

1 **Forced Cenozoic continental subduction of Tarim craton-like**
2 **lithosphere below the Tianshan revealed by ambient noise**
3 **tomography**

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16 **ABSTRACT**

17 The possibility that craton-like lithosphere may undergo subduction during convergence
18 of major tectonic plates is still poorly investigated. Here we tackle this issue by ambient noise
19 tomography of the Tarim Basin and the Tianshan. Our S-wave velocity model reveals a flat-lying
20 high-velocity anomaly beneath the Tarim Basin in the 45-60 km depth range, consistent with
21 intrusion of mafic rocks at the base of the lower crust above a depleted lithospheric mantle, as
22 expected after interaction of the lithosphere with a mantle plume. This high-velocity anomaly

23 can be followed northward, steeply dipping ($\sim 45^\circ$) beneath the Tianshan, which indicates that the
24 Tarim craton-like lithosphere was subducted to mantle depths. It is connected with a fast P-
25 wavespeed anomaly in the upper mantle, interpreted as a relict of the South Tianshan Ocean. A
26 long period of tectonic quiescence, after the closure of the South Tianshan Ocean and before the
27 Cenozoic tectonic rejuvenation of the Tianshan, suggests a minor role of oceanic slab pull in
28 controlling continental subduction. The major player is instead the northward push of India
29 within the framework of Cenozoic India-Asia convergence. We conclude that forced subduction
30 can be experienced not only by thinned continental crust but also by a strong craton-like
31 lithosphere.

32 INTRODUCTION

33 Continental subduction has long been considered impossible due to the intrinsic positive
34 buoyancy of the continental crust (McKenzie, 1969), but is now widely documented by
35 petrological and geophysical evidence (Guillot et al. 2009; Kufner et al., 2016; Malusà et al.,
36 2021), even in the absence of a precursor oceanic slab providing the driving force by negative
37 buoyancy (Sun et al., 2019). However, the possibility that craton lithosphere may undergo forced
38 subduction during convergence of major tectonic plates is still poorly investigated. The Tarim
39 Basin in Central Asia (Fig. 1A) is a favorable site to tackle this issue. It is floored by a strong
40 craton-like lithosphere, and it is in a key position within the framework of Cenozoic India-Asia
41 collision. However, unlike the nearby Pamir and Hindu Kush (Kufner et al., 2016; Bloch et al.,
42 2021), its deep tectonic structure is not sufficiently constrained by high-resolution geophysical
43 data. Here we employ ambient noise tomography to study the lithospheric structure of the Tarim
44 and nearby regions. Our results demonstrate that forced continental subduction can be

45 experienced not only by thinned continental crust, but also by a strong craton-like lithosphere in
46 areas of strong convergence between major tectonic plates.

47 **GEOLOGIC BACKGROUND**

48 The Tarim Basin is located in northwestern China between the Tibetan Plateau to the
49 south, the Pamir to the west, and the Tianshan to the north (Fig. 1A). Its Precambrian basement
50 consists of continental blocks that amalgamated during the Neoproterozoic (Guo et al., 2005;
51 Yang et al., 2018). Cenozoic strata are largely undeformed (Jia, 1997). Two major events
52 affected the Tarim basement during the Phanerozoic: an early Paleozoic reactivation of the
53 Neoproterozoic suture zone and a widespread Early Permian (300–270 Ma) igneous activity
54 forming a large igneous province (LIP in Fig. 1A) possibly induced by a mantle plume (Xu et al.,
55 2014). Based on high-resolution aeromagnetic data, it has been recently suggested that plume-
56 lithosphere interactions may have strengthened the Tarim lithosphere with the formation of a
57 strong mantle keel and the intrusion of mafic rocks into the lower crust (Xu et al., 2021).
58 However, seismic tomography evidence supporting this interpretation is still lacking.

