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1 **Tectonic interleaving along the Main Central Thrust, Sikkim Himalaya**

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11 **Abbreviated title:** Tectonic interleaving along the MCT

12 **Abstract**

13 Geochemical and geochronological analyses provide quantitative evidence about the origin,
14 development and motion along ductile faults, where kinematic structures have been overprinted.
15 The Main Central thrust (MCT) is a key structure in the Himalaya that accommodated substantial
16 amounts of the India-Asia convergence. This structure juxtaposes two isotopically distinct rock
17 packages across a zone of ductile deformation. Structural analysis, whole-rock Nd isotopes, and U-Pb
18 zircon geochronology reveal that the hanging wall is characterised by detrital zircon peaks at ~800-
19 1000 Ma, 1500-1700 Ma and 2300-2500 Ma, an $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(0)}$ signature of -18.3 to -12.1, and is intruded by
20 ~800 Ma and ~500-600 Ma granites. In contrast, the footwall has a prominent detrital zircon peak at
21 ~1800-1900 Ma, with older populations spanning 1900-3600 Ma, and an $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(0)}$ signature of -27.7 to -
22 23.4, intruded by ~1830 Ma granites.

23 The data reveal a ~5 km thick zone of tectonic imbrication, where isotopically out-of-sequence
24 packages are interleaved. The rocks became imbricated as the once proximal and distal rocks of the
25 Indian margin were juxtaposed by Cenozoic movement along the MCT. Geochronological and
26 isotopic characterisation allows for correlation along the Himalayan orogen and could be applied to
27 other cryptic ductile shear zones.

28 **Key words:** Himalayan Geology, Geochemistry, Geochronology, Main Central thrust, Sikkim

29 **Supplementary material: table of zircon U-Pb geochronological data, table of whole-rock Sm-Nd**
30 **isotopic data, (S1) table of sample locations, (S2) photomicrographs of sample thin sections, (S3)**
31 **atlas of zircon cathodoluminescence images, and (S4-6) detailed analytical conditions are available**
32 **online at www.geolsoc.org.uk/SUPxx.**

33 Crustal thickening in major orogenic belts is often achieved by packages of rock being thrust upon
34 one another along major thrust faults. At depth, thrust faults form ductile shear zones and the
35 amount of displacement along these structures is probably much larger than can be evaluated by
36 strain analysis of the exposed rock. The Sikkim Himalaya provides a uniquely preserved window into
37 the mid-crustal levels of one of the largest ductile shear zones on Earth. This study illustrates how
38 isotope geochemistry and geochronology can be used to investigate major orogenic structures,
39 affected by hundreds of kilometres of relative displacement and ductile deformation, to provide a
40 unique perspective on the hanging wall-footwall relationships.

41 The Main Central thrust (MCT) is an orogen-parallel ductile thrust fault or shear zone that separates
42 the Greater Himalayan Sequence (GHS) in the hanging wall from the Lesser Himalayan Sequence
43 (LHS) in the footwall (Fig. 1; Heim and Gansser 1939; Le Fort 1975). Despite this simple definition, in
44 reality the specific location and structural characteristics of the MCT have long been subject to
45 debate throughout the Himalaya. Our knowledge of this thrust system in the eastern Himalaya is
46 particularly poor.

47 The MCT was originally mapped in the Kumaun region of NW India as the basal contact between the
48 crystalline nappes (GHS) and the underlying metasedimentary rocks (LHS) (Heim and Gansser 1939).
49 Since this time there has been little agreement on the classification or location of the thrust in many
50 Himalayan sections. A variety of factors have caused controversy over the MCT: the divergent
51 criteria used to define the thrust, differences in methods and approach, and variations in
52 appearance of the thrust in the field (Searle et al. 2008 and references therein). Different criteria
53 used to define the thrust include: i) lithological changes (Heim and Gansser 1939; Valdiya 1980;

