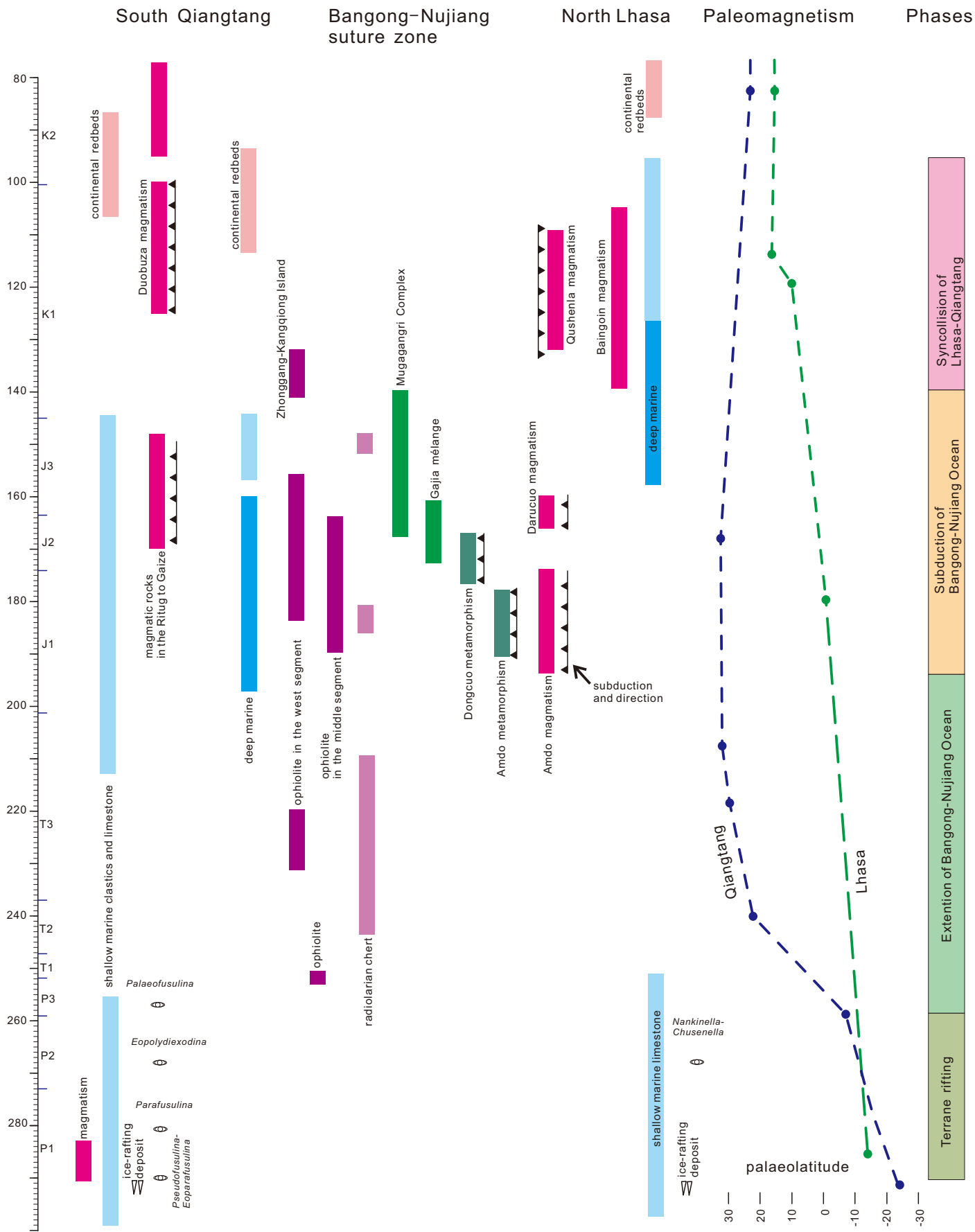


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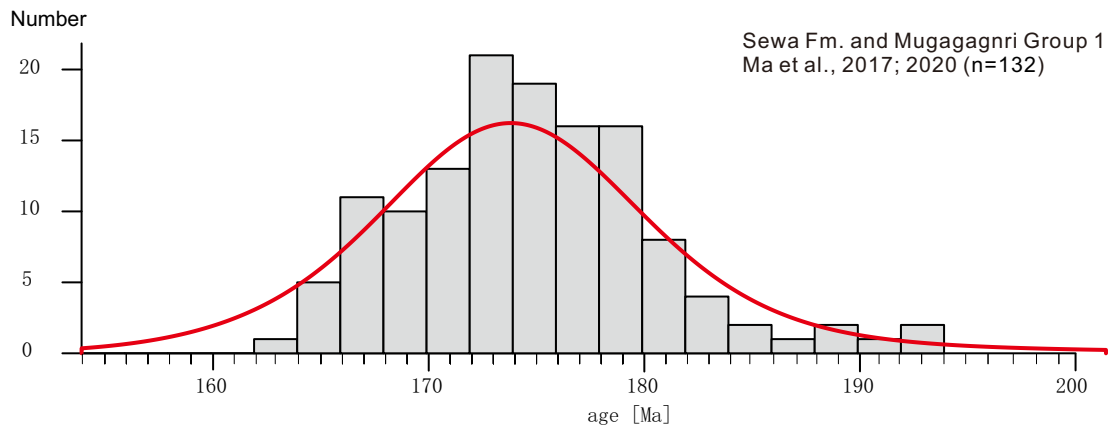


Fig. 11

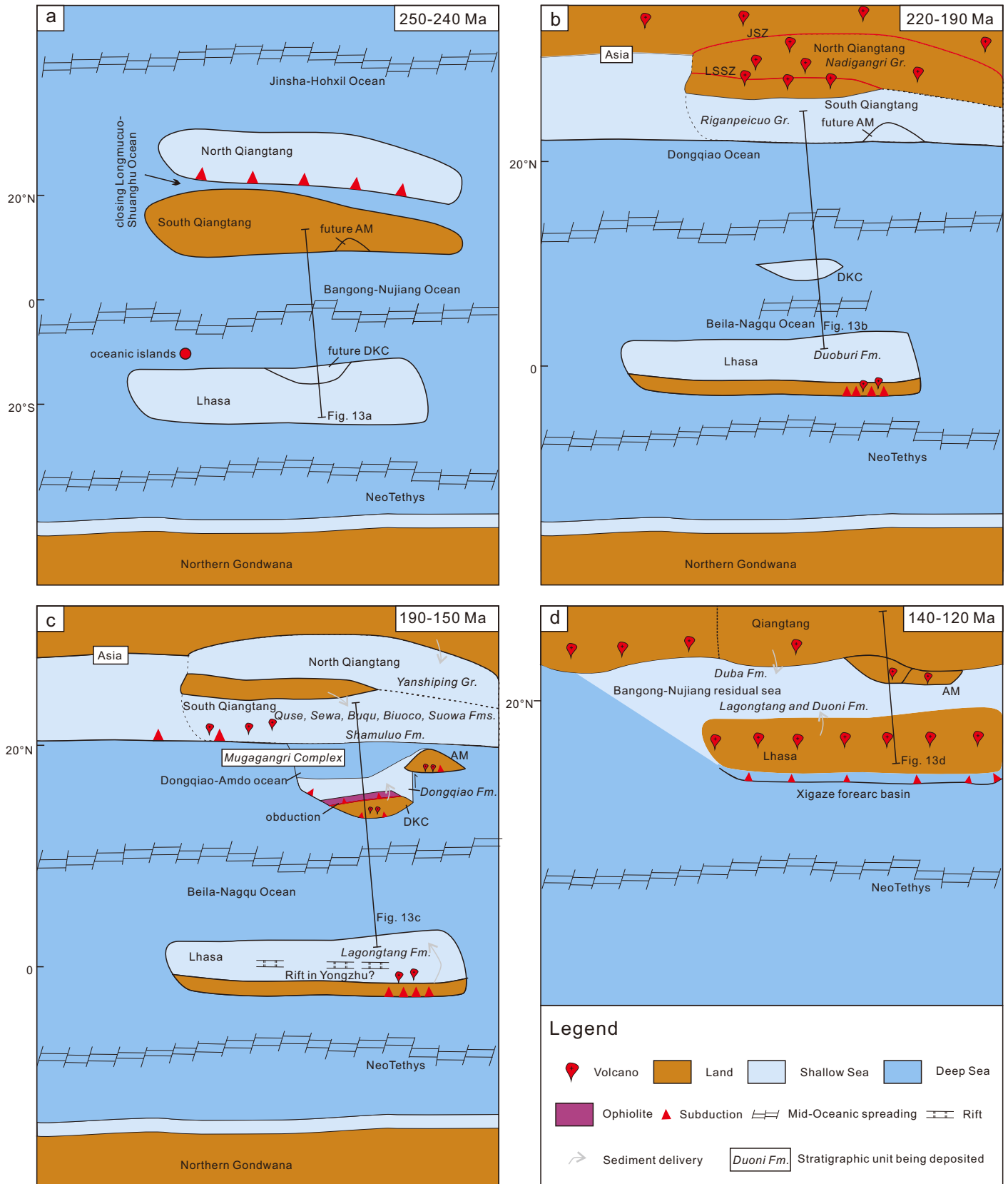


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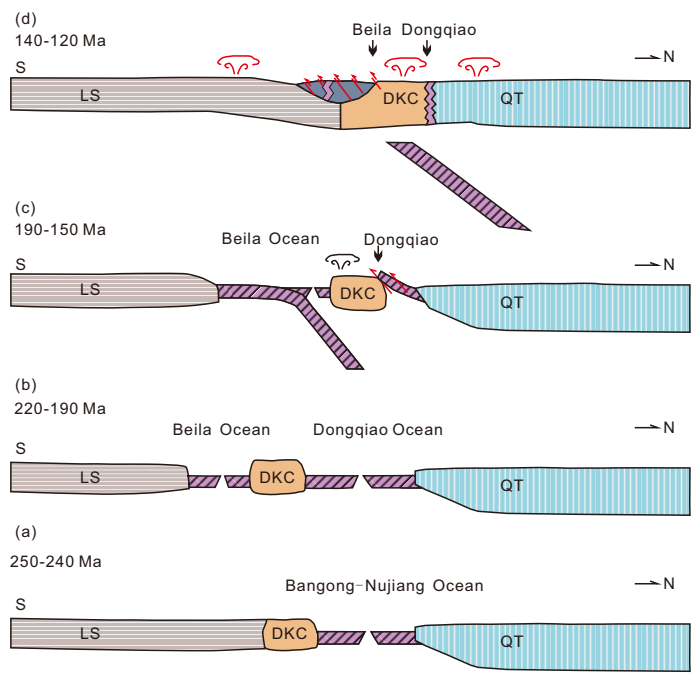


Fig. 13

Table 1 Provenance samples and associated data information in the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone, North Lhasa, South Qiangtang.

Area	Lithostratigraphic unit	Point-counting samples	Analysis spots of detrital zircons	YC1 σ (2+)	References
Selincuo-Amdo	Duoni Fm.	77	495	108 \pm 1.2 (n=8)	Lai et al., 2019b; Zhu et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020
	Duba Fm.	13	695	116.2 \pm 0.8 (n=5)	Leier et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2011; Lai et al., 2019b
	Lagongtang Fm.	8	290	136.3 \pm 1.1 (n=3)	Lai et al., 2022
	Mugagangri Group 1	28	418	166.3 \pm 0.4 (n=18)	Ma et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2020
	Jienu Gr.	/	186	169.5 \pm 0.7 (n=2)	S Li et al., 2020
	Shamuluo Fm.	24	241	/	Ma et al., 2018; C Li et al., 2020
	Biluoco Fm.	29	323	211 \pm 1.5 (n=4)	Ma et al., 2017
	Sewa Fm.	44	454	172.7 \pm 0.7 (n=17)	Ma et al., 2017;
	Mugagangri Group 2	30	1012	204.5 \pm 1.2 (n=4)	C Li et al., 2020; S M Li et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2020
	QT Riganpeicuo Fm.	/	272	224.1 \pm 2.4 (n=2)	Ma et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016; Gehrels et al., 2011
	Mugagangri Group 3	18	290	246 \pm 2.8 (n=2)	Ma et al., 2017, 2020; C Li et al., 2020; C W Li et al., 2021
Gaize-Dongcuo	Duba Fm.	/	100	115.9 \pm 3.3 (n=4)	Luo et al., 2020
	Duoni Fm.	/	816	106 \pm 1.1 (n=13)	C Li et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2017
	Yaduo Fm.	7	544	144.1 \pm 1.4 (n=8)	Huang et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2019; Luo et al., 2020
	Shamuluo Fm.	4	567	160 \pm 1.3 (n=3)	S Li et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2017
	Gamulong Fm.	13	251	165 \pm 1.7 (n=3)	Sun et al., 2019
	TrJmc - Mugagangri	34	309	190.7 \pm 0.8 (n=10)	S Li et al., 2017; C W Li et al., 2021
	Wuga Fm.	5	561	147.7 \pm 0.6 (n=4)	S Li et al., 2017
	Sewa Fm.	/	58	/	Huang et al., 2017
	Trmb - Mugagangri	33	1505	208 \pm 1.2 (n=3)	C W Li et al., 2021
	QT Riganpeicuo Fm.	2	189	201.4 \pm 3.1 (n=2)	Gehrels et al., 2011
Trma - Mugagangri	40	621	219.8 \pm 1.0 (n=2)	C W Li et al., 2021; S Li et al., 2017	
Central Lhasa Pre. J	/	/	1522	/	Leier et al., 2007; G Li et al., 2014; Gehrels et al., 2011; Zhu, 2011

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Exploring a lost ocean in the Tibetan Plateau: Birth, growth, and demise of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean

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1 22 **Highlights**

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7 24 • Critical review of geological data related to the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean from its birth to its
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9 25 growth and demise.

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12 26 • Bangong-Nujiang Ocean opened in the Early Permian and started to subduct northward in the
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14 27 Early Jurassic (~190-180 Ma).

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17 28 • Dongqiao-Amdo and Beila-Nagqu oceans closed in the Middle Jurassic (166-163 Ma) and latest
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19 29 Jurassic (150-145 Ma), respectively.

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Abstract

The vast eastern-Tethyan oceanic domain that throughout the Mesozoic extended between Gondwana and Eurasia was a puzzle of larger and smaller microcontinents separated by larger and smaller oceans, the paleogeographic reconstruction of which poses major challenging problems. This review article summarizes the available stratigraphic, sedimentological, petrological, geochronological, geochemical, tectonic, and paleomagnetic evidence on the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone and adjacent geological domains now at the heart of the Tibetan Plateau, with the final aim to reconstruct the history of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean from its birth to its growth and final demise. The vivid debate on these highly controversial geological issues touches on several key problems in plate tectonics, including the birth of an ocean, the nature of microcontinents and seamounts, the initiation of oceanic subduction, the implications of subduction polarity, and the timing of continental collision. Rifting between South Qiangtang and the Lhasa blocks took place in the Early to Middle Permian. The Bangong-Nujiang Ocean was still narrow in the Late Permian. The Triassic saw the rapid northward drift of South Qiangtang and active sea-floor-spreading in the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean, which reached a maximum north-south width of ~4000 km in about 50 million years. In the Early Jurassic (~190-180 Ma), Bangong-Nujiang oceanic lithosphere began to subduct northward. After some 30-40 million years of oceanic subduction, documented by arc magmatism and high-pressure metamorphic rocks, the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean closed its northern branch (the Dongqiao-Amdo ocean) in the latest Middle Jurassic (166-163 Ma), when the Amdo and Dongkacuo microcontinents collided with South Qiangtang. The southern oceanic branch (the Beila-Nagqu ocean) closed in the latest Jurassic (150-145 Ma) at the onset of collision between the Lhasa and Qiangtang blocks. Early Cretaceous (140-120 Ma) syncollisional arc-type magmatism was widely distributed in the Lhasa-Qiangtang collisional zone. At earliest Late Cretaceous times, the complete demise of seaways and the transition to widespread deposition of continental red beds along the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone marked the onset of intracontinental convergence leading to initial uplift of the Tibetan Plateau.

Keywords : Tethys Ocean; Bangong-Nujiang Ocean; Lhasa Block; South Qiangtang Block; Mesozoic; Palaeogeography

1. Introduction

The Bangong-Nujiang suture zone (abbreviated as “BNS” throughout the article, Fig. 1) represents a major geological boundary within the Tibetan Plateau, separating the Lhasa Block to the south from the South Qiangtang block to the north and traced from Bangong Lake in the west, across the Gaize, Dongqiao, Nagqu, Dingqing and Baju areas, and finally southeastwards along the Nujiang River (Fig. 1a). The BNS was first considered in the light of modern plate-tectonic theory and identified as a "northward subduction suture" by Chang and Zheng (1973), a view widely accepted in subsequent publications (e.g., Dewey et al., 1988; Yin and Harrison, 2000; Kapp and DeCelles, 2019). Pan et al. (1983) systematically studied the structure and rock assemblage of the BNS consisting of ophiolitic mélange and flysch-type sediments and concluded that the Bangong-Nujiang oceanic lithosphere was subducted southward beneath the Lhasa Block (Zhu et al., 2013). Yu et al. (1991) argued that Jurassic strata in the BNS indicate segmentation, abrupt lithologic changes, rapid filling, short life span and recycling, pointing to deposition in a pull-apart basin, an opinion widely accepted thereafter (e.g., Mattern et al., 1998; Schneider et al., 2003). More recent research on ophiolites and magmatic rocks, coupled with detrital-zircon geochronology and paleomagnetic data, suggest that the BNS was a relic of a wide ocean consumed by northward subduction underneath the South Qiangtang continental margin (Zeng et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019b). Zhu et al. (2016), however, envisaged a transient southward subduction of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean during the Early Cretaceous and proposed that the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean closed by double-sided subduction. The initiation of sea-floor spreading, subduction polarity, and closure timing of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean have consequently become crucial issues in geological studies of the Tibetan Plateau.

