

Paleoproterozoic granitoids in the basement of Bangladesh: A piece of the Indian shield or an exotic fragment of the Gondwana jigsaw?

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Abstract

We present the first precise age for Precambrian basement rocks in Bangladesh. These lie within the Dinajpur block, located between the Indian Craton to the southwest and the Shillong Massif to the east. There are no surface outcrops and the rocks were intersected by drill holes. They consist of a suite of tonalitic and granodioritic rocks, variously deformed to granitic gneiss and intruded by younger monzogranite. A tonalite obtained at a depth of 227.48 m in drill hole BH-2 at Maddhapara, in northwestern Bangladesh, records a SHRIMP zircon ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb magmatic age of 1722±6 Ma. Paleoproterozoic rocks with similar magmatic ages are unknown in the adjacent Indian blocks of the Chotanagpur Plateau (Indian Craton) or Shillong Massif. This lack of comparable ages may be due to the paucity of precise radiometric ages from the Indian terrains or, more likely, because there are real age differences, with the buried rocks at Maddhapara representing a separate and discrete microcontinental fragment (the Dinajpur block) that was trapped by the northward migration of India during Gondwana dispersal.

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1. Introduction

Bangladesh occupies a large part of the Bengal Basin, developed to the south of the Himalayas between the Indian platform to the west and the composite Indo-Burman Ranges and Arakan-Yoma Suture to the east (Fig. 1). The basin is one of the largest continental sedimentary depositories in the world, having been filled since the Miocene by detritus resulting from erosion of the Himalayas, and currently fed by the Ganges, Brahmaputra and Meghna river systems. These supply the world's largest delta, with an area of ~200,000 km² (Alam and Curry, 2003), that drains into the Bay of Bengal, south of Dhaka (Fig. 1).

Most of Bangladesh is covered by Tertiary and Quaternary sedimentary deposits which thicken to the south, where they locally exceed 20,000 m in thickness (Curry, 1991). The strata

are deltaic to shallow marine in the north, but become progressively more marine to the south (Alam, 1989). Pre-Tertiary rocks are not exposed, although Cretaceous basaltic lavas of the Rajmahal Traps occur in the far west and Early Permian sandstones and shales with coal seams have been reported from drill holes in the Rangpur Saddle and Bogra Shelf areas (Fig. 1).

In 1960, drilling by the Standard Vacuum Oil Company led to the first discovery of crystalline basement rocks beneath the Bengal Basin, with the identification of granitic gneiss at a depth of 2150 m in the Bogra-X1 well (Khan, 1991) (Fig. 2). Subsequently, similar rocks were discovered in drill holes in the shelf area to the north, but at much shallower depths. At Maddhapara, the basement occurs at depths of 128–160 m and this prompted interest in the area as a source of aggregate. Drill holes were sunk into the basement and underground mining operations, via a series of tunnels, commenced in 1994. It is from one of the drill holes (BH-2) that we obtained samples to determine the age of the rocks.

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2. Geological setting

The study area at Maddhapara lies within the Rangpur Saddle (Bakhtine, 1966; Reimann, 1993; Khan, 2002), between the flood plains of the Ganges to the west and Brahmaputra to the east (Figs. 1 and 2). The Rangpur Saddle has been considered by some to represent the northeastern extension of the Indian Shield, possibly linking it to the Shillong Massif and Mikir Hills farther to the northeast (Reimann, 1993). To the north lies the Himalayan Foredeep, while to the south is the Bengal Foredeep, consisting of a series of troughs which extend offshore (Fig. 1); it is here that the deltaic sediments are thickest. Since at least the Eocene, the Calcutta–Mymensingh Hinge Zone (Alam et al., 1990) (Fig. 1) has marked the edge of the continental slope, subdividing the Bengal Basin into two main zones, with deep water sediments accumulating to the south and shelf sediments to the north.

In the Maddhapara area (Fig. 2), between latitudes $25^{\circ}33'15''$ and $25^{\circ}34'15''$ and longitudes $89^{\circ}03'30''$ and $89^{\circ}04'53''$, the basement has been intersected by boreholes, the shallowest of which are drill holes BH-2 and BH-18 at depths of 169.5 and 338.5 m, respectively, and samples from these have previously been subject to petrological and geochemical investigation (Ameen et al., 1998; Kabir et al., 2001).

