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Late Cretaceous (~81 Ma) high-temperature metamorphism in the southeastern Lhasa terrane: Implication for the Neo-Tethys ocean ridge subduction

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A B S T R A C T

An integrated study of U–Pb zircon dating, geochemical and Sr–Nd–Hf isotopic compositions of garnet-bearing granulite and marble from the granulite-facies domain of the Nyinchi Complex (eastern Himalayan syntaxis) has provided insights into the tectonic evolution of the southern Lhasa terrane. The peak metamorphism of the garnet-bearing granulite is marked by a mineral assemblage of garnet + orthopyroxene + high-Ti amphibole + plagioclase + quartz + rutile. Abundant exsolved rutile needles are observed within amphibole, garnet and quartz. The peak metamorphic temperatures are estimated at 803–924 °C. Geochemical data from the garnet-bearing granulites provide evidence for a basaltic protolith that formed in a continental-margin arc setting. Sr–Nd–Hf isotopic compositions indicate that this protolith was sourced from partial melting of a depleted mantle. LA-ICP MS U–Pb zircon dating shows that the protolith age and metamorphic age of the garnet-bearing granulites are 89.3 ± 0.6 Ma and 81.1 ± 0.8 Ma, respectively. The detrital magmatic zircons from the marble yield ages from 86.3 to 167 Ma. The age distribution and Hf isotopic composition (εHf(t) = +5.9 to +17.5) of the detrital magmatic zircon in the marble are consistent with the isotopic data of zircons from the Jurassic–Cretaceous Gangdese batholiths, suggesting that the clastic sediments were partially derived from these intrusives or associated volcanic rocks, and deposited in the fore-arc basin of the Gangdese arc. The metamorphic zircons in the marble yield a metamorphic age of 81.4 ± 0.5 Ma. These results show that both the arc magmatic rocks and forearc sedimentary rocks underwent high-temperature (HT) granulite-facies metamorphism at ~81 Ma, indicating anomalously high heat input in the forearc region. A range of tectonic observations, including a coeval hiatus in arc magmatism and a period of regional uplift, indicate that HT metamorphism resulted from the subduction of the Neo-Tethys ocean ridge beneath the southern Lhasa terrane during the Late Cretaceous.

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1. Introduction

The subduction of an oceanic spreading ridge is likely to be a phenomenon that characterizes many convergent plate boundaries. Following ridge subduction, a slab window will form beneath the overriding plate as the plate growth along the diverging oceanic plate edges ceases (DeLong et al., 1979; Thorkelson, 1996). Ridge subduction and the associated slab window strongly affect the tectonic, metamorphic and magmatic evolution of the overriding plate (e.g., Aguillon-Robles et al., 2001; Brown, 1998; Cole and Stewart, 2009; DeLong et al., 1979; Groome and Thorkelson, 2009; Guillaume et al., 2010; Lagabrielle et al., 2000; Santosh and Kusky, 2010; Sisson et al., 2003; Thorkelson, 1996). Large porphyry Cu–Au deposits may be spatially associated with the oceanic ridge subduction (Haeussler et al., 1995; Sun et al., 2010). Importantly, the oceanic ridge subduction plays a pivotal role in crustal growth through the interaction between asthenospheric mantle and supracrustal rocks (Nelson and Forsysyte, 1989; Tang et al., 2010). Identifying when ridge subduction has occurred is thus important for understanding the tectonic evolution of ancient convergent margins. Extensive studies of the effects of ridge subduction have been investigated in the modern Pacific Rim convergent margins (McCory et al., 2009, and references therein). There are several geological effects related to the ridge subduction, including (1) adakitic rocks derived from partial melting of the oceanic crust at slab window edges (Tang et al., 2010; Thorkelson and Breitsprecher, 2005), and/or from partial melting of overlying lower crust (Cole et al., 2006); (2) a hiatus of arc magmatism due to the cessation of fluid-triggered mantel- wedge melting (Cole and Stewart, 2009, and references therein); (3) near-trench magmatism, either by decompression melting of

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upwelling mantle, or from magmas derived from partial melting of the accretionary wedge sediments, or both (Bradley et al., 2003; Cole and Stewart, 2009; Cole et al., 2006; Marshak and Karig, 1977); (4) HT/UHT metamorphism in the fore-arc region (Brown, 1998; DeLong et al., 1979; Santosh and Kushy, 2010); (5) uplift of the fore-arc and arc region in response to the subduction of the topographic high and buoyant ridge, or the replacement of relatively cool lithospheric mantle by relatively hot asthenospheric mantle (Guillaume et al., 2009, 2010; Rogers et al., 2002); and (6) changes in structural style on either side of the slab window (Pavlis and Sisson, 1995). Although there is no unique signature of ridge subduction events, the observation of several of these features together can help identify regions where ridge subduction may have occurred in the past (Sisson et al., 2003). Near-trench magmatism and HT metamorphism are the most striking features attributable to ridge subduction, and are likely to be diagnostic of ancient ridge subduction (Brown, 1998; Santosh and Kushy, 2010).