The many controversies that exist in the study of the BNS depend on its complex geological phenomena (see Li et al., 2019b; Shi et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2021 and references therein). Several characteristics are difficult to explain by current geological models: (1) BNS ophiolites do not follow a simple linear pattern but are discontinuously distributed in several lenticular belts, which leads to question whether the BNS is a single suture or contains multiple sutures (Mate et al., 1996; Wang et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2020); (2) tectonic deformation after ophiolite obduction makes it difficult to reconstruct the original geometries and paleogeography of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean (Girardeau et al., 1984; Kapp et al., 2003); (3) there is a general scarcity of oceanic subduction-related

1 88 magmatism in both South Qiangtang and North Lhasa blocks (Fig. 1b), whereas extensive
2 89 syncollisional magmatism occurred in the BNS at 120-110 Ma (including the Baingoin granite and
3 90 Qushenla volcanic rocks; [Zhu et al., 2016](#); [Li et al., 2018](#)); (4) the typical profile of an arc-trench system
4 91 including a subduction-related accretionary complex was seemingly not well developed in the BNS,
5 92 although some studies interpreted the Mugagangri Complex as an accretionary prism and the Quse-
6 93 Sewa-Buqu deposits as a forearc basin (Ma et al., 2017a, b; Li S. et al., 2017b); (5) there are few
7 94 metamorphic rocks in the BNS, and collision-related molasse-type sediments are not recognized,
8 95 whereas tectonic mélangé is widespread ([Zeng et al., 2016](#); [Li et al., 2017b](#); [Ma et al., 2020b](#)); (6)
9 96 sedimentary successions identifying the continental margins of the collided North Lhasa and South
10 97 Qiangtang blocks mainly consist of deep-water to shallow-marine strata of Jurassic age ([Ma et al.,](#)
11 98 [2017a](#)); (7) numerous porphyry-type ores dated as 120-110 Ma in the Duolong area ([Lin et al., 2019](#);
12 99 [Yang et al., 2020](#)) and orogenic gold deposits dated as 136 Ma in the Shangxu area ([Fang et al., 2020](#))
13 100 occur in the western part of the BNS, but it is unclear whether they are subduction-related or developed
14 101 during syncollisional to post-collisional stages, which has major implications for future ore exploration.
15 102 All these features are quite different from other better studied suture zones, such as the Yarlung-Zangbo
16 103 suture between Tibet and India in the south, which explains why the evolution of the BNS remains so
17 104 controversial.

18 105 This review article defines the boundaries and summarizes the structure and main characteristics of
19 106 sedimentary, ophiolitic, magmatic and metamorphic rocks contained in the BNS, and presents a
20 107 compilation and re-analysis of stratigraphic, petrological, paleobiogeographic, and paleomagnetic data.
21 108 Based on such a wide range of observations, the hotly debated paleogeographic and paleogeodynamic
22 109 issues concerning the opening and closure of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean, the nature of
23 110 microcontinents and seamounts, and the initiation and polarity of subduction are thoroughly reviewed
24 111 and discussed. A comprehensive working model for the evolution of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean will
25 112 be finally proposed.

24 113 **2. Boundaries of the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone**

26 114 Any geologist who visits the Nima-Dongqiao-Amdo-Nagqu area (Fig. 2) may feel confused: where
27 115 is the boundary of the BNS? The BNS does not appear as the Yarlung-Zangbo suture zone in the south,

1 116 the orientation and boundaries of which are clearly outlined by the linear distribution of ophiolites,
2 117 ophiolitic mélangé, forearc basin, and continental arc (Hu et al., 2016). The BNS, instead, is only
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4 118 roughly defined by the irregular spatial distribution of ophiolites and siliciclastic mélangé (Muganggri
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6 119 Complex).

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9 120 The northern boundary of the BNS could thus be traced along the northern boundary of the
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11 121 ophiolites and Muganggri Complex, which corresponds to the fault contacts between Jurassic strata of
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13 122 South Qiangtang with the ophiolite in the Amdo and Dongqiao-Gaize areas, and with the Muganggri
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15 123 Complex in the Dongqiao-Nima area (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). In areas where ophiolites are not exposed (e.g.,
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17 124 near Nima County), the suture zone could be traced based on the distribution of the Muganggri
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19 125 Complex.

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22 126 The southern boundary of the BNS is disputed. Some researchers consider it as corresponding to the
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24 127 Shiquanhe-Namucuo ophiolite belt (Zhang et al., 2014a; Li et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2020), whereas others
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26 128 envisage the Shiquanhe-Yongzhu-Namucuo ophiolite as representing an oceanic basin distinct from the
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28 129 Bangong-Nujiang Ocean to the north (Matte et al., 1996; Zeng et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020). According
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30 130 to the latter view, we consider the Shiquanhe-Yongzhu-Namucuo suture zone as representing a separate
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32 131 embryonic seaway formed in the early stage of continental rifting (Zeng et al., 2018). Supporting evidence
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34 132 includes: (1) the Shiquanhe-Namucuo ophiolitic complex is Middle-Late Jurassic in age (178~147 Ma;
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36 133 Zeng et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2020), which is younger than the age of the Bangong-
37
38 134 Nujiang ophiolites; (2) the Upper Jurassic shallow-water carbonates of the Rila Formation developed
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40 135 along both sides of the Yongzhu ophiolites (Qu et al., 2013) and the Suor suite of siliciclastic rocks
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42 136 stratigraphically overlying the Yongzhu ophiolites indicate that they were generated in the Late Jurassic;
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44 137 (3) no large southward thrust displacement and nappe structure is observed between the two suture zones
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46 138 (Zeng et al., 2018). This considered, we trace the southern boundary of the BNS along the southern
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48 139 boundary of the Muganggri Complex and ophiolite outcrops (Fig. 1a, Fig. 2). In the Nagqu-Beila-
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50 140 Selincuo area (Fig. 2), the BNS also includes the Amdo and Dongkacuo microcontinents, thus reaching a
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52 141 maximum width of ~100 km. The oceanic branches to the north and to the south of the Amdo-Dongkacuo
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54 142 microcontinents were named “Dongqiao-Amdo” and “Beila-Nagqu” oceans, respectively.

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58 143 In this article, we informally divided the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone into three segments: the
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60 144 western Rutog-Gaize segment, the central Nima-Nagqu segment, and the eastern Dingqing-Qamdo

145 segment. Geological data will be compiled only for the western and central segments of the Bangong-
146 Nujiang suture zone.

147 **3. Stratigraphy of the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone and** 148 **adjacent areas**

149 **3.1 Stratigraphy of the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone**

150 In the Nima-Nagqu area, the BNS consists of numerous mappable geological units of diverse
151 origin, including Paleozoic strata, ophiolites, Triassic (?) strata (Quehala Group), Muganggri Complex
152 and deep-water Jurassic sediments (Jienu and Xihu groups), Jurassic volcanic rocks, Upper Jurassic
153 Shamuluo Formation, Lower Cretaceous volcanic rocks (Qushenla Formation) and continental red beds,
154 Lower Cretaceous granite, the Paleogene Niubao Formation, the late Paleogene-early Neogene
155 Dingqinghu Formation, and Quaternary sediments (Wang et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2002; Li et al.,
156 2019b; Ma et al., 2020b). In the Rutog-Gaize area, the BNS comprises a similar rock assemblage,
157 including an ophiolitic suite (ultramafic rocks, basalt, chert, and seamounts), the Muganggri Complex,
158 the Upper Jurassic to Lower Cretaceous Shamuluo Formation, the Lower Cretaceous Qushenla
159 Formation volcanic rocks and continental red beds, the Cenozoic Dingqinghu and Niubao formations,
160 and Quaternary sediments (Zeng et al., 2006; Zeng et al., 2016a; Li et al., 2017b, 2019b; Sun et al.,
161 2019; Luo et al., 2019). In addition, the Gamulong and Yaduo formations (Sun et al., 2019 and this
162 study, respectively) are here distinguished from the Muganggri Complex along its southern boundary.
163 The present article focuses specifically on Mesozoic strata, whereas Cenozoic strata are not relevant to
164 the aims of this study.

165 **(1) Triassic (?) Quehala Group**

166 The Quehala Group, consisting of locally metamorphosed quartzose sandstone, siltstone, and
167 conglomerate in the Dongqiao-Beila area, lies with angular unconformity onto basaltic rocks possibly
168 belonging to an ophiolite sequence and is conformably overlain by the Xihu Group (Chen et al., 2002).
169 During geological mapping at the 1:250,000 scale, the unit was assigned a Late Triassic age based on
170 bivalve assemblages including *Myophoria (Elegantinia) sp.*, *Myophoricardium tulongense*,

171 *Prorotrigonia* sp., *Schafhaeutlia* cf. *subastartifomis*, *Protocardia* cf. *contusa*, *Yunnanophorus boulei*,
172 *Pomarangina haydeni* (Chen et al., 2002). In strata assigned to the Quehala Group, however, detrital
173 zircons yielded U–Pb ages as young as 176 Ma west of Selincuo (Wang et al., 2016) and as young as
174 125 Ma east of Nima County (Kapp et al., 2007), which indicates that strata mapped as Quehala Group
175 in these areas are considerably younger than the Triassic. More extensive regional studies are needed to
176 better define the stratigraphy of the Quehala Group.

(2) Mesozoic Mugagangri Complex

178 The Mugagangri Complex mainly consists of deep-marine turbidites and siliciclastic mélange (Ma
179 et al., 2020b). Its poorly constrained depositional age may include much of the Jurassic and even a part
180 of the Triassic (Zeng et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2017b; Li et al., 2017b; Li et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2020c)
181 and/or of the Cretaceous (as in Li et al., 2017b). Former studies in the Gaize, Nima, Selincuo, and
182 Dongqiao-Beila areas, show that Mugagangri sandstones were derived from the Qiangtang Block (Zeng
183 et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2017b; Li et al., 2017b, 2020a, 2020c). The Mugagangri Complex was
184 envisaged as deposited in forearc or trench basins associated with the northward subduction of
185 Bangong-Nujiang oceanic lithosphere, but deposition may have occurred along a passive continental
186 margin during the Triassic and in collisional settings only subsequently in the latest Jurassic to Early
187 Cretaceous (Li et al., 2017b; Ma et al., 2020b).

(3) Jurassic/Lower Cretaceous deep-water deposits (Xihu and Jienu groups, Gamulong, Wuga, and Yaduo formations)

190 Deep-water siliciclastic rocks widely occur as tectonic slices in the BNS. Regional correlations are
191 hampered by poorly constrained depositional ages, and diverse lithostratigraphic names have thus been
192 proposed.

193 **Nima-Nagqu area** (Fig. 2): The Xihu Group is exposed from the Dongqiao area in the north to the
194 Beila area in the south, where it lies in fault contact onto the Quehala Group and is conformably
195 overlain by the Jienu Group. It consists of locally anchimetamorphic mudrocks and sandstones with a
196 few conglomerate beds (Chen et al., 2002). During geological mapping at the 1:250,000 scale, the unit
197 was assigned an Early to Middle Jurassic age based on a coral assemblage (Chen et al., 2002). More

198 detailed studies focusing on the provenance and depositional environment of the Xihu Group have not
199 been carried out so far.

200 The Jienu Group, exposed in the Dongqiao-Beila area but with only scattered outcrops west of
201 Baingoin, mainly consists of mudrock, sandstone and slate, with andesitic tuffs reported in the Beila
202 area (Chen et al., 2002). The Jienu Group conformably overlies the Xihu Group and is overlain with
203 angular unconformity by the Qushenla Formation (Chen et al., 2002). During geological mapping at the
204 1:250,000 scale, a Middle to Late Jurassic age was assigned to the Jienu Group based on bivalves,
205 corals, gastropods, bryozoans (Chen et al., 2002). The bivalve assemblage indicates a Middle Jurassic
206 (Bajocian-Bathonian) age. The coral assemblage *Stylosmilia michelini-Epistreptophyllum giganteum*
207 indicates a Late Jurassic (Oxfordian-Kimmeridgian) age. A Middle-Late Jurassic age is consistent with a
208 youngest detrital-zircon age $YC1\sigma(2+)$ of 169.5 ± 0.7 Ma ($n = 2$) (Table 1; Li et al., 2020c). The
209 terrigenous fraction of this unit was most likely derived from South Qiangtang based on U–Pb age
210 spectra of detrital zircons (Li et al., 2020c). The depositional environment of the Jienu Group remains
211 poorly constrained due to the lack of accurate sedimentological studies.

212 **Rutog-Gaize area** (Fig. 3): The more than 240 m thick Gamulong Formation lies in fault contact
213 with the Mugagangri Complex or Dongcuo ophiolite and is interpreted as a trench deposit (Sun et al.,
214 2019). It mainly consists of conglomerate and sandstone deposited in a deep-sea fan and containing
215 abundant sedimentary clasts sourced from the Mugagangri Complex and Jurassic strata of South
216 Qiangtang. A Late Jurassic stratigraphic age is indicated by a youngest detrital-zircon age $YC1\sigma(2+)$ of
217 165 ± 1.7 Ma ($n=3$).

218 The Wuga Formation exposed along the southern side of the Mugagangri Complex dominantly
219 consists of sandy slate interbedded with limestone, chert, and conglomerate originally assigned to the
220 Late Triassic (Zeng et al., 2006). A youngest detrital-zircon age $YC1\sigma(2+)$ of 147.7 ± 0.6 Ma ($n = 4$),
221 however, indicates a latest Jurassic or younger age (Table 1; Li et al., 2017c). Provenance analysis
222 indicates South Qiangtang as the source area (Li et al., 2017c) and the depositional environment is
223 considered to be hemipelagic to deep marine (Zeng, 2006; Li et al., 2017c).

224 More than 1-km-thick turbidites exposed to the south of the Mugagangri Complex and to the west
225 of the Wuga Formation in the Gaize area (Zeng et al., 2006) were assigned to the Mugagangri Complex

1 226 during geological mapping at the 1:250,000 scale. However, this stratigraphic unit is well defined and
2 227 distinct from the Muganggri Complex, and hence newly defined here as Yaduo Formation with type
3
4 228 section exposed near Yaduo village to the south of Gaize. These sandstones and mudrocks deposited on
5
6 229 a deep-sea fan (Yu et al., 1991) received detritus from South Qiangtang (Luo et al., 2019; Chen et al.,
7
8 230 2020). The youngest detrital-zircon age $YC1\sigma(2+)$ of 144 ± 1 Ma ($n = 8$) indicates a depositional age
9
10 231 not older than the earliest Cretaceous (Table 1; Luo et al., 2019).

13 14 232 (4) Upper Jurassic Shamuluo and Dongqiao Formations

15
16 233 The Shamuluo Formation unconformably overlies the Muganggri Complex, whereas the
17
18 234 Dongqiao Formation was non-conformably deposited onto the BNS ophiolite. Both units consist of
19
20 235 clastic rocks and tuffs (Girardeau et al., 1984; Chen et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2016;
21
22 236 Deng et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017b; Ma et al., 2018; 2020a). The Shamuluo and Dongqiao formations
23
24 237 contain abundant corals, stromatopora, bivalves, foraminifera and algae, pointing at a Late Jurassic age
25
26 238 (Ma et al., 2018; 2020a). Provenance analysis indicates that the Shamuluo Formation was sourced from
27
28 239 South Qiangtang (Ma et al., 2018), whereas the Dongqiao Formation contains detritus of Lhasa affinity
29
30 240 (Ma et al., 2020a). The Shamuluo Formation yielded no detrital zircon younger than 210 Ma north of
31
32 241 Selincuo, where the unit is widely exposed (Table 1; Ma et al., 2018), and no zircon younger than ~160
33
34 242 Ma in the Gaize area (Table 1; Li et al., 2017b).

37 38 39 243 (5) Lower Cretaceous Qushenla Formation

40
41 244 The Qushenla Formation includes volcanoclastic strata deposited in a continental fluvio-lacustrine
42
43 245 environment (Zheng, 2017), as well as andesites with some basalt and rhyolite (Kang et al., 2010; Wu et
44
45 246 al., 2019). The unit is patchily exposed within the BNS, where it unconformably overlies the
46
47 247 Muganggri Complex and the Shamuluo Formation (Zhu, 2016; Zheng, 2017; Deng et al., 2020).
48
49 248 Volcanic activity started by 136 Ma and peaked at ~115-105 Ma (Wu et al., 2013, 2014b; Zhu, 2016; Li
50
51 249 et al., 2018; Mai et al., 2018; Deng et al., 2020).