3. Rock characteristics

The main rock type identified in the boreholes and tunnels at Maddhapara is tonalite (Ameen et al., 1998; Kabir et al., 2001), with lesser amounts of granodiorite and monzogranite. The tonalites are meso- to leucocratic, medium- to coarse-grained hypidiomorphic granular rocks, chiefly composed of plagioclase (22–51%), quartz (17–21%) and hornblende (13–31%), with lesser amounts of biotite (5–13%) and potash feldspar (5–11%) and trace amounts of clinopyroxene, titanite and iron oxides. Mineralogical variation mainly results from the amount of plagioclase relative to the mafic minerals. Biotite is commonly extensively altered to chlorite and plagioclase to sericite. Myrmekite is developed at plagioclase/potash feldspar contacts and biotite tends to be associated with hornblende (Kabir et al., 2001).

Texturally and mineralogically, the granodiorites are similar to the tonalites, but differ in their greater proportions of quartz (22–25%) and potash feldspar (12–19%), and lesser amounts of plagioclase (44–47%), hornblende (2–9%) and biotite (4%). Quartz commonly forms small aggregate clusters and as blebs around certain feldspar and clinopyroxene grains.

The monzogranites are dominated by quartz (24–31%) and feldspar, with the amount of potash feldspar (35% av.) commonly

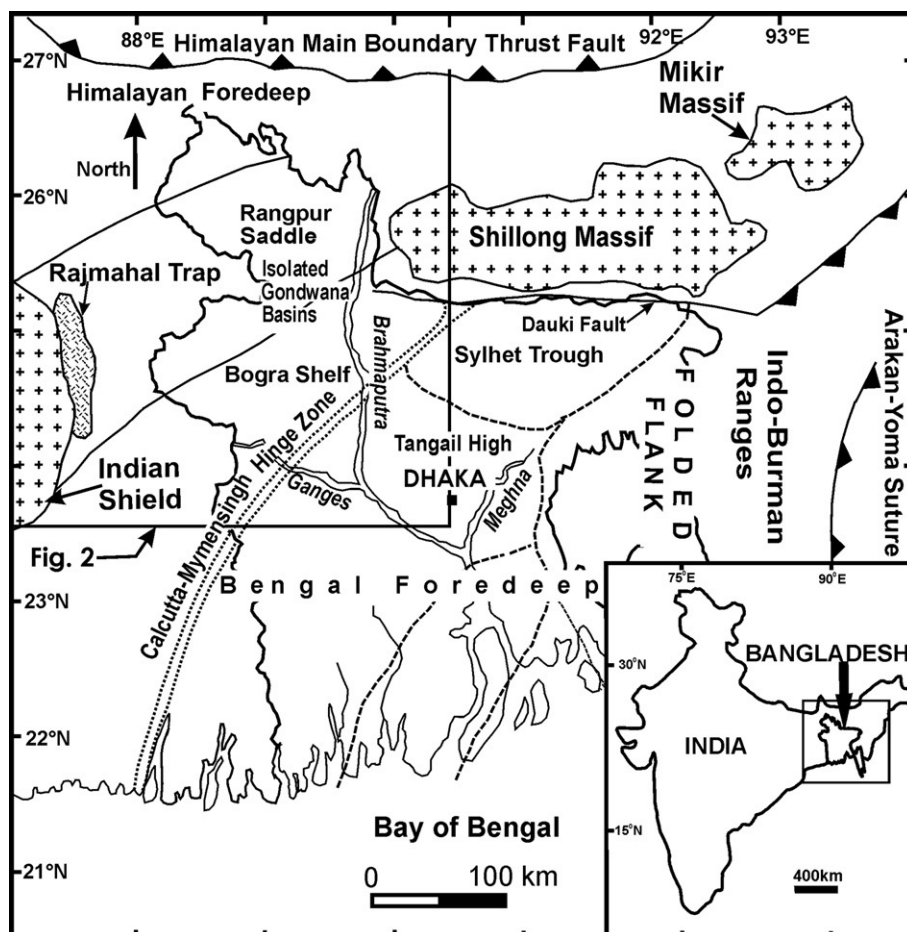


Fig. 1. Tectonic map of Bangladesh and adjoining areas (modified from Alam et al., 1990; Khan, 2002).