The southern Lhasa terrane (Gangdese belt) was an Andean-type magmatic arc that resulted from the northward subduction of the Neo-Tethyan oceanic slab prior to the India-Asia collision (55 ± 10 Ma) (Allègre et al., 1984; de Sigoyer et al., 2000; Najman et al., 2010, and references therein; Yin and Harrison, 2000). The existing geochronological data indicate that the time of the Gangdese arc magmatism spans from late Triassic to Eocene (Chu et al., 2006; Ji et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2009; Schärer et al., 1984; Wen et al., 2008b; Xu et al., 1985). The closure of the Neo-Tethyan ocean would have involved at least one episode of spreading ridge subduction beneath the southern Lhasa terrane. Based on the occurrences of charnockite, adakitic rocks, and HT metamorphism, Zhang et al. (2010b, 2010c) and Meng et al. (2010) have suggested that a Late Cretaceous (~90 Ma) ridge subduction could have occurred in the southeastern Lhasa terrane. However, the presence of coeval (98–88 Ma) arc magmatic rocks conflict with the ridge subduction model (Guan et al., 2011). Guan et al. (2010) suggested instead that the ridge subducted at ~80 Ma based on the adakitic magmatism in the southeastern Lhasa terrane. The timing of ridge subduction therefore remains enigmatic.

Unlike the numerous igneous studies, the metamorphic history of southern Lhasa terrane is rarely studied (Booth et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2012; Harris et al., 1988; Wang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010c). In the southeastern Lhasa terrane, the Nyingchi Complex underwent high temperature (HT) granulite-facies metamorphism (Geng et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2010c). The ages of granulite-facies metamorphism and protolith of the Nyingchi Complex are important to understand the tectonic evolution of the active southern margin of Eurasia. Previous studies show that the metamorphic ages of the host rocks of the granulite are 80–90 Ma (Dong et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010c). However, the metamorphic age of the granulite remains uncertain. In addition, the age and origin of the protoliths of the granulites have not yet been well constrained. In this study, we focus on granulite facies rocks of the Nyingchi Complex and provide new evidence for Late Cretaceous (~81 Ma) forearc high-temperature (HT) metamorphism that resulted from the Neo-Tethys ocean ridge subduction. Our results, combined with studies on the igneous and tectonic history, provide new constraints on the Late Cretaceous evolution of the India-Asian collision.

![Fig. 1.](image-url)
2. Geological background

The Tibetan Plateau is a collage of continental terranes that were accreted to the Eurasian plate during the Phanerozoic (Allègre et al., 1984; Dewey et al., 1988; Pan et al., 2012; Yin and Harrison, 2000). The Lhasa terrane is the southernmost terrane of the Asian continent (Fig. 1a), and is separated from the Qiangtang terrane to the north by the Bangong–Nuijiang suture zone (BNS) and the Tethyan Himalaya (Indian affinity) to the south by the Indus–Yarlung Tsangpo suture zone (IYTS) (Dewey et al., 1988; Pan et al., 2012). Based on contrasting sedimentary terranes (Fig. 1a), separated by the Shiquan River–Nam Tso Mélange Zone (SNMZ) and Luobadui–Milashan Fault (L1MF), respectively (Zhu et al., 2011). The northern Lhasa terrane is mainly composed of Jurassic–Cretaceous volcanic rocks, which were intruded by Mesozoic (130–80 Ma) plutonic rocks (Zhu et al., 2009a, and references therein). The central Lhasa terrane comprises Precambrian basement (e.g., the Nyainqentanglha gneisses), overlain by Paleozoic–Cretaceous sedimentary cover (Hu et al., 2005; Zhu et al., 2011). The southern Lhasa terrane is dominated by Cretaceous–Early Tertiary Gangdese batholiths and the Linzizong volcanic succession (Chu et al., 2006; Coulon et al., 1986; Ji et al., 2009; Wen et al., 2008a, Zhang et al., 2007). There is an apparent hiatus in Gangdese arc magmatism in the southern Lhasa terrane between 80 and 70 Ma, the cause of which remains unclear (Volkmer, 2010; Wen et al., 2006; Coulon et al., 1986; Ji et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2009; Wen et al., 2008a, 2008b). Guan et al. (2010) reported a suite of Late Cretaceous (~81 Ma) gneissic and a suite of Late Cretaceous (98–88 Ma) mafic rocks in Liling area, respectively. In addition, Guo et al. (2011) reported a ~80 Ma gneissic platon (83–80 Ma) exhibits adakitic geochemical characteristics, resulting from partial melting of the underplated basaltic lower crust (Guan et al., 2010; Wen et al., 2008a), Zhang et al. (2010b) and Guan et al. (2011) reported a suite of Late Cretaceous (90–88 Ma) charnockite and a suite of Late Cretaceous (98–88 Ma) mafic rocks in Liling area, respectively.

Table 1

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
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<th>T666</th>
<th>T667</th>
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<td>N29°12′</td>
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<td>E94°07′</td>
<td>E94°07′</td>
<td>E94°07′</td>
<td>E94°07′</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: LOI = Loss on ignition; TFe2O3 = All Fe calculated as Fe2O3; Mg# = 100(Mg/Fe).

