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End-Permian to mid-Triassic termination of the accretionary processes of the southern Altaids: implications for the geodynamic evolution, Phanerozoic continental growth, and metallogeny of Central Asia

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Abstract The Altaids is one of the largest accretionary orogenic collages in the world with the highest rate of Phanerozoic continental growth and significant metallogenic importance. It is widely accepted that subduction-related orogenesis of the Altaids started in the late Precambrian and gradually migrated southward (present coordinates). However, it is uncertain when and how the building of the Altaids was finally completed. Based on structural geology, geochemical, geochronological, and paleomagnetic data, this paper presents late Paleozoic to early Mesozoic accretionary tectonics of two key areas, North Xinjiang in the west and Inner Mongolia in the east, together with neighboring Mongolia. The late Paleozoic tectonics of North Xinjiang and adjacent areas were characterized by continuous southward accretion along the wide southern active margin of

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M. Sun Department of Earth Sciences, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China Siberia and its final amalgamation with the passive margin of Tarim, which may have lasted to the end-Permian to early/ mid-Triassic. In contrast, in Inner Mongolia and adjacent areas two wide accretionary wedges developed along the southern active margin of Siberia and the northern active margin of the North China craton, which may have lasted to the mid-Triassic. The final products of the long-lived accretionary processes in the southern Altaids include late Paleozoic to Permian arcs, late Paleozoic to mid-Triassic accretionary wedges composed of radiolarian cherts, pillow lavas, and ophiolitic fragments, and high-pressure/ultrahighpressure metamorphic rocks. Permian Alaskan-type zoned mafic-ultramafic complexes intruded along some major faults of the Tien Shan. We define a new Tarim suture zone immediately north of the Tarim craton that is probably now buried below the Tien Shan as a result of northward subduction of the Tarim block in the Cenozoic. The docking of the Tarim and North China cratons against the southern active margin of Siberia in the end-Permian to mid-Triassic resulted in the final closure of the Paleoasian Ocean and terminated the accretionary orogenesis of the southern Altaids in this part of Central Asia. This complex geodynamic evolution led to formation of giant metal deposits in Central Asia and to substantial continental growth.

Keywords End-Permian to mid-Triassic termination · Accretionary process · Southern Altaids · Geodynamic evolution · Continental growth · Metallogeny · Central Asia

Introduction

A huge orogenic collage, the Altaids (or Central Asian Orogenic Belt, Central Asian Mobile Belt, Central Asian Orogenic System), lies between the Siberian and Russian cratons to the north, and Tarim and North China cratons to the south (Fig. 1). It encompasses an immense area from the Urals in the west, through Kazakhstan, NW China, Mongolia, and NE China to the Okhotsk Sea in the Russian Far East (Zonenshain et al. 1990; Mossakovsky et al. 1993; Şengör et al. 1993; Badarch et al. 2002; Xiao et al. 2004a, b; Windley et al. 2007; Briggs et al. 2007).

The Altaids is one of the largest and most complex accretionary collages that was responsible for considerable Phanerozoic juvenile crustal growth (Şengör et al. 1993; Jahn 2004; Jahn et al. 2000, 2004). The prolonged accretionary processes that started at 1.0 Ga resulted in considerable enlargement of the Asian continent (Şengör et al. 1993; Heubeck 2001; Torsvik and Cocks 2004). The many ophiolites in the Altaids are most likely remnants of a SW Pacific-type archipelago that contained many small ocean basins (Hall 2002, 2008). This huge accretionary collage has a long strike-length and history that makes it ideal for studying the relationships between the end of accretion, i.e., closure of an ocean basin, and the end of collision.

The juvenile crustal formation was associated with metallogenic processes that generated numerous mineral

deposits including world-class gold, silver, coppermolybdenum, lead-zinc and nickel of late Proterozoic to Mesozoic age (Cole 2001; Rui et al. 2002; Goldfarb et al. 2003; Seltmann et al. 2003; Yakubchuk et al. 2001; Yakubchuk 2004; Han et al. 2006a, b).

Despite its importance, our understanding of the Altaids is limited, because of insufficient detailed studies throughout the vast area. As a result, many published syntheses describing the Paleozoic tectonic evolution of the orogenic collage are controversial. Numerous fundamental problems are still unresolved, in particular the timing of the final phase of amalgamation along the southern margin of Siberia; proposals range from the Ordovician-Silurian (Tang 1990; He et al. 1994; Tang and Yan 1993; Han et al. 1997; Kheraskova et al. 2003), to Devonian-early Carboniferous (Hendrix et al. 1996; Yue et al. 2001; Solomovich and Trifonov 2002; Charvet et al. 2007; Wang et al. 2007a). However, considerable continental growth (Jahn et al. 2000, 2004; Jahn 2004; Chen et al. 2000; Chen and Jahn 2002, 2004) and massive metallogenesis (Li et al. 1998, 1999; Heinhorst et al. 2000; Seltmann and Porter 2005) occurred in the Carboniferous-Permian, and some large-scale metallogenesis even in the Triassic.



Fig. 1 Simplified tectonic map of the Altaids (Modified after Şengör et al. 1993; Xiao et al. 2008a). *TC* Tarim craton, *NCC* North China craton, *SCC* South China craton

Furthermore, there are reports of younger late Carboniferous to Permian subduction-related geological events (Sun et al. 1991; Buslov et al. 2001; Badarch et al. 2002; Xiao et al. 2003b; 2004a; b; Li 2006; Cocks and Torsvik 2007; Johnson et al. 2007; Rippington et al. 2008), which are important to study, because they provide information on the time of suturing. A systematic investigation of the final termination time of the Altaids is thus important for a better understanding of the continental growth, of the basic architecture of this accretionary orogen, and of their inter-relationships with metallogeny. However, the increasing amount of controversial data seems to be pointing to the fact that the closure of the southern Altiad ocean was not a simple process that gave rise to single, linear collision and suture zone, and that the timing of the suture formation may have been diachronous along its 3,000 km length. We will consider some of the variables that may have been responsible for these complex processes.

In spite of differing tectonic models, it is widely accepted that the Altaids grew generally southward from Siberia and southern Mongolia (Zonenshain et al. 1990; Şengör and Okurogullari 1991; Mossakovsky et al. 1993; Şengör and Natal'in 1996b; Dobretsov 2003). Therefore, the southern part of the Altaids in China, Mongolia, Kyrgyzstan and surrounding regions provides the best data to study the processes and timing of the final amalgamation processes that took place between the accretionary southern active margin of Siberia and the northern margins of the Tarim and North China cratons (Fig. 1). This paper thus discusses the tectonic history of the southern Altaids with emphasis on its final amalgamation by connecting terminal geodynamic processes to those of continental growth and metallogeny.

Geological background and previous work

The southern Altaids is here defined as the southernmost part of the orogenic collage best preserved in North Xinjiang and Inner Mongolia in NW China, and in southern Mongolia (Fig. 1). This part of the orogen was mainly constructed by convergent processes between the southern active margin of the Siberia craton to the north and the northern margins of the Tarim and North China cratons to the south. A common characteristic feature of the southern Altaids is the complex but recurrent arrangement of dominantly accretionary prism and magmatic arc material, interspersed with slivers of oceanic crust and minor massifs of older continental crust (Şengör et al. 1993; Xiao et al. 2003a; Jahn et al. 2004). The two southerly cratons (Tarim and North China) both have Archean-Proterozoic basement with Paleozoic to Cenozoic cover rocks (Lu et al. 2002; Kusky et al. 2007; Zhao et al. 2002, 2004, 2007). The docking of these two cratons to the southern active accretionary margin that had grown from the Siberian craton closed the intervening Paleoasian Ocean and terminated the accretionary orogenic processes of the southern Altaids.

Many key aspects of the southern Altaids have been well studied, including:

- regional studies (Wang and Liu 1986; Zonenshain et al. 1990; Windley et al. 1990; Li et al. 2003; Helo et al. 2006; Shu et al. 2002; Shu and Wang 2003);
- ophiolites (Allen et al. 1992; Wang and Fan 1997; Buchan et al. 2001, 2002; Matsumoto and Tomurtogoo 2003; Jian et al. 2005, 2008);
- sedimentary basins (Hendrix et al. 1996, 2000; Lamb and Badarch 1997, 2000; Lamb et al. 2001; Graham et al. 2001);
- deformation and structures (Laurent-Charvet et al. 2002, 2003; Graham et al. 2001; Briggs et al. 2007);
- high-pressure/ultra-high-pressure metamorphism (Tang 1990; Tang and Yan 1993; Gao et al. 1995; Gao and Klemd 2001; 2003; Klemd 2003; Klemd et al. 2005; de Jong et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2005; 2007a);
- isotopes and geochronology (Jahn et al. 2000; Jahn 2004; Chen and Jahn 2002; Wu et al. 2007; Kröner et al. 2007); and
- paleomagnetism and reconstructions (Filippova et al. 2001; Bykadorov et al. 2003; Li 2006; Windley et al. 2007; Cocks and Torsvik 2007).

Many models derived from studies of the northern margins of the Tarim and North China cratons mutually differ in particular concerning the manner and time of their docking to the active margin of southern Siberia, the mutual structural relationships between their different key tectonic units, and the individual crustal history and geometry of the units. In this paper we aim to address many of these problems by evaluating the relevant data and accordingly produce a new tectonic model for this part of Central Asia. In view of the fact that the Altaids is mostly composed of accretionary rocks, in this paper, we use these studies plus our own data to address many of these differences, emphasizing the youngest assemblages in subduction-related accretionary wedges and associated magmatic arcs. We will describe these two regions outlined in Fig. 2: Northern Xinjiang and adjacent areas in the west, and western Mongolia and Inner Mongolia in the east. Available high-resolution isotopic age data especially SHRIMP U-Pb on zircons, and fossils including radiolaria in the youngest assemblages (Tables 1, 2, 3) that incorporate all the information listed above provide the evidence for the timing of final amalgamation.