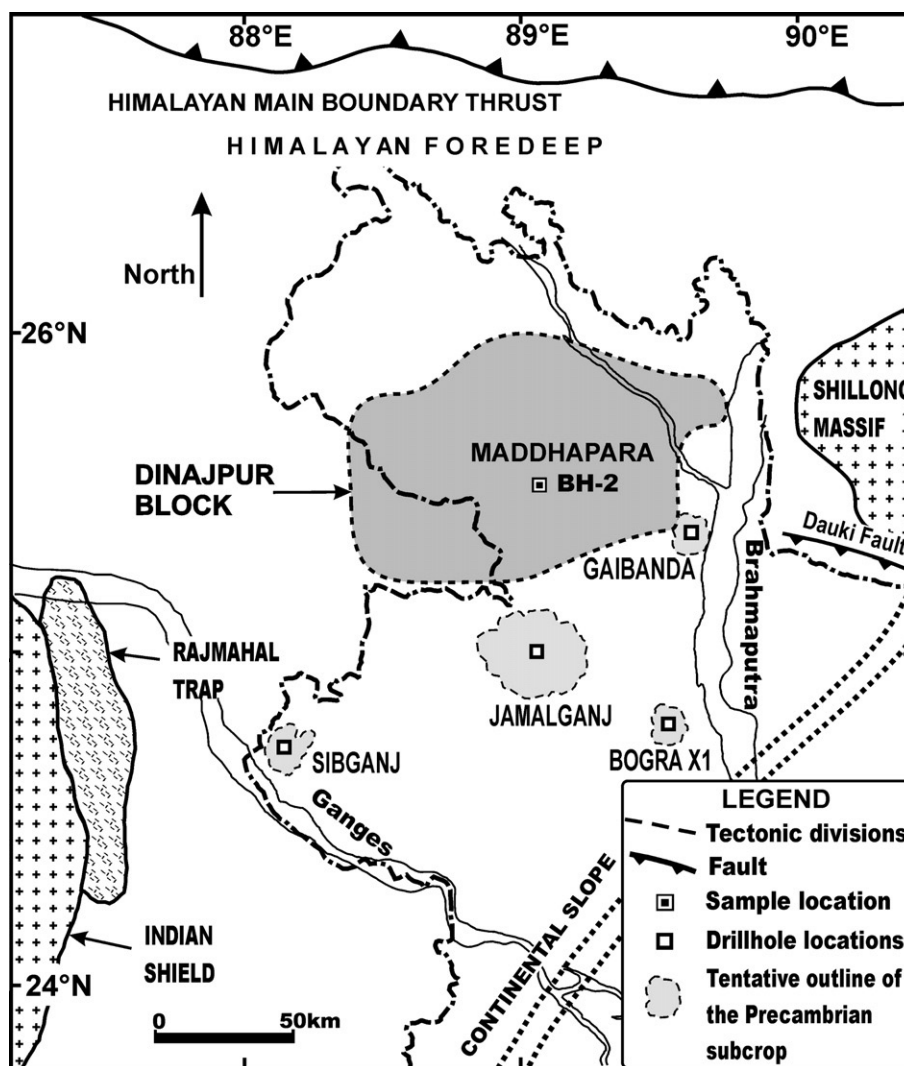


Fig. 2. Major tectonic elements of northwestern Bangladesh and surrounding areas (modified after Alam et al., 1990; Shamsuddin and Abdullah, 1997; Khan, 2002). The outline of the proposed Dinajpur Paleoproterozoic crustal block is taken from Mannan and Mirkhamidov (1981: unpublished report for Petrobangla). Other basement areas to the south are based on drill hole data (reported in Khan, 1991).

in excess of plagioclase (27% av.). Accessory minerals include biotite, hornblende and clinopyroxene, although they are less abundant than in the tonalites and granodiorites. The monzogranites occur mainly as veins and dykes, locally observed cutting the other two rock types (Kabir et al., 2001).