54 55 250 (6) Cretaceous continental red beds

56
57
58 251 Lower Cretaceous red sandstones, conglomerates, and mudrocks deposited in alluvial fans, rivers,
59
60 252 and lakes include the Qushenla Formation newly identified during geological mapping at the 1:250,000

253 scale (Zeng et al., 2006, Chen et al., 2017), the Kangtuo Formation exposed in the North Nima Basin
254 (Kapp et al., 2007) and east of Selincuo (Hu et al., 2020), and the Jingzhushan Formation of the Beila-
255 Dongqiao area (Zhu et al., 2019b). Deposition began at 118 Ma in the North Nima Basin (DeCelles et
256 al., 2007). Provenance analysis documents diverse source areas, including South Qiangtang in the north
257 for the North Nima basin (unit Kvc), and ophiolites, Mugangri Complex, and Lower Cretaceous
258 volcanic rocks for the Beila-Dongqiao area of the BNS (Zhu et al., 2019b). Widespread deposition of
259 continental red beds indicates that the BNS became a continental basin long after the closure of the
260 Bangong-Nujiang Ocean.

261 **3.2 Mesozoic strata of South Qiangtang**

262 Because of extensive oil and gas investigations and geological mapping, a bounty of stratigraphic,
263 paleontological, and sedimentological data have been recently published from South Qiangtang. The
264 Jurassic–Cretaceous lithostratigraphic framework is illustrated in Xue et al. (2020), who analysed and
265 reconstructed the sedimentary history, provenance, and paleogeographic evolution of the South
266 Qiangtang continental margin, as summarized below.

267 **(1) Upper Triassic Nadigangri and Riganpeicuo formations**

268 The Nadigangri Formation, exposed from east to west in central to northern Qiangtang where it
269 unconformably overlies the Upper Triassic Xiaochaka Formation, consists of tuff and tuffaceous
270 sandstone interbedded with andesite, rhyolite, and minor basalt in the lower and middle parts, and of
271 coarse-grained sandstone, siltstone, and bioclastic marl in the upper part (Li, 2019). Zircon U–Pb data
272 indicate an age of 221–201 Ma (Norian–Rhaetian) for this unit (Li, 2019), suggesting that the boundary
273 with underlying strata corresponds to a hiatus of >2 Ma (Fu et al., 2007). Diverse continental-eruption
274 and marine sedimentary facies have been identified in the Nadigangri Formation, including overflow,
275 eruptive, eruptive-sedimentary, subvolcanic, deltaic, tidal flat, fluvial, and lacustrine deposits (Li,
276 2019). The bimodal basalt-rhyolite character of volcanic rocks suggestive of rift-related activity was
277 emphasized by Fu et al. (2010), whereas a subduction-related volcanic-arc setting was favored by Zhai
278 and Li (2007).

279 The Riganpeicuo Formation, mainly exposed in South Qiangtang, consists of shallow-marine

1 280 carbonate interbedded with sandstone and shale. Bivalves, corals, and brachiopods indicate deposition
2 281 in the Late Triassic. In the Gaize area, gray, gray-black and purple-red, medium- to thin-bedded micritic
3
4 282 or oolitic limestone interbedded with reef limestone, sandy limestone, rudstone, and bioclastic limestone
5
6 283 yielded rich fossil assemblages, including bivalves, crinoid stems, algae, corals, and sponges (Hou et al.,
7
8 284 2014). In the Nagqu area, the Riganpeicuo Formation is dominated by sandstones and mudrocks
9
10 285 transitionally overlain by the Suobucha Formation, composed of bioclastic limestone and mudstone and
11
12 286 newly distinguished from the Riganpeicuo Formation by Wang and Zheng (2007).
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14
15

16 287 (2) Lower to Middle Jurassic Quse, Sewa, and Buqu Formations

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18
19 288 The > 600-m-thick Quse Formation mainly consists of dark gray mudrocks with limestones
20
21 289 deposited on a shallow shelf (Wang and Zheng, 2007). The stratigraphic contact with underlying
22
23 290 Triassic strata is unclear. Ammonites indicate a Toarcian-Aalenian (Early/Middle Jurassic) age (Chen et
24
25 291 al., 2007; Ma et al., 2017a). The Sewa Formation, conformably overlying the Quse Formation,
26
27 292 comprises a lower member of gray marl, a middle member of gray limestone and marl, and an upper
28
29 293 member of dark gray shale interbedded with marl. The Sewa Formation was deposited in shallow shelf,
30
31 294 deltaic, tidal flat, and lagoonal environments and yielded Aalenian-Bajocian ammonites (Yin and
32
33 295 Chandler, 2016; Ma et al., 2017a). Its sandstones contain abundant volcanic rock fragments, pointing to
34
35 296 provenance from the magmatic arc grown during subduction of Bangong-Nujiang oceanic lithosphere
36
37 297 (Ma et al., 2017a).
38
39

40 298 The widely distributed Buqu Formation, conformably overlying the Sewa Formation, consists of
41
42 299 medium/thick-bedded micritic or bioclastic limestone with minor gypsum (Yang et al., 2017).
43
44 300 Dolostones occur in the Andaercuo and Biluoco areas, where they represent important oil and gas
45
46 301 reservoirs (Wang et al., 2004). The Buqu Formation was deposited in tidal flat, shoal, lagoon, and
47
48 302 platform environments (Ma et al., 2017a) and yielded bivalves, brachiopods, and ammonites indicating
49
50 303 a Bathonian age (Yao et al., 2011).
51
52
53

54 304 (3) Middle-Upper Jurassic Xiali, Biluoco, 114 Daoban, and Suowa formations

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56
57 305 The Xiali Formation, widely distributed in the Qiangtang Basin, is dominated by fine-grained red-
58
59 306 green sandstone, siltstone, and claystone interbedded with shell beds and gypsum (Song et al., 2017a).
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1 307 The unit, lying conformably onto the Buqu Formation and passing upwards conformably to the Suowa
2 308 Formation, was deposited in tidal flat, lagoonal, and deltaic environments. Fossil assemblages,
3
4 309 including plants, bivalves, brachiopods, and dinoflagellates indicate a Bathonian to early Oxfordian age
5
6 310 (Song et al., 2016; Yao et al., 2011).
7

8
9 311 The Biluoco Formation, established by Ma et al. (2017) in the eastern Biluoco area of South
10
11 312 Qiangtang, overlies the Buqu Formation unconformably and can be subdivided into upper and lower
12
13 313 members. The 240-m-thick lower member is dominated by conglomerate commonly displaying graded
14
15 314 bedding, whereas the upper member is dominated by light gray or reddish sandstone with parallel and
16
17 315 trough laminations passing upwards conformably to the Suowa Formation. The Biluoco Formation was
18
19 316 deposited in a fan-delta environment at late Bathonian to early Callovian times (Ma et al., 2017a).
20
21 317 Detritus was largely generated by recycling of the older Buqu Formation and pre-Jurassic sedimentary
22
23 318 rocks of South Qiangtang (Ma et al., 2017a).
24

25
26 319 The 114 Daoban Formation, mainly exposed in the northern Amdo area, consists of conglomerate,
27
28 320 sandstone, siltstone, and micritic limestone, and contains numerous ammonites and nannofossils
29
30 321 indicating a Bathonian-early Callovian age (Yin, 2005; Chen et al., 2019).
31
32

33 322 The Suowa Formation, widely distributed in South Qiangtang, consists of limestone interbedded
34
35 323 with shell beds and includes a few coral reefs (Wang et al., 2010). The unit was deposited in a shallow-
36
37 324 marine environment and yielded ammonites pointing at an early-middle Callovian age (Ma et al.,
38
39 325 2017a).
40
41

42 (4) Upper Cretaceous Abushan Formation

43 326
44
45 327 These continental red beds overlying Jurassic marine strata with angular unconformity are widely
46
47 328 distributed in South Qiangtang. Several hundred meters of red sandstone containing mainly limestone
48
49 329 and sandstone pebbles pass upwards to sandstone and mudrock. A Late Cretaceous age is indicated by
50
51 330 pollen assemblages, youngest detrital zircons, and magnetostratigraphy (Wu et al., 1986; Zhu et al.,
52
53 331 2005; Ma et al., 2017a; Meng et al., 2018). Volcanic rocks dated as 80-102 Ma are intercalated in the
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55 332 Biluoco area (Li et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014c; He et al., 2018).
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3.3 Mesozoic stratigraphy of North Lhasa

Mesozoic strata exposed in the northern part of the Lhasa Block include the Upper Triassic Duoburi Formation, the Upper Jurassic-Lower Cretaceous Lagongtang Formation, the Lower Cretaceous Duoni and Duba formations, the mid-Cretaceous Langshan Formation, and the Upper Cretaceous Jingzhushan Formation.

(1) Upper Triassic Duoburi Formation

The Duoburi Formation, exposed in the Xianzha area of North Lhasa southwest of Baingoin, unconformably overlies the Upper Permian dolostone of the Mujiucuo Formation and mainly consists of sandstone, mudrock, and limestone, with limestone increasing up-section (Qu et al., 2003). Deposition took place in continental to transitional environments passing to shallow marine up-section. Corals, algae, gastropods, and pollen indicate a Late Triassic age (Qu et al., 2003). Age spectra of detrital zircons are similar as in Paleozoic strata of the Lhasa Block, and reworking of Paleozoic strata has been suggested based on the youngest zircon-age peak at 470–550 Ma (Fan et al., 2017b).

(2) Upper Jurassic-Lower Cretaceous Lagongtang Formation

The Lagongtang Formation, mainly exposed from east of Baingoin to west of Nagqu in the northernmost part of the Lhasa Block (Fig. 2), consists of gray to dark gray shale, siltstone, and sandstone intercalated with lenticular limestone yielding corals, ammonites, bryozoans, brachiopods, bivalves, foraminifera, and crinoids (Lai et al., 2022). The unit was considered as Middle-Late Jurassic in age until Lai et al. (2022) found detrital zircons yielding Early Cretaceous U-Pb ages in the Nagqu Basin, indicating that the unit extends into the Early Cretaceous. Deposition took place in a deep shelf environment. Sandstone petrography, paleocurrents, and U–Pb ages and Hf isotopes of detrital zircons indicate recycling of quartz-rich sandstones and supply from Middle Triassic to Lower Cretaceous magmatic rocks of the central-southern Lhasa Block (Lai et al., 2022). An alternative foreland-basin setting related to the Lhasa-Qiangtang collision was proposed based on a different provenance interpretation of the Lagongtang Formation (Li et al., 2022).

(3) Lower Cretaceous Duba Formation

1 359 The Duba Formation consists of siliciclastic rocks exposed in the Baingoin Basin and included in
2 360 the Duoni Formation (Xia et al., 1997) until Lai et al. (2019b) documented that the two units have
3
4 361 different detrital sources. Moreover, the Duba Formation crops out closer to the BNS to the north,
5
6 362 whereas the Duoni Formation is exposed closer to Central Lhasa. The Duba Formation includes a >
7
8 363 250-m-thick lower member dominated by dark gray mudrock deposited on a shallow-shelf, a > 550-m-
9
10 364 thick middle member dominated by gray-green sandstone and shale deposited in a deltaic environment,
11
12 365 and a > 90-m-thick upper member dominated by red shale and siltstone deposited in a floodplain
13
14 366 environment (Lai et al., 2019b). Depositional age is constrained as between 122 and 110 Ma by dating
15
16 367 of volcanic ash and youngest detrital zircons (Lai et al., 2019b). Sandstone petrography, age spectra of
17
18 368 detrital zircons, and geochemistry of detrital Cr-spinel indicate provenance from the BNS and South
19
20 369 Qiangtang farther north (Lai et al., 2019b).

24 370 (4) Lower Cretaceous Duoni Formation

27 371 The Duoni Formation, widely distributed in North Lhasa from Nagqu in the east to Bangong Lake,
28
29 372 mainly comprises siliciclastic rocks. In the Baingoin Basin, the lower member consists of black shales
30
31 373 deposited in delta-front to shelf settings, the middle member of fan-delta deposits, and the upper
32
33 374 member of meandering-river sediments (Leier et al., 2007; Lai et al., 2019b). In the southern Coqen
34
35 375 area, the Duoni Formation consists of \leq 1.2-km-thick fluvial deposits, whereas in the northern Coqen
36
37 376 area it consists of 900-m-thick shelfal sandstones and mudrocks indicating northward-increasing paleo-
38
39 377 water depths (Sun et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020b). U-Pb dating of zircon in interlayered tuffs yielded ages
40
41 378 of 123-108 Ma (Zhang et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2017; Lai et al., 2019b). Paleocurrents, sandstone
42
43 379 petrography, and age spectra of detrital zircons point at provenance from Lower Cretaceous Zenong
44
45 380 Group volcanic rocks and pre-Jurassic strata of Central Lhasa (Zhang et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2017; Lai
46
47 381 et al., 2019b).

51 382 (5) Mid-Cretaceous Langshan Formation

54 383 **The Langshan Formation**, widely distributed in North Lhasa with a stratigraphic thickness
55
56 384 ranging from several meters to more than 1 km, represents the youngest marine strata described in this
57
58 385 article. Fossil assemblages including orbitolinids, planktonic foraminifera, oysters, calcareous green
59
60 386 algae, and rudists indicate a late Aptian-early Cenomanian (116-99 Ma) depositional age (Zhang, 1981;

387 Scott et al., 2010; Rao et al., 2015, 2020; BouDagher-Fadel, 2017; Xu et al., 2020). The shallow-marine
388 Langshan Formation documents an evolution from carbonate ramps (116-107 Ma) to rimmed platforms
389 (107-100 Ma), and again to carbonate ramps (100-99 Ma) (Xu et al., 2020), controlled by the interplay
390 between tectonic subsidence and eustasy.

391 (6) Upper Cretaceous Jingzhushan Formation

392 The **Jingzhushan Formation**, exposed in a narrow belt from Biru in the east to Bangong Lake in
393 the west, is separated from the Langshan Formation in the south by the north-vergent Gaize-Selincuo
394 Thrust (Xia et al., 1997; Kapp et al., 2007; Ye et al., 2019; Lai et al., 2019a). This 2-km-thick unit
395 consists of purplish-red conglomerate with minor sandstone and siltstone deposited in alluvial-fan to
396 braided-river environments (Xia et al., 1997; Lai et al., 2019a). Pebbles are mainly derived from
397 Langshan limestones exposed and eroded in the south, as indicated by their fossil content commonly
398 including *Orbitolina*, rudists, and planktonic foraminifera. The depositional age is constrained as ~92
399 Ma by U-Pb dating of intercalated tuffs and youngest detrital zircons (Lai et al., 2019a).

400 4. Sandstone provenance in the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone

401 Provenance studies based on framework petrography (Table S1) coupled with detrital-zircon U-Pb
402 geochronology (Table S2) are essential to unravel the tectonic evolution of the BNS.

403 (1) Nima-Nagqu area

404 In the Nima-Nagqu area, three units (Mugangri Complex, Jienu Group, and Shamuluo Formation)
405 are extensively distributed in the BNS. Sandstones of the Mugangri Complex can be subdivided into
406 three groups (Fig. 5) (Ma et al., 2020b). Group 1 is distinguished by high proportions of feldspar (23%)
407 and felsic volcanic lithics (33%) and by an Early to Middle Jurassic (170-180 Ma) zircon-age cluster.
408 Group 2 consists of mainly litho-quartzose sandstone, with ~27% lithics (mainly felsic volcanic, chert,
409 and low-grade metamorphic types) and a wide age distribution of detrital-zircon ages between 200 and
410 2500 Ma. Group 3 consists of mainly litho-quartzose sandstone, with ~29% lithics (mainly sedimentary
411 types) and three main clusters of zircon ages at 250-1200 Ma, 1600-1800 Ma, and 2500 Ma. The detrital
412 zircon distribution of the Jienu Group and Shamuluo Formation is similar to Group 2 of the Mugangri
413 Complex.

414 Based on Multidimensional Scaling analysis (MDS; Vermeesch, 2013), Mesozoic sandstones of the
415 Nima-Nagqu area in South Qiangtang and North Lhasa can be subdivided into three classes (Fig. 5a and
416 b). Class 1 comprises sandstones of the Duoni, Duba, and Lagongtang formations in North Lhasa and
417 Group 1 sandstones of the Mugangri Complex in the BNS. Provenance analysis indicates that the Duoni
418 and Lagongtang formations are derived from the Lhasa Block (Lai et al., 2019, 2022). Group 1 sandstones
419 in the Mugangri Complex also yielded age spectra of detrital zircons similar as those in the Lagongtang
420 Formation (both classified as Class 1 in the MDS map; Fig. 5), but the former are mainly feldspatho-litho-
421 quartzose (Q:F:L=44:23:33), whereas the latter are litho-quartzose with much lower feldspar content
422 (Q:F:L=76:8:16) (Fig. 6). Therefore, Group 1 sandstones of the Mugangri Complex are not derived
423 from the Lhasa Block. They are characterized by an 170-180 Ma age cluster, as feldspatho-lithic
424 sandstones in the Sewa Formation (Fig. 6), reflecting extensive volcanism along the southern margin of
425 South Qiangtang at the time of deposition (Ma et al., 2017).

426 Class 2 comprises sandstones of the Upper Triassic Riganpeicuo and Jurassic Biluoco and Sewa
427 formations in South Qiangtang, and of the Jienu and Shamuluo formations plus Group 2 sandstones of
428 the Mugangri Complex in the BNS. All these units were derived from recycling of pre-Jurassic strata
429 and erosion of the Jurassic continental arc on South Qiangtang (Ma et al., 2017, 2018).