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Fig. 2. Photomicrographs for the garnet-bearing granulite (a–g) and the marble (h) from the Nyingchi Complex in the eastern Himalayan syntaxis. (a) The porphyroblast garnet is partially replaced by retrograde symplectites of amphibole + plagioclase + rutile (sample T666). Garnet contains orthopyroxene inclusion. (b) Oriented rutile needles in garnet (sample T666). (c) The type 1 amphibole containing rutile inclusions (sample T664). (d) Core-rim structure from type 1 amphibole (sample T664). (e) Orthopyroxene partially replaced by type 2 amphibole (sample T667). (f) Oriented rutile needles in quartz (sample T666). (g) Oriented ilmenite needles in rutile (sample T664, backscattered electron image). (h) Calcite, diopside, aegirine and quartz assemblage from the marble (sample T668). Abbreviations: Aeg = aegirine; Amp = amphibole; Cal = calcite; Czo = clinozoisite; Dt = diopside; Grt = garnet; Ilm = ilmenite; Opx = orthopyroxene; Pl = plagioclase; Qtz = quartz; Rt = rutile.
granite resulting from magma mixing between juvenile and old crustal materials.

The Nyingchi Complex, to the north of the Yarlung–Tsangpo suture zone (Fig. 1b), was considered to be the Precambrian basement of the Lhasa terrane based on the middle- and high-grade metamorphism (Geng et al., 2006). However, the detrital zircon U–Pb dating shows that the metasedimentary rocks from the Nyingchi Complex are no older than 490 or 340 Ma (Dong et al., 2010; Guo et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2008). Due to the lack of detailed geological and geochemical investigation, the age and origin of the protoliths of the Nyingchi Complex have not yet been well documented. The existing studies show that the Nyingchi Complex is a set of tectonic mélangé involved in different ages and various lithologies (Dong et al., 2010; Guo et al., 2011, 2012; Zhang et al., 2008, 2010c). The Nyingchi Complex can be divided into granulite-facies and amphibolite-facies metamorphic units (Fig. 1b) (Zhang et al., 2010c). The granulite-facies metamorphic unit is composed of granulate, garnet-bearing amphibolite and marble. The granulite occurs as lenses or blocks within the amphibolite-facies country rocks. The amphibolite-facies metamorphic unit consists of migmatite, amphibolitic gneiss, kyanite–sillimanite biotite schist and marble (Booth et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2011, 2012; Zhang et al., 2008, 2010c). The P–T conditions for the granulite-facies and amphibolite-facies have been estimated at 0.9–1.3 GPa, 830–900 °C and 0.8–1.2 GPa, 600–800 °C, respectively (Booth et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010c).

3. Petrography

Five garnet-bearing granulite samples (T664, T665, T666, T667, and T726) and a marble sample (T668) of this study have been collected from the granulite facies unit of the Nyingchi Complex (Zhang et al., 2010c)(Fig. 1b). Outcrop GPS coordinates for the garnet-bearing granulite samples are given in Table 1. Because of the thick soil cover, the field relations between the garnet-bearing granulite and marble are unexposed.

3.1. Garnet-bearing granulite

All five garnet-bearing granulite samples display porphyroblastic texture and gneissose structure. They have similar mineral assemblages, and consist of garnet, amphibole, plagioclase, orthopyroxene, quartz, clinopyroxene, epidote, rutile, ilmenite, and zircon (Fig. 2a–g). Based on the mineral assemblages and microstructures, two metamorphic stages are recognized: peak granulite facies and retrograde amphibolite facies. All the samples have undergone retrograde metamorphism, and locally preserve relics of the peak metamorphic assemblages.

The garnets from all the five samples occur as subhedral to euhedral porphyroblasts, with a grain size of 1–5 mm. The garnet porphyroblasts in sample T666 contain inclusions of orthopyroxene, quartz and rutile (Fig. 2a). Most garnet grains contain exsolved needles of rutile (Fig. 2b). The garnet porphyroblasts are partially replaced by fine-grained symplectites (Fig. 2a). Amphibole can be divided into two types based on their mode and composition. Type 1 consists of relatively large grains (up to 3 mm) and contains a large number of rutile exsolution needles (Fig. 2c–e), suggesting their high-Ti precursors. Some Type 1 amphiboles in sample T664 show core–rim structure, and the mineral color changes from brownish in the core to greenish in the rim (Fig. 2d). Type 2 consists of a greenish and fine-grained...
aggregate with plagioclase (Fig. 2a). The Orthopyroxene granits form two morphological types. The large anhedral orthopyroxenes in sample T667 are generally replaced by greenish amphibole (Fig. 2e). The fine-grained orthopyroxenes are mainly included in the garnet porphyroblasts (Fig. 2a). Clinozoisite and epidote occur as the alteration product of plagioclase, mainly within the plagioclase along the cleavage (Fig. 2a, c). Two generations of rutile are identified in sample T664, T665, T666, and T726. The first generation is seen as dark brown to black single crystal inclusions within amphibole, garnet, or quartz grains (Fig. 2a, c). Some rutile grains in sample T664 contain regular ilmenite exsolution lamellae (Fig. 2g), indicating that they have significant Fe content (Banfield and Veblen, 1991; Zack et al., 2004). The second generation occurs as exsolution needles within garnet, quartz and amphibole (Fig. 2b, d, f). The rutile needles in garnets and quartz are distributed along three crystallographically oriented planes (Fig. 2b, f). Most needles are 100–200 μm in length and <1 μm in diameter (Fig. 2b, f). The rutile needles in amphibole are 50–200 μm in length and 1–5 μm in diameter, and distribute along one or two crystallographically oriented planes (Fig. 2d). These rutile needles within garnet, hornblende and quartz are thought to be formed by
titanium exsolution during cooling, and suggest that titanium is saturated in these minerals during prograde metamorphism (Adachi et al., 2010; Kawasaki and Osanai, 2008; Thomas et al., 2010; Wark and Watson, 2006).