Fig. 2 Schematic map illustrating the Altaids in China and Mongolia with Figs. 3 and 6 outlined

Tectonic units	Rocks	Method	Ages (Ma)	References
Chinese Altay metamorphic arc volcanic rocks	Gneiss	SHRIMP	281 ± 3	Hu et al. (2006)
Chinese Altay	Mafic granulite	SHRIMP	279 ± 6	Chen et al. (2006)
	Granitic gneiss and metapelitic schist	In situ ion-microprobe Th–Pb	278 ± 9	Briggs et al. (2007)
			275 ± 8	
			259 ± 10	
	Metasediments	Chemical Th-U-total Pb isochron	261–268	Zheng et al. (2007a, b)
Tien Shan ophiolitic mélange	Pillow lava	SHRIMP	325 ± 5	Xu et al. (2006a, b)
Tien Shan high-temperature metamorphic complex	Granulite	SHRIMP	299 ± 5	Li and Zhang (2004)
Alaskan-type complex	Gabbro	SHRIMP	285 ± 1	Qin (2000)
	Gabbro	SHRIMP	269 ± 2	Zhou et al. (2004b)
	Gabbro	SHRIMP	284 ± 8	Wu et al. (2005)
	Gabbro	LA-ICP-MS	281 ± 1	Mao et al. (2006)
Ophiolite in the southern Tien Shan	Chert	Radiolarian fossils	Late Permian	Li et al. (2005)

Table 1 Late Paleozoic geochronological data and radiolaria from subduction-accretion complexes in the southern Altaids in Xinjiang and adjacent areas, which predate the terminal collisional processes

North Xinjiang and adjacent areas

Northern Xinjiang of China

Northern Xinjiang is a key area in the southern Altaids, connecting the Kazakhstan orogenic belt to the west and Mongolian-Chinese Inner Mongolia orogenic belt to the east (Figs. 2, 3). Northern Xinjiang is divisible into

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the following tectonic/orogenic belts: the Chinese Altay, the East and West Junggar, and the Tien Shan (also called Tian Shan or Tianshan, Fig. 3). The Chinese Altay, the northernmost belt, is connected northwards to the Siberian active margin in Kazakhstan and Russia (Xiao et al. 2004a, 2004b, 2006a, 2008a; Dobretsov et al. 2006; Van der Voo et al. 2006; Abrajevitch et al. 2007). The Junggar basin is situated between the Chinese Altay and the Tien Shan. The

Table 2 Late Paleozoic geochronological data from subduction-accretion con	mplexes in the southern Altaids in Inner Mongolia and adjacent
areas (modified after Miao et al. 2007), which predate the terminal collisional	1 processes

Tectonic units	Rocks	Method	Ages (Ma)	References
Ondor Sum ophiolitic mélange	Pillow lava	SHRIMP	~260	Miao et al. (2007, 2008)
Banlashan ophiolitic mélange	Cumulate gabbro	SHRIMP	256	Miao et al. (2007)
Solun Obo (Solonker) ophiolitic mélange	Cumulate gabbro	SHRIMP	279 ± 10	Miao et al. (2007)
Solonker ophiolitic mélange	Plagiogranite, gabbro, and diabase	SHRIMP	299–246	Jian et al. (2007)
Balengshan ophiolitic mélange	Cumulate gabbro	Rb-Sr isochron	262	Wang and Liu (1986)
Hegenshan ophiolitic mélange	Cumulate gabbro	SHRIMP	295 ± 15	Miao et al. (2007)
	Mafic dike	SHRIMP	298 ± 9	Miao et al. (2007)
	Plagiogranite, gabbro, and diabase	SHRIMP	275	Jian et al. (2007)
	Mafic lava	Ar–Ar	293 ± 1	Miao et al. (2007)
Kedanshan ophiolitic mélange	Plagiogranite	SHRIMP	277 ± 4	Jian et al. (2007)
	Chert	Radiolaria	Mid-late Permian	Wang and Fan (1997)
Xilinhot complex	Gabbro	SHRIMP	323 ± 5	Jian et al. (2007)
Shuangjing complex	Granitic gneiss	SHRIMP	283 ± 9	Li et al. (2007)
Ophiolite near the Xar Moron River	Chert	Radiolaria	Late Permian	Wang and Fan (1997)Wang and Shu (2001)
Ophiolite in the Solonker suture	Chert	Radiolaria	Mid-Permian	Shang (2004)

 Table 3
 Early to mid-Triassic geochronological data from the southern Altaids in Xinjiang, inner Mongolia and adjacent areas

Tectonic units	Rocks	Method	Age (Ma)	References
Tien Shan high-pressure/ ultrahigh-pressure metamorphic complex	Eclogite	SHRIMP	$233 \pm 4-226 \pm 4.6$ 234 ± 7	Zhang et al. (2007a)
Hegenshan ophiolitic mélange	Plagiogranite, gabbro, diabase Granodiorite dike Meta-mafic dike	SHRIMP SHRIMP Ar–Ar	250-275 244 ± 4 244 ± 2	Jian et al. (2007) Miao et al. (2007, 2008) Robinson et al. (1999)
Banlashan ophiolitic mélange Shuangjing complex	Cumulate gabbro Gneissic granite Granitic gneiss	SHRIMP SHRIMP SHRIMP	256 237 ± 3 226 ± 3	Miao et al. (2007) Li et al. (2006) Jian et al. (2007)

Yili block is located between the western side of the Junggar basin and the northern side of the Tien Shan. West Junggar is the Chinese counterpart of the Kazakhstan orogenic belt, while East Junggar extends eastwards into Mongolia. The southern Tien Shan belt is the southernmost part of the southern Altaids. The Turfan or Tu-Ha basin is southeast of the Junggar basin and north of the Tien Shan. Our description of these belts is largely from north to south and from the oldest to the youngest.

Subduction-related plutons and volcanic rocks occur widely in the Chinese Altay, Junggar, and Tien Shan mountain ranges of North Xinjiang. In the Chinese Altay many plutons and volcanic rocks, ranging from the early-middle Paleozoic (ca. 460–370 Ma) to Carboniferous (318 \pm 6 Ma) and Permian (267 \pm 4 Ma), have subduction-related geochemical signatures (Wang et al. 2006; Yuan et al. 2007; Sun et al. 2007). Significant 380–360 Ma siliciclastic volcanic-hosted massive sulphide (VMS) deposits with bimodal geochemistry occur in a major continental magmatic arc in the Chinese Altay (Goldfarb et al. 2003; Mao et al. 2005).

Briggs et al. (2007) concluded that the Chinese–Mongolia Altai experienced two phases of subduction: the first in the Ordovician–Devonian and the second in the late Carboniferous-early Permian, confirming that the youngest arc-related event was as young as the early Permian. In the Chinese Altay a major continental magmatic arc contains 380–360 Ma siliciclastic volcanic-hosted massive sulphide (VMS) deposits that have bimodal geochemistry (Goldfarb et al. 2003; Mao 2005). Granitic gneiss and



Fig. 3 Tectonic map of Northern Xinjiang showing the major arcs and ophiolites (after Xiao et al. 2004a, b; 2008a). Some middle to late Paleozoic isotopic ages of ophiolitic mélanges are shown (Zhang et al. 2003; Zhou et al. 2004a; Ping et al. 2005; Wu et al. 2006). K Kalpin

metapelitic schist from the Chinese Altay dated by the in situ ion-microprobe Th–Pb technique have weighted mean U–Pb ages of 278 ± 9 , 275 ± 8 , and 259 ± 10 Ma (Briggs et al. 2007). Monazites from greenschist/amphibolite-grade metasediments in the Chinese Altai, dated by the chemical Th–U-total Pb isochron method (CHIME), have Permian metamorphic ages of 261–268 Ma that were interpreted by Zheng et al. (2007a) as the time of metamorphism of subducted crustal and oceanic material followed by rapid exhumation. This is in good agreement with SHRIMP U–Pb zircon ages of 290–270 Ma of nearby mafic granulites about 20 km east of Fuyun, Fig. 4 (Li et al. 2004).

A granitic orthogneiss with arc-related geochemistry in the Chinese Altay formed by subduction-related processes (Hu et al. 2006); the petrochemical data indicate that arc magmatism and metamorphism were approximately coeval with the peak age at 281 ± 3 Ma (SHRIMP zircon age).

In East Junggar the presence and tectonic setting of late Paleozoic calc-alkaline volcanic rocks has long been discussed (Lin et al. 1997; Xiao et al. 2006a; 2008c). At Zhaheba late Carboniferous intra-oceanic arcs (Long et al. 2006) are mainly composed of basalts and basaltic andesites (XBGMR 1993), are enriched in LILEs, have relatively depleted high field strength elements (HFSEs) and strongly negative Nb-Ta anomalies, all characteristic indicators of subduction (Long et al. 2006). They also have high radioactive Sr ($I_{Sr} = 0.705282-0.705420$) and low radioactive Nd ($\varepsilon_{Nd(t)} = +6.59-+7.58$). These characteristics, along with their low contents of Th (<0.55 ppm) and Pb (<3.52 ppm) and a high ratio of Ce/Pb (4–79) preclude the possibility of involvement of continental crust during the melting, and suggest that these lavas were most likely produced in an intraoceanic, subduction-related environment (Long et al. 2006).

The presence and tectonic setting of late Paleozoic calcalkaline volcanic rocks have been discussed in East Junggar (Lin et al. 1997; Xiao et al. 2006a, 2008c). Early Carboniferous andesites, early Permian trachytes and mid-Permian basalts from the Santanghu Basin (Fig. 3), East Junggar, have enriched large ion lithophile elements (LILE) relative to HFSEs, strong negative anomalies in Ta and Nb relative to REE, and enriched light rare earth elements (LREE) relative to heavy rare earth elements (HREE); all these features are typical characteristics of subduction-related magmas (Zhao et al. 2006a). The



Fig. 4 Tectonic map of the southern Altaids that crosses the Chinese–Mongolian border showing main tectonostratigraphic units (modified after Windley et al. 2002; Badarch et al. 2002; and Xiao et al. 2004b)

youngest calc-alkaline volcanic rocks in East Junggar have Carboniferous to late Permian ages based on fossils and K–Ar age dating (Lin et al. 1997; Liao and Wu 1998; Liu and Yin 2001; Zhao et al. 2006a), and are regarded as a result of Permian subduction either in an island arc or an active continental margin (Lin et al. 1997; Xiao et al. 2006a, b). Carboniferous-Permian dikes in southern Bogdashan are interpreted to represent late-stage arc or back-arc magmatic differentiates (Carroll et al. 1990; Allen et al. 1991).