430 Class 3 comprises Group 3 sandstones of the Mugangri Complex, which have similar detrital zircon
431 signatures as pre-Jurassic sandstones in Central Lhasa (Fig. 5b). Group 3 sandstones yielded a zircon-age
432 cluster at ~1200 Ma indicative of provenance from the Lhasa Block but also an 1800 Ma zircon-age peak
433 (Fig. 5a and 6b), and are dominated by sedimentary lithics thus displaying remarkable similarities with
434 sandstones from the Riganpeicuo and Biluoco formations in South Qiangtang (Fig. 5a). This led Ma et al.
435 (2020b) to infer that Group 3 sandstones were sourced from both South Qiangtang and the Lhasa Block.

436 In summary, Upper Triassic to Jurassic siliciclastic units of the BNS in the Nima-Nagqu area are
437 mainly derived from recycling of pre-Jurassic strata and erosion of the Jurassic continental arc in South
438 Qiangtang, with the only exception of Group 3 sandstones of the Mugangri Complex that may have
439 received detritus from both Qiangtang and Lhasa Blocks at the same time.

440 (2) Rutog-Gaize area

441 In the Rutog-Gaize area, five stratigraphic units (Mugangri Complex, Yaduo, Shamuluo, Gamulong,
442 and Wuga formations) were distinguished in the BNS. The Mugangri Complex was divided into three

1 443 groups, named Trma, Trmb, and TrJmc by Zeng et al. (2016a), which correspond to the three groups
2 444 (Group 3, Group 2 and Group 1) identified in the Nima-Nagqu area based on detrital-zircon age spectra
3
4 445 (Figs. 4 and 5; Ma et al., 2020b; Li et al., 2021). Based on Multidimensional Scaling analysis (Fig. 5c and
5
6 446 d), detrital-zircon age spectra of Mesozoic sandstones can also be subdivided into three classes, which
7
8 447 correspond to the three classes identified in the Nima-Nagqu area. Sandstone composition is also similar
9
10 448 as in the Nima-Naqu area (Fig. 5): Trma sandstones are dominated by sedimentary lithics (77%) and are
11
12 449 classified as Class 3, whereas Trmb and TrJmc sandstones, which contain abundant felsic volcanic
13
14 450 fragments (52% and 43% on average, respectively), are classified as Class 2 and Class 1, respectively
15
16 451 (Fig. 6). These observations underscore the regional consistency of provenance features of the
17
18 452 Mugagangri Complex from the Nagqu area in the east to the Gaize area in the west (Zeng et al., 2016a;
19
20 453 Li et al., 2017b; Huang et al., 2017b). Combined information from framework petrography and detrital-
21
22 454 zircon age spectra indicates that the Shamuluo, Yaduo, Wuga, Gamulong formations and the Mugagangri
23
24 455 Complex (Trmb, TrJmc) are similar to the Upper Triassic Riganpeicuo and Jurassic Sewa formations
25
26 456 mainly sourced from South Qiangtang (Li et al., 2017b; Chen et al., 2021). Although the Trma and pre-
27
28 457 Jurassic strata of Central Lhasa are classified as Class 3, the general absence of the ~1200 Ma peak in
29
30 458 Trma sandstones indicate provenance from Qiangtang pre-Jurassic strata rather than from the Lhasa Block
31
32 459 (Chen et al., 2021).

36 460 **5. Mesozoic sedimentary evolution of the Bangong-Nujiang** 37 38 39 461 **suture zone and adjacent areas** 40 41 42

43 462 **5.1 South Qiangtang** 44 45

46 463 The Upper Triassic volcano-sedimentary Nadigangri Formation in northern to central Qiangtang
47
48 464 document magmatic activity followed by deposition in marine environments in the Jurassic (Fu et al.,
49
50 465 2010b). At that time, sandstones and limestones of the Riganpeicuo Formation were deposited in South
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52 466 Qiangtang, indicating northward encroaching seas (Wang et al., 2006; Ma et al., 2017a).
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55 467 Lower Jurassic strata are lacking in northern to central Qiangtang, whereas the Quse and Sewa
56
57 468 formations were deposited in marine, coastal, and shelfal environments in South Qiangtang (Xue et al.,
58
59 469 2020). In the late Middle Jurassic, Buqu limestones were extensively deposited across the Qiangtang
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1 470 Basin, documenting a major transgression (Xue et al., 2020). The Baingoin-Shuanghu area of South
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3 471 Qiangtang was next affected by compressional tectonics, with basin inversion testified by the
4
5 472 unconformity at the base of the Biluoco Formation (Ma et al., 2017a, 2018), while fine-grained
6
7 473 siliciclastic sediments of the 114 Daoban Formation continued to be deposited in the Amdo area.

8
9 474 During the Late Jurassic, the shallow-marine limestones of the Suowa Formation were deposited
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11 475 across the Qiangtang Basin, documenting a second major transgression followed by progressive seaway
12
13 476 retreat (Wang and Fu, 2019; Xue et al., 2020).

16 477 **5.2 North Lhasa**

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20 478 Triassic strata are poorly exposed in North Lhasa, where limited information on their
21
22 479 paleogeographic significance is available. During the Jurassic, the Lagongtang Formation was deposited
23
24 480 in shelf environments, documenting a northward increase of water depth across the North Lhasa
25
26 481 continental margin facing the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean (Lai et al., 2022).

27
28
29 482 During the Early Cretaceous, the Zenong Group volcanic rocks covered a large part of Central
30
31 483 Lhasa. In the Coqen area, the Duoni Formation was deposited in a northward-deepening marine
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33 484 environment between 125 and 110 Ma (Sun et al., 2015). Detritus was mainly sourced from Zenong
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35 485 Group volcanic rocks and Central Lhasa basement. In the Baingoin area, the Duoni Formation
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37 486 documents a shallowing-upward sequence, finally passing upwards to fluvial environments. During the
38
39 487 same period, the Duba Formation was deposited in deltaic to fluvial environments to the north closer to
40
41 488 the BNS, indicating provenance from the already uplifted BNS and South Qiangtang (Lai et al., 2019b).

42
43
44 489 In the latest Early Cretaceous (113-99 Ma), shallow-marine carbonates of the Langshan Formation
45
46 490 document a major transgression across North Lhasa, with seaways reaching as far north as the BNS (Xu
47
48 491 et al., 2020). At ~92-90 Ma, large-scale tectonic shortening affected North Lhasa, compressed between
49
50 492 the north-vergent Gaize-Selincuo Thrust along the northern side (Kapp et al., 2007) and the south-
51
52 493 vergent Gugula Thrust along the southern side (Murphy et al., 1997). The initial rock and surface uplift
53
54 494 of North Lhasa is testified by the Jingzhushan and Daxiong formations deposited on the thrust footwall
55
56 495 (Sun et al., 2015; Lai et al., 2019a).

5.3 Bangong-Nujiang suture zone

The Triassic configuration of microcontinents and seaways in the study area is unclear. Deep-water strata include the Triassic part of the Mugangri Complex, characterized by provenance signatures similar as those of sandstones in the Riganpeicuo Formation of South Qiangtang and thus considered as equivalent to the Riganpeicuo Formation (Zeng et al., 2016a; Li et al., 2017b; Ma et al., 2020b). The Quehala Group, deposited in coastal to shelf environments along the margin of the Dongkacuo microcontinent (Chen, 2002), extends eastward to the Dingqing area and is considered to contain detritus derived from the Lhasa Block in the Late Triassic (Chen et al., 2020). Further research on the Mugangri and Quehala groups are required to clarify their paleogeographic significance.

During the Early-Middle Jurassic, the Xihu and Jienu groups document extensive siliciclastic deep-sea-fan deposition. The Jienu Group exposed in the Beila area received detritus from the Qiangtang Block (Li et al., 2020c), whereas the Xihu Group in the Dingqing area to the east was fed from the Lhasa Block (Chen et al., 2020).

In the latest Jurassic, the Shamuluo and Dongqiao formations were deposited in marine to paralic environments, indicating that deep-water sedimentation had ceased along the northern margin of the BNS. The Gamulong, Wuga, and Yaduo formations, fed from South Qiangtang, were still deposited in deep-water environments in the western BNS (Rutog-Gaize area) and a deep-water trough may have persisted to the south. The Mugangri Complex formed mainly at this time, and ophiolite obduction has been reported from the Beila and Zhonggang areas (see Section 7).

In the Early Cretaceous, continental red beds became widespread, including the Qushenla Formation in Gaize (Chen et al., 2017), the Kvc unit in North Nima (Kapp et al., 2007), and the Upper Cretaceous Jingzhushan Formation in the eastern Selincuo (Hu et al., 2020) and Beila-Dongqiao areas (Zhu et al., 2019b; Lai et al., 2019), testifying to a complete demise of seaways.

6. Paleobiogeographic evolution of Lhasa and South Qiangtang

Zhang et al. (2013) systematically reviewed the Permian paleobiogeography of the Tibetan Plateau and summarized the biogeographic evolution of both South Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks. Permian marine faunas of the Tibetan Plateau can be assigned to four biotic provinces (Cathaysian, Indoralian,

1 523 Cimmerian, and Himalayan) with a broad South Transition Zone for parts of the Permian in the south.
2
3 524 Tethys Himalayan fauna belong to the Himalayan Province, whereas North Qiangtang faunas belong to
4
5 525 the Cathaysian Province. The paleobiogeography of South Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks is more
6
7 526 complex. During the Asselian (earliest Permian), South Qiangtang, Lhasa, and Tethys Himalayan faunas
8
9 527 all belonged to the Himalayan Province, and glaciogenic diamictites occurred in all these domains which
10
11 528 were all parts of Gondwana at that time (Sun, 1993; Garzanti and Sciunnach, 1997). During the
12
13 529 Sakmarian-Kungurian (middle-late Early Permian), after the onset of sea-floor spreading in Neo-Tethys
14
15 530 (Sciunnach and Garzanti, 2012), the Lhasa Block and South Qiangtang gradually passed into the South
16
17 531 Transition Zone (Shi et al., 1995), as indicated by the appearance of the brachiopods *Cimmeriella* and
18
19 532 *Bandoproductus* and of the bivalve *Eurydesma*. In the Middle Permian, South Qiangtang and the Lhasa
20
21 533 Block shifted to the Cimmerian biotic province, identified by mixed warm-water Cathaysian and cold-
22
23 534 water Gondwanan faunas, such as the *Shanita-Hemigordiopsis* foraminiferal assemblage and the
24
25 535 *Thomasiphyllum* coral assemblage. During the Late Permian, both Lhasa and South Qiangtang belonged
26
27 536 to the Cathaysian Province, as indicated by South China-type warm-water brachiopod and conodont
28
29 537 assemblages (Xu et al., 2019; Yuan et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2014a), although with significant variability
30
31 538 in foraminifera (Qiao et al., 2019).

32
33
34 539 Zhang et al. (2013) underscored the paleobiogeographic differences between the Lhasa Block and
35
36 540 South Qiangtang during the Late Permian. Warm-water assemblages, including the fusulinid
37
38 541 *Parafusulina*, *Wutuella*, and *Monodiexodina* (Nie and Song, 1983), and the corals *Polythecalis*,
39
40 542 *Chusenophyllum*, and *Wentzellophyllum*, first appeared in South Qiangtang during the late Early
41
42 543 Permian (He et al., 1990), while the Lhasa Block and the Tethys Himalaya remained dominated by cold-
43
44 544 water biota including the conodont *Vjalovognathus* (Nicora and Garzanti, 1997; Zheng et al., 2007;
45
46 545 Yuan et al., 2016) and the *Spiriferella-Costiferina* brachiopod assemblage (Sciunnach and Garzanti,
47
48 546 1996; Zheng et al., 2005). Warm-water organisms appeared in the Lhasa Block only during the Wordian
49
50 547 (Middle Permian), significantly later than in South Qiangtang. In the Middle Permian, the *Nankinella*-
51
52 548 *Chusenella* fusulinid assemblage appeared in the Lhasa Block, while the *Eopolydiexodina* and
53
54 549 *Jinzhangia* assemblage appeared in South Qiangtang (Zhang et al., 2019). In the Late Permian, South
55
56 550 Qiangtang was characterized by *Palaeofusulina*, while *Colaniella* and *Reichelina* occurred in the Lhasa
57
58 551 Block at that time. Such faunal differences can be explained by initial separation of South Qiangtang
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1 552 from the Lhasa Block in the Middle Permian, followed by the rapid northward drift of South Qiangtang
2 553 during the Late Permian, resulting in a significant paleogeographic isolation of the two blocks.
3
4

5 554 Although limited information is available on fossil distribution from poorly exposed Triassic strata
6
7 555 of the Lhasa Block, quantitative statistical analysis of bivalve assemblages indicate that the Lhasa and
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9 556 South Qiangtang blocks were wide apart at Triassic time (Niu et al., 2011).
10

11 12 557 **7. Age of Bangong-Nujiang ophiolites** 13 14

15 558 Mantle serpentinite, cumulate, gabbro, diabase, basalt, and chert representing oceanic lithosphere
16
17 559 are widely distributed in the BNS and document the existence and evolution of the Bangong-Nujiang
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19 560 Ocean (Girardeau et al., 1984; Shi et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2016). Recent research has produced a
20
21 561 bounty of data on formation and emplacement of BNS ophiolites, using different geochronological
22
23 562 methods (e.g., K-Ar and Ar-Ar dating of K-bearing minerals, U-Pb zircon dating of plagiogranite, Re-
24
25 563 Os isochron ages) and radiolarian biostratigraphy. Not all dating methods are however equally robust,
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27 564 and criteria for the selection of most reliable ages must thus be defined.
28
29

30 565 We gave preference to published ages from rocks belonging to a complete ophiolite sequence rather
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32 566 than from sparse outcrops. Geochemical signatures were used to differentiate among OIB-, MORB-,
33
34 567 and SSZ-type rocks with enriched and depleted isotopic signals. Because of the low closure temperature
35
36 568 of the K-Ar system (< 500°C), K-Ar and Ar-Ar ages may be reset by later thermal events (e.g.,
37
38 569 magmatism, faulting, burial). Although zircon U-Pb ages are widely considered as robust, they require
39
40 570 special care when used to date ophiolite sequences that contain very little zircon, because contamination
41
42 571 from country rocks may occur (Huang et al., 2021). The reliability of zircon U-Pb ages can be judged
43
44 572 from: (1) cathodo-luminescence images of zircons from ophiolites show unconfined, broad-ring zoning
45
46 573 features, fan-like structures, or homogeneous distribution (Lissenberg et al., 2009); (2) zircons from
47
48 574 ophiolites usually display a single U-Pb age peak, whereas inherited or contaminated zircons are
49
50 575 usually characterized by multiple peaks; (3) zircons from ophiolites are identified by specific
51
52 576 geochemical fingerprints (e.g., U and Y content, or Hf and O isotopes; Grimes et al., 2007).
53
54
55

56 577 The published zircon-age data for the BNS ophiolite selected according to the criteria illustrated
57
58 578 above are summarized in Table S4 and Fig. 7. K-Ar and Ar-Ar ages are compiled (Table S5) and plotted
59
60 579 for comparison (Fig. 7). The selected U-Pb zircon ages are mostly Jurassic, subordinately Early
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62
63
64
65

1 580 Cretaceous, and sporadically Triassic. Jurassic ages range between 190 and 164 Ma in the eastern Nima-
2
3 581 Nagqu area, and between 184 and 156 Ma in the western Kangqiong-Gaize area (Table S4). Especially
4
5 582 along the Dongqiao-Amdo branch, ages cluster between 190 and 180 Ma (Table S4). Early Cretaceous
6
7 583 ages between 141 and 133 Ma characterize igneous rocks (trachyandesite, troctolite, gabbro, and basalt)
8
9 584 in the western Zhonggang-Kangqiong area near Dongcuo (Fig. 3), which show mainly OIB and some
10
11 585 MORB features (Fan et al., 2021a; Zeng et al., 2021). In the east, Early Cretaceous ages (133-134 Ma;
12
13 586 Zhong et al., 2018) were reported in the Yilashan area near Nagqu (Fig. 2), whereas rocks plausibly
14
15 587 representing oceanic crust in the Beila area yielded Late Jurassic ages (148-149 Ma; Zhong et al., 2017),
16
17 588 which suggests that the Beila-Nagqu oceanic branch may have remained partially open until the Early
18
19 589 Cretaceous. Triassic ophiolite ages were sporadically reported from both eastern and western areas (Qin
20
21 590 et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2017; Wu, 2018). Ar-Ar and K-Ar ages range between 127-114 Ma, but for
22
23 591 one age at 184.5 Ma. The much younger Ar-Ar and K-Ar ages may suggest alteration by later thermal
24
25 592 events, as discussed in Huang et al. (2017a).

26
27
28 593 Re-Os isochron ages were obtained from six cumulate rocks in the Dongqiao area (251 ± 65 Ma,
29
30 594 MSWD = 55; Shi et al., 2012) and from nine harzburgites from the Bangong Lake area (254 ± 28 Ma;
31
32 595 Huang et al., 2012). These Permian/Triassic ages are interpreted to date the formation of Bangong-
33
34 596 Nujiang oceanic crust.

35
36
37 597 Only a few biostratigraphic data have been obtained on chert exposed in the BNS, including
38
39 598 Anisian (Middle Triassic) to Carnian (Late Triassic) ages from the Dingqing-Nagqu area. Carnian
40
41 599 radiolarians are reported from chert of the Dingqing ophiolite suite (Wang et al., 2002), and Anisian
42
43 600 radiolaria from the Gaga mélangé in the Nagqu area (Nima and Xie, 2005). Radiolarians of
44
45 601 Pliensbachian (Early Jurassic) age were retrieved near Zongbai town in Dingqing (Li, 1988). Li (1986)
46
47 602 described Tithonian (Late Jurassic) radiolarians from chert overlying volcanic rocks and tuffs in Rutog
48
49 603 County.