In summary, the garnet-bearing granulites from Nyingchi Complex experienced an early stage of granite-facies metamorphism and a late stage of amphibolite-facies retrogression. The peak granite-facies is characterized by a mineral assemblage of garnet + orthopyroxene + high-Ti amphibole + plagioclase + quartz + rutile. The retrograde amphibolite facies is represented by a mineral assemblage of plagioclase + low-Ti amphibole + quartz + rutile.

3.2. Marble

Primary compositional layers with distinct color bands are partially preserved in thick marble beds. The grayish-green marble layers are rich in silicate minerals whereas the white marble layers contain nearly pure carbonate. The marble sample T668 (N92°12’31.6”, E94°10’7.3”) is grayish-green in color. It shows blastic texture and massive structure, and mainly consists of calcite, and minor diopside, aegirine, quartz and tremolite (Fig. 2h).

4. Analytical methods

4.1. Zircon trace elements and U–Pb dating

Zircons were separated from rock samples using conventional heavy liquid and magnetic separation techniques. Cathodoluminescence (CL) images, taken at Northwest University (China), were used to check the internal structures of individual zircon grains and to guide U–Pb dating and Hf isotope analysis. Zircon U–Pb isotopic analyses were conducted by laser-ablation, inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (LA–ICP–MS) at the State Key Laboratory of Geological Processes and Mineral Resources (GPMR), China University of Geosciences. Laser sampling was performed using a GeoLas 2005. An Agilent 7500a ICP–MS instrument was used to acquire ion-signal intensities. Helium was applied as a carrier gas. Argon was used as the make-up gas and mixed with the carrier gas via a T-connector before entering the ICP. Nitrogen was added into the central gas flow (Ar + He) of the Ar plasma to decrease the detection limit and improve precision (Hu et al., 2008). Each analysis incorporated a background acquisition of approximately 20–30 s (gas blank) followed by 50 s data acquisition from the sample. The Agilent Chemstation was utilized for the acquisition of each individual analysis. A beam diameter of 32 μm was used. Zircon 91500 was used as an external standard and the NIST610 glass was used as an external standard. Detailed operating conditions for the laser ablation system and the ICP–MS instrument and data reduction are the same as described by Liu et al. (2010a, 2010b). Off-line selection and integration of background and analyte signals, and time-drift correction and quantitative calibration were conducted by ICPMSDataCal (Liu et al., 2010a). We use 206Pb/238U ages for zircons <1000 Ma and 207Pb/206Pb ages for zircons >1000 Ma. The data were processed using the ISOPLOT program of Ludwig (2003). The analytical data of zircon U–Pb dating and trace elements are given in Appendix Tables A1 and A2, respectively.

4.2. Zircon Lu–Hf isotope

In situ zircon Lu–Hf isotopic measurements were performed on the dated zircons using the LA–MC–ICPMS, at Northwest University in Xi’an. Analytical spots were located close to or on the top of LA–ICPMS spots or in the same growth domain as inferred from CL images. The analytical protocol used was similar to that outlined in Yuan et al. (2008). The analyses were undertaken using a spot size of 44 μm, an 8 Hz repetition rate and a laser power of 100 mJ/pulse. Zircon 91500, GJ-1 and Monastery were used as the reference standard. The decay constant for 176Lu and the chondritic ratios of 176Hf/177Hf and 176Lu/177Hf used in calculations are 1.865 × 10^-11/year (Scherer et al., 2001), and 0.282772 and 0.0332 (Blichert-Toft and Albarede, 1997), respectively. The single-stage model age (TDM1) was calculated relative to the depleted mantle with a present-day 176Hf/177Hf ratio of 0.28325 and 176Lu/177Hf ratio of 0.0384 (Griffin et al., 2000), and two-stage model ages (TDM2) were calculated by assuming a mean 176Lu/177Hf value of 0.015 for the average continental crust (Vervoort and Blichert-Toft, 1999). Initial 176Hf/177Hf ratios and εHf(t) values are calculated by the zircon crystallization ages.

4.3. Whole rock major- and trace-element analysis

Fresh rock samples were crushed in a steel crusher and then powdered in an agate mill to a grain size ~200 mesh for analyses. The major elements were analyzed by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) at the State Key Lab of Biogeology and Environmental Geology, China University of Geosciences. The analytical uncertainty is better than 5%. Trace elements were measured using Agilent 7500a ICP–MS at the State Key Laboratory of Geological Processes and Mineral Resources (GPMR), China University of Geosciences, Wuhan. The detailed sample-digesting procedure for ICP–MS analyses and analytical precision and accuracy for trace elements are the same as described by Liu et al. (2008).