Representative samples were analysed for major element geochemistry by Ameen et al. (1998) and Kabir et al. (2001). In summary, the tonalites are characterised by low SiO_2 and high Al_2O_3 , CaO , MgO and Fe_2O_3 , reflected in the low quartz and high mafic mineral content, respectively. The K_2O content ranges from 1.48% to 2.16% and the average $\text{K}_2\text{O}/\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ ratio of 0.54 confirms their tonalitic affinity. The granodiorites show slightly higher percentages of SiO_2 and lower Al_2O_3 , CaO and MgO than the tonalites. The monzogranites are further enriched in SiO_2 and have higher alkali contents than the granodiorites, with $\text{K}_2\text{O}/\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ ratios ranging from 1.09 to 1.50.

In the AFM diagram (Fig. 3a), all rocks show a calc-alkaline affinity. However, on most other major element plots (Fig. 3b, c and d), a clear distinction is evident between the tonalites/

granodiorites and the monzogranites. The former conforms to a typical tonalite-trondhjemite-granodiorite (TTG) association (Fig. 3b), whereas the latter is calc-alkaline. The tonalites and granodiorites are metaluminous, whereas the monzogranites are peraluminous (Fig. 3c) and have normative corundum.

The geochemistry of the tonalites/granodiorites is consistent with an origin by partial melting of a mafic source (Barker, 1979). It is likely that the granodiorites are related by fractionation to the tonalites. However, the peraluminous nature of the monzogranites suggests that they represent a separate crustal source.

4. Geochronology

4.1. Techniques

Sample MP-1 is a tonalite collected from drill hole BH-2 (lat. $25^\circ33'28''\text{N}$; long. $89^\circ04'07''\text{E}$) at a depth of 227.48 m (745' 10"). Approximately 260 g of rock was disaggregated in a hydraulic press, lightly ground in a tungsten carbide ring mill