59 To the north of the Tarim Basin, the Tianshan stretches from E to W for more than 2000
60 km (Fig. 1A). The tectonic framework of this multi-phased orogenic belt was established in the
61 Late Carboniferous (Gao et al., 2008) or the Late Permian-Triassic (Abuduxun et al., 2021; Xiao
62 et al., 2013) and reactivated during the Cenozoic in response to India–Asia collision
63 (Abdrakhmatov et al., 1996; Shu et al., 2003; Li et al., 2022). The first significant evolution stage
64 of the Tianshan involved arc accretion, oceanic subduction, and continental collision (Han et al.,
65 2011; Xiao et al., 2015). Ultrahigh pressure rocks derived from mid-ocean-ridge basalts attest to
66 oceanic subduction and subsequent exhumation of deeply buried rocks in the Late Carboniferous
67 (Gao et al., 2008) or the Late Triassic. Zircon U–Pb ages as young as 224–217 Ma (Sang et al.,

68 2016) likely mark the final closure of the South Tianshan Ocean, a branch of the Paleo-Asian
69 Ocean, and the consequent collision between the Tarim lithosphere and the Yili-Kazakhstan
70 shield (Han et al., 2011; Xiao et al., 2013) (Fig. 1A). The polarity of oceanic subduction is still
71 controversial. Some studies suggest northwest-dipping subduction of the South Tianshan Ocean
72 beneath the Yili-Kazakhstan shield (Abuduxun et al., 2021; Gao et al., 2008), whereas other
73 studies either suggest southeast-dipping subduction beneath the Tarim Craton (Charvet et al.,
74 2011; Wang et al., 2017) or bi-directional subduction (Ge et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016). The
75 existence of a subducted slab down to 400 km depth beneath the Tianshan is confirmed by
76 teleseismic tomography (Koulakov, 2011), but the linkage with the uppermost mantle and crustal
77 structures is still unclear. Cenozoic crustal shortening as large as 200-300 km (Aouac et al.,
78 1993; Molnar and Tapponnier, 1975) may suggest a major stage of continental subduction after
79 the closure of the South Tianshan Ocean. However, the possibility that continental crust rocks
80 have reached mantle depths is still not demonstrated by tomography evidence.

81 **METHODS**

82 We collected the continuous waveforms recorded by 48 permanent broadband stations
83 from Data Management Centre of China National Seismic Network (doi:10.11998/SeisDmc/SN),
84 from October 2018 to October 2019, to image the crustal and uppermost mantle velocity
85 structure of the Tarim lithosphere and surroundings using ambient noise tomography. The
86 seismic stations (Fig. 1B) are distributed with an average interval of 100-200 km around the
87 Tarim Basin. This ensures good coverage of the study area with seismic ray paths (Fig. 1B). We
88 employed a frequency-domain approach to extract phase velocity dispersions from ambient noise
89 (Hawkins & Sambridge, 2019) and invert the 3-D shear-wave velocity structure (Yoshizawa and
90 Ekström, 2010). More details on the methods and tests are provided in Sections S1 and S2.

91 Robustness of the results and interpretations are extensively tested in **Sections S3 and S4**, similar
92 to [Cai et al. \(2018\)](#).

93 **RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION**

94 **Figure 2** shows representative sections of the inverted 3-D shear wave velocity model.
95 Based on the resolution tests of **Fig. S4**, the model has a spatial resolution as high as $1.0^{\circ} \times 1.0^{\circ}$.
96 The vertical section from the northern edge of the Tibetan Plateau to Lake Issyk-Kul in
97 Kyrgyzstan (**Fig. 2A-C**) reveals an increase in S-wave velocities beneath the Tarim Basin
98 reaching as high as 4.2-4.3 km/s at 40-45 km depth (anomaly HV1 in **Fig. 2B**). Such S-wave
99 velocities, which are also found above the Moho independently inferred from receiver function
100 ([He et al., 2014](#)), are consistent with the presence of amphibolite (e.g., [Malusà et al., 2021](#) their
101 Fig. 4). This suggests a strengthened lithosphere due to intrusion of mafic rocks at the base of the
102 lower crust. Starting from ~60-65 km depth, S-wave velocities decrease to ~4.0 km/s (**Fig. 2B,**
103 **F**). The low-velocity anomaly found at depth > 70 km (LV3 in **Fig. 2C**) is consistent with a mid-
104 lithosphere discontinuity recognized in many cratons, which reflects their evolution from craton
105 formation to the present ([Sun et al., 2020](#)). The highest shear wave velocities in our model are
106 found beneath Bachu (**Fig. 2B**), i.e., the proposed center of the Permian plume head based on
107 analysis of high-resolution aeromagnetic data. Overall, the shear wave velocity structure beneath
108 the Tarim Basin demonstrates a strengthened lower crust and a disturbed lithospheric mantle as
109 expected after plume-craton lithosphere interaction ([Xu et al., 2021](#)).