4.4. Measurements of Ti content in quartz

The measurements of Ti content in quartz were performed using OL-JXA-8100 electron microprobe at the GPMR. The accelerating voltage,
positive Ce anomalies and marked negative Eu anomalies (Eu/Eu* = 0.62, Table A1). The magmatic cores are enriched in HREE, and have been carried out. Twenty-two analyses on the cores have Th of 39.6 ppm, U of 124–4314 ppm, with Th/U ratios of 0.03–1.17 (Table A1). They are enriched in HREE, and have positive Ce anomalies and marked negative Eu anomalies (Eu/Eu* = 0.04–0.77) (Fig. 4b; Table A2). Their 206Pb/238U ages range from 86.3 to 167 Ma, with two populations at 86–100 Ma and 120–155 Ma, respectively (Fig. 5b and c). The youngest age peak is 89.7 Ma (Fig. 5c), giving a maximum depositional age of the protolith. In contrast, nineteen analyses on the metamorphic domains have Th of 21.3–1591 ppm, U of 145.8–1023 ppm, with variable Th/U ratios of 0.12–1.56 (Table A1). They have relatively flat M-HREE patterns, and largely weak negative Eu anomaly (Eu/Eu* = 0.42–1.05) (Fig. 4b). This is also distinct from those of the cores in this sample. They have 206Pb/238U ages ranging from 80.4 Ma to 84.4 Ma, with a weighted mean of 81.4 ± 0.5 Ma (MSWD = 0.74) (Fig. 5b), which is interpreted as the metamorphic age.

5.2. Whole-rock geochemistry of the garnet-bearing granulite

Petrographic observation shows that the garnet-bearing granulite samples have experienced various degrees of alteration, as indicated by the presence of epidote and clinozoisite (Fig. 2). Some major elements (e.g., K and Na) and large-ion lithophile elements (ULIE, e.g., Cs, Rb and Ba) could be mobilized during metamorphism and alteration (Chesworth et al., 1981; Wood et al., 1979). In contrast, high field-strength elements (HFSE, e.g., Nb, Ta, Zr, Hf, Ti, Y), REE and transitional elements (e.g., Ni, Cr, V, and Sc) are considered to be relatively immobile during alteration and metamorphism (Middelburg et al., 1988; Wood et al., 1979). We thus chose the relatively immobile elements to discuss the protolith nature of the garnet-bearing granulite.

Whole rock major- and trace-element data of the garnet-bearing granulite are presented in Table 1. All the studied samples show low LOI of 0.74–1.46% (Table 1), suggesting that they were not significantly

### Table 2

Measured Ti contents in quartz and T (°C) estimation with TitaniQ thermometer.

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<th>Sample</th>
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<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>–</td>
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<td>–</td>
<td>99.532</td>
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<td>0.005</td>
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<td>190</td>
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* Below detection limit.
carbonated during metamorphism and alteration. They have SiO₂ of 50.71–54.65%, and are characterized by high Al₂O₃ (16.73–19.54%), low TiO₂ (0.78–0.97%), low MgO (2.85–4.81%) and low Mg# of 33–51 (Table 1). Their protoliths are sub-alkaline basalts according to the Zr/TiO₂-Nb/Y classification diagram (Winchester and Floyd, 1977) (Fig. 6a). In the Co–Th classification diagram, they plot in the calc-alkaline basalt field (Hastie et al., 2007) (Fig. 6b).

The chondrite-normalized REE patterns (Fig. 7a) show LREE enrichment [(La/Yb)N = 2.9–4.7] with Eu/Eu* = 0.87–1.13. They are enriched in K, Pb and Sr, and depleted in Nb, Ta, Zr, Hf and Ti relative to their neighboring elements (Fig. 7b). These geochemical characteristics are similar to those of the Late Cretaceous (98–88 Ma) mafic rocks in Linlong area (Fig. 7) (Guan et al., 2011).

5.3. Isotope geochemistry

The whole-rock Sr–Nd isotopic composition for the garnet-bearing granulite samples is given in Table 1. Lu–Hf isotope analyses for zircon

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grains from the garnet-bearing granulite and the marble samples are presented in Table A3 and are plotted in Fig. 8.

The initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios and $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ values are calculated at $t = 89$ Ma. Four garnet-bearing granulite samples have relatively homogeneous initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of 0.70433–0.70456 and positive $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ values ranging from +2.7 to +4.6 (Table 1). Eighteen Hf isotopic analyses on the magmatic cores of the zircons from garnet-bearing granulite have $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values from +10.5 to +16.0, and two-stage model ages ($T_{DM2}$) from 126 to 479 Ma (Table A3 and Fig. 8). These values are similar to those of the mafic rocks (~88 Ma) in Lilong area, which show initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of ~0.70427, $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ value of +3.0, and $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values of +11.8 to +17.2 (Guan et al., 2011).

Thirty-eight Hf isotopic analyses on the magmatic cores of detrital zircons from the marble yield $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values ranging from +5.9 to +17.5, corresponding to the $T_{DM2}$ of 82–778 Ma (Table A3 and Fig. 8).