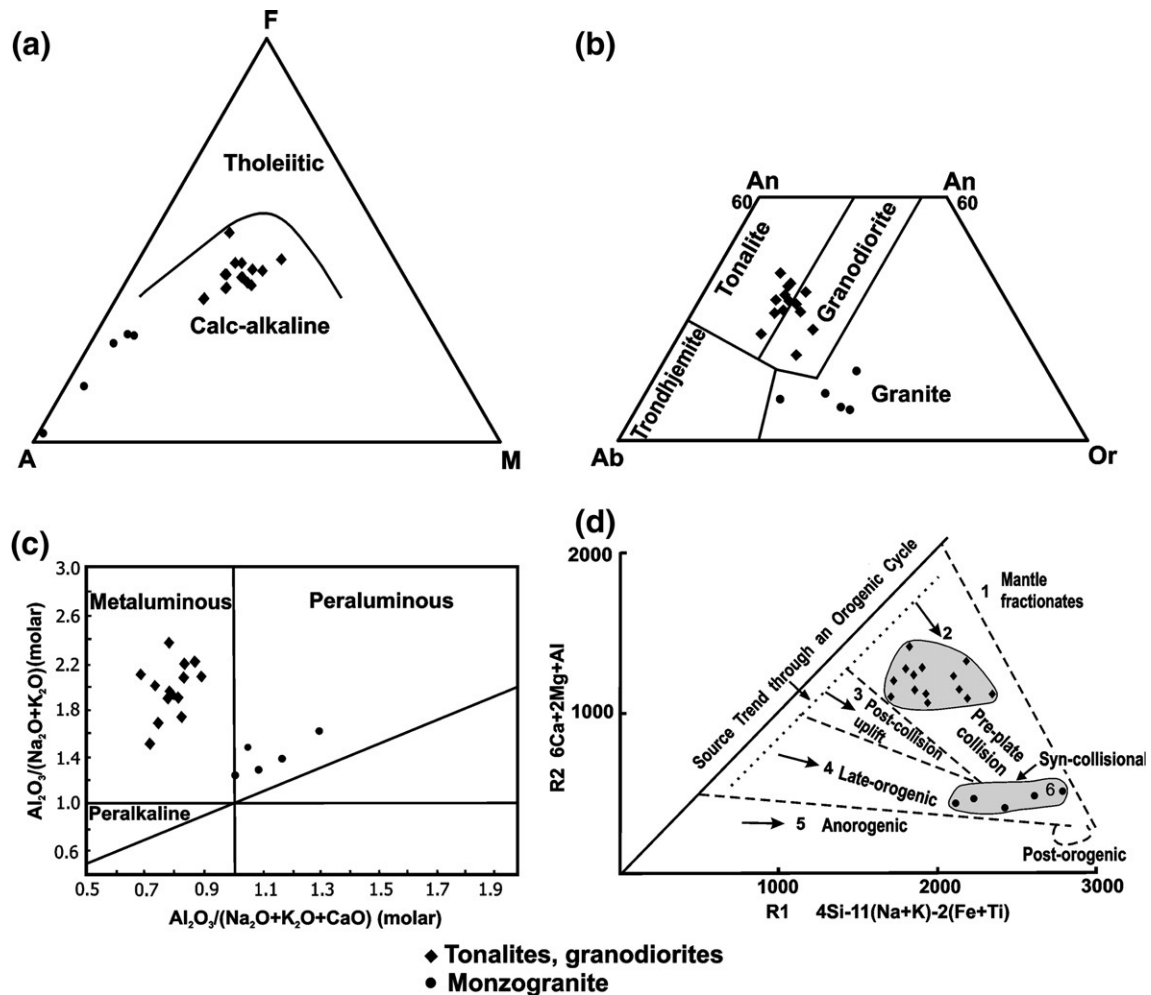


Fig. 3. Selected geochemical diagrams of granitoid samples from Maddhapara, Bangladesh (based on data presented in Ameen et al., 1998; Kabir et al., 2001). (a) AFM diagram (Irvine and Baragar, 1971), (b) Normative Ab–An–Or diagram (Barker, 1979), (c) Shand index diagram (after Maniar and Piccoli, 1989), (d) modified R1–R2 plot of de la Roche (after Batchelor and Bowden, 1985); group 1 — tholeiitic; group 2 — calc-alkaline and trondhjemitic; group 3 — high-potassic calc-alkaline; group 4 — sub-alkaline monzonitic, group 5 — alkaline and peralkaline, and group 6 — anatectic two-mica leucogranites. Grey area enclosing diamonds indicates field of Maddhapara tonalites-granodiorites; grey area enclosing circles indicates field of Maddhapara monzogranites.

and tectonic setting of the area and its relations to adjacent Precambrian blocks of the Indian shield (Fig. 6).

Our preliminary interpretation of the petrographic and limited geochemical data (Ameen et al., 1998; Kabir et al., 2001) is that the tonalites and granodiorites form part of a TTG suite. They plot in the ‘pre-plate collisional’ field (that includes typical trondhjemitic) in the de la Roche diagram of Batchelor and Bowden (1985), and are quite distinct from the monzogranites, which plot in the ‘syn-collision’ field (Fig. 3d) and thus appear to represent a separate younger suite.

The question arises as to how these rocks may be related to adjacent Precambrian blocks in neighbouring India. If the rocks of the Dinajpur block are indeed the northeastern extension of the Indian shield (Reimann, 1993), then similarities would be expected between them and the rocks exposed here. In the Chotanagpur Plateau, which represents the northeasternmost tip of the shield (I on Fig. 6), the main components are the Chotanagpur granite and associated ortho- and paragneisses, which lie to the north of the Singhbhum Granite and its associated gneisses. Unfortunately, there is a paucity of reliable geochronological data from the area

and it is difficult to make a meaningful comparison. The Singhbhum Granite has a reported whole-rock Sm–Nd age of 3.12 ± 0.01 Ga (Ghosh et al., 1996), a whole-rock Pb–Pb age of 3163 ± 126 Ma (Sengupta et al., 1991), and a $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ zircon age of 3380 ± 6 Ma (Sengupta et al., 1996). The granite is overlain by a supracrustal sequence which shows a range in whole-rock Sm–Nd and Pb–Pb ages from ~ 3.09 Ga to ~ 2.80 Ga (Misra and Johnson, 2005). Although reactivated at several periods during the Proterozoic – at ~ 2.2 , 1.8 , 1.6 – 1.5 and 1.0 Ga (Misra and Johnson, 2005) – no primary rocks with ages of ~ 1720 Ma are recorded from the area. Mallik et al. (1991) reported rather imprecise Rb–Sr ages of 1599 ± 33 Ma for charnockite, 1522 ± 71 Ma for associated granitic gneiss and 1580 ± 33 Ma for migmatite in the Chotanagpur gneiss complex, north of the Singhbhum mobile belt, whilst Ray Barman et al. (1994) reported a Rb–Sr age of 1457 ± 63 Ma for syenite and 1331 ± 125 Ma for another charnockite in the gneiss complex. The closest analogue to the tonalite age of 1722 ± 6 presented here is the very imprecise Rb–Sr age of 1717 ± 102 Ma for gneissic rocks from the Chotanagpur gneiss complex obtained by Mallik et al. (1992).