According to Charvet et al. (2007) the evolution of the eastern Tien Shan included two stages of ocean floor closure. First, Ordovician-early Devonian oceans closed giving rise to the Central Tien Shan arc and suture zone in the Devonian, and South Tien Shan suture zone by the late Devonian, and second, further subduction of the North Tien Shan ocean led to formation of the Yili-North Tien Shan arc by the late Carboniferous and collision between the North Tien Shan and Junggar by the late Carboniferous. The last suture to form was the North Tien Shan suture between the Yili-North Tien Shan and Junggar by late Carboniferous.

South of the Junggar basin and north of the Tien Shan there is a long, wide belt of volcanic and volcaniclastic rocks that extends through the Yili block eastwards to the northern and southern sides of the Turfan (Tu-Hu) basin. The belt contains basalts, andesites, rhyolites, dacites, volcanic breccias, tuffs, and intermediate to felsic volcaniclastic rocks. Wang et al. (2007b) established that the volcanic rocks display calc-alkaline chemistry and prominent negative Nb and Ta anomalies consistent with subduction-related magmas, and HFSE-element concentrations indicative of a continental arc. The features indicate that the northern border of the Yili block was a continental active margin during the Carboniferous with final ocean closure in the late Carboniferous. Xia et al. (2004, 2008) investigated the geochemistry of similar volcanic and volcaniclastic rocks along the same belt (e.g. basalts, andesites, dacites, rhyolites, pyroclastic rocks and minor alkaline volcanic rocks) and concluded that they were derived from a mantle plume, and were erupted in a Carboniferous rift that belonged to a Large Igneous Province along the length of the Yili-Tien Shan belt. These conclusions seem incompatible with the arc-type lithological associations and arc-type chemistry of Wang et al. (2007b), and were dependant on the assumption that the Paleozoic ocean closed in the early Carboniferous, and on the unfounded speculation that this was followed by mantle delamination, which enabled new asthenosphere to upwell and produce the post-orogenic magmatism in a plumegenerated rift. As far as we know, there is no geological evidence to indicate the presence of a major rift.

Adakitic rocks in the Chinese Altay, Junggar, and Tien Shan that formed in the late Carboniferous and Permian show typical subduction-related trace element chemistry and are associated with island arc volcanic rocks including Nb-enriched basalts and high-Mg andesites that are all imbricated with volcaniclastic rocks and accretionary wedges (Zhao et al. 2006b). ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar dating of the adakites. Nb-enriched basalts and arc volcanic rocks in the Tien Shan have plateau ages of 320 ± 1 , 319 ± 2 and 306 ± 4 Ma, respectively (Wang et al. 2007c; Zhao et al. 2008). These adakitic rocks have SHRIMP zircon ages of 320-334 Ma (Zhao et al. 2008), which formed by melting of basaltic rocks underplated to the base of thickened lower crust at a depth of at least 50 km (Zhao et al. 2008). The wide extent of adakitic rocks in North Xinjiang might indicate either flat subduction or shallow subduction associated with bending of a subducting slab, which is very common in the Andean South American active margin (Kay 1978; Kay et al. 1988; Nelson 1996; Pankhurst et al. 1999; Gutscher et al. 1999, 2000a, 2000b; Rosenbaum et al. 2005).

Many granites, monzogranites, syenogranites and peralkaline granites in the Chinese Altay and Eastern Junggar have Permian ages and positive $\varepsilon_{Nd(T)}$ values, implying derivation by partial melting of juvenile material that was most likely previously subducted Paleozoic oceanic crust/ mantle (Hu et al. 2000; Jahn 2004; Wu et al. 2002; Hong et al. 2003, 2004; Kovalenko et al. 2004). Some of these rocks contain Cu, Au and rare metal deposits (Hong et al. 2003, 2004; Kovalenko et al. 2004).

Many late Carboniferous-Permian ultramafic-mafic complexes in the Chinese Altay and Tien Shan are composed of peridotite, lherzolite, gabbro, olivine gabbro, hornblende gabbroic norite, pyroxenite diorite, and diorite, Fig. 4 (Xiao et al. 2004b). Several zoned mafic-ultramafic complexes occur along the southern side of the Erqis fault (Fig. 4) with an important Ni-Cu sulphide deposit at Kelatongke in the Altay (Goldfarb et al. 2003) that shows clear island-arc geochemical signatures, such as negative anomalies of Nb, Ta, Zr and Ti and enrichment in LILE (Han et al. 2007). Kelatongke has a Re–Os age of 305 \pm 15 Ma (Han et al. 2007). In the Huangshan area, eastern Tien Shan, some ultramafic-mafic complexes are concentrically zoned from a dunite core that grades outwards through peridotite to olivine pyroxenite and hornblende gabbro (Ma et al. 1997); some of these contain Cu-Ni deposits (Xiao et al. 2004b; Zhou et al. 2004b; Zhang et al. 2008a). The Huangshanxi intrusion has a mean $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age of 269 \pm 2 Ma (Zhou et al. (2004a), the Huangshandong intrusion has a Re–Os age on sulphides of 284 ± 14 Ma (Zhang et al.

2008), and a gabbro from the Baishiquian intrusion (with a Ni–Cu deposit) has a SHRIMP U–Pb zircon age of 284 ± 8 Ma (Wu et al. 2005; Chai et al. 2008). The Baishiquan intrusion has trace element-isotopic data that indicate components of subducted oceanic crust (Chai et al. 2008).

These zoned ultramafic-mafic complexes occur as huge lenses parallel to the regional trend of sutures or arcs, and they were intruded into and were imbricated with intensely deformed, fossiliferous Devonian and Carboniferous strata. These zoned intrusions are identical to the Alaskan-type complexes associated with island arcs in Alaska, the Urals and Japan (Gu et al. 1994; Himmelberg and Loney 1995; Ishiwatari and Ichiyama 2004). Alaskan-type complexes have been described from arc, backarc and forearc settings associated with subduction zones, and they are typical plutonic constituents of subduction-related volcanic belts from the Archean (Brugmann et al. 1997) to the Neogene (Tistl et al. 1994). The Alaskan-type complexes indicate basaltic arc magmatism that is part of the magmatic evolution of the convergent continental margin in western Canada and southeastern Alaska (Taylor 1967; Himmelberg and Loney 1995; Nokleberg et al. 2005).

Because the zoned mafic-ultramafic intrusions in the Altay and Tien Shan have a late Carboniferous-early Permian age, Pirajno et al. (2008) reasoned that they must be younger than the time of formation of the last suture zone (if it were pre-late Carboniferous), and therefore speculated that the intrusions were generated in a posttectonic/post-orogenic extensional regime related to a mantle superplume event, and they further suggested that their formation was possibly related to the mantle superplume events that gave rise to the Permian Siberian Traps in NE Russia and the Emeishan continental flood basalts in SE China. We find such speculation unreasonable, because there is no published supportive geochemical or isotopic evidence for a mantle plume derivation, and because it ignores the geochemical evidence from some intrusions of a subduction-generated arc origin (Han et al. 2007). We present our solution to this problem below.

The general view of North Xinjiang is that the northern margin of the Tarim craton remained a passive margin throughout most of the Paleozoic (Feng et al. 1989; Kwon et al. 1989; Coleman 1989; Coleman 1994; Xiao et al. 1994). In contrast, the southern active margin of the Siberian craton experienced a long history of southward accretion (Smethurst et al. 1998) that gave rise to a huge orogenic collage. Therefore, in this part of the southern Altaids, it is important to understand the manner, timing and polarity of subduction between the northern Tarim passive margin and the southern active margin of the Siberia craton in the southern Tien Shan, subjects which are currently highly controversial—see later (Laurent-Charvet et al. 2003; Wang et al. 2007a; Charvet et al. 2007).

Accretionary wedges are common in North Xinjiang. and many contain important ophiolites that represent the remnants of former oceanic crust/lithosphere. Most are arc-related, because their geochemistry shows that they were mostly generated in suprasubduction zones (SSZ) (Wang et al. 2003b). Structural and tectonostratigraphic data indicate that many ophiolites are fragmentary relicts emplaced within accretionary wedges (Xiao et al. 2003b; 2004a, b). Isotopic ages of some ophiolites yield early Paleozoic ages (Kwon et al. 1989; Jian et al. 2005; Xiao et al. 2006b). However, some recent SHRIMP U-Pb protolith ages indicate that some ophiolitic fragments are remnants of middle Carboniferous oceanic crust/lithosphere (Tables 1, 2, 3) (Xu et al. 2006a, b). Ophiolitic mafic fragments in the SW Tien Shan contain pillowbearing eclogites, the protoliths of which are seamounts (Gao et al. 1995; Gao and Klemd 2001, 2003; Ai et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2007a). The eclogites experienced several episodes of high/ultrahigh-pressure metamorphism that have SHRIMP U-Pb zircon ages of 340, 310, 280-290 Ma, and ca. 230 Ma (Tables 1, 3) (Gao et al. 1995; Gao and Klemd 2001, 2003; Zhang et al. 2007a). North of the southern Tien Shan accretionary wedge and parallel to the HP-UHP belt is a high-temperature (HT) granulite that has a protolith age of 299 \pm 5 Ma and a peak metamorphic age of about 280–290 Ma (Table 1) (Li and Zhang 2004). The Ili-Central Tien Shan arc is situated north of the HT rocks. The fact that the HT belt occupies an arcward position and the HP belt an oceanward position in the southern Tien Shan is comparable to that in the Japanese Islands (Isozaki 1996, 1997a; Ota et al. 2004).

In accretionary wedges radiolarian cherts form an important datable component of preserved ocean plate stratigraphy that represents a ridge to trench transition, which documents the history of growth of the ocean and of the accretionary wedges (eg. Wakita and Metcalfe 2005). Late Devonian to early Carboniferous radiolarian cherts occur in early Paleozoic ophiolites along the Kelameili fault in East Junggar (Table 1) (Shu and Wang 2003). Radiolarian cherts in the southern Tien Shan (Liu 2001; Li et al. 2005) (Table 1) (Fig. 5) have ages of

Carboniferous-late Permian, which should predate the final accretionary event. Furthermore, across the southern Tien Shan several sets of ocean plate stratigraphy each with distinctive radiolarian cherts young progressively southwards from the late Devonian-early Carboniferous to the Permian (Liu 2001, 2007; Li et al. 2005). We interpret this younging as a result of progressive oceanward and southward growth of the accretionary complexes, in a manner comparable to the progressive younging and oceanward growth of Mesozoic-Cenozoic accretionary complexes in Central Japan (Isozaki 1996, 1997b), and in East and Southeast Asia (Wakita and Metcalfe 2005).