5.4. Ti-in-quartz geothermometry

The quartz grains in the garnet-bearing granulite contain abundant exsolved rutile needles (Fig. 2f). Experimental studies have shown that the Ti contents in quartz increase with rising temperature and decrease with increasing pressure (Kawasaki and Osanai, 2008; Thomas et al., 2010; Wark and Watson, 2006). Hence exsolution is a consequence of rutile nucleation in response to decreasing Ti solubility during cooling or decompression (Kawasaki and Osanai, 2008; Thomas et al., 2010; Wark and Watson, 2006). Wark and Watson (2006) experimentally calibrated the Ti-in-quartz thermobarometer that enables estimations of the temperature and pressure on the Ti-in-quartz solubility, and developed TitaniQ thermometer based on the temperature dependence of Ti solubility in quartz. Thomas et al. (2010) further investigated the effect of pressure on the Ti-in-quartz solubility, and developed TitanIQ thermobarometer that enables estimations of the temperature and pressure conditions of igneous and metamorphic rocks when used in combination with independent thermometers. The TitanIQ temperature is determined using equation 12 of Thomas et al. (2010):

$$ T(\degreeC) = \frac{1}{K + \frac{1}{R}} - 273.15 $$

where $P$ is the pressure (kbar), $R$ is the gas constant ($8.314472 \text{J/K}$), $X_{\text{TiO}_2}$ is the mole fraction of $\text{TiO}_2$ in quartz and $\epsilon_{\text{TiO}_2}$ is the activity of $\text{TiO}_2$ in the system.

The analyzed quartz in this study contains fine, oriented needles of exsolved rutile spaced 10–20 μm apart (Fig. 2f). Rutile needles are distributed throughout the entire area of quartz grains (Fig. 2f), suggesting that Ti diffusion is insignificant. In order to obtain reliable Ti content of pre-exsolution quartz, we adopted the large-area-averaged method (Adachi et al., 2010; Wark and Watson, 2006) using a beam diameter of 50 μm. Ten analyses were performed on six quartz grains. The results show that the predominant trace elements present in quartz are Mg, Al and Ti (Table 2). The Ti contents range from 150 to 216 ppm (Table 2). Based on the presence of rutile throughout the prograde and retrograde metamorphic stages, the activity of titanium ($\epsilon_{\text{TiO}_2}$) is assumed to be 1. Considering that the peak metamorphic mineral assemblages for the garnet-bearing granulite are similar to those of the adjacent felsic granulite reported by Zhang et al. (2010c), we assumed a pressure of 10–13 kbar, obtained by conventional barometry (Zhang et al., 2010c), to calculate the peak metamorphic temperature. Our calculated results show that the metamorphic temperatures are 803–849 °C at $P = 10$ kbar and 874–924 °C at $P = 13$ kbar (Table 1), consistent with the peak metamorphic temperatures of 830–900 °C, estimated by conventional thermometers (Zhang et al., 2010c).

6. Discussion

6.1. Petrogenesis of the garnet-bearing granulite and the marble

6.1.1. Garnet-bearing granulite

Late Cretaceous (110–80 Ma) Gangdese arc magmatism was widespread in the southern Lhasa terrane along the IYSZ (Guan et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2010a, b). Garnet-bearing sample T667 and metasedimentary sample T527 in Nyingchi Complex (Zhang et al., 2010a) are used to model the mantle-derived and crustal end-member, respectively.

Watson (2006) calculated the Ti-in-quartz ($\text{TitanIQ}$) thermometer based on the temperature dependence of Ti solubility in quartz. Thomas et al. (2010) further investigated the effect of pressure on the Ti-in-quartz solubility, and developed TitanIQ thermobarometer that enables estimations of the temperature and pressure conditions of igneous and metamorphic rocks when used in combination with independent thermometers. The TitanIQ temperature is determined using equation 12 of Thomas et al. (2010):

$$ T(\degreeC) = \frac{1}{K + \frac{1}{R}} - 273.15 $$

where $P$ is the pressure (kbar), $R$ is the gas constant ($8.314472 \text{J/K}$), $X_{\text{TiO}_2}$ is the mole fraction of $\text{TiO}_2$ in quartz and $\epsilon_{\text{TiO}_2}$ is the activity of $\text{TiO}_2$ in the system.

The analyzed quartz in this study contains fine, oriented needles of exsolved rutile spaced 10–20 μm apart (Fig. 2f). Rutile needles are distributed throughout the entire area of quartz grains (Fig. 2f), suggesting that Ti diffusion is insignificant. In order to obtain reliable Ti content of pre-exsolution quartz, we adopted the large-area-averaged method (Adachi et al., 2010; Wark and Watson, 2006) using a beam diameter of 50 μm. Ten analyses were performed on six quartz grains. The results show that the predominant trace elements present in quartz are Mg, Al and Ti (Table 2). The Ti contents range from 150 to 216 ppm (Table 2). Based on the presence of rutile throughout the prograde and retrograde metamorphic stages, the activity of titanium ($\epsilon_{\text{TiO}_2}$) is assumed to be 1. Considering that the peak metamorphic mineral assemblages for the garnet-bearing granulite are similar to those of the adjacent felsic granulite reported by Zhang et al. (2010c), we assumed a pressure of 10–13 kbar, obtained by conventional barometry (Zhang et al., 2010c), to calculate the peak metamorphic temperature. Our calculated results show that the metamorphic temperatures are 803–849 °C at $P = 10$ kbar and 874–924 °C at $P = 13$ kbar (Table 1), consistent with the peak metamorphic temperatures of 830–900 °C, estimated by conventional thermometers (Zhang et al., 2010c).