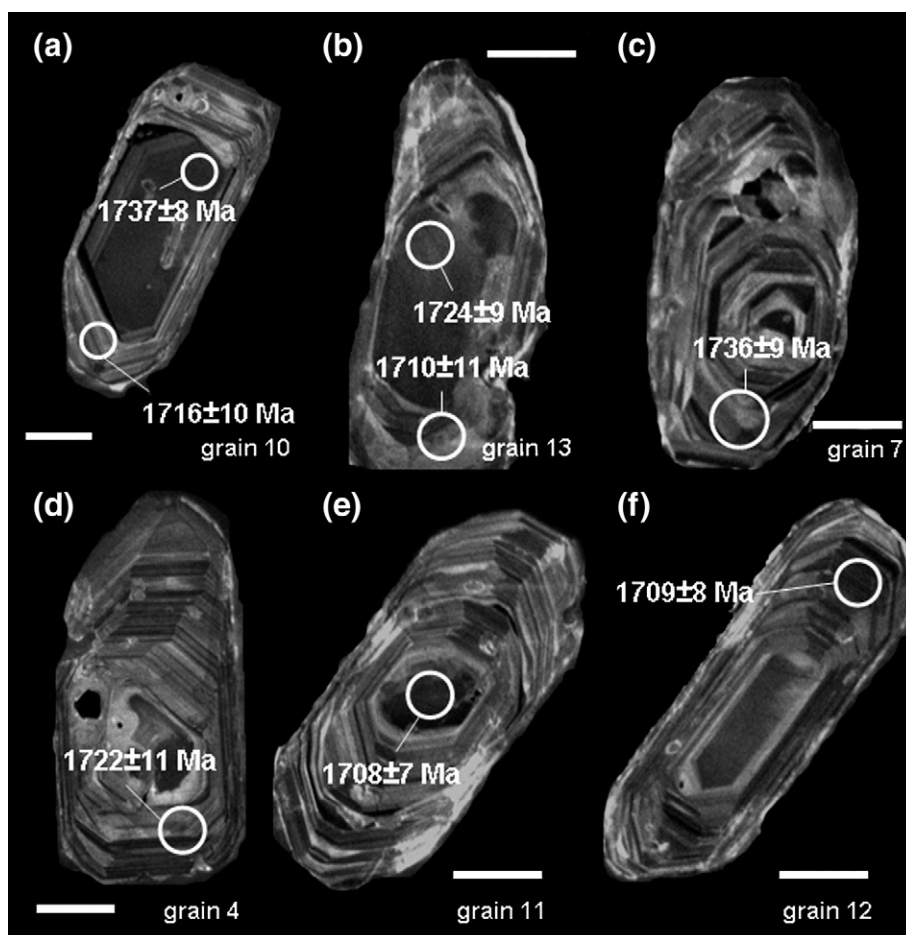


Fig. 4. Cathodoluminescence (CL) images of selected zircons from Bangladesh sample MP-1: (a) grain 10, (b) grain 13; (c) grain 7, (d) grain 4, (e) grain 11, (f) grain 12. The grain numbers are as listed in Table 1. The white circles show the sites of the SHRIMP spots, with age in Ma. The scale bar is 50 μm long in each image.