50
51
52 604 These observations allow only a sketchy reconstruction of the history of the Bangong-Nujiang
53
54 605 Ocean. Radiolarian biostratigraphy coupled with Re-Os isochron ages of mafic rocks testify to active
55
56 606 sea-floor spreading in the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean during much of the Triassic (since 245 Ma at least).
57
58 607 Abundant ages indicate extensive formation of oceanic crust through the Early and Middle Jurassic,
59
60 608 when deep-water sedimentation was widespread within the BNS. Early Cretaceous ages suggest that

609 oceanic crust may have continued to form until as late as 133 Ma, representing the youngest age
610 reported from BNS ophiolites.

611 **8. Magmatic rocks in the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone and** 612 **adjacent areas**

613 Mesozoic magmatism is widely testified in South Qiangtang, BNS, and Lhasa Block (Figs. 1b and
614 8). Here we summarize the distribution of igneous rocks between South Qiangtang and Central Lhasa,
615 and emphasize the limited areal extent but notable variability along strike of South Qiangtang magmatic
616 rocks (Table S3; Figs. 1b and 8). Such features are unlike those of large-scale magmatic arcs, such as
617 the Gangdese-Ladakh Transhimalayan Arc or the Andean Cordillera.

618 **8.1 South Qiangtang**

619 Igneous rocks in South Qiangtang include Early Permian and Middle Triassic mafic dikes, minor
620 Late Triassic volcanic rocks, Jurassic intermediate- felsic intrusive rocks, and Early Cretaceous and
621 minor Late Cretaceous intrusive and volcanic rocks.

622 The E/W trending mafic dike swarms exposed in western South Qiangtang were dated formerly as
623 ~320-280 Ma by LA-ICP-MS U–Pb on zircon (Zhai et al., 2013a; Wang et al., 2019) and more recently
624 as 291–283 Ma with peaks at ~290 Ma and ~285 Ma by SIMS and SHRIMP U–Pb on zircon (Dan et al.,
625 2021a). The ~290 Ma rocks are low-Ti tholeiitic basalts with minor high-Ti alkaline basalts, whereas the
626 widespread ~285 Ma rocks are mostly low-Ti tholeiitic basalts (Wang et al., 2019; Dan et al., 2021a).
627 Based on age, spatial distribution and petrogenesis, these rocks are considered to represent part of the
628 Qiangtang-Panjial Large Igneous Province (Dan et al., 2021a), which is linked to initial rifting of South
629 Qiangtang and possibly of the Lhasa Block from India (Sciunnach and Garzanti, 2012).

630 Mafic dike swarms exposed near the Longmuco-Shuanghu suture zone yielded Middle/Late
631 Triassic U–Pb zircon ages between 247 and 232 Ma (average 239 Ma; Dan et al., 2021b) and were thus
632 distinguished from Early Permian dikes as previously mapped. These tholeiitic basalts display
633 enrichment in light rare earth elements (LREE), moderate depletion in Nb and Ta, and evolved isotopic
634 signatures, and were considered to document the magmatic response to collision between South and

635 North Qiangtang along the Longmucuo-Shuanghu suture zone (Dan et al., 2021b).

636 Upper Triassic intrusive and volcanic rocks of the Nadigangri Formation are exposed in central
637 Qiangtang (Wu et al., 2015), yielding U–Pb zircon ages between 222 and 201 Ma (Li, 2019). Intrusive
638 rocks are mainly I-type and S-type granites (Li et al., 2015a), whereas volcanic rocks range from
639 andesite to rhyolite with minor OIB-type basalt and adakite (Fu et al., 2010a, b; Zhai et al., 2013; Li et
640 al., 2015a; Wu et al., 2015; Li, 2019). Their geodynamic significance remains controversial, and both
641 subduction- or collision-related (Zhai and Li, 2007; Zhai et al., 2013) and rift settings (Fu et al., 2010b)
642 have been proposed.

643 Middle-Late Jurassic granites with minor diorite and andesite-rhyolite are exposed for ~500 km
644 from east to west along the southwestern margin of South Qiangtang (Fig. 8). Three magmatic stages
645 were identified (Li et al., 2020), and all are widely attributed to northward subduction of the Bangong-
646 Nujiang oceanic lithosphere. Stage 1 is represented by plutonic rocks exposed at Larelaxin near Rutog
647 (168–161 Ma; Li et al., 2014b), and in the Duobuzha, Qingcaoshan, and Liqunshan areas (170–154 Ma;
648 Li et al., 2014a; Zhang et al., 2017b). These high-K calc-alkaline and highly fractionated I-type granites
649 with associated high-alumina basaltic dikes and mafic enclaves were interpreted to indicate melting,
650 assimilation, storage, and homogenization above a subduction zone.

651 Stage 2 is represented by medium-K adakitic dacites exposed in the Gaize-Rena Tso (~160–154
652 Ma; Fan et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016a) and Kangqiong areas (~148 Ma; Li et al., 2016b), and by OIB-
653 type basalts near Gaize (~158 Ma; Li et al., 2016a). The adakites display high Sr/Y, low Y, high MgO
654 and Mg#, small negative to positive $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$, and positive zircon $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$, indicating an oceanic-crust (Li et
655 al., 2016a) or eroded arc-crust origin (Yang et al., 2021). The OIB-type rocks are enriched in LREE and
656 Nb-Ta and have positive $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$, suggesting a sub-slab asthenospheric source (Li et al., 2016a).

657 Stage 3 is represented by adakitic diorites and granodiorites (~153–148 Ma) exposed in the Gaize-
658 Rena Tso area. These intrusive rocks belong to the high-K series (Hao et al., 2016a) and have high Sr/Y
659 and La/Yb, and negative $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ and zircon $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values similar as high-K I-type granites of Stage 1.
660 They are thus inferred to indicate crustal thickening (Hao et al., 2016a).

661 Early Cretaceous (123–106 Ma) magmatic rocks widely exposed in the Rutog-Gaize areas of South
662 Qiangtang (J.X. Li et al., 2014a; Hao et al., 2016b; Liu et al., 2017b; Fig. 8) include the Xiabie batholith

663 in central South Qiangtang (Yang et al., 2018), and are best studied around Duolong in South Qiangtang
664 where Cu–Au porphyry ores occur (Li et al., 2016a). These rocks are mainly high-K calc-alkaline
665 diorite and granite dated between ~125 and ~100 Ma (Li et al., 2018), inferred to have been generated
666 during collision between the Lhasa and Qiangtang Blocks (Zhu et al., 2016). The widespread
667 distribution of Lower Cretaceous continental red beds and Upper Jurassic shallow-marine deposits in
668 the BNS (see Section 5) indicates that these Early Cretaceous magmatic rocks cannot be the product of
669 northward subduction of Bangong-Nujiang lithosphere (as suggested by J.X. Li et al., 2014a).

670 Volumetrically minor Late Cretaceous magmatic rocks include the Mg-rich Biluoco andesite (~95
671 Ma; He et al., 2018), the high-silica, I-type Amdo granite (~80 Ma; He et al., 2019), the K-rich Amdo
672 alkaline andesite (~80 Ma; Chen et al., 2017), and the Abushan trachyandesite (80–76 Ma; Li et al.,
673 2013). Most of these rocks belong to the alkaline series and are interpreted as products of lithospheric
674 thickening and foundering after the Lhasa-Qiangtang collision.

675 **8.2 Bangong-Nujiang suture zone**

676 Intermediate- felsic intrusive rocks of Early Jurassic age (~194–173 Ma) are exposed in the Amdo
677 microcontinent (Zhu et al., 2011; Liu, 2012; Yan et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017a) and can be subdivided
678 into two phases based on rock type and composition. The early phase (~194–180 Ma) is represented by
679 diorite, granodiorite, monzogranite, and syenogranite belonging to the calc-alkaline series and ranging
680 from medium-K to shoshonitic (Liu, 2012). The late phase is represented by calc-alkaline gabbro,
681 diorite, granodiorite, alkaline monzodiorite, monzonite, and syenite. These rocks were generally
682 interpreted as related to subduction of Bangong-Nujiang lithosphere and assembly of the Amdo
683 microcontinent to South Qiangtang, but the geodynamic process remains controversial.

684 In the Middle-Late Jurassic (166–160 Ma) (Fig. 8), magmatism mainly developed in the
685 Dongkacuo microcontinent in the eastern part of the BNS (Li et al., 2015c; Zeng et al., 2016b; Li,
686 2019a; Li et al., 2020c) and in the Shiquanhe area in the western part of the BNS (Liu et al., 2018).
687 These Mg-rich andesites and rhyolites are interpreted as products of partial melting of the mantle wedge
688 modified by sediment-derived melt and are hypothesized to indicate either an initial subduction event
689 during the long-term evolution of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean (Zeng et al., 2016b) or an oceanic ridge-

690 trench collision (Li et al., 2020c).

691 Early Cretaceous (118-110 Ma) magmatism (Fig. 8), widely documented in the BNS by
692 intermediate- felsic rocks with minor OIB-type alkaline basalt and gabbro (Zhu et al., 2016), may
693 represent syncollisional magmatism in the BNS.

694 **8.3 Central and North Lhasa**

695 Early Cretaceous magmatism is much more extensively documented in North Lhasa than in South
696 Qiangtang or BNS, as testified by the Baingoin batholith in the east and by basalts and andesites of the
697 Qushenla Formation in central and western regions. The Baingoin batholith (139–105 Ma; Zhu et al.,
698 2016) consists of calc-alkaline metaluminous to strongly peraluminous granite. Zircon crystals dated
699 between 139 and 125 Ma yield mostly positive $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values (−1.9 to +11.0), whereas zircon crystals
700 dated between 125 and 110 Ma yield negative $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values (−7.0 to −2.1), features interpreted as the
701 result of hypothetical slab rollback and break-off (Zhu et al., 2016). The Qushenla Formation volcanic
702 rocks (Li et al., 2018) document two stages: Stage 1 (131–116 Ma) is characterized by medium-K calc-
703 alkaline basalt and andesite, whereas Stage 2 (116–105 Ma) is characterized by high-K basalt and
704 andesite, suggesting a lower degree of partial melting possibly in an extensional setting. A bimodal
705 volcanic suite dated at ~110 Ma near Yanhu (Sui et al., 2013), and a belt of A-type granite and rhyolite
706 exposed from Rutog and Gaize in the west, across the northern Xainza region, and to the Baingoin areas
707 in the east, were also related to an extensional setting (Qu et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2020c).

708 Middle-Late Jurassic to Early Cretaceous rocks with typical magmatic-arc signatures are
709 widespread in Central and North Lhasa (Li et al., 2018), and especially extensive in the western part.
710 Whether these calc-alkaline rocks are related to northward subduction of Neo-Tethyan lithosphere or to
711 southward subduction of the Bangong-Nujiang lithosphere remains highly controversial (e.g., Zhu et al.,
712 2013; Cao et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018).

713 **9. Metamorphic rocks in the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone**

714 In the BNS, only a few metamorphic rocks are exposed in the Dongcuo, Amdo, and Basu areas (Li
715 et al., 2017a). In the Dongcuo-Gaize area, high-pressure rocks within ophiolitic mélangé include

1 716 eclogite, granulite, amphibolite, greenschist, metadiorite, and metasedimentary rocks (e.g., Wang et al.,
2 717 2008; Wang et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2016; Zhang et al. al., 2017b). Amphibolites were dated by
3
4 718 $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ as ca. 177-170 Ma (Wang et al., 2008). The lenticular, laminar or massive granulites
5
6 719 associated with plagioclase amphibolite and metagabbro in the Shemala valley to the northwest of
7
8 720 Dongcuo yielded U–Pb zircon ages of 254 ± 2 Ma and 176.9 ± 2.7 Ma, interpreted as the formation age
9
10 721 of the basaltic protolith and of high-pressure metamorphism, respectively (Wang et al., 2015; Zhang et
11
12 722 al., 2017a). The Dongcuo eclogites in the Shemala valley are divided into two types (Dong et al., 2016;
13
14 723 Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017a). The first eclogite type, containing a peak-metamorphic
15
16 724 paragenesis including garnet and monazite, was dated as ~ 260 Ma and considered to represent a mid-
17
18 725 ocean ridge basaltic protolith. The second type, including garnet, monazite, and rutile, was dated as 242
19
20 726 Ma and considered to represent an OIB-type protolith (Zhang et al., 2016). SIM zircon ages from these
21
22 727 eclogites indicate a protolith age of 250.7 ± 3.7 Ma (Zhang et al., 2017a). Minerals from the
23
24 728 metamorphic aureole, instead, yielded a SIM zircon age of 176.9 ± 2.7 (Zhang et al., 2017a) and a U–Pb
25
26 729 rutile age of 166.7 ± 3.9 Ma (Zhang et al., 2017a), suggesting garnet growth at ~ 177 Ma during peak
27
28 730 metamorphism ($T = 610\text{-}630^\circ\text{C}$, $P = 2.4\text{-}2.6$ GPa) followed by retrometamorphic rutile growth at ~ 167
29
30 731 Ma (Zhang et al., 2017a). The reconstructed P-T-t path points at subduction to a depth ≥ 85 km (Zhang
31
32 732 et al., 2016).

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34
35
36 733 The 8-m-thick metamorphic sole in amphibolite to greenschist facies found at the base of the
37
38 734 Dongqiao ophiolite (Zhou et al., 1997) yielded Ar-Ar hornblende ages of 175-180 Ma. This age
39
40 735 constrains the timing of obduction onset, whereas the Oxfordian-Kimmeridgian age of the Dongqiao
41
42 736 Formation stratigraphically overlying the ophiolite indicates that ophiolite obduction terminated by
43
44 737 ~ 163 Ma (Ma et al., 2020a).

45
46
47 738 Metamorphic rocks, mainly including orthogneiss, amphibolite, and minor paragneiss, marble, and
48
49 739 quartzite, are common in the Amdo microcontinent, where they were intruded by two generations of
50
51 740 granite yielding Early/Middle Jurassic (185-170) and Early Cretaceous ages (~ 112 Ma) (Gyynn et al.,
52
53 741 2006). The granitic protoliths of Amdo orthogneisses were formed in two episodes, between 915 and
54
55 742 840 Ma and between 530 and 470 Ma (Gyynn et al., 2012). The age spectra of detrital zircons from the
56
57 743 other metamorphic rocks are similar as those in Paleozoic strata of South Qiangtang. Although earlier
58
59 744 studies associated metamorphism with Cambrian magmatic intrusion (Xu et al., 1985; Coward et al.,

1 745 1988), modern studies demonstrated that peak metamorphism of Amdo metamorphic rocks took place in
2 746 the latest Early Jurassic (~178 Ma; Guynn et al., 2006, 2013). Zircons with positive Eu anomalies from
3
4 747 gneisses yielded older Early Jurassic U–Pb ages (~191 Ma), interpreted as peak metamorphic ages,
5
6 748 whereas zircons with negative Eu anomalies yielded U–Pb ages of ~181 Ma, interpreted as retrograde
7
8 749 metamorphic ages (Zhang et al., 2014).

10
11 750 This complex magmatic and metamorphic record indicates that the Amdo microcontinent was
12
13 751 originally part of Pan-African Gondwana in the Paleozoic but was already a detached independent
14
15 752 microcontinent situated between the South Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks and surrounded by oceanic
16
17 753 branches during the Triassic. Mostly high K and high Ca type-I alkaline granites were generated
18
19 754 between ca. 185 and 170 Ma during subduction of the Beila-Nagqu Ocean along the southern side of the
20
21 755 Amdo microcontinent (Liu et al., 2017), which was also responsible for subduction-related high-
22
23 756 pressure metamorphism.

27 757 **10. Paleomagnetic constraints on the evolution of the Bangong-** 28 29 758 **Nujiang Ocean**

31
32 759 Paleomagnetic data can provide quantitative constraints on the relative position and motion of
33
34 760 microcontinents on both sides of the BNS from the Permian to the Cretaceous and consequently
35
36 761 important information on the opening, evolution, and closure of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean.
37
38 762 Notwithstanding numerous paleolatitude data have been provided (Table S6), large uncertainties remain
39
40 763 in the paleopositions of the South Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks. As done above for geochronological
41
42 764 data, we chose to select and consider only the most reliable paleomagnetic pieces of information based
43
44 765 on criteria proposed by Meert et al. (2020) and using only data with R-value ≥ 5 .

46
47 766 Because various regions of the central Tibetan Plateau have undergone rotation and strike-slip
48
49 767 faulting following the middle Paleocene India-Asia collision (Lippert et al., 2011; Tong et al., 2015,
50
51 768 2017; Yang et al., 2015; Cao et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2017b; Meng et al., 2018),
52
53 769 paleomagnetic data from the South Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks cannot be used directly to constrain the
54
55 770 paleolatitudes of other areas. Based on a statistical comparison of data from the central and western
56
57 771 parts of the South Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks, the paleolatitude of the two blocks was calculated using
58
59 772 as reference points 32.5°N/83°E for the western part of the BNS and 32.5°N/92°E for the central part of

1 773 the BNS (Fig. 9).