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6.2. The Late Cretaceous (~81 Ma) HT metamorphism

Our study indicates that the Nyinchi Complex underwent granulite-facies metamorphism, and was subsequently overprinted by amphibolite-facies retrograde metamorphism. The peak granulite-facies mineral assemblage is garnet + orthopyroxene + high-Ti amphibole + plagioclase + quartz + rutile (Fig. 2), which is similar to those of the adjacent felsic granulites in the Nyinchi Complex (Zhang et al., 2010c). The single rutile crystals contain regular ilmenite exsolution lamellae (Fig. 2g), indicating that they have high Fe content and formed during HT metamorphism (Banfield and Veblen, 1991; Zack et al., 2004). In addition, amphibole, garnet and quartz all contain abundant exsolved rutile needles (Fig. 2b, d, f), suggesting that their precursors have high Ti contents. The peak metamorphic temperatures estimated by using TitanQ geothermometer are 803–924 °C (Table 2), which are consistent with the previous estimations for adjacent felsic granulite in the Nyinchi Complex (Zhang et al., 2010c).

All the inherited (magmatic and detrital) zircon cores of both the garnet-bearing granulite and the marble have similar chondrite-normalized REE patterns (Fig. 4). The REE patterns of inherited (magmatic and detrital) cores contain significantly higher REE contents than those of metamorphic rims. Their pronounced negative Eu anomaly, and positive Ce anomaly is a common feature of magmatic zircon (Hoskin and Schaltegger, 2003). The metamorphic zircon rims in the garnet-bearing granulite (sample T666) have relatively low Th/U ratios and low REE contents (Table A2). The REE patterns of the metamorphic zircon rims in garnet-bearing granulite show steep slopes from the HREE to LREE with moderately negative Eu anomalies (Eu/Eu' = 0.40–0.82) and positive Ce anomalies (Fig. 4a). Enrichment of HREE indicates that the metamorphic zircon rims did not equilibrate with garnet in this sample, or formed in an “open” system situation with an infinite reservoir of trace element (Rubatto, 2002). The decreasing Eu anomaly, compared to the inherited magmatic zircons, is compatible with the release of Eu due to the break-down of minor plagioclase. The metamorphic rims/zircons in the marble (sample T668) have relatively flat M-HREE patterns, and weak negative Eu anomaly (Eu/Eu' = 0.42–1.05) (Fig. 4b). Depletion of HREE indicates they grew during or after the crystallization of garnet. However, the lack of garnet in the marble (Fig. 2h) suggests that they probably formed in an “open” system. The weak negative Eu anomaly indicates that the metamorphic rims/zircons coexisted with minor or no feldspar. The geochemistry of the metamorphic rims/zircons in the garnet-bearing granulite and the marble suggests that they probably formed in an “open” system situation during the peak granulite-facies metamorphic stage. LA-ICP MS U–Pb zircon dating results show that they yield a consistent metamorphic age of ~81 Ma (Fig. 5a, b). We thus propose that the Nyinchi Complex experienced HT granulate-facies metamorphism at ~81 Ma.

6.3. Late Cretaceous Neo-Tethys ocean ridge subduction

Our work demonstrates that the protolith of the garnet-bearing granulites is typical of continental margin arc rocks whereas the protolith of the marble formed in the fore-arc basin of the Gangdese arc. Typically the fore-arc region is characterized by low-temperature metamorphism resulting from the subduction of cold oceanic lithosphere (Groome and Thorkelson, 2009). However, in the southeastern Lhasa terrane both the arc magmatic rocks and fore-arc sedimentary rocks underwent HT granulite facies metamorphism at ~81 Ma. Therefore, the Late Cretaceous HT metamorphism requires a tectonic setting that allows an anomalously high heat flux in the fore-arc region. Several tectonic models may account for a high heat flux in such a setting, for example, slab break-off which is sometimes a
response to continental collision (Davies and von Blanckenburg, 1995). The India–Asian continental collision took place at 55 ± 10 Ma (de Sigoyer et al., 2000; Najman et al., 2010, and references therein). Many studies suggested that the break-off of the Neo-Tethyan oceanic slab occurred at ~50 Ma (Ji et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2009; Wen et al., 2008b), considerably later than the ~81 Ma HT metamorphism in the southeastern Lhasa terrane. A second possibility is ridge subduction which places hot sub-slab asthenospheric mantle beneath the base of the overlying plate resulting in HT/UHT metamorphism in the slab window at the roots of the arc and fore-arc and so produces anomalously high temperatures at shallow crustal depth (Brown, 1998; Santosh and Kusky, 2010).