However, since multi-phase reactivation of rocks in this region has taken place, it appears highly unlikely that this Rb–Sr age reflects a primary magmatic event. Ghose et al. (1973) presented K–Ar data

for several Chotanagpur rocks, which included the timing of amphibolite facies metamorphism of basic sills within the metasedimentary rocks between 1086–893 Ma and the subsequent

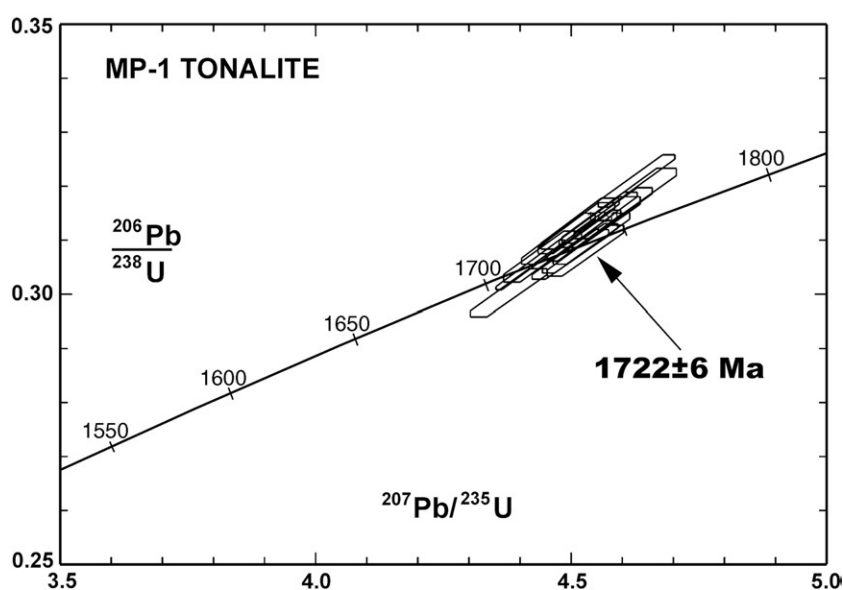


Fig. 5. Concordia diagram of SHRIMP U–Pb data for Sample MP-1 from Bangladesh.

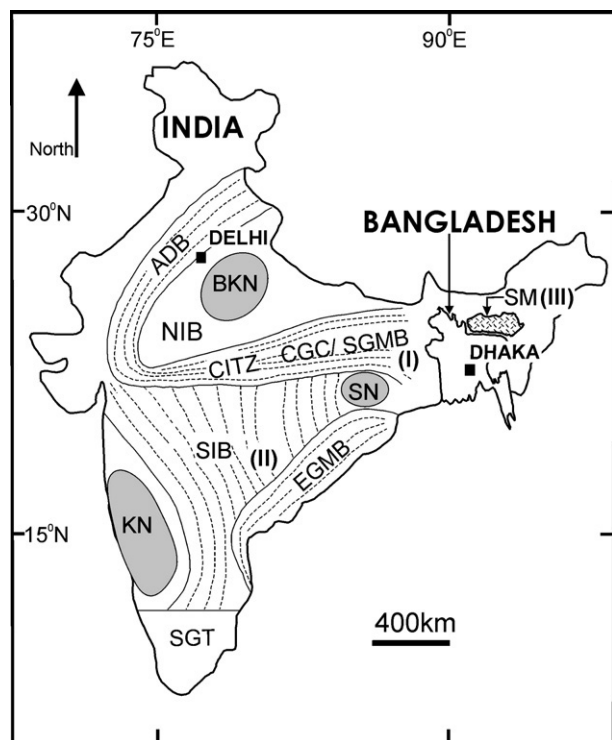


Fig. 6. Simplified tectonic map of India showing Archean cratonic areas and Proterozoic mobile belts (modified from Bhowmik, 2006). EGMB — Eastern Ghats Belt, CGC — Chotanagpur Gneissic Complex, SGMB — Singbhum Mobile Belt, CITZ — Central Indian Tectonic Zone, ADB — Aravalli–Delhi Belt, SIB — South Indian Block, NIB — North Indian Block, KN — Karnataka Craton, SN — Sataun, BKN — Bundelkhand Gneiss, SGT — South Indian Granulite Terrane, SM — Shillong Massif. I identifies the Chotanagpur area, II the Karimnagar granulite belt and III the Shillong Massif, as discussed in the text.

emplacement and metamorphism of the Chotanagpur granite at 878–800 Ma. They also quoted younger Neoproterozoic and Phanerozoic K–Ar ages from the area. None of these match the age we have obtained from Bangladesh.