The presence of regionally extensive, Triassic-early Jurassic collisional foreland basins along strike in western China and southern Mongolia (Carroll et al. 1990, 1995; Graham et al. 1990, 2001; Hendrix et al. 1992; Hendrix 2000; Johnson et al. 2001, 2003, 2007; Johnson 2004) would be expected after collision in the late Permian to early/middle Triassic.

The adjacent area in Western Mongolia

East of North Xinjiang in China the Altaids extend into Mongolia. The isotopic ages of rock units in Mongolia are less well known than in China. Nevertheless, the tectonic units of the Mongolian belts can be extended into China and correlate well with those in the Chinese Altay, East Junggar, and part of the Eastern Tien Shan in China, as illustrated in Fig. 4 (Xiao et al. 2004a).

The Altay, Turgen, Tseel, and Baaran belts in Mongolia (Fig. 4) together form the eastern continuation of the predominantly magmatic belt of the Chinese Altay (Fig. 3). They mainly consist of Paleozoic arcs and accretionary wedges (Badarch et al. 2002; Xiao et al. 2004a). The Baytag arc in southern Mongolia extends westwards into the Dulate arc of the East Junggar of China—Figs. 3 and 4 (Badarch et al. 2002; Xiao et al. 2004a). This arc consists of Lower Devonian tholeiitic basalt, andesite, tuff, volcaniclastic rocks, Middle-Upper Devonian volcaniclastic sandstone, siltstone, chert, minor limestone, and coalbearing mudstone, together with minor late Carboniferous



Fig. 5 Conceptual cross-section illustrating evolution of subduction systems in the eastern part of Northern Xinjiang in the Carboniferous to Permian (from Xiao et al. 2008a)

granite and syenite and Permian felsic volcanic rocks (Badarch et al. 2002; Xiao et al. 2004a). The overall structure of this arc is characterized by imbricated thrust stacks, mélanges, high strain zones, and open to isoclinal folds (Badarch et al. 2002; Xiao et al. 2004a).

In Altan Uul and Nemegt Uul in southern Mongolia an intra-oceanic island arc was generated during the Carboniferous (Rippington et al. 2008). Thrust-bound sequences of highly fractured pillow basalt, cumulate gabbro, peridotite, serpentinite and jasperoid occur directly north of the arc rocks in at least three discrete belts and are interpreted to be fragments of an ophiolite. From combined field and petrological evidence Rippington et al. (2008) concluded that there is an east–west-trending, south-dipping late Carboniferous suture in Altan and Nemegt Uul in southern Mongolia.

In SW Mongolia and the equivalent section in China (Dulate) and in the Jiangjun belt farther south the subduction-accretion complexes young progressively southwards with the result that the youngest Permian rocks only occur in the far south (Fig. 4).

Brief summary

In North Xinjiang-Western Mongolia data from predominant magmatic arcs, accretionary wedges, ophiolites, and Alaskan-type complexes summarized above all provide key evidence to confirm that accretion was active from the early Paleozoic to the end-Permian. The final docking of the Tarim craton to the southern active margin of the Siberia craton was not in the middle Paleozoic, but in the end-Permian based on the youngest Permian constituents involved in the accretionary units.

Şengör et al. (1993) proposed that the general accretionary geology of the Altaids could be accounted for by a single arc model (Şengör and Natal'in 1996a, b). However, the Chinese Altay (a Paleozoic Japanese-type arc with a possible Precambrian accreted fragment), some Paleozoic intra-oceanic islands arcs in Western and Eastern Junggar, and several island arcs in the Tien Shan all contain mutually different constituents, and so cannot be part of one single arc. Figure 5 shows that before the final docking the tectonic history was characterized by accretion of several arcs all created by northward subduction (Xiao et al. 2004a, b).

Inner Mongolia and adjacent area

Inner Mongolia of China

The Paleozoic Altaid orogen in Chinese Inner Mongolia has been called many names: "Manchurides" (Şengör and Natal'in 1996a, b), "Great Hinganling-Inner Mongolian orogenic belt" (Yin and Nie 1996), or "Central Asian Orogenic Belt" (Jahn et al. 2000; Xiao et al. 2003b; Windley et al. 2007; Kröner et al. 2007). The main part of Chinese Inner Mongolia (Fig. 6) is characterized by ENEtrending tectonic units composed of remnants of ophiolites, arcs, accretionary wedges and associated volcano-sedimentary rocks that formed during the final closure of the Paleoasian Ocean. An additional important element of the eastern Altaids is the Uliastai active continental margin (Fig. 6) (Lamb and Badarch 1997, 2000; Lamb et al. 2001; Xiao et al. 2003b), which had separated from the Siberia craton by the intervening Mongol-Okhotsk ocean that probably closed progressively eastwards in a scissor-like movement from the Triassic in western Mongolia (Zonenshain et al. 1990) to the Jurassic-early Cretaceous in eastern Mongolia (Tomurtogoo et al. 2005). In this paper we are mainly concerned with the convergence between the Uliastai active margin and the northern margin of the North China craton (Wang and Liu 1986; Xiao et al. 2003b) (Fig. 6). Unlike the passive margin of the Tarim craton and the southern active margin of the Siberia craton farther west in North Xinjiang that both underwent accretionary and collisional events, Chinese Inner Mongolia underwent convergence between the two active margins of South Mongolia (or South Gobi micro-continent) and the North China craton during most of the Paleozoic to give rise to the Solonker suture.

The major tectonic subdivisions of the Solonker suture, which is occupied by the Erdaojing accretion complex, are described below (Fig. 6). In the north the Uliastai active continental margin extends along the northern border of Inner Mongolia from Chagan Obo to Uliastai (Fig. 6), and to the south of the margin are the Hegenshan ophiolite-arcaccretion complex, and the Baolidao arc-accretion complex. To the south of the Solonker suture are the Ondor Sum subduction-accretion complex, the Bainiaomiao arc, and the North China craton (Xiao et al. 2003b).

At Uliastai a passive continental margin, comprising a basement of Proterozoic gneiss, schist and quartzite and Cambrian limestone and siltstone, was converted to an active continental margin in the Ordovician to Carboniferous (Hsü et al. 1991; Xiao et al. 2003b). The long-lived active continental margin arc is represented by Devonian, Carboniferous, and Permian calc-alkaline to alkaline magmatic rocks. A major Lower Permian continental volcanic arc is represented by andesite, tuff, and tuff breccia with sandstone, siltstone and conglomerate (Wang 1996; Xiao et al. 2003b).

The Hegenshan ophiolite-arc-accretion complex contains several ophiolitic fragments that are composed of dunite, gabbro, sheeted dikes, tholeiitic pillow basalt, radiolarian chert, and coral limestone (Tang 1990; Tang and Yan 1993). Many previous researchers considered the



Fig. 6 Tectonic map of central Inner Mongolia showing its structures and tectonic belts (compiled from Wang and Liu 1986; Tang 1990; Tang and Yan 1993; Hsü et al. 1991; IMBGMR 1991; Chen et al. 2000; Badarch et al. 2002 and Xiao et al. 2003a). For clarity, late Mesozoic-Cenozoic strata are not shown. Some middle to late

Hegenshan ophiolite to have formed as a result of closure of the Paleoasian Ocean (Nozaka and Liu 2002). However, mafic rocks of the Hegenshan ophiolite have suprasubduction zone (SSZ-type) geochemical characteristics (Robinson et al. 1999), and accordingly it should be an arcrelated SSZ-type ophiolite. The presence of middle to late Devonian radiolaria in some cherts led to a notion that the ophiolite was of Devonian age (Liang 1991). However, the nature of the contacts between these units is unclear (Robinson et al. 1999). The ophiolitic rocks are in fault contact with volcanic and sedimentary rocks of different ages ranging from Devonian to Permian (Wang and Liu 1986; Wang 1996; Xiao et al. 2003b; Jian et al. 2007). Borehole data indicate that the ophiolitic rocks have been thrust southward over early Permian volcanic rocks and early to mid-Jurassic clastic sediments (Hsü et al. 1991), and this idea was supported by magnetotelluric data that suggest that the ultramafic rocks of the ophiolite occur as allochthonous klippen (Bai et al. 1993a, b; Lu and Xia 1993). In summary, the geological and geophysical

Paleozoic isotopic ages of ophiolitic melanges are shown (modified after Miao et al. 2007, 2008). Insert is a simplified map of Asia showing the study area and the general tectonic divisions in southern Mongolia (modified after Lamb and Badarch 1997; Lamb et al. 2001, 2008)

data indicate that the Hegenshan ophiolite is an imbricated component of a major accretionary wedge associated with the Solonker suture (Xiao et al. 2003b).

Recently acquired SHRIMP U-Pb zircon crystallization ages of the Hegenshan ophiolitic rocks include a basaltic dike at 298 \pm 9 Ma (Table 2) (Jian et al. 2007, 2008; Miao et al. 2007, 2008), a cumulate gabbro at 295 \pm 15 Ma (Jian et al. 2007, 2008; Miao et al. 2007, 2008), and a massive basalt has a whole-rock ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar age of 293 ± 1 Ma interpreted as the time of formation (Miao et al. 2007, 2008). An 40 Ar/ 39 Ar age of 242 ± 2 Ma on a meta-mafic dike by Robinson et al. (1999) was interpreted to be represent the emplacement time of the ophiolite (Miao et al. 2007, 2008). Moreover, a granodiorite intruded into a Hengenshan serpentinized harzburgite, has a weighted mean SHRIMP U–Pb zircon age of 244 ± 4 Ma (Table 3) (Jian et al. 2007, 2008; Miao et al. 2007, 2008) interpreted as the emplacement age of a granitic crustal melt derived from tectonically and/or magmatically thickened crust shortly after closure of the Paleoasian Ocean.

These new geochronological data suggest that the Hegenshan ophiolite formed in the ocean in the Permian and was accreted in the early to mid-Triassic.

From Inner Mongolia northeastwards to the Lesser Xing'an Range (Fig. 2), a biotite-plagioclase gneiss from the Kele block that is situated within the eastern part of the orogen has a SHRIMP zircon protolith age of 337 ± 7 Ma and metamorphic overgrowth rims of 216 ± 3 Ma, which Miao et al. (2004) suggested were related to terminal collision between arcs to the north and south in the Triassic. They went on to point out that Triassic was a period of intensive and extensive collisional metamorphism and deformation throughout the Lesser Xing'an (Miao et al. 2004).