110 The layered velocity structure beneath the Tarim Basin provides a suitable marker to
111 reveal later stages of continental subduction. The flat-lying high-velocity anomaly HV1 can be
112 followed farther north beneath the Tianshan (**Fig. 2B**), where it dips northwestward with an angle
113 of $\sim 45^{\circ}$. This steeply dipping anomaly provides clear indication that the Tarim lithosphere was

114 subducted to mantle depths beneath the Tianshan. **Figure 2C** shows the relative velocities in the
115 0-100 km depth range for easier comparison with the teleseismic tomography model of
116 [Koulakov \(2011\)](#) in the 100-600 km depth range (**Fig. 2D**). The high-velocity anomaly HV1
117 revealed by ambient noise tomography is clearly connected with the P-wave high-velocity
118 anomaly HV2 revealed by teleseismic tomography down to ~600 km depth, which is interpreted
119 as a lithospheric slab dipping at an angle of ~70°. However, the S-wave velocity anomaly HV1 is
120 much stronger than the P-wave velocity perturbation HV2 (5-6% vs 1.0-1.5%).

121 Above anomaly HV1, shear wave velocities reach as low as ~3.8 km/s at 50-70 km depth
122 (LV1 in **Fig. 2B**). These values are consistent with both high-pressure quartzo-feldspathic
123 gneisses and serpentinite ([Malusà et al., 2021](#)), and may either mark continental crust rocks
124 involved within a subduction channel or a serpentinized mantle wedge due to activity of slab-
125 released fluids. In **Fig. 2C**, the low-velocity anomaly LV1 can be traced down to ~90 km depth.
126 In **Fig. 2D**, a P-wave low-velocity anomaly (LV2) is observed down to ~400 km depth. Both
127 velocity perturbations LV1 and LV2 are consistently around 1% or smaller. Similar high- and
128 low-velocity anomalies are also observed along a cross-section from the Tibetan Plateau to the
129 Junggar Basin (Supplementary **Fig. S1**).

130 **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

131 **Polarity of South Tianshan oceanic subduction**

132 The tip of the steeply dipping high-velocity anomaly HV2 imaged by teleseismic P-wave
133 tomography beneath the Tianshan ([Koulakov, 2011](#)) is interpreted as a relict of the South
134 Tianshan Ocean. As anomaly HV2 is clearly connected with a high-velocity anomaly in the
135 Tarim lithosphere revealed by ambient noise tomography, our findings provide clear evidence of
136 north-dipping subduction of the South Tianshan Ocean beneath the Yili-Kazakhstan shield

137 during the Paleozoic-early Mesozoic (Abuduxun et al., 2021; Gao et al., 2008) (Fig. 3).
138 Therefore, hypotheses of south-dipping or bi-directional subductions can be excluded. The low-
139 velocity region in the mantle wedge atop the subducting slab attests to a major impact of slab
140 fluids released during the oceanic subduction stage in the Paleozoic-early Mesozoic.