Further south in the Indian Shield, Santosh et al. (2004) have reported Electron Probe Micro Analyzer (EPMA) data on zircon, monazite and uraninite from two granulite areas (the Karimnagar and Bhopalpatnam belts) developed either side of the Pranhita–Godavari rift basin (II on Fig. 6). Zircons from the Bhopalpatnam granulite belt contain 1.9 Ga cores mantled by 1.7 Ga rims and there are also zircons with core ages of 1.7–1.6 Ga, indicating extensive new growth at this time. Santosh et al. (2004) conclude that the Bhopalpatnam granulite belt represents a ~1.6 Ga collision between the Bastar and Dharwar cratons, whereas the Karimnagar granulite belt, on the southwest side of the Pranhita–Godavari rift, is part of the Dharwar Craton, since it shows no sign of Proterozoic reactivation. However, the ages reflect the high-grade metamorphic event and there is no evidence of magmatic rocks of this age in the region.

Another possible correlation of the Dinajpur block is with the Shillong Massif and Mikir Hills to the east (Fig. 1 and III on Fig. 6). The Shillong Massif is composed of a variety of east–west trending gneisses, schists and granitoids and has a broadly similar trend to the Central Indian Tectonic Zone (CITZ) further to the west (Acharyya, 2003; Bhowmik, 2006). Some of the schists are

aluminous, with sillimanite, corundum and cordierite, suggesting high-temperature/low-pressure metamorphism (Krishnan, 1982). This gneissic complex is reported to be overlain by the Shillong ‘series’ (Krishnan, 1982), composed of conglomerates, quartzites, iron formations and micaceous schists. More recent work on the Shillong Massif (Awati et al., 1995) supports this interpretation, with the lower sequence (Tyrsad Formation) being Paleoproterozoic in age and the unconformably-overlying, weakly metamorphosed Shillong Formation being somewhat younger. Both formations were intruded by mafic dykes (Khasi ‘greenstones’) and then by a series of discordant granite plutons (Mylleim granite) during the Neoproterozoic (cf. Awati et al., 1995; Ghosh et al., 2005). Rb–Sr whole-rock age data by Ghosh et al. (1991) from the Patharhkang area in the Shillong Massif (Fig. 6) include a 1714 ± 44 Ma date for a granitic gneiss forming part of the basement complex. Although similar to our SHRIMP U–Pb age for tonalite from the Dinajpur block, it should be noted that the Shillong date was obtained using the Rb–Sr technique and is thus likely to reflect a cooling age following metamorphism and not the emplacement age of the gneissic protolith. More recently, Chatterjee et al. (2007) have obtained EPMA monazite dates from the Garo–Goalpara Hills region in the western part of the Shillong Massif. However, the oldest metamorphic age was 1596 ± 15 Ma, considerably younger than the magmatic age we have obtained from the Dinajpur block in Bangladesh.

An important point to make is the lack of identification, in either the Chotanagpur region of the NE Indian Shield or the Shillong Massif, of any tonalitic granitoids such as those present in the Dinajpur block. Furthermore, as reviewed above, no Paleoproterozoic magmatic ages have been recorded in the literature from these areas either. Although the geochronological data for India are sparse, it is unlikely that such rock types would go undetected. This may, therefore, be an indication that the rocks in Bangladesh constitute a unique and separate entity and are not part of either the Indian shield or the Shillong Massif. Certainly, differences between the Dinajpur block and the Shillong Massif are not unexpected, as its original disposition with respect to the latter is unclear. The Shillong Massif has been affected by major thrusting and strike-slip movement associated with the Himalayan uplift and this distinction is emphasised when the epicentres of recent earthquakes are plotted (Gupta, 1995), the general absence of earthquakes in the Maddhapara area being in marked contrast to the intense activity recorded in and around the Shillong Massif and areas to the east.

Whatever the relationship to adjacent terrains, our new precise SHRIMP U–Pb zircon age of 1722 ± 6 Ma from tonalite in the Dinajpur block at Maddhapara, Bangladesh, provides an important time-line that can be used when correlating future work in adjacent portions of the Indian shield, and in areas wider afield in Gondwana during the reconstruction and tracing of the break-up of that supercontinent.

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