The Baolidao arc-accretion complex contains arc volcanic rocks and accretionary wedges. The arc is composed chiefly of variably deformed metaluminous to weakly peraluminous, hornblende-bearing gabbroic diorite, quartz diorite, tonalite and granodiorite, and contemporaneous volcanic rocks have geochemical data suggesting formation in island arc and back-arc settings (Chen et al. 2000; Xiao et al., 2003b). U–Pb zircon ages indicate that the bulk of the Baolidao rocks were emplaced at ca. 310 Ma in late Carboniferous time (Chen et al. 2000). A gabbro diorite has a SHRIMP U-Pb zircon age of 310 ± 5 Ma (Chen et al. 2009). The nearby, undeformed Halatu granites include muscovite/biotite-bearing monzogranite, granodiorite and leucogranite, some of which have geochemical signatures of crustal melt granites (Chen et al. 2000). Ophiolites and blueschists occur as faulted lenses in nearby north-dipping Carboniferous and early Permian clastic sediments, and are overlain unconformably by Upper Permian conglomerates (Wang and Liu 1986). The presence of late Permian ophiolitic mélanges and accretionary prisms suggests that this is not a Permian foreland basin, which could otherwise date the end of accretion. Chen et al. (2009) reported that one post-collisional granite has a mid-Triassic SHRIMP U-Pb age of 234 ± 7 Ma. Eruption of shoshonitic basalts took place at 224 ± 2 Ma (Jian et al. 2008). These all should be important constraints to date the end of accretion.

Several blocks of amphibolite facies gneissic rocks up to ca. 60 km long occur south and southeast of Xilinhot and south of Sonid Zuoqi in the Baolidao arc-accretion complex (Fig. 6). These high-grade metamorphic rocks were previously interpreted to belong to a continental block solely on the basis of their high-grade metamorphism and strong deformation (Wang and Liu 1986; Tang 1990). No precise isotopic ages were available to confirm this idea, only some controversial Pb–Pb or U-Pb ages of ca. 900 and 770 Ma (Kozakov et al. 1999). However, Shi et al. (2003) reported a SHRIMP detrital zircon age of 437 ± 3 Ma for a migmatitic paragneiss from these high-grade metamorphic rocks, and a magmatic age of 316 ± 3 Ma for a garnet-granite, which intruded paragneiss (Shi et al. 2003). The presence of a Silurian or even Devonian metamorphic age negates the possibility that the protoliths of the amphibolite facies gneisses were formed in the Precambrian. Shi et al. (2003) interpreted these turbiditic paragneisses as forearc sediments and Jian et al. (2008) suggested that ridge subduction was responsible for their metamorphism. Because the gneisses form isolated tectonic blocks in an ophiolitic mélange with blueschist, greenschist, meta-sandstone, and meta-volcanic rocks, some of which are late Devonianearly Permian in age, we currently interpret them as blocks that were accreted and incorporated into the subductionaccretion complex before the terminal closure of the Paleoasian Ocean (Xiao et al. 2003b).

The Solonker suture zone is more than 900 km long and 60 km wide and is marked by mélanges, and remnant of arcs and ophiolites, Fig. 6 (Xiao et al. 2003b; Chen et al. 2009). The suture zone contains the Erdaojing accretionary wedge (Xiao et al. 2003b) that comprises tectonic mélanges typical of a modern accretionary wedge, and coherent turbidites that occur with imbricated ophiolitic rocks, chert, marble, and arc volcanic rocks (Tang and Yan 1993; Wang and Liu 1986). The mélanges are characterized by lenses of mafic-ultramafic rocks, dolomite, quartzite, marble and blueschist within an argillite matrix (Tang 1990; Xu et al. 2001; Xiao et al. 2003b). In the Linxi area (Fig. 6) ophiolitic lenses of pyroxenite, layered gabbro, sheeted mafic dikes, basalt and chert occur in Lower Permian clastic sediments (Tang and Yan 1993; Wang and Liu 1986; Shao 1989).

Within the Erdaojing complex a cumulate gabbro from the Solon Obo ophiolite (Fig. 6), which straddles the China-Mongolia border, has a SHRIMP U-Pb age of 279 ± 10 Ma (Miao et al. 2007). Some sedimentary blocks in mélanges near Solonker contain middle Permian radiolaria (Shang 2004). These data suggest that the ophiolites were derived from the Permian Paleoasian oceanic crust/mantle and were most likely incorporated into the Erdaojing accretion complex after the late Permian.

The poorly exposed Ondor Sum subduction–accretion complex (Fig. 6) contains ophiolites, high-pressure rocks and granitic gneisses (Wang and Liu 1986; Tang 1990; Xiao et al. 2003b). In the well-exposed Ulan valley near Ondor Sum, ophiolitic pillow lavas and ocean plate stratigraphy occur in the south, folded phyllites in the centre, and thrusted mylonitic high-pressure rocks containing glaucophane and phengite in the north (Xiao et al. 2003b; Jian et al. 2007). All these rocks were juxtaposed in a south-directed thrust stack (Xiao et al. 2003b; Jian et al. 2007). An undeformed, but geochemically unanalyzed pillow lava from the southern ophiolite has a zircon SHRIMP age of ca 260 Ma (Miao et al. 2007), which provides a late Permian upper age limit for the accretionary wedge. Phengites from the northern high-pressure rocks yielded 40 Ar- 39 Ar ages of 453 \pm 2 and 450 \pm 2 Ma (de Jong et al. 2006), which suggest that a late Ordovician subduction complex was at one stage thrusted against a slice of Permian ocean (presumed) crust.

At Kedanshan along strike to the east (Fig. 6) a dismembered ophiolite contains thrust slices of peridotite, gabbro and basalt that are in fault contact with Silurian meta-sediments (Xiao et al. 2003b). Zircons from a plagiogranite of the Kedanshan ophiolite have a SHIRMP age of 277 ± 4 Ma (Jian et al. 2007). A cumulate gabbro from an ophiolitic fragment southwest of Kedanshan has a zircon SHRIMP U–Pb age of 256 ± 3 Ma (Miao et al. 2007). Some cherts in mélanges contain late Permian radiolaria (Wang and Fan 1997; Wang and Shu 2001). These dates confirm that the Ondor Sum accretionary wedge was still active in the end-Permian in this area.

The Ondor Sum complex also contains blocks of gneissic granite, orthogneiss, metamorphosed terrigenous sediments, marble, and mafic-ultramafic rocks of presumed oceanic origin, collectively referred to as the Suangjing complex (Jian et al. 2007). The orthogneiss, gneissic granite and some high-grade metamorphic rocks were previously considered to be Proterozoic or early Paleozoic in age (IMBGMR 1991), although no precise isotopic dates were known. However, new SHRIMP U–Pb zircon data show that a micaceous gneiss has an age of ~270 Ma (Miao et al. 2007), and gneissic granites have ages of 283 ± 9 , 237 ± 3 , and 229 ± 4 Ma (Li et al. 2007). These data led Li et al. (2007) to conclude that collision between the Siberian and North China Cratons may have begun in the mid-Permian and ended in the mid-Triassic.

The Bainaimiao arc, which is close to the northern margin of the North China craton, contains calc-alkaline tholeiitic basalts to minor felsic lavas, alkaline basalts, and agglomerates, volcanic breccias, tuffs, granodiorites, and granites (Tang 1990; Tang and Yan 1993), as well as granodiorite, quartz-diorite, and hornblende gabbro plutons that are intruded by feldspar-quartz porphyry. A granodiorite has a Sm–Nd isochron age of 429 Ma which gives a formation age for this arc which is close to the northern margin of the North China craton (Nie and Bjørlykke 1999).

A major recent breakthrough in the tectonic study on the North China craton was the recognition of an active continental arc on its northern side in which granitic plutons have SHRIMP zircon intrusion ages of 311 ± 2 , 324 ± 6 , 302 ± 4 and 310 ± 5 Ma (Zhang et al. 2007b, c). These Carboniferous plutons have for a long time been considered to belong to the early Precambrian basement of the North China craton (IMBGMR 1991). However, their calc-alkaline geochemistry and subduction-related I-type signature confirm that there was an Andean-style continental arc along the northern margin of the North China craton in the late Paleozoic (Xiao et al. 2003b; Zhang et al. 2007b, c).

Tuff beds in Upper Paleozoic sedimentary rocks are widespread along the northern margin of the North China craton (Zhang et al. 2007b, c). Geochemical analyses of the tuffs from an area west of Beijing indicate they have a calcalkaline volcanic arc composition (Zhang et al. 2007b, c). One tuff west of Beijing (39°56′57″, 115°55′30″) has a SHRIMP zircon 206 Pb/ 238 U weighted mean age of 296 ± 4 Ma (Zhang et al. 2007b, c), and an ash sample from Upper Paleozoic strata from Daqingshan, south of Hohhot, has a SHRIMP U–Pb concordia age of 290 ± 6 Ma (Cope 2003; Cope et al. 2005). These dated volcaniclastic rocks indicate that the northern side of the North China craton was an active continental margin in the Permian.

From their re-evaluation of the most reliable isotopic data from the Solonker suture zone (Chen et al. 2009) concluded that they constrain the timing of collision to between 296 and 234 Ma.

The adjacent area in Southern Mongolia

The tectonic belts just described above continue west into the southern part of Mongolia, west of the international boundary as shown in the inset of Fig. 6. On a bigger picture they form part of the South Gobi and Solonker zones. They are divisible into the following belts, which from north to south include: the Gobi Altay, Trans-Altay, South Gobi, and Solonker (see insert map in Fig. 6) (Ruzhentsev et al. 1985; Carroll et al. 1990; Hendrix et al. 1992; Graham et al. 1993; Ruzhentsev and Burashnikov 1995; Ruzhentsev and Pospelov 1992; Johnson et al. 2001, 2007; Badarch et al. 2002; Johnson and Graham 2004a, b; Cope et al. 2005). The eastern section of this transect can be further subdivided into several terranes, namely the Nuhetdavaa, Enshoo, Hutag Uul, and the Sulinheer (Solonker) (Badarch et al. 2002). These terranes correlate well with the tectonic assemblages described above in Inner Mongolia of China (Fig. 6).