We suggest that the Late Cretaceous (~81 Ma) HT metamorphism in the southeastern Lhasa terrane resulted from the subduction of the Neo-Tethys ocean ridge based on the following evidence: (1) The temporal and spatial variation of the Gangdese arc magmatism indicates that there is a gap in the period between 80 and 70 Ma (Fig. 5c) (Ji et al., 2009; Wen et al., 2008b). Although Volkmer (2010) attributed this gap to the formation of eclogitic lithospheric root resulting from shortening of the Lhasa terrane, this model conflicts with the

![Fig. 12](#)

**Fig. 12.** Schematic tectonic model for of the evolution of the southern Lhasa terrane in the eastern Himalayan syntaxis area during 90–70 Ma. Details are in Section 6.4.
contemporary HT metamorphism recorded in the Nyinching Complex (Zhang et al., 2010c; this study); (2) Wen et al. (2008a) reported a suite of epidote-bearing adakitic rocks (80–82 Ma) in the southeastern Lhasa terrane, and suggested that these rocks originated from partial melting of uperplated mafic lower crust; (3) Guo et al. (2011) reported a Late Cretaceous granite (~81 Ma) which resulted from binary mixing between juvenile crustal materials (or mantle-derived magma) and an old crustal component, suggesting crustal anatexis at that time; (4) A major regional unconformity across southern Lhasa terrane has been documented, with gently dipping Palaeoecene Linzizong volcanic rocks above folded Late Cretaceous and/or older rocks, showing that significant crustal uplift occurred prior to the India–Asia collision (Burg and Chen, 1984; England and Searle, 1986; Kapp et al., 2007; Leier et al., 2007); and (5) Ghalaut and Kundu (2012) analyzed the Gangdese arc morphology and earthquake ruptures, and suggested that the buoyant seismic/aseismic ridge subduction influenced the Gangdese arc morphology by causing a cusp in the southeastern Lhasa terrane. Taking all these independent and diverse studies into account, we propose that Late Cretaceous tectonothermal phenomena (the magmatic arc morphology by causing a cusp in the southeastern Lhasa terrane. We propose a three-stage tectonic model accounting for the evolution of the southern Lhasa terrane during the Late Cretaceous, involving a stage of ridge subduction at ~81 Ma (Fig. 12). We do not propose a specific type of triple junction configuration in our model because of the lack of robust constraints on such speculation.

Stage 1 (~90 Ma): The young Neo-Tethys oceanic slab subducted beneath the Lhasa terrane prior to the arrival of the Neo-Tethys ridge at the trench (Fig. 12a). Dehydration of the down-going slab triggered partial melting of the mantle wedge to produce normal arc magmatism (Guan et al., 2011; this study). Contemporaneous melting of young, hot subducting oceanic crust resulted in the formation of adakitic charnockites (Zhang et al., 2010b). In the fore-arc basin, the detrital sediments were mainly derived from the erosion of the Gangdese batholiths and equivalent volcanic rocks (Fig. 12a).

Stage 2 (~81 Ma): The Neo-Tethys ocean ridge entered the trench (Fig. 12b). The resulting slab window placed the sub-lab asthenospheric mantle beneath the base of the overlying southern Lhasa terrane, which resulted in HT metamorphism in the roots of the arc and fore-arc basin (Brown, 1998; Santosh and Kusky, 2010). High heat flow through the slab window further induced partial melting of overlying crustal rocks to form intermediate to acidic magmas, which included adakitic magma sourced from partial melting of the newly underplated mafic lower crust (Guan et al., 2010; Wen et al., 2008a), and granitic magma derived from mixing of juvenile and older crustal materials (Guo et al., 2011). In addition, the early uplift of the southern Lhasa terrane was triggered by subduction of the Neo-Tethys ocean ridge due to its topography and buoyancy, resulting in contraction and uplift in the overlying fore-arc (Guillaume et al., 2009, 2010). The influx of asthenospheric mantle through the slab window may have enhanced early uplift of the southern Lhasa terrane (Guillaume et al., 2010; Zandt and Humphreys, 2008). This provides an explanation for the cessation of deposition of the Takena Formation, which was deposited in a retroarc foreland basin, and its subsequent uplift, deformation and erosion during Late Cretaceous (Leier et al., 2007).

Stage 3 (~70 Ma): Following ridge subduction, the young, warm, and thus buoyant oceanic slab subducted beneath the southern Lhasa terrane (Fig. 12c), which induced transient shallow subduction (Gutscher et al., 2000; Wen et al., 2008a). Contractual deformation occurred in the upper plate, and crustal thickening occurred in the arc–backarc region (Collins, 2002; Gutscher et al., 2000).

7. Conclusions

This study of a garnet-bearing granulate and a marble from the Nyinching Complex of the southeastern Lhasa terrane documents high-temperature, granulite-facies metamorphism and subsequent amphibolite-facies retrograde metamorphism. The granulite-facies assemblage is characterized by garnet + orthopyroxene + high-Ti amphibole + plagioclase + quartz + rutile. The amphibole, garnet, quartz grains contain abundant of exsolved rutile needles, suggesting that their precursors had high Ti contents. The peak metamorphic temperature is 803–924 °C estimated using the TitanQ geothermometer. Whole rock major and trace elements and Sr–Nd–Hf isotopic compositions, together with isotopic studies of zircons indicate that their protoliths were island-arc basaltic rocks that had crystallized at 893 ± 0.6 Ma. The detrital magmatic zircons from the marble have a similar age distribution and ω(t) values to those of the Jurassic–Cretaceous Gangdese batholiths and volcanic rocks, suggesting that the detritus has been derived from the Gangdese batholiths or equivalent volcanic rocks, and deposited in the forearc basin. The metamorphic zircons in the garnet-bearing granulate and marble yield a consistent metamorphic age of ~81 Ma. This event was coeval with a hiatus in arc magmatism, a regional unconformity and with crustal anatexis. We propose that the HT metamorphism resulted from the Neo-Tethys ocean ridge subduction in the southeastern Lhasa terrane.

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