141 **Subduction of Tarim lithosphere to mantle depths**

142 Our 3-D shear wave velocity model across the Tarim Basin supports the hypothesis that
143 mantle plume processes may have strengthened the Tarim lithosphere during the Permian (Xu et
144 al., 2021), forming a stable craton-like continent after intrusion of mafic rocks at the base of the
145 lower crust. The plume-head center was located near the present-day southern deformation front
146 of the Tianshan (Fig. 3). The flat-lying high-velocity anomaly interpreted as Tarim mafic lower
147 crust dips under the Tianshan at an angle of $\sim 45^\circ$, providing clear indication of subduction of
148 craton-like lithosphere to mantle depths, consistent with previous estimates of Cenozoic
149 shortening. The cratonic lithosphere beneath the Tarim Basin efficiently transmitted the
150 deformation associated to Cenozoic India-Asia collision northward across the Tianshan, where
151 the lithosphere is weaker and not affected by plume activity. Geodetic GPS measurements show
152 a northward decrease in crustal shortening rate from ~ 36 mm/yr in the Indian Plate to ~ 20 mm/yr
153 on the southern front of the Tianshan (Gan et al., 2007; Zubovich et al., 2010; Fig. 1A). We
154 conclude the remaining ~ 16 mm/yr is likely accommodated by active continental subduction of
155 the Tarim lithosphere beneath the Tianshan.

156 Tarim lithosphere is subducted northwestward beneath the Tianshan in the east, whereas
157 an arcuate slab of Asian lithosphere is subducted southeastward beneath the Pamir in the west
158 (Pamir slab in Fig. 3). An even more complicated structure is documented in front of the Indian
159 indenter beneath the Hindu Kush (Kufner et al. 2016), where Indian thinned lithosphere

160 subducted beneath Asia is torn off, forming a prominent high-velocity anomaly down to the
161 mantle transition zone (Fig. 3). A similar behavior of opposite-dipping continental slabs is also
162 documented under the European Alps, where the European continental lithosphere is subducted
163 beneath Adria in the Western Alps, and the Adriatic continental lithosphere is subducted beneath
164 the remnants of the Alpine subduction wedge in the Eastern Alps (Sun et al., 2019; Malusà et al.,
165 2021). However, unlike Central Asia, no craton-like lithosphere was involved in the subduction
166 below the Alps.

167 **Mechanism of Tarim continental subduction**

168 Slab pull generated by subducting oceanic lithosphere is generally considered as the
169 major trigger for the onset of continental subduction (Davies, 1999). However, a very long
170 period of tectonic quiescence (>150 Ma) characterized the study region after oceanic subduction
171 and the closure of the South Tianshan Ocean. The Tianshan orogen was tectonically reactivated
172 only in the Cenozoic in response to India–Asia collision (e.g., Li et al., 2022). Within this
173 framework, and despite the evident connection at a depth between the South Tianshan oceanic
174 slab and the Tarim continental lithosphere (Fig. 3), oceanic slab pull can be safely ruled out as a
175 potential major player in controlling continental subduction of the Tarim lithosphere. Our results
176 suggest that plate convergence and the northward push of cratonic India play a primary role in
177 determining subduction of craton-like lithosphere beneath the Tianshan (Fig. 3), which was
178 likely coeval with continental subduction beneath Hindu Kush and Pamir (Kufner et al. 2016;
179 Bloch et al. 2021). Forced subduction of craton-like lithosphere was likely favored by the
180 presence of inherited South Tianshan oceanic lithosphere already subducted to the north beneath
181 the Tianshan. We conclude that forced subduction can be experienced not only by thinned
182 continental crust sections, as documented in the European Alps (Sun et al., 2019), but also by a

183 strong craton-like lithosphere. Our results provide new insights on the dynamics of continental
184 subduction and may find application to other areas characterized by fast and strong convergence
185 between major tectonic plates.