The Nuhetdavaa terrane is the western continuation of the Uliastai active continental margin (Xiao et al. 2003a). It mainly consists of gneiss, amphibolite, schist, marble, sandstone, siltstone, limestone, minor conglomerate, and volcanic rocks of probable early to middle Paleozoic age (Badarch et al. 2002). Silurian clastic sediments contain *Tuvaella* brachiopods. The presence of Devonian andesite, tuff, rhyolite, and volcaniclastic rocks (Badarch et al. 2002) indicates a mid-Paleozoic arc. Carboniferous to Permian volcanic and marine sedimentary rocks of the middle Gobi volcanic-plutonic belt (Badarch et al. 2002) probably formed in a late Paleozoic active margin based on the sedimentary, geochemical, structural and tectonic data (Lamb and Badarch 2001; Lamb et al. 2008; Johnson et al. 2007).

The Enshoo terrane contains ophiolitic fragments of dunite, gabbro, sheeted dikes, tholeiitic pillow basalt, radiolarian chert, and coral limestone (Tang 1990; Tang and Yan 1993; Badarch et al. 2002). The Enshoo arc comprises variably metamorphosed and sheared gneiss, quartzo-feld-spathic schist, Devonian to Permian calc-alkaline basalt, andesite, dacite, tuff, volcaniclastic rocks, and minor limestone, some of which contain cold water fusulinids and brachipods (Ruzhentsev et al. 1985; Ruzhentsev and Burashnikov 1995; Ruzhentsev and Pospelov 1992; Badarch et al. 2002). Badarch et al. (2002) regarded the Enshoo terrane as a Devonian island arc, but in its eastern extension in China the Hegenshan ophiolite-arc-accretion complex has accretion ages as young as early to mid-Triassic.

The Hutag Uul terrane is the western extension of the Baolidao arc-accretion complex in China (Xiao et al. 2003b). This terrane consists mainly of gneiss, schist, migmatite, marble, quartzite, limestone, and meta-sandstone of unknown age. Much work (Lamb and Badarch 1997; Lamb et al. 2001; Webb and Johnson 2006) has shown that most rocks in this terrane, which were previously mapped as Precambrian on account of their high-grade and strong deformation, are actually Mesozoic tectonites with probable Paleozoic arc-related protoliths. Middle to late Paleozoic rocks also occur in this terrane including Devonian basalt, andesite, dacite, tuff, volcaniclastic rocks, minor pillow lavas, coral-bearing limestone, Carboniferous volcaniclastic rocks, Permian marine sedimentary and volcanic rocks (Badarch et al. 2002), and marine flysch as young as early Triassic (Ruzhentsev et al. 1985, 1989; Ruzhentsev and Pospelov 1992). The terrane was intruded by subduction-related tonalite, diorite, and granodiorite of Devonian- Carboniferous age (Badarch et al. 2002).

The Sulinheer terrane is the western continuation of the Solonker suture and Erdaojing accretionary wedge (Ruzhentsev et al. 1989; Badarch et al. 2002; Xiao et al.

Paleoasian Ocean

2003b). It chiefly consists of fragments of ophiolite, mélange, and late Permian olistostrome. There are also Carboniferous clastic rocks, limestone, Pennsylvanian-Lower Permian limestone, and Upper Permian clastic rocks (Badarch et al. 2002). Blocks of tholeiitic pillow basalt, tuff, radiolarian chert, and massive limestone occur in a matrix of clastic sediments with ages ranging from mid-Paleozoic to Permian.

Brief summary

In Inner Mongolia arcs, accretionary wedges and ophiolites all contain key evidence that indicates that growth of the Altaids took place by successive phases of accretion from the early Paleozoic to the early-middle Triassic. Figure 7 shows a possible tectonic scenario for the evolution history. The two wide Carboniferous-Permian accretionary wedges on either side of the Paleoasian Ocean amalgamated, giving rise to the Solonker suture in the end-Permian to mid-Triassic (Xiao et al. 2003b; Li et al. 2007; Chen et al. 2009).

Discussion

Biogeography and unconformable Molasse

Paleoasian Ocean

In the Himalayas the time of change from marine sediments to unconformable molasse-like terrestrial fresh-water sediments may mark the timing of collision between the India and Tibet continental plates and the time of closure of Tethys (Searle et al. 1987; Yin and Harrison 2000). However, accretionary orogens are usually composed of ophiolitic fragments, mélanges, olistrostomes, and coherent sedimentary units of huge thickness (Wiedicke et al. 2001; Ogawa 2001; Jolivet et al. 2003; Konstantinovskaya and Malavieille 2005; Glen et al. 2007). In Japan the presence of undeformed, clastic, terrestrial or arc-derived sediments unconformable on deformed accreted rocks with marine

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Southern Mongolian (Uliastai)



North China craton

Carbonnerous - Perman



Fig. 7 Schematic cartoon demonstrating the tectonic evolution of the Paleo-Asian Ocean and the multiple subduction systems in the Carboniferous-Permian (modified after Xiao et al. 2003a)

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sediments can mark the boundary between a forearc basin and underlying accreted rocks from the trench, and also geophysical profiles and onland sections show small clastic sedimentary basins overlying unconformably accreted rocks in the trench (Pickering and Taira 1994). Therefore, care must be taken in interpreting unconformable clastic sediments. For example, in Inner Mongolia early Permian sandstones and conglomerates with abundant marine shelly and plant fossils overlie early Permian turbidites interpreted to belong to an accretionary wedge; Jian et al. (2007) suggested that these sedimentary relations give the maximum age of final suturing of that part of the Altaids. However, in so far as the overlying sediments are marine, and in view of the modern Japanese examples given above, this conclusion seems unlikely.

Nevertheless, in Inner Mongolia and the Tien Shan there is a major unconformity in many places that separates Upper Permian, deformed and metamorphosed accretionary rocks below from unmetamorphosed, undeformed midupper Triassic terrestrial clastic, often red-bed, sediments above (Xiao et al. 2003b, 2008a). These overlying red-bed, terrestrial sediments were probably derived by erosion of mountains elevated as a result of preceding collision tectonics, and therefore they have special significance for the timing of suture formation along the southern Altaids, because all subduction-accretion should have been ended by the time of the unconformity.

These relations are in good agreement with the line of distribution of the cold-water Boreal Angaran species in mostly terrigeous sediments and warm-water paleoequatorial Cathaysian fossils in mostly limestones and reefs, which approximately coincides with the Tien Shan-Solonker suture (Wang and Liu 1986; Dewey et al. 1988; Tang 1990; Tang and Yan 1993; Guo 2000; Manankov et al. 2006). The advanced research on biostratigraphy, paleobiogeography and paleogeography of Permian species throughout central and eastern Asia (e.g. Manankov et al. 2006; Shen et al. 2006; Shi 2006) provides us with an important constraint on tectonic development. The most relevant conclusion is that mixing of cold- and warm-water faunas reached a climax in the Wordian (270.6–265.8 Ma) (Shi 2006) largely within the Solonker suture zone east of the western end of the North China craton. The faunal data show that the Tien Shan-Solonker ocean closed in a scissor-like motion with the molasse terrestrial deposits in northeastern China indicating the final closure of the ocean was in the late Permian (Shen et al. 2006).

Paleomagnetic data

The end-Permian to mid-Triassic termination model may be incompatible with the paleomagnetic data from the western part of the Southern Altaids. Figure 8 is a summary of paleomagnetic data for the Siberian and Tarim cratons and the southern Kazakhstan arcs. Van der Voo (1993) pointed out that the Siberian craton would have been very close to the Tarim craton since ca. Devonian-Carboniferous time according to mid-late Paleozoic paleolatitudes. However, in an updated view, Smethurst et al. (1998) put the Siberian craton in a more northerly position, which is almost 40 degrees north of the Tarim craton in Devonian-Carboniferous time (Fig. 8). For the late Devonian paleolatitude of the Siberian craton, more recent data indicate that the Siberian craton was near 30°N (Kravchinsky et al. 2002). Paleomagnetic data show that the latitude of the Tarim craton at the interval between the end-Permian and Triassic was very

Fig. 8 Paleomagnetic data for Siberia, South Kazakhstan, and Tarim cratons (modified after Van der Voo 1993; Van der Voo et al. 2006; Fang et al. 1996; Smethurst et al. 1998; Kravchinsky et al. 2002; Bazhenov et al. 2003; Huang et al. 2005, 2007). Star for Tarim, Circle for Southern Kazakhstan, and diamond, open and solid box for Siberia from various references indicated



close to that of the accretionary marginal sequences lying to the north including those in the Junggar and Tien Shan (Li et al. 1989, 1991; Li 1990). However, it is important to note that the paleolatitude differences between these Central Asian cratons or continental arcs were not large after 500 Ma (Fig. 8). If a small difference of the paleolatitudes means an approaching, near-collisional situation, these cratons and continental arcs would have collided in the early Paleozoic, which is negated by the data in this paper.

Considering the paleolatitude distributions of the Siberia. Kazakhstan, and Tarim cratons, which are illustrated in Figs. 8 and 9, the differences of these cratonic blocks or continental arcs (Kazakhstan, see Şengör et al. 1993) were very small during the whole Paleozoic. Considering the differences between the Siberia and Tarim cratons, the end-Permian should have been the time when these cratons were close. Also, the orientation of the Siberia and Tarim cratons during the Paleozoic (Fig. 9) clearly shows that the present EW long axis of the Tarim craton was N-S-oriented and remained the same until after 240 Ma, while the Siberian craton more or less kept its present up-side-down orientation. These relations suggest that the separation between the Siberia and Tarim cratons during the Paleozoic may have been similar to that in the present-day Pacific, where two cratons (Eurasia and North America) are oriented longitudinally and without considerable latitude differences. This scenario is in good agreement with most reconstructions that show relations between Eurasia and Gondwana (Nie 1991; Kravchinsky et al. 2002; Fortey and Cocks 2003; Lawver et al. 2003; Huang et al. 2005; Abrajevitch et al. 2007). The end-Permian to Triassic termination model agrees relatively well with the paleo-magnetic and geological data for the eastern part of the Southern Altaids, where the North China craton collided with the southern Siberian active margin (including the eastern Southern Mongolia-Gobi) in the late Paleozoic to early Mesozoic (Zhao 1990; Enkin et al. 1992; Dobretsov et al. 1995; Smethurst et al. 1998; Thomas et al. 2002; Torsvik and Cocks 2004; Cocks and Torsvik 2007).