2
3 774 Selected paleomagnetic data from the central part of South Qiangtang indicate paleolatitudes of
4
5 775 $12.0 \pm 10.6^\circ\text{S}$ during the Early Triassic (Zhou et al., 2019), of $28.2 \pm 3.7^\circ\text{N}$ during the Late Triassic
6
7 776 (Song et al., 2012), of $32.8 \pm 4.1^\circ\text{N}$ during the Middle Jurassic (Cao et al., 2019), and of $23.1 \pm 3.9^\circ\text{N}$
8
9 777 during the Late Cretaceous (Meng et al., 2018). Paleomagnetic data from the western part of South
10
11 778 Qiangtang indicate paleolatitudes of $27.0 \pm 5.0^\circ\text{N}$ at ~120-115 Ma (Cao et al., 2020), of $24.5 \pm 5.1^\circ\text{N}$ at
12
13 779 ~110-100 Ma (Chen et al., 2017), and of $19.4 \pm 3.5^\circ\text{N}$ during the Late Cretaceous (Chen et al., 2017).
14
15 780 These data imply that South Qiangtang was situated at subequatorial latitudes in the Southern
16
17 781 Hemisphere during the Early Triassic and moved rapidly northwards across the Equator for over 4000
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19 782 km in the Middle Triassic to reach subtropical latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere in the Late Triassic
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21 783 (Fig. 9a).

22
23
24 784 Paleomagnetic data from the central part of the Lhasa Block indicate paleolatitudes of $14.0 \pm 9.8^\circ\text{S}$
25
26 785 in the Early Permian (Ran et al., 2012), of $0.9 \pm 2.4^\circ\text{S}$ at ~180 Ma (ZY Li et al., 2016c), of $9.6 \pm 8.1^\circ\text{N}$
27
28 786 at ~120 Ma (Li et al., 2017d), of $16.4 \pm 8.0^\circ\text{N}$ at ~114 Ma (Sun et al., 2008), and of $15.5 \pm 3.3^\circ\text{N}$ in the
29
30 787 Late Cretaceous (Achache et al., 1984; Tan et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2012; Cao et al., 2017).
31
32 788 Paleomagnetic data from the western part of the Lhasa Block indicate paleolatitudes of $16.7 \pm 4.7^\circ\text{S}$ in
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34 789 the Early-Middle Triassic (Zhou et al., 2016), of $18.5 \pm 12.4^\circ\text{S}$ in the Late Triassic (Zhou et al., 2016),
35
36 790 of $20.6 \pm 5.0^\circ\text{N}$ at ~132-106 Ma (Chen et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2015; Bian et al., 2017;
37
38 791 Wang et al., 2021), and of $16.7 \pm 3.0^\circ\text{N}$ in the Late Cretaceous (Tang et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2015; Yi
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40 792 et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2017b; Ma et al., 2019; Bian et al., 2020). These data imply that the Lhasa Block
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42 793 remained at subequatorial latitudes in the Southern Hemisphere from Permian to Triassic times, moving
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44 794 rapidly northwards away from Gondwana and across the Equator during the Jurassic to reach a
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46 795 paleolatitude of $10\text{-}20^\circ\text{N}$ in the Cretaceous (Fig. 9).

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48
49 796 The Bangong-Nujiang Ocean, therefore, continued to expand during the Triassic north of the
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51 797 relative fixed Lhasa Block while South Qiangtang was rapidly moving northwards, reaching a
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53 798 maximum width of 4800 ± 900 km by the Late Triassic. After the Triassic, the Lhasa Block started to
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55 799 move rapidly northward towards South Qiangtang, while the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean was being
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57 800 consumed. The paleolatitudes of South Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks overlap at ~120-110 Ma and are
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59 801 undistinguished since then, indicating that no Bangong-Nujiang Ocean existed after the late Early
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1 802 Cretaceous.
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3 **803 11. Microcontinents and seamounts within the Bangong-Nujiang**
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5 **804 suture zone**
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10 **805 11.1 Microcontinents**
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13 The terms “terrane”, “block” or “microcontinent” are generally used rather loosely in the scientific
14 806 literature to designate an independent geological entity containing arc and/or continental crust that
15 807
16 808 testifies to an evolution distinct from neighboring arc or continental domains. The Amdo microcontinent
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18 809 is composed of a varied rock assemblage including gneiss, schist, quartzite, dacite, and igneous rocks of
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20 810 Jurassic–Cretaceous age, bounded by suture zones to the north and south (Bai et al., 2005; Sun et al.,
21
22 811 2011; Guynn et al., 2006). Considering affinities of detrital-zircon U–Pb age spectra with South
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24 812 Qiangtang (Guynn et al., 2013), the Amdo microcontinent was envisaged as rifted originally from South
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26 813 Qiangtang, then collisionally assembled to South Qiangtang, and eventually collided with the Lhasa
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28 814 Block together with South Qiangtang (Guynn et al., 2006; Guynn et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2013; Zhang et
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30 815 al., 2014b; Chen et al., 2015). Virtually identical Early Jurassic zircon ages were obtained from
31
32 816 ophiolite-like sequences in both suture zones delimiting the Amdo microcontinent: 184 ± 2 Ma in the
33
34 817 northern Dongqiao–Amdo suture (Wang et al., 2016), and 184 ± 1 Ma in the southern Nagqu (or
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36 818 Yilashan) suture (Huang et al., 2013). Guynn et al. (2006, 2013) suggested that granitoid intrusions in
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38 819 the Amdo microcontinent were generated by northward subduction of the Early–Middle Jurassic Beila-
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40 820 Nagqu Ocean. Based on Early Jurassic zircon ages from ophiolitic sequences, other researchers
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42 821 suggested instead that Jurassic oceanic crust newly formed in a back-arc basin between South
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44 822 Qiangtang and the Amdo microcontinent during northward subduction in the south, and that this back-
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46 823 arc basin closed in the Middle Jurassic (Kapp and DeCelles et al, 2019). Nearly 500 km along strike to
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48 824 the southeast of Amdo, the Tongka microcontinent is bounded by ophiolites on both sides and contains
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50 825 rock assemblages similar to those in the Amdo microcontinent. Basement rocks with crystallization ages
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52 826 of 500–492 Ma, were intruded by 186–174 Ma granitoid rocks and display metamorphic overprint at
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54 827 ~173 Ma (Li et al., 2017a).
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1 828 A Dongkacuo microcontinent was also identified to the west of the Amdo microcontinent in the
2 829 Dongqiao-Beila area, mainly based on the occurrence of two ophiolite belts occurring to the north
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4 830 (Dongqiao ophiolite) and to the south (Beila-Nagqu ophiolite), with other ophiolite slivers exposed in-
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6 831 between (Chen et al., 2002; Zeng et al., 2016b). The pioneering Sino-French study (Girardeau et al.,
7
8 832 1984) suggested that all oceanic rocks between Dongqiao and Beila were nappes generated by
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10 833 southward thrusting from a single suture zone in the north, the southern Beila ophiolite being thus
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12 834 considered as allochthonous. The Dongqiao ophiolite in the north, however, appears to be older than the
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14 835 Beila ophiolite in the south (Table S4), and Paleozoic strata sandwiched between these two ophiolites
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16 836 show a stratigraphy similar as that of the Lhasa Block (Chen et al., 2002), suggesting that arc or
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18 837 continental basement may be present underneath. Considering that stratigraphic and paleontological
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20 838 similarities with North Lhasa during the Palaeozoic (Chen et al., 2002), the Dongkacuo microcontinent
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22 839 was generally considered as originally attached to North Lhasa and subsequently rifted northward
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24 840 possibly during the Triassic. Between 166 and 160 Ma, the Dongkacuo microcontinent collided with
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26 841 South Qiangtang, was overthrust by the Dongqiao ophiolite while northward subduction of the Beila-
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28 842 Nagqu oceanic branch was active along its south side (Li et al., 2015c; Zeng et al., 2016b; Li, 2019a; Li
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30 843 et al., 2020c).

34 844 **11.2 Seamounts**

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38 845 Pillow basalts with alkaline intraplate geochemical signature associated with chert and limestone
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40 846 occur widely along the BNS and are commonly interpreted as seamounts (Zhu D.C. et al., 2006; Fan et
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42 847 al., 2014, 2021a; Wang et al., 2016) or oceanic plateaus within the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean (Zhang et
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44 848 al., 2014a; Zeng et al., 2021). These seamounts formed at different times. Around Gaize, one Middle
45
46 849 Triassic, one Upper Triassic, and one Middle Jurassic seamount have been identified, together with
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48 850 OIB-type mafic rocks of Triassic to Middle Jurassic age (Table S4). The Middle Triassic seamount to
49
50 851 the east of Gaize, termed Nare Island, includes phonolites yielding zircons with U–Pb ages of 242 and
51
52 852 239 Ma (Fan et al., 2017a). The Upper Triassic seamount in the northern part of the Gaize area, termed
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54 853 Gufeng Island, consists of basaltic basement of both MORB and OIB type, overlain by chert and
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56 854 limestone yielding conodonts of Norian (Late Triassic) age (Fan et al., 2017a). The Middle Jurassic
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58 855 seamount in the eastern part of Gaize, termed Nadong Island and lying in contact with the Mugagangri
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1 856 Complex, contains gabbro, basalt, tuff, conglomerate, and carbonate layers yielding the coral
2 857 *Cladophyllia* sp. (Xu et al., 2014; Fan et al., 2014).
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5 858 Rock assemblages interpreted as remnants of Cretaceous oceanic islands are common in the BNS,
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7 859 with geochronological evidence (U–Pb zircon and whole-rock or single-mineral ^{40}Ar - ^{39}Ar ages)
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9 860 indicating that OIB basalts formed between ~141 and 108 Ma (Zhu et al., 2006; Bao et al., 2007; Fan et
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11 861 al., 2014). Because of the low closure temperature of the ^{40}Ar - ^{39}Ar system and widespread Early
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13 862 Cretaceous magmatism in North Lhasa, BNS, and South Qiangtang (Zhu et al., 2016), however, these
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15 863 Ar-Ar ages may have been reset. Even several U–Pb zircon ages failed to meet the requirements for
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17 864 reliability defined in Section 6. The most reliable ages from the Zhonggang and Zhongchang OIB rocks
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19 865 cluster between 141 and 135 Ma, but it is unclear whether these lavas were generated in oceanic or
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21 866 continental settings (Zhu et al., 2016).
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24 867 Some criteria were proposed for the identification of intraplate oceanic islands (Fan et al., 2021a,
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26 868 c): (i) stratigraphy including basaltic basement and sedimentary cover; (ii) presence of debris-flow
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28 869 “collapse” conglomerates; (iii) lack of terrigenous contamination in limestone and other sedimentary
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30 870 and volcanoclastic rocks; (iv) OIB-type basaltic geochemistry; and (v) “blocks -in-matrix” facies.
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32 871 Although our field observations indicate that all these criteria are met for the Zhonggang Island, it must
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34 872 still be determined whether Zhonggang rocks truly document an oceanic seamount or were formed in a
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36 873 continental setting.
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40 874 **12. The opening of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean**

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43 875 Major issues concerning the initial history of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean remain unclear and
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45 876 controversial. When did break-up occur and sea-floor spreading began? There is general agreement that
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47 877 South Qiangtang lay to the north of this ocean, but what continental block lay to the south of it? One
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49 878 view, supported by Sino-French, Sino-British, and Sino-US research cooperation (Allègre et al., 1984;
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51 879 Yin and Harrison, 2000; Gehrels et al., 2011; Ali et al., 2013) is that South Qiangtang and Lhasa were
52
53 880 both originally attached to the northern margin of India before South Qiangtang separated from the
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55 881 Lhasa Block (Fan et al., 2017b; Zeng et al., 2019). Another view is that South Qiangtang rifted away
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57 882 directly from India, while the Lhasa block was attached to the northern margin of Australia to the east of
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59 883 South Qiangtang (Zhu et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2021) or perhaps between the northwestern corner of
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1 884 India and Arabia to the west of South Qiangtang (e.g., Zhang et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2018). This latter
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3 885 view was based on zircon affinity of Upper Paleozoic sandstones and diamictites (Zhu et al., 2011;
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5 886 Wang et al., 2021). Although conclusive evidence is wanting, we favor the first viewpoint for the
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7 887 following reasons: (1) the Carboniferous-Lower Permian stratigraphy and fossil assemblages in the
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9 888 Lhasa Block and South Qiangtang are very similar (Smith and Xu, 1988; Sun, 1993; Zhang et al.,
10
11 889 2019); (2) the Qiangtang-Panjal Large Igneous Province (290-285 Ma) extended from the northern
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13 890 margin of South Qiangtang (Zhai et al., 2013; Dan et al., 2021a) to the Tethys Himalaya (Garzanti et al.,
14
15 891 1999), indicating that South Qiangtang, Lhasa, and India were all still part of Gondwana in the Early
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17 892 Permian; (3) Middle Permian (~262 Ma) amphibole-rich, mantle-derived Yawa basalts in the Lhasa
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19 893 Block further support Permian rifting (Zeng et al., 2019); (4) age spectra of detrital zircons contained in
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21 894 Paleozoic to Triassic sandstones of the Lhasa Block (Xainza area) bear strong similarities with both
22
23 895 South Qiangtang and the Tethys Himalaya but are sharply distinct from those in coeval sandstones from
24
25 896 the northern margin of Australia (Fan et al., 2017b).

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28 897 Regarding the timing of rifting and onset of sea-floor spreading in the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean, the
29
30 898 available stratigraphic, paleontological, and geochronological evidence indicates that the Bangong-
31
32 899 Nujiang Ocean existed between South Qiangtang and Lhasa at least since the Early Triassic (250-240 Ma)
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34 900 (Fig. 10). This is based on: (1) radiolarian cherts overlying oceanic crust dated as Anisian to Carnian
35
36 901 (Wang et al., 2002), fixing a minimum age limit for generation of oceanic crust; (2) geochronological data
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38 902 on ophiolites including Re-Os isotope ages confirm that sea-floor spreading was ongoing since the earliest
39
40 903 Triassic at least (260-220 Ma); (3) paleomagnetic data indicate that the Lhasa and Qiangtang blocks were
41
42 904 still attached at Early Permian times, whereas a significant paleolatitude difference became manifest after
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44 905 the Middle Permian (Fig. 8). This is independently supported by the Qiangtang-Panjal large igneous
45
46 906 province (290-285 Ma) extending from the northern margin of South Qiangtang (Zhai et al., 2013; Dan
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48 907 et al., 2021a) to India (Garzanti et al., 1999); (4) in the western part of South Qiangtang, the Lower
49
50 908 Permian Tunlong Gongba Formation is unconformably overlain by the Upper Permian Jipu Ri'a
51
52 909 Formation, and the Middle Permian is missing (Zhang et al., 2019). Such a stratigraphic change marked
53
54 910 by a prolonged hiatus was interpreted as the result of continental rifting; (5) provenance analysis indicates
55
56 911 that the Jipu Ri'a Formation contains basaltic and tuffaceous clasts and numerous Phanerozoic and ~260
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58 912 Ma zircons, whereas the underlying passive-margin sandstones in the Lower Permian Tunlong Gongba
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1 913 Formation contain mainly older zircon grains (Fan et al., 2021b); (6) both Middle Permian
2 914 *Eopolydiexodina*-like and Late Permian warm-water *Palaeofusulina*-like faunas of South Qiangtang are
3
4 915 significantly different from coeval assemblages in the Lhasa Block (Zhang et al., 2019).
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6

7 916 These pieces of evidence combined indicate that the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean opened during the
8
9 917 Permian. Early Permian rifting and break-up associated with massive outburst of Panjal-Qiangtang
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11 918 lavas was followed by a phase of slow (Red Sea and Gulf of Aden type) spreading in the Middle and
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13 919 Late Permian, and eventually by rapid sea-floor spreading in the Triassic.
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16 920 **13. Polarity of Bangong-Nujiang Ocean subduction**

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19 921 The subduction polarity of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean has been the object of hot debate,
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21 922 especially concerning the existence of southward subduction (Hao et al., 2016b; Zhu et al., 2016; Li et
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23 923 al., 2018; Kapp and DeCelles, 2019). In our preferred scenario, subduction occurred in one stage: early
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25 924 oceanic northward subduction (~190-140 Ma) followed by continental collision neither northwards
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27 925 beneath South Qiangtang nor southwards beneath North Lhasa during the Early Cretaceous (~140-120
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29 926 Ma) (Fig. 10).
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33 927 **13.1 Jurassic northward subduction**

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37 928 In the western segment of the BNS (Gaize area), geochronological data indicate that the oceanic-
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39 929 crust protoliths of eclogitic rocks with MORB and OIB characteristics were generated by sea-floor
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41 930 spreading at ~250 Ma and underwent subduction-related high-pressure metamorphism at ~177 Ma
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43 931 (Zhang et al., 2017a). This evidence of northward subduction of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean is
44
45 932 consistent with the presence of arc magmatism north of the Gaize-Rutog area between 170 and 148 Ma.
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47 933 During this period, numerous U–Pb zircon ages clustering between 170 and 160 Ma obtained from
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49 934 diabase and gabbro exposed in the Gaize-Rutog area indicate a period of extensive formation of oceanic
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51 935 crust. These ophiolitic rocks mainly display supra-subduction-zone (SSZ) geochemical features (Fig. 7),
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53 936 indicating that they are part of either forearc or back-arc ophiolitic sequences. All pieces of evidence
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55 937 combined indicate that northward subduction of Bangong-Nujiang oceanic lithosphere occurred in the
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57 938 western segment of the Rutog- Gaize area between the latest Early Jurassic and the close of the Jurassic
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59 939 (177-148 Ma).
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1 940 The widespread Mugangri Complex in the BNS was fed from South Qiangtang in the north and
2 941 contains youngest detrital zircons of mostly Middle Jurassic ages, suggesting that the Mugangri
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4 942 Complex is part of the accretionary complex grown during northward subduction of the Bangong-
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6 943 Nujiang Ocean (Zeng et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017b, 2019b; Sun et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2020a).