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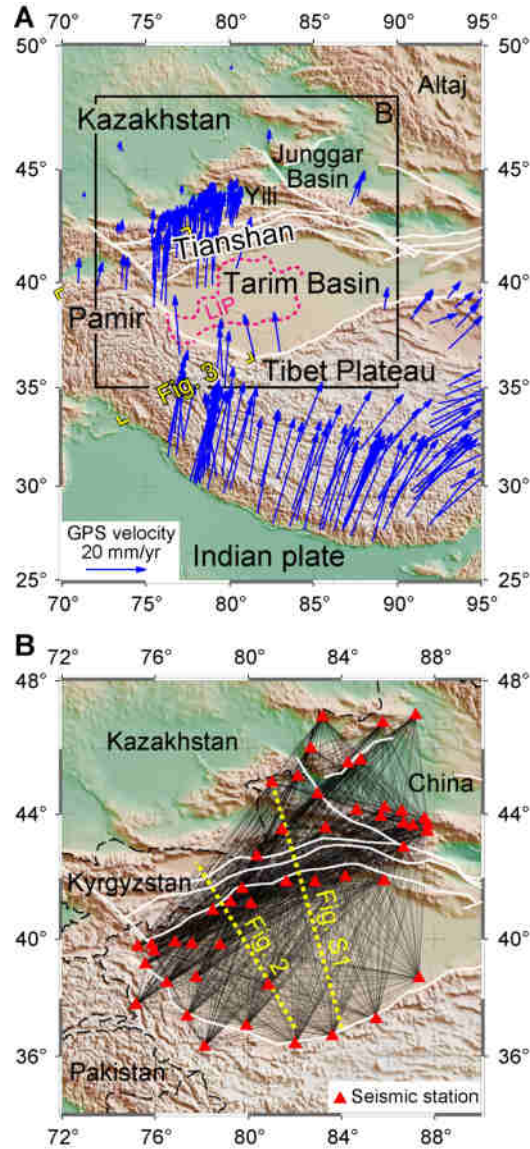
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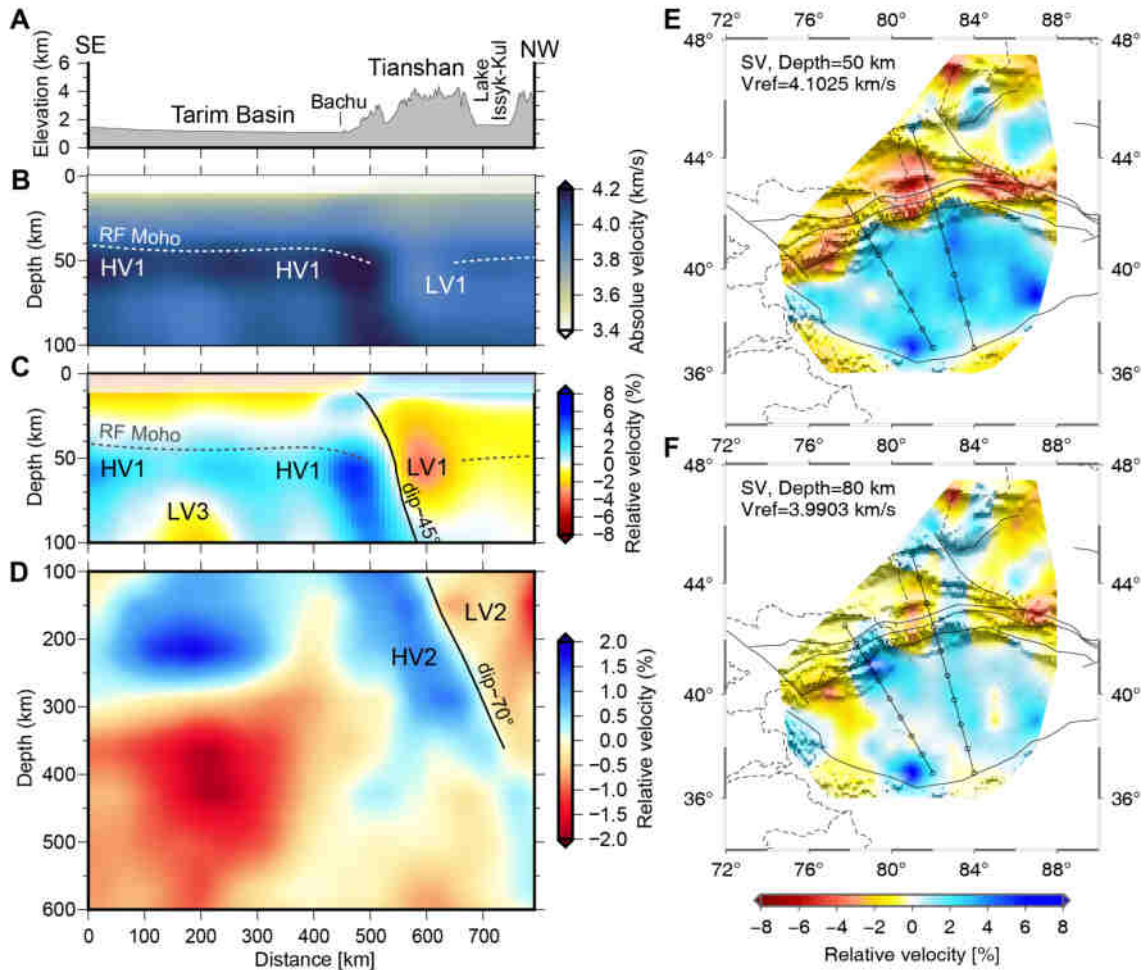
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304