The Permian-Triassic termination model might initially seem incompatible with a recent model of fault-controlled, pendulum-style indentation of the Kazakhstan (Ili) block into the Tien Shan collages between Junggar and Tarim (Wang et al. 2007a). We agree that considerable displacements may have taken place on large-scale strike-slip faults or as a result of block rotation (Shu et al. 1999; Laurent-Charvet et al. 2002, 2003; Wang et al. 2007b; Charvet et al. 2007). However, there are two possibilities concerning such a tectonic environment; post-orogenic (Wang et al. 2007a) or syn-orogenic (Xiao et al. 2006a;



Fig. 9 Paleo-positions for Siberia and Tarim implied by APW paths and some key paleomagnetic poles for the two continents (Modified after Van der Voo 1993; Van der Voo et al. 2006; Fang et al. 1996; Smethurst et al. 1998; Kravchinsky et al. 2002; Bazhenov et al. 2003; Huang et al. 2005, 2007). *Red arrows* denote the present south pole of Siberia, *black bold arrows* represent the present north pole of Tarim. Note that the relative position of the two continents does not represent the paleopalinspastic reconstruction. The *green* and *yellow* colors for Siberia from various references indicated

2008a, b). If the large-scale relative motions between the Kazakhstan (Ili)-Junggar tract and the Southern Altaid orogenic collages are valid, as supported by paleomagnetic data, we suggest that the syn-orogenic rotation model is more viable, if the movements took place in an active margin, thus negating the need for indentation of a relatively thin continental Kazakhstan (Ili)-Junggar tract into two already-amalgamated, rigid plates (Tarim and Siberia).

The presence of strong, late Permian thrusting and Permo-Triassic orogen-parallel strike-slip faulting might create a problem for the Permo-Triassic termination model, if these structures were post-orogenic (Laurent-Charvet et al. 2002, 2003; Chen and Arakawa 2005). However, these structures need not be post-orogenic, because in modern active margins and ancient orogens such as Alaska and the American Cordillera, there are many comparable synsubduction thrusts and orogen-parallel strike-slip faults (Kusky et al. 1997; Gutscher et al. 1998; Kusky and Bradley 1999).

Subduction polarity

The polarities of subduction zones during the closing stages of the Paleo-Asian ocean are important to constrain, and have been much discussed. The polarity of subduction in the eastern part of the Altaids has proved less controversial. It has long been widely accepted that there was northward subduction under the Uliastai active continental margin (Şengör et al. 1993; Şengör and Natal'in 1996a; Miao et al. 2007; Windley et al. 2007; Chen et al. 2009). Xiao et al. (2003b) proposed that there was southward subduction under a narrow accretionary wedge in front of the North China craton, although without evidence of a continental margin magmatic arc. However, Zhang et al. (2007c, 2008b) reported Carboniferous to early Permian hornblende-bearing granitic plutons $(324 \pm 6-274 \pm 6 \text{ Ma})$ that were emplaced in an Andean-type, active continental arc on the northern margin of the North China craton, confirming that southward subduction also contributed to the closure of the Paleo-Asian ocean. From these relations Zhang et al. (2008b) concluded that final amalgamation of the Mongolian arc terranes with the North China craton occurred in the late Permian to earliest Triassic.

However, the subduction polarities in the western Altaids are currently controversial. Many authors have long agreed that the Tarim craton has a passive margin on its northern side (Allen et al. 1992; Carroll et al. 1995; Zhang 1994; Wang et al. 1995; Rui et al. 2002), and in the most recent tectonic review Gao et al. (2009) clearly indicate that Tarim had a passive margin on its northern side since 460 Ma. In contrast, Chen et al. (1999) proposed that the southern Tien Shan oceanic plate was subducted southwards beneath an active margin on the northern side of the Tarim craton. However, we emphasize the fact that no subduction-related rocks have been recorded anywhere along the northern margin of the Tarim craton, and this fact negates the southward subduction model. Recently, a new terrane called the "Central Tien Shan arc" was proposed to occupy a tectonic position between the already-existing Ili-Central Tien Shan to the north and the Tarim craton to the south (Charvet et al. 2007: Lin et al. 2009: Gao et al. 2009). These authors used the subduction record in this "arc terrane" to infer a southward subduction polarity of an oceanic plate in the Paleozoic. However, this new "Central Tien Shan terrane" is not the same as the well-defined and much quoted Ili-Central Tien Shan block. Accordingly, southward subduction beneath the new "central Tien Shan" terrane provides no information on the tectonic setting of the northern margin of the Tarim craton. We know of no evidence that indicates there was active subduction tectonics on the northern margin of the Tarim craton. HP-UHP eclogitic rocks occur on the southern side of the Ili-Central Tien Shan block, and because they contain zircons that have metamorphic rims with ages of 234-226 Ma Zhang et al. (2007a) concluded that the HP metamorphism formed as a result of collision between the Tarim and Yili-Central Tien Shan blocks in the early Triassic. However, HP metamorphism develops during subduction to eclogite-facies depths, soon after which exhumation must take place, and collision of plates occurs after that.

Predominant thrust-vergence in or against a suture zone may provide important information on the earlier polarity of subduction. From recent structural studies Charvet et al. (2007), Lin et al. (2009) and Gao et al. (2009) reported major north-vergent structures in the southern Tien Shan of China. From more detailed studies Wang et al. (1994) demonstrated that north-verging thrusts prevail in the northern part of the southern Tien Shan, but south-verging thrusts in the southern part of the southern Tien Shan. The fact that the Ili-Central Tien Shan arc is located to the north, the HP-UHP rocks and accretionary complex in the middle, and the Tarim passive margin to the south, which will be further discussed below, may indicate that the south-verging thrusts in the southern part of the southern Tien Shan could be the expression of a northward subduction. Of course, this needs further detailed structural and geochronological studies.

The 2007 international Middle Asian Seismic (MANAS) profile across the Kyrgyz and Chinese Tien Shan reported by Schelochkov et al. (2008) showed that the rigid Tarim lithosphere is thrust coherently northwards below the southern margin of the Tien Shan; also new tomographic images show high-speed anomalies dipping northwards below the southern margin of the Tien Shan. Also the southern side of the Tien Shan block against the Tarim

craton to the south is marked by a major seismic anomaly that dips northwards under the Tien Shan (Wang et al. 2003a; Zhao et al. 2003). However, the age of formation of these geophysical anomalies is unknown.

The northern margin of the Tarim craton

Because there is a current major controversy about whether the northern margin of the Tarim craton was passive (Allen et al. 1992; Carroll et al. 1995; Zhang 1994; Wang et al. 1995; Rui et al. 2002; Xiao et al. 2004b; Gao et al. 2009) or active (Charvet et al. 2007) in the late Paleozoic, it is useful here to summarize key sedimentary data, because they bear on the timing of the suture zone on the southern side of the Tien Shan. Most of the Precambrian Tarim basement is buried beneath a thick cover of Upper Proterozoic and Phanerozoic sediments of the Tarim basin. The northern margin of Tarim is dominated by a thick succession of Upper Carboniferous to Lower Permian platform carbonate sediments and reefs that were deposited on a north-facing passive continental margin prior to collision with the southern margin of the Tien Shan to the north (Allen et al. 1992, 1999; Graham et al. 1990; Windley et al. 1990). According to Lee (1985) Carboniferous fossiliferous platform carbonates reach a thickness of 1,500 m and locally 5,000 m. In the early Permian marine regression began, but still leaving locally more than 1,000 m of marine limestones and mudstones. By the late Permian continental red beds covered most of the Tarim. Chen and Shi (2003) published the first detailed lithostratigraphy and biostratigraphy, based on a synthesis of oilcompany hydrocarbon borehole data, which outlined the depositional history of the Tarim basin. In the late Carboniferous to late Permian the northwestern margin of the basin was close to an open epeiric sea with the result that marine carbonate sediments with intermittent massive reefal carbonates accumulated on a major passive margin from the Baskirian-Moscovian boundary at 311.7 Ma in the Pennsylvanian late Carboniferous to the end of the Kungurian at 270.6 Ma in the late Permian, following the international time scale of Gradstein et al. (2004). Biozones throughout this period were defined in the Kalpin region of the northwestern Tarim basin (see Fig. 3) by brachiopods, fusulinids, conodonts, corals, and rarer ammonites and palynoflora (Chen and Shi 2003). Although terrestrial sediments were deposited in the centre of the Tarim basin from the mid-Artinskian stage in the Cisuralian epoch at ca. 280 Ma, the northern passive margin continued with deposition of shelf carbonates through the Qipan sedimentary cycle during the Kungurian stage from 275.6 Ma (mid-Permian) to 270.6 Ma (late Permian). The seas finally withdrew at the end of the Kungurian, after which the whole Tarim basin including the northern margin was covered with terrestrial red beds during the late Permian (Wang et al. 1992). Significantly the end of carbonate deposition in the late Kungurian at about 271 Ma was signaled by massive eruption of basaltic sills, after deeper water clastic sedimentation took place. These marine-nonmarine-basalt sill relations are very similar to those in the Alpine-Mediterranean region when carbonate platforms collapsed (and intruded by basalt sills), fragmented and subsided (with deposition of non-marine silts and sands) from the early Jurassic to the early Cretaceous (Jenkyns 1970) in advance of the Alpine collision tectonics. Unfortunately the demise of the carbonate platform along the northern Tarim has never been studied or interpreted in terms of the disintegration of a carbonate shelf. Instead the deposition of terrestrial sediments in the late Permian is interpreted only as a foreland basin controlled by southward-directed thrusts. In spite of these differences in interpretation of the sediment record, the data do suggest that the South Tien Shan suture zone must have formed by the end of the Permian (Nishidai and Berry 1990).

In contrast, Watson et al. (1987) suggested that collision of Tarim with the Junggar block to the north and that carbonate deposition on the northern side of Tarim was terminated in the latest Carboniferous. Nishidai and Berry (1990) followed these ideas stating that the Tarim platform collided with the Junggar block to the north in the late Carboniferous. From their structural studies integrated with the sedimentary records of Carroll et al. (1995), Charvet et al. (2007) concluded that the ocean on the northern side of the Tarim craton disappeared between the late Devonian and early Carboniferous during which the South Tien Shan suture zone formed and was buried under terrestrial sediments by the start of the Permian.