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9 944 In the central segment of the BNS (Nima-Nagqu area), Jurassic arc magmatism is documented only
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11 945 sparsely. In the Amdo region, arc magmatism was dated as between 185 and 170 Ma, and subduction-
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13 946 related high-pressure metamorphism as between ~191 and 178 Ma (Guynn et al., 2006, 2013; Zhang et
14
15 947 al., 2014b). In the southwestern Jiangcuo region, and locally farther to the west (Fig. 1b), arc-related
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17 948 rocks were dated as between 166 and 160 Ma, suggesting that oceanic subduction and arc magmatism
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19 949 may have taken place earlier in the east and later in the west and south. Northward subduction of the
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21 950 Bangong-Nujiang oceanic lithosphere occurred between the Early Jurassic and the earliest Late Jurassic
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23 951 (191-160 Ma) in the Nima-Nagqu area, and thus started 14 Ma earlier and ended 12 Ma earlier than in
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25 952 the Rutog-Gaize area to the west.

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28 953 Arc magmatism along the southern margin of South Qiangtang is also testified by detrital zircons
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30 954 contained in Jurassic sandstones of the South Qiangtang Basin and BNS (i.e., Sewa Formation and
31
32 955 Group 1 sandstones of the Mugangri Complex; n = 132), yielding U–Pb ages between 193 and 162
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34 956 Ma (Fig. 11). It is noteworthy that shallow-marine and deep-water Jurassic sedimentary facies in South
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36 957 Qiangtang and the BNS appear as more characteristic of a stable continental margin rather than of a
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38 958 forearc basin (Ma et al., 2020b), mainly because of limited magmatism associated with the Jurassic
39
40 959 oceanic subduction.

44 960 **13.2 Is there Early Cretaceous subduction: northward, southward,** 45 46 47 961 **double-side or none?**

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51 962 The available data from North Lhasa do not support the existence of southward subduction of the
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53 963 Bangong-Nujiang Ocean during the Triassic-Jurassic. The Gaga mélange in the Nagqu area, suggested
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55 964 by provenance analysis to have been fed from the Lhasa Block, may represent the remnants of an
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57 965 accretionary wedge grown during southward subduction of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean beneath the
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59 966 Lhasa Block (Lai et al., 2017). The depositional age of the Gaga mélange, however, is poorly

1 967 constrained, and this unit may not be distinct from the Mugangri Complex, as suggested by
2 968 compositional, provenance, and structural similarities.

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5 969 Based on magmatic, metamorphic, and stratigraphic data from the BNS, Qiangtang, and Lhasa
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7 970 domains, [Zhu et al. \(2009, 2016\)](#) documented the existence of the Caima-Duobuza-Rongma-
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9 971 Kangqiong-Amdo magmatic arc in western Qiangtang and of the Alongcuo-Yanhu-Daguo-Baingoin
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11 972 magmatic belt in North Lhasa, both active between 140 and 120 Ma and characterized by subduction-
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13 973 related geochemical features. Although the Alongcuo-Yanhu-Daguo-Baingoin magmatic belt may be
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15 974 explained by northward subduction of Neo-Tethyan lithosphere (e.g., [Zhang et al., 2012](#)), Zhu et al.
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17 975 (2009) and Li et al. (2018) considered that southward subduction of Bangong-Nujiang lithosphere better
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19 976 explains the spatial and temporal distribution of magmatic rocks in Central and North Lhasa. Double-
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21 977 sided subduction of Bangong-Nujiang Ocean lithosphere was thus proposed and envisaged to have been
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23 978 followed by slab break-off at 120-110 Ma based on geochemical characteristics of the Lower
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25 979 Cretaceous Qushenla Formation ([Zhu et al., 2016](#)). Further information is offered by the Zenong Group,
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27 980 which unconformably overlies Permian limestones documenting the onset of a new tectono-magmatic
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29 981 regime in Central and North Lhasa. These volcanic rocks, loosely constrained as Early Cretaceous in
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31 982 age (140-110 Ma), display enrichment in LREE and large ionic lithophile elements (LILE) such as Rb
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33 983 and Ba, and depletion in high field strength elements (HFSE) such as Nb, Ta and Ti, indicating a
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35 984 subduction-related arc origin. Negative zircon $\epsilon\text{Hf}(t)$ values (from -12.0 to -1.6) and $\epsilon\text{Nd}(t)$ values (from
36
37 985 -10.6 to -7.1) suggest that the magma originated from melting of Palaeoproterozoic-Mesoproterozoic
38
39 986 Lhasa basement with addition of mantle components. Southward subduction of Bangong-Nujiang
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41 987 oceanic lithosphere was thus indicated as the most plausible cause for Zenong Group magmatism (Zhu
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43 988 et al., 2009), although low-angle northward subduction of Neo-Tethyan lithosphere cannot be ruled out
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45 989 (Coulon et al., 1986; Kapp et al., 2005).

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49 990 It must be pointed out that Early Cretaceous southward subduction of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean
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51 991 was mainly proposed based on petrological and geochemical studies of both Zenong volcanic rocks in
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53 992 Central Lhasa and Alongcuo-Yanhu-Daguo-Baingoin magmatic rocks in North Lhasa (Zhu et al., 2009,
54
55 993 2016; Li et al., 2018). Other supporting pieces of evidence are however lacking, including: (1) no
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57 994 trench-arc system has been identified yet between these arc-type magmatic rocks and the Bangong-
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59 995 Nujiang ophiolites; (2) the Upper Jurassic-Lower Cretaceous Lagongtang Formation was sourced from

996 Central and South Lhasa (Lai et al., 2022), and thus cannot represent forearc sediments fed from such a
997 hypothetical volcanic arc; (3) no sedimentary unit in the Mugangri Complex was sourced from Lower
998 Cretaceous arc-type rocks in Central and North Lhasa (see Section 4).

999 These various pieces of evidence can be explained in two ways. In the first scenario, the Bangong-
1000 Nujiang Ocean was finally consumed by double-sided subduction beneath the Lhasa Block in the south
1001 and beneath South Qiangtang in the north, and its closure was completed by ~120 Ma. In the second
1002 scenario, the Caima-Duobuza-Rongma-Kangqiong-Amdo magmatic arc in western Qiangtang and the
1003 Alongcuo-Yanhu-Daguo-Baingoin magmatic belt in North Lhasa, both active between 140 and 120 Ma,
1004 are considered as syncollisional, as Linzizong volcanic rock continued to be emplaced in South Lhasa
1005 well after the India-Asia collision onset (Mo et al., 2008; Zhu et al., 2019a). If so, then closure of the
1006 Bangong-Nujiang Ocean was already complete by 140 Ma and followed by widespread post-collisional
1007 Early Cretaceous magmatism. In this paper, the second scenario is preferred when considering
1008 sedimentological and stratigraphical data (see discussion below).

14. Timing of Lhasa-Qiangtang collision onset

1009 The timing of initial collision between the Lhasa and Qiangtang Blocks is hotly debated (see Ma et
1010 al., 2017b; Li et al., 2019b; Shi et al., 2020). Initial continental collision is here defined as the time
1011 when oceanic lithosphere is eventually consumed at a point where the two opposite continental margins
1012 come into direct contact and continental subduction therefore begins (Hu et al., 2016; 2017).

1013 In the Nima-Nagqu area, the Amdo and Dongkacuo microcontinents began to collide with South
1014 Qiangtang at 166-163 Ma (Callovian, Middle Jurassic) resulting in the closure of the Dongqiao-Amdo
1015 oceanic seaway. Supporting geological evidence includes: (1) the upper Bathonian (~166 Ma) Biluoco
1016 Formation unconformably overlies the Buqu Formation, testifying to folding and thrusting in South
1017 Qiangtang; (2) the Upper Jurassic (Oxfordian to Kimmeridgian, 163-152 Ma) sandstones of the
1018 Shamuluo Formation were deposited in shallow-water environments on top of the Mugangri Complex
1019 within the BNS, indicating that the Dongqiao-Amdo oceanic seaway was closed by that time; (3) Group
1020 2 sandstones of the Mugangri Complex in the BNS, and the Biluoco Formation in South Qiangtang
1021 contain abundant sedimentary clasts, indicating tectonic inversion, uplift, and erosion of South
1022 Qiangtang Basin strata; (4) the Dongqiao Formation non conformably overlies the ophiolite, indicating

1024 that obduction of the Dongqiao Ophiolite was completed by ~163 Ma (Ma et al., 2020a). Geological
1025 information is insufficient to equally robustly constrain the closure time of the Beila-Nagqu southern
1026 oceanic branch in the Nima-Nagqu area of the BNS.

1027 In North Lhasa, the Lower Cretaceous (~120 Ma) shallow-marine clastic deposits of the and Duba
1028 and Duoni formations were fed from both South Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks (Lai et al., 2019b), which
1029 indicates that collision between North Lhasa and South Qiangtang was already completed. This is
1030 confirmed by paleomagnetic data from the Nima-Nagqu area (Fig. 10).

1031 In the Rutog-Gaize area of the BNS, where no continent existed between North Lhasa and South
1032 Qiangtang, collision onset is constrained to have occurred at latest Jurassic times (150-145 Ma), based
1033 on the following lines of evidence: (1) the uppermost Jurassic to lowermost Cretaceous Yaduo
1034 Formation exposed in the Gaize area and deposited on a deep-sea fan adjacent to the southern part of the
1035 Muganggri Complex was sourced from South Qiangtang, and is interpreted to represent trench deposits
1036 in the initial stage of the Lhasa-South Qiangtang collision; (2) Latest Jurassic-Early Cretaceous tectonic
1037 shortening is documented in the Duoma area of South Qiangtang (Raterman et al., 2014); (3) Upper
1038 Jurassic sandstones of the Gamulong, Shamuluo, and Yaduo formations, together with Group 2
1039 sandstones of the Muganggri Complex in the BNS, contain abundant sedimentary clasts sourced from
1040 South Qiangtang.

1041 All data considered, the initial collision between North Lhasa and South Qiangtang most plausibly
1042 took place at the close of the Jurassic (150-145 Ma). In the central segment of the Nima-Nagqu area, the
1043 Dongqiao-Amdo oceanic seaway closed in the latest Middle Jurassic (166-163 Ma), a few million years
1044 earlier than the Beila-Nagqu oceanic seaway. In this framework, the widespread Early Cretaceous (140-
1045 120 Ma) Caima-Duobuza-Rongma-Kangqiong-Amdo arc magmatism in western Qiangtang, the
1046 Qushenla Formation in the BNS, and the Alongcuo-Yanhu-Daguo-Baingoin magmatic belt in North
1047 Lhasa are all considered the products of syn-collisional magmatism associated with the Lhasa-
1048 Qiangtang collision.

1049 **15. The history of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean**

1050 An evolutionary model for the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean is outlined here based on the geological
1051 evidence summarized above (Figs. 12, 13).

1 1052 Faunal assemblages in Lhasa and South Qiangtang started to diverge since the late Early Permian,
2 1053 indicating that breakup between the Lhasa Block and South Qiangtang took place around mid-Early
3 1054 Permian times (Zhang et al., 2019). It must be noted that, within the limits of biostratigraphic and
4 1055 radiometric methods, this age coincides with the age of break-up between India and a northern peri-
5 1056 Gondwanian microcontinent (Garzanti et al., 1996; Sciunnach and Garzanti, 2012). Early Permian
6 1057 rifting is supported by the occurrence of a major stratigraphic hiatus between the Lower Permian
7 1058 Tunlong Gongba and the Upper Permian Jipu Ri'a Formation in the western part of South Qiangtang,
8 1059 which plausibly corresponds to the break-up unconformity consistently with the provenance change
9 1060 documented by the Jipu Ri'a Formation (Fan et al., 2021b). Mafic dykes are widely developed in
10 1061 northern South Qiangtang (Zhai et al., 2013), as part of the large Qiangtang-Panjal volcanic province
11 1062 affecting a vast region all the way to northern India (Vannay and Spring, 1993; Dan et al., 2021a).

12 1063 Sea-floor spreading was fully active throughout the Triassic, as indicated by Re-Os ages from
13 1064 ophiolites, by radiolarian ages of the overlying cherts, and by widely diverging paleolatitudes (up to 40°
14 1065 degrees) between the Lhasa Block and South Qiangtang. Triassic paleogeography, however, is poorly
15 1066 constrained. A ≥ 4000 km-wide Bangong-Nujiang Ocean expanded during this period, between the
16 1067 Lhasa Block that remained close to 10°S while South Qiangtang drifted rapidly towards tropical
17 1068 northern latitudes (Fig. 9). No firm evidence has been provided so far to locate the Amdo and
18 1069 Dongkacuo microcontinents within this vast oceanic domain. In a speculative reconstruction partly
19 1070 based on Guynn et al. (2006) and Zhang et al. (2014b), the Amdo microcontinent is envisaged to have
20 1071 been separated from South Qiangtang in the Early Jurassic by back-arc rifting, resulting in the formation
21 1072 of the Amdo oceanic branch, whereas the Dongkacuo microcontinent may have rifted away from North
22 1073 Lhasa in the Triassic.

23 1074 The Bangong-Nujiang oceanic lithosphere began to subduct northward beneath the Amdo
24 1075 microcontinent around 190 Ma, as well documented by the age and character of arc-related magmatic
25 1076 and high-pressure metamorphic rocks (Guynn et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2014b; Wang et al., 2016; Kapp
26 1077 and DeCelles, 2019). The Dongqiao-Amdo oceanic seaway separating the Amdo and South Qiangtang
27 1078 may have been a back-arc basin. The Dongqiao ophiolite was obducted southward onto the Dongkacuo
28 1079 microcontinent at ~163 Ma. and the Biluoco conglomerates accumulated in South Qiangtang around
29 1080 166 Ma (Ma et al., 2017a, 2020a). The Dongkacuo arc-related magmatic rocks dated as 166-160 Ma

1 1081 were generated by northward subduction of the Beila-Nagqu oceanic seaway, envisaged here to
2 1082 represent the main Bangong-Nujiang Ocean (Fig. 13). In the Middle-Late Jurassic, South Qiantang was
3 1083 affected by intense structural deformation, while the Mugangri Complex started to grow by
4 1084 subduction accretion. In the south, the northward subduction of the Beila- Nagqu oceanic branch
5 1085 continued possibly until the latest Jurassic, as indicated by the youngest ophiolite radiometric ages
6 1086 (Zhong et al., 2017, 2018). The Mugangri Complex and Gajia mélange may have grown further
7 1087 during this stage, when deposition of the Suowa Formation documented the cessation of marine
8 1088 sedimentation in South Qiantang. In the Late Jurassic, the Dongqiao and Shamuluo formations were
9 1089 deposited on top of the Dongqiao ophiolite and Mugangri Complex, respectively, thus sealing the
10 1090 stage of subduction-accretion, while the deep-sea-fan turbidites of the Gamulong Formation were
11 1091 deposited.

12 1092 In the Rutog-Gaize area (western segment of the BNS), a slightly younger episode of oceanic
13 1093 subduction followed by the exhumation of high-pressure rocks between ~170 Ma and 150 Ma is
14 1094 testified by the Dongcuo eclogite and granulite (Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017a) and by calc-
15 1095 alkaline magmatism generated by northward subduction of Bangong-Nujiang oceanic lithosphere (Fig.
16 1096 1). The magmatic gap between 150 and 140 Ma, together with sedimentation of the Upper Jurassic-
17 1097 Lower Cretaceous Shamuluo Formation to the south of the Zhonggang oceanic island (Li et al., 2017b,
18 1098 2019b), marked the end of this oceanic subduction stage.

19 1099 Collision between North Lhasa and South Qiantang began most probably at the close of the
20 1100 Jurassic (150-145 Ma). In the Late Jurassic-Early Cretaceous, deep-water sediments continued to
21 1101 accumulate in the BNS (Yaduo and Wuga formations; Li et al., 2017c; Luo et al., 2019), which are
22 1102 envisaged as syncollisional trench deposits. At this time, shallow-marine shelf sedimentation
23 1103 characterized the northern margin of the Lhasa Block, when the Lagongtang Formation was fed from
24 1104 erosion of the Yeba arc and of pre-Jurassic sedimentary rocks to the south (Lai et al., 2022).

25 1105 In the Early Cretaceous, volcanic rocks of the Qushenla Formation were widely emplaced across
26 1106 the BNS, where marine seaways disappeared by 120 Ma, as documented in the Beila-Maqian (Zhu et
27 1107 al., 2019b), eastern Selincuo (Hu et al., 2020), northern Nima (Kapp et al., 2007), and Gaize (Chen et al,
28 1108 2017) areas. A shallow-marine environment persisted longer in North Lhasa, where the Duoni and Duba
29 1109 formations were sourced from the conjugate Lhasa and Qiantang Blocks, respectively. The residual sea

1 1110 retreated by ~113 Ma (Lai et al., 2019b), but renewed widespread marine transgression is documented
2 1111 by the thick Langshan limestones accumulated on North Lhasa between 113 and 99 Ma (Xu et al., 2020,
3 1112 2022).