305 Figure 1. Tectonic setting and experiment set up. A) Shaded relief map of the Tarim basin and
306 surrounding regions showing major tectonic lines (in white), GPS velocity measurements relative
307 to Eurasia (Gan et al., 2007; Zubovich et al., 2010) and the distribution of Permian basalts of the
308 Tarim Large Igneous Province (LIP, dashed magenta line) (Xu et al., 2021). B) Distribution of
309 seismic stations (red triangles) and seismic ray paths of surface waves analyzed in this work (thin
310 black lines). Political boundaries (dashed black lines) and locations of inverted velocity profiles
311 (dashed yellow lines) are also shown.



312

313 Figure 2. Seismic tomography profile from the southern edge of the Tarim basin to the Issyk-Kul

314 Lake, Kyrgyzstan. A) Topographic profile (see location in Fig. 1A). B) Absolute shear wave

315 velocity structure in the 0-100 km depth range from Rayleigh wave dispersion (this study). The

316 top of the Tarim slab (thick black line) and the Moho from receiver function (dashed grey line,

317 after He et al., 2014) are shown. C) Relative S-wave velocity structure in the 0-100 km depth

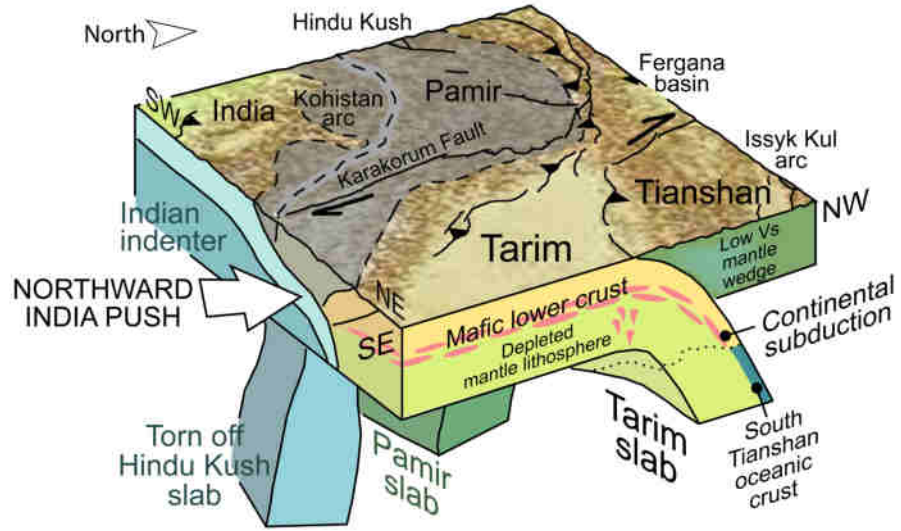
318 range (this study). The reference velocity is the average of the 3-D velocity volume in depth. D)

319 P-wave velocity structure in the 100-600 km depth range (after Koulakov, 2011). Please note the

320 vertically exaggerated scale among B)-D). E-F) Depth slices of inverted S-wave velocity at 50

321 km and 80 km depth. The high-velocity (HV1, 2) and low-velocity (LV1-3) features are

322 discussed in the main text.



323

324 Figure 3. Summary 3-D model of the deep tectonic structure beneath Tarim, Tianshan and Pamir.

325 The SW-NE face of the model is based on [Bloch et al. \(2021\)](#). The south-dipping Pamir slab and

326 the torn off Hindu Kush slab are from [Kufner et al. \(2016\)](#).