In summary, we suggest that the latest, up-to-date, and most detailed biostratigraphic data of Chen and Shi (2003) unequivocally indicate that the northern margin of the Tarim craton was passive and marine until 270.6 Ma in the late Permian, and therefore, the suture zone could not have formed before then.

This means that there must have been a suture (we call this the North Tarim suture) on the northern side of this passive margin to account for the closure of the ocean in the late Permian, but there is no such suture exposed today in the southern Tien Shan, where all ophiolitic maficultramafic rocks are pre-Permian or pre-early Permian (e.g. Charvet al. 2007). So where is this final suture? The answer to this problem comes from Jacques Charvet (personal communication to BFW on 25 November 2008), who suggested that the North Tarim suture could have been subducted northwards under the Tien Shan during the Cenozoic subduction of the Tarim block as illustrated on the recent seismic reflection profiles (Schelochkov et al. 2008). The formation of such a suture in the late Permian would permit northwards subduction through much of the Permian under the active continental margin of the southern Tien Shan, and that would readily account for the Permianage, Alaskan-type, zoned mafic-ultramafic complexes that are aligned along the southern margin of the southern Tien Shan that would have formed in an Alaskan-type environment of an active continental margin. This model would therefore not necessitate the introduction of a mantle plume in the Permian in the southern Tien Shan just in order to explain the occurrence of the zoned mafic-ultramafic complexes in so-called post-orogenic or post-collision times (i.e. Charvet et al. 2007; Pirajno et al. 2008).

The above idea of the former presence of a Permian subduction zone on the northern side of the Tarim craton is supported by Li et al. (2003) who pointed out that the narrow Kuluketaq massif (which is located between the South Tien Shan and the Tarim basin and consists of Precambrian crystalline rocks) contains a belt of Permian calc-alkaline magmatic rocks that have an active continental margin chemical affinity (Jiang et al. 2001), this implying that there was an open ocean on the northern side of Tarim subducting northwards under the Kuluketag block during the Permian. The late Permian North Tarim suture should today be below the Kuluketag block and below the southern margin of the South Tien Shan farther west.

Tectonic model

The Altaids comprised the southern part of Eurasia in the late Paleozoic to early Mesozoic. Therefore the reconstruction of Eurasia cannot be undertaken without the detailed paleogeography of Central-East Asia, which is largely occupied by the Altaids. Based on the above points, and using published data, we propose a new model to explain the distribution and paleogeography of the Siberia, Tarim and North China cratons, and southern Mongolia in the late Permian (Fig. 10).

Some former reconstructions consistently placed the Tarim craton attached to southern Eurasia in the middle to late Paleozoic, and put the North China craton in the southern oceanic domain, detached from Eurasia (Şengör et al. 1993; Şengör and Natal'in 1996a, b). This would be

Fig. 10 Schematic

paleogeographic reconstruction of Laurasia and Gondwana in the late Permian showing the Paleoasian Ocean and Solonker Ocean (modified after Enkin et al. 1992; Torsvik and Cocks 2004; de Jong et al. 2006; Li 2006). Afr Africa, Ant Antarctica, Ar Arabia, Aus Australia, Eur Europe, IND India, Indo Indochina, Ir Iran, Kaz Kazakhstan, NCC North China craton, SCC South China craton, Sib Siberia, SMG Southern Mongolia-Gobi, ST Shan-Thai. TC Tarim craton. The circular dashed lines enclose the approximate position of the two key areas (North Xinjiang and Inner Mongolia) discussed in this paper. Lines with barbs indicate main subduction zones and their polarities of subduction



Late Permian (260 Ma)

Fig. 11 Schematic map of the Altaids showing principal mineral deposits which are linked to accretionary processes (modified after Seltmann and Porter 2005; Tang and Liu 1995; Han et al. 2006a, b). The *bold line* denotes the approximate position of the Tien Shan-Solonker suture



consistent with detailed paleomagnetic data that suggest progressive ocean closure and younging of suturing towards the east from the end-Permian in the Tien Shan to the early-mid Triassic in Inner Mongolia (Zhao 1990). Farther east in the Lesser Xing'an Range in NE China reliable data suggest that formation of the main suture zone was completed by collisional tectonism in the late Triassic at 216 ± 3 Ma (Miao et al. 2004); although Shen et al. (2006) preferred final closure of the ocean in the late Permian. Therefore, it seems to us that current information points to diachronous, scissor-like suturing between the western and eastern parts of the Altaids, as confirmed by biostratigraphic data of Shi (2006), in a manner not unlike the eastward younging of formation of the suture that closed the Mongol-Okhotsk ocean from the Triassic in western Mongolia (Zonenshain et al. 1990) to the Jurassicearly Cretaceous in eastern Mongolia and Siberia (Tomurtogoo et al. 2005). We agree with Johnson et al. (2007) that the earlier well-documented marine-nonmarine transition (Carroll et al. 1995; Hendrix et al. 1996; Lamb and Badarch 2001; Lamb et al. 2008) in the west of the southern Altaids compared with the east broadly supports a younging of collision eastwards.

Implications for continental growth and metallogeny

The Phanerozoic crustal growth of the Altaids is well constrained by petrochemical and isotopic data. Sm–Nd isotopic data of granitic rocks indicate their juvenile character and short life, since separation of the source rocks or magmas from the mantle (Jahn 2004; Jahn et al. 2004;

Zheng et al. 2007b; Kröner et al. 2007). However, we agree with Kovalenko et al. (2004) that the most likely source for the granites is juvenile lower crust of the accretionary orogen (Yuan et al. 2007).

The terminal orogenesis of the western Altaids was previously considered to be early or middle Paleozoic (Shu et al. 1999; Shu et al. 2002; Laurent-Charvet et al. 2002, 2003; Wang et al. 2007a, b; Charvet et al. 2007), but the recognition of younger (late Permian-middle Triassic) geological relationships and geodynamic events in the middle Altaids has refined the timing of the termination. This has implications for understanding the metallogenic history. For example, in the eastern Tien Shan several episodes of mineralization can be related to specific tectonic events (Han et al. 2006a, b; Zhang et al. 2008c): porphyrytype and volcano-sedimentary Cu deposits, island arc generation (c. 360-320 Ma); orogenic-type Au deposits, accretion-collision (c. 300-280); mafic-ultramafic Cu-Ni and epithermal Au deposits (Fig. 11), syn- to post-collision extension (c. 280-245 Ma); some Au and skarn W-Mo deposits, intracontinental extension (c. 240-220 Ma).

The southern Altaids is a Precambrian-early Mesozoic orogenic belt that provides excellent information on accretionary processes, metallogeny and continental growth that are complementary to the younger Phanerozoic accretionary orogens in Mesozoic-Cenozoic Japan, Alaska and the American Cordillera (Sample and Fisher 1986; Haeussler et al. 1995; Nelson 1996; Goldfarb et al. 1997; Hansen and Dusel-Bacon 1998; Nokleberg et al. 2005), and other accretionary orogens in the world (Bierlein et al. 2002; Gray et al. 2002; Glen et al. 2007). Problems with interpretations along the suture zone

It is important to acknowledge some of the problems encountered in interpreting a >3,000 km-long suture zone. With the large number of variable, often controversial, interpretations of relations along this length, it might be surprising if it were just a simple 'straight-line', orthogonal, continuous, simple closure like that of the Indus-Tsangbo suture. Indeed, because it is so often claimed that the Altaids formed by irregular archipelago-type accretion of multiple arcs, marginal basins, and several microcontinental blocks, comparable to that in Indonesia today (summarized in Xiao et al. 2008c), one might expect that the final suturing was also highly irregular along such a long closure zone. For example, sedimentary-stratigraphic relationships suggest that early indentation of a promontory or salient in the area of south-central Mongolia led to separation of the Junggar basin to the west from the Solonker ocean basin to the east (Johnson et al. 2007). Moreover, many differences between the western and eastern parts of the suture zone may make it difficult to correlate the timing of closure of the ocean. For example, many foreland-like basins have been reported in the west, but few in the east; this makes it difficult to compare postamalgamation tectonic development (e.g. Junggar basin, Hendrix et al. 1992; Turpan-Hami basin, Wartes et al. 2002; N. Tarim, Chen and Shi 2003). Like the Himalayas, post-collisional thrusting was characteristic of the Tien Shan-Solonker orogenic belt. This NS-directed deformation is evident in the thrusted sediments and foreland basins in southern Mongolia and Inner Mongolia (e.g. Hendrix et al. 1992, 1996; Zheng et al. 1996; Dumitru and Hendrix 2001; Vincent and Allen 2001; Darby et al. 2001). Unfortunately, much of this post-collisional thrusting had the effect of obscuring evidence of many pre-collisional geological relationships and syn-collisional deformation.

Conclusions

The late Paleozoic to early Mesozoic geodynamic processes of two key areas, North Xinjiang in the west and Inner Mongolia in the east, together with neighboring Mongolia, reveal that the building of the Altaids was finally completed between the late Permian and middle Triassic in the west and early/middle Triassic in the east. The late Paleozoic tectonics of North Xinjiang and adjacent areas were characterized by continuous southward accretion along the wide southern active margin of Siberia and its final amalgamation with the passive margin of Tarim by the end-Permian. In contrast, in Inner Mongolia and adjacent areas the development of accretionary wedges along the southern active margin of Siberia and the northern active margin of the North China craton may have lasted to the early/mid-Triassic. Farther east in NE China final collision probably took place in the late Triassic. In other words, the final closure of the Paleo-Asian ocean was diachronous along its >3,000 km length, and took place mainly in a complicated scissor-like fashion with the suture zone younging eastwards. However, it was not a simple, linear ocean closure and suture; it is more likely that a more complex development took place with, for example, salients, trapped ocean basins, irregular development of foreland basins, southwards and northwards subduction north of the North China craton versus northwards subduction away from the Tarim craton, and irregular postcollisional thrusting, which obscured many pre- and syncollisional relationships. In our view, many of the diverse and varied opinions related to the timing of the suture formation owe their origins to such variations. Nevertheless, it seems to us that many of the controversial conclusions on the timing result from decisions made from study of just one discipline; only more multi-disciplinary studies will resolve such issues. The complex geodynamic evolution of the Altaids led to widespread post-collisional thrusting, mountain building, formation of giant metal deposits, and to substantial continental growth throughout Central Asia. The closure of the Paleo-Asian ocean gave rise to one of the longest and most spectacular suture zones in the world.

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