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7 1113 Igneous rocks were emplaced on both sides of the BNS between ~140 and 110 Ma, including the
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9 1114 Zenong Group widely exposed in Central Lhasa and the Baingoin granites, documenting a phase of
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11 1115 extensive magmatism in the region (Zhu et al., 2016). These orogenic igneous rocks are considered as
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13 1116 the product of syncollisional to post-collisional processes generated after the transition from oceanic
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15 1117 subduction to intracontinental convergence. Many economic ores were formed in the western part of the
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17 1118 BNS at this time, followed by tectonic uplift starting at ~92 Ma (Sun et al., 2015; Lai et al., 2019a). If
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19 1119 the Lhasa-Qiangtang collision indeed began close to the Jurassic/Cretaceous boundary, then porphyry-
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21 1120 type deposits in the western BNS (Duolong ore, 120-110 Ma, Lin et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2020) and
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23 1121 orogenic gold deposits (Shangxu ore, 136 Ma, Fang et al., 2020) were all formed during the
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25 1122 syncollisional stage rather than during the oceanic-subduction stage. Extensive syncollisional
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27 1123 magmatism on both sides of, and inside the BNS created the conditions for extensive mineralization.
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31 1124 **16. Conclusions and Perspectives**

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34 1125 A major and still largely unexplained feature of the Tethyan realm is the multistep rifting from the
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36 1126 northern part of the Gondwana Supercontinent of ribbon-like microcontinental blocks of various sizes
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38 1127 that drifted rapidly northward to converge and be eventually accreted in succession to Eurasia, the final
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40 1128 one being India (Şengör, 1979; Dercourt and Vrielynck, 1993; Wan et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2020). During
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42 1129 multiple rifting episodes, not only a larger and persistent ocean such as Neo-Tethys but also a series of
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44 1130 smaller oceanic seaways were generated and consumed. Some of these seaways were short-lived, and
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46 1131 the reconstruction of their geometry, location, and origin (i.e., mid-ocean ridge or supra-subduction)
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48 1132 represents a hard geological challenge. We faced this challenge by summarizing and discussing all
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50 1133 available geological evidence, including stratigraphic, paleontological, sedimentological, petrological,
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52 1134 structural, paleomagnetic, and geochronological data from any type of rocks exposed in the BNS and
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54 1135 adjacent regions, with the final goal to clarify as far as possible the history of the Bangong-Nujiang
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56 1136 Ocean from its birth to its growth and final closure. These are our main conclusions:
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60 1137 (1) based on stratigraphic, paleontological, sedimentological and paleomagnetic evidence,
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1 1138 rifting between the Lhasa Block and South Qiangtang took place during the Early Permian, roughly at
2 1139 the same time of break-up and opening of Neo-Tethys north of India;

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5 1140 (2) paleomagnetic data suggest that the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean was still a narrow proto-
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8 1141 oceanic basin in the Middle and Late Permian. As two continental ribbons similar perhaps to the
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10 1142 Agulhas Plateau off the southern margin of Africa (Ben-Avraham et al., 1995), the Amdo and
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12 1143 Dongkacuo microcontinents may have detached at this early rifting stage, most probably from South
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14 1144 Qiangtang and North Lhasa, respectively;

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17 1145 (3) the Triassic was a period of rapid sea-floor spreading in the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean.
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19 1146 The Lhasa Block remained at low southern latitudes, whereas South Qiangtang drifted rapidly away
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21 1147 reaching tropical northern latitudes during the Triassic. The north-south width of the Bangong-Nujiang
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23 1148 Ocean then reached 4000 km according to paleomagnetic data.

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27 1149 (4) the northward subduction of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean began in the Early Jurassic,
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29 1150 earlier in the eastern Amdo region (~190 Ma) than in the western Gaize region (~170 Ma). This phase of
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31 1151 oceanic subduction lasted between 30 and 40 Ma, as documented by Amdo and Dongkacuo arc
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33 1152 magmatism, Amdo and Dongcuo metamorphic rocks, and growth of the Muganggri Complex;

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36 1153 (5) the Dongqiao-Amdo oceanic seaway, representing the northern branch of the Bangong-
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38 1154 Nujiang Ocean, closed when the Amdo and Dongkacuo microcontinents collided with South Qiangtang
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40 1155 in the latest Middle Jurassic (166-163 Ma). The Beila-Nagqu oceanic seaway, representing the main
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42 1156 southern branch of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean, closed when the Lhasa and Qiangtang Blocks collided
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44 1157 in the latest Jurassic (150-145 Ma). Syncollisional sediments were incorporated into the Muganggri
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46 1158 Complex;

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50 1159 (6) the Early Cretaceous (140-120 Ma) arc-type igneous rocks widely distributed across the
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52 1160 Lhasa-Qiangtang collisional zone document large-scale syncollisional to post-collisional magmatism;

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56 1161 (7) in the late Early Cretaceous (120-100 Ma), the disappearance of marine seaways is
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58 1162 testified by widespread deposition of continental red beds across the BNS, where a suite of volcanic
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60 1163 rocks (Qushenla Formation) was emplaced. The Langshan Formation documents the last marine

1 1164 ingression on North Lhasa between 113 and 99 Ma, followed by a stage of intracontinental convergence
2 1165 that led to tectonic inversion and initial surface uplift of the Tibetan Plateau.
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5 1166 The efforts made to unravel the paleogeographic evolution of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean and
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7 1167 surrounding landmasses indicated criteria that may turn out to be useful when similar geological
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9 1168 problems are tackled:

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12 (1) How can the birth of an ancient ocean be most accurately dated?
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15 1170 Theoretically, this question can be answered by finding and dating the oldest piece of oceanic crust.
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17 1171 Oceanic lithosphere, however, is generally and even completely consumed by subduction (Stern, 2004).
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19 1172 Moreover, obtaining radiometric ages from ultramafic and mafic rocks is challenging. Both Re-Os ages
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21 1173 of peridotites and cumulates and biostratigraphic ages of cherts overlying the ophiolitic sequence were
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23 1174 obtained from the BNS, but they can only fix a minimum age for the initiation of sea-floor spreading. A
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25 1175 more profitable, although indirect approach, is the detailed stratigraphic study of the two conjugate
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27 1176 rifted margins, where the break-up unconformity can be detected and dated (e.g., Sciunnach and
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29 1177 Garzanti, 2012 and references therein). In the case of active rifting associated with the eruption of a
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31 1178 “mantle plume” (White and McKenzie, 1989), the age of continental flood basalts provides a further
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33 1179 constraint on the geological evolution from the rift stage to the break-up stage. This is the case of the
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35 1180 Qiangtang-Panjal large igneous province (Garzanti et al., 1999; Dan et al., 2021a).
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39 (2) How can the timing of subduction initiation be effectively determined?
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42 1182 Arc magmatism and high-pressure metamorphic rocks provide the key evidence of oceanic
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44 1183 subduction. The significance of mélangé units (e.g., Mugangri Complex) is more difficult to
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46 1184 understand, because of undetermined effects of tectonic erosion, disruption by tectonic deformation,
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48 1185 difficulties in dating sedimentation and accretion episodes, and continuing growth during the early
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50 1186 syncollisional stage.
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54 (3) How can the timing of collision onset be effectively determined?
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57 1188 Arc magmatism may continue for long, and even reach climax well after the onset of continent-
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59 1189 continent or arc-continent collision (e.g., Zhu et al., 2019b). Cessation of arc magmatism, therefore,
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1 1190 cannot be used for an accurate determination of collision onset. The same is true for the cessation of
2 1191 marine sedimentation in the intervening seaways, which can persist for tens of million years after the
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4 1192 first continent-continent or arc-continent contact, as seen for instance in the Taiwan Strait, Timor Sea, or
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6 1193 Persian Gulf. Paleomagnetic data provide useful constraints, but are seldom precise enough (e.g., [Hu et](#)
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8 1194 [al., 2016](#)). The best criterion proves to be the combination of biostratigraphic and detrital-radiometric
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10 1195 dating of siliciclastic deposits fed from both colliding margin at the same time (e.g., [DeCelles et al.,](#)
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12 1196 [2014](#)). This is the case of the Yaduo Formation in the BNS, which is adjacent to North Lhasa but
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14 1197 sourced from South Qiangtang ([Hu et al., 2017](#)). Interfingering of strata fed from both colliding
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16 1198 continental margins, however, may occur somewhat earlier than actual collision onset if the trench is
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18 1199 overfilled and bypassed by turbiditic flows that may spread oceanward onto the abyssal plain for some
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20 1200 hundreds of kilometers (e.g., [Contreras-Reyes et al., 2010](#)).

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24 1201 Looking ahead, there are still a number of major unsolved issues related to the evolution of the
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26 1202 Bangong-Nujiang Ocean:

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29 1203 (1) much has still to be discovered concerning rifting and opening of the Bangong-Nujiang
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31 1204 Ocean, and its relationships with the coeval opening of Neo-Tethys in the south. The Lhasa Block and
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33 1205 South Qiangtang are narrow, ribbon-like microcontinents detached in succession from the northern
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35 1206 margin of Gondwana, thus replicating through time a plate-tectonic process that remains unclear
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37 1207 ([Gaetani et al., 2003](#)). [Zhu et al. \(2013\)](#) suggested that southward subduction of the Bangong-Nujiang
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39 1208 Ocean led to the separation of Lhasa from Australia. [Gaina et al. \(2003\)](#) called upon the interaction
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41 1209 between a mantle plume and an oceanic ridge and [Schneider et al. \(2003\)](#) proposed a pull-apart
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43 1210 mechanism for the initial formation of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean. These theories, however, remain
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45 1211 speculative and not firmly grounded on stratigraphic, petrological, and structural evidence. One fruitful
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47 1212 way to better understand the complexities of the rifting process that gave rise to the Bangong-Nujiang
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49 1213 Ocean is the comparison with modern examples of microcontinents, such as the Agulhas Plateau, the
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51 1214 Seychelles, or the Elan Blank in the Indian Ocean;

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55 1215 (2) the nature and origin of rock assemblages inferred to represent seamounts and consisting
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57 1216 of basalt with intraplate-type geochemical features, limestone without terrigenous contamination, and
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59 1217 slumped breccia, is unclear. For instance, the Zhonggang-Kangqiong oceanic island, dated as 141-135
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1 1218 Ma (Fan et al., 2021a; Zeng et al., 2021), satisfies all criteria to be identified as a seamount. Geological
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3 1219 evidence, however, suggests that the earliest Cretaceous was the time of double-sided subduction and
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5 1220 final closure of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean rather than a period of open-ocean subduction when
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7 1221 trench-seamount collisions would be expected to occur;

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10 1222 (3) the variability of the Bangong-Nujiang suture along strike, and especially its western and
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12 1223 eastern terminations, are poorly documented. Triassic-Jurassic paleomagnetic data for the western Lhasa
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14 1224 Block are also wanting;

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17 1225 (4) the configuration of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean and of its distinct branches (e.g., did
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19 1226 the Dongqiao-Amdo oceanic seaway in the north or the Beila-Nagqu oceanic seaway in the south
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21 1227 represent the main Bangong-Nujiang Ocean?), the origin and location of small microcontinents (i.e.,
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23 1228 Amdo and Dongkacuo), and the possible occurrence of back-arc basin remain poorly understood and
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25 1229 lively debated.

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31 1231 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

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35 1232 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
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37 1233 that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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40 1234

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51 Figure captions

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- 54 1981 Fig. 1 (a) Simplified geological map of the Bangong–Nujiang suture zone (revised from [Pan et al.,](#)
55 [2004](#)). (b) Spatio-temporal distribution of magmatic rocks within and adjacent to the Bangong–
56 Nujiang suture zone (modified from [Zhu et al., 2016](#)). Data sources provided in Supplementary
57 Table S3. SNMZ = Shiquan River–Nam Tso Mélangé Zone, NL= North Lhasa; CL = Central
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- 1 1985 Lhasa; SQ = South Qiangtang; BNS = Bangong-Nujiang suture zone; JSZ=Jingsha suture zone.
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- 3 1986 Fig. 2 Simplified geological map of the Nima-Nagqu area in the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone
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5 1987 (modified from [Chen et al., 2002](#); [Qu et al., 2003](#); [Zheng et al., 2003](#); [Bai et al., 2005](#); [Nima et al.,](#)
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7 1988 [2005](#); [Wang et al., 2006](#)).
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- 10 1989 Fig. 3 Simplified geological map of the Gaize-Dongcuo area in the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone
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12 1990 (modified from [Zeng et al., 2006](#)).
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- 15 1991 Fig. 4 Integrated stratigraphic framework of South Qiangtang, Bangong-Nujiang suture zone, and North
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17 1992 Lhasa.
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- 19 1993 Fig. 5 Kernel density estimation (a, c) and MDS plots (b, d) based on age spectra of detrital zircons
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21 1994 from Triassic to Jurassic strata in the Nima-Nagqu and Rutog-Gaize areas, Bangong-Nujiang
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23 1995 suture zone, North Lhasa, and South Qiangtang.
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- 26 1996 Fig. 6 Petrographic composition of Mesozoic lithostratigraphic units in South Qiangtang, Bangong-
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28 1997 Nujiang suture zone, and North Lhasa. The Rutog-Gaize and Nima-Nagqu areas (western and
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30 1998 central segments of the BNS, respectively) are distinguished. Q = quartz; F= feldspars; L= lithic
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32 1999 fragments (Lm = metamorphic; Lv = volcanic; Ls = sedimentary); parameters after [Ingersoll et al.](#)
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34 2000 [\(1984\)](#) and compositional fields in the QFL plot after [Garzanti \(2019\)](#).
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- 37 2001 Fig. 7 Histograms of ophiolite ages in the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone (data sources provided in
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39 2002 Supplementary Table S4). P₃ = Late Permian; T₁ = Early Triassic, T₂ = Middle Triassic, T₃ = Late
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41 2003 Triassic, J₁ = Early Jurassic, J₂ = Middle Jurassic, J₃ = Late Jurassic, K₁ = Early Cretaceous.
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- 44 2004 Fig. 8 Histograms of the ages of Jurassic-Cretaceous magmatic rocks in South Qiangtang, Bangong-
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46 2005 Nujiang suture zone, and North Lhasa. Data sources provided in Supplementary Table S3.
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- 49 2006 Fig. 9 Paleolatitude *versus* time plot for the South Qiangtang and Lhasa Block during the Permian to the
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51 2007 Cretaceous: (a) Nima-Nagqu central segment of the BNS; (b) Rutog-Gaize western segment of the
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53 2008 BNS). Data sources provided in Supplementary Table S5. P₁ = Early Permian, P₂ = Middle
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55 2009 Permian, P₃ = Late Permian; T₁ = Early Triassic, T₂ = Middle Triassic, T₃ = Late Triassic, J₁ =
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57 2010 Early Jurassic, J₂ = Middle Jurassic, J₃ = Late Jurassic, K₁ = Early Cretaceous, K₂ = Late
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59 2011 Cretaceous.
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- 1 2012 Fig. 10 Summary chart indicating timing of magmatism, metamorphism, oceanic subduction, deep-
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3 2013 marine sedimentation, formation of oceanic crust, key biota, stratigraphy, and paleomagnetic data
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5 2014 for South Qiangtang, Bangong-Nujiang suture zone, and North Lhasa.
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- 7 2015 Fig. 11 Distribution of Jurassic detrital-zircon ages in the Mugangri Complex and Sewa Formation of
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9 2016 South Qiangtang. Data sources provided in Supplementary Table S2.
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- 12 2017 Fig. 12 Envisaged palaeogeographic evolution of the Bangong-Nujiang oceanic realm and inferred
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14 2018 positions of microcontinents. AM = Amdo microcontinent, DKC = Dongkacuo microcontinent, SQ
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16 2019 = South Qiangtang, NQ = North Qiangtang, LSSZ= Longmucuo-Shuanghu suture zone;
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18 2020 JSZ=Jingsha suture zone.
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- 21 2021 Fig. 13 Cross-sections depicting the envisaged tectonic evolution of the Bangong-Nujiang Ocean from
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23 2022 the Dongqiao to the Beila areas. DQ = Dongqiao, DKC = Dongkacuo microcontinent, QT =
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25 2023 Qiangtang, LS = Lhasa.
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- 28 2024 Table 1 Stratigraphic units of South Qiangtang, Bangong-Nujiang suture zone, and North Lhasa
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30 2025 considered for provenance analysis, including information on youngest detrital-zircon ages and
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32 2026 data sources.
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- 35 2027 **Supplementary Data**
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- 38 2028 Table S1 Summary of petrographic data (point-counting according to the Gazzi-Dickinson method;
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40 2029 [Ingersoll et al., 1984](#)) from sandstones in South Qiangtang, Bangong-Nujiang suture zone, and
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42 2030 North Lhasa.
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- 44 2031 Table S2 Summary of detrital-zircon ages from sandstones in South Qiangtang, Bangong-Nujiang suture
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46 2032 zone, and North Lhasa.
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- 49 2033 Table S3 Summary of geochronological data from magmatic rocks of South Qiangtang, Bangong-
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51 2034 Nujiang suture zone, and North Lhasa.
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- 54 2035 Table S4 Summary of U-Pb zircon-age data from ophiolitic rocks in the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone.
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- 57 2036 Table S5 Summary of Ar-Ar/K-Ar age data from ophiolitic rocks in the Bangong-Nujiang suture zone.
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- 60 2037 Table S6 Permian-Cretaceous paleomagnetic data from the South Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks.
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