54 Gansser 1983; Pêcher 1989; Davidson et al. 1997; Daniel et al. 2003; Tobgay et al. 2012); ii) high
55 strain in a distinct zone (Stephenson et al. 2001; Gupta et al. 2010); iii) metamorphic discontinuities
56 (Bordet 1961; Le Fort 1975; Hubbard and Harrison 1989; Stäubli 1989; Harrison et al. 1997; Catlos et
57 al. 2001; Kohn et al. 2001; Daniel et al. 2003; Groppo et al. 2009; Martin et al. 2010); iv) structural
58 criteria (Pêcher 1989; Martin et al. 2005; Searle et al. 2008); and v) isotopic breaks (Inger and Harris
59 1993; Parrish and Hodges 1996; Whittington et al. 1999; Ahmad et al. 2000; Robinson et al. 2001;
60 Martin et al. 2005; Richards et al. 2005; Richards et al. 2006; Ameen et al. 2007; Imayama and Arita
61 2008; Gehrels et al. 2011; Long et al. 2011b; Martin et al. 2011; Tobgay et al. 2011; McQuarrie et al.
62 2013; Webb et al. 2013).

63 It has been asserted that “the essential criteria to define a shear zone are the identification of a
64 strain gradient and the clear localisation of strain” (Passchier and Trouw 2005, p. 532; Searle et al.,
65 2008). Although this approach is useful to define the MCT in areas where structural criteria are
66 clear-cut, it does not take into account the diffuse nature of the deformation that is associated with
67 the MCT in many other transects. This approach also fails to address the difficulties of locating the
68 thrust as a discrete break, when it separates rocks of very similar lithologies over a wide zone of
69 ductile deformation, where total strain may not be faithfully recorded by all lithologies.

70 In areas where the structural and stratigraphic criteria are ambiguous, geochemical fingerprinting
71 can potentially provide a complementary tool to identify and investigate the tectono-stratigraphic
72 break across the MCT, as units either side of the MCT are defined by distinct geochemical signatures.
73 Early studies found that the ‘geochemical’ boundary associated with the MCT coincided with the
74 geological/lithological boundary mapped by others, suggesting that the approach had broad validity
75 in confirming the location of the suspected major fault (e.g. Parrish and Hodges 1996). Most of these
76 previous isotopic studies used to identify the location of the MCT have largely focused on the central
77 and western Himalaya (see references above). More recently the eastern Himalaya have become a
78 focus of interest for using isotopic methods (Tobgay et al. 2011; McQuarrie et al. 2013) after

79 suggestions that the provenance of these rocks differs from elsewhere along the orogen (Yin et al.
80 2010a; Yin et al. 2010b; Webb et al. 2013). Our study aims to extend the Himalayan isotopic dataset
81 into the eastern Himalaya to allow for cross-correlation of units along the entire orogen and to
82 assess the robustness of the isotopic approach for defining structures across thousands of
83 kilometres of their length along strike.

84 Here we use lithological, structural and geochemical data to characterise the lithotectonic units of
85 the Sikkim Himalaya, a region that lies between the well-studied regions of Nepal and Bhutan. We
86 demonstrate, for the first time, an isotopic method of defining the location of the MCT in the Sikkim
87 Himalaya. The data show there is a break in the geochemical signature of the rocks towards the top
88 of the MCT zone, indicating that the deformation has penetrated down into the 'footwall' of the
89 isotopic discontinuity. In detail, there is a zone of tectonic interleaving in the highest structural levels
90 of the high-strain zone, which implies that tectonic imbrication in the ductile MCT zone accompanied
91 thrusting. A model is presented outlining the provenance of these rocks and how they were
92 juxtaposed during Cenozoic movement of the MCT. Our study permits correlation between the MCT
93 in the Sikkim Himalaya and the MCT mapped along strike in the central and western Himalaya using
94 a combined set of comparable data.

95 **Geological setting**

96 The MCT broadly represents a protolith boundary that divides two lithological packages, each
97 characterised by distinctive geochronological and geochemical signatures (e.g. Parrish and Hodges
98 1996). The LHS is a Palaeoproterozoic metasedimentary sequence with an $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(0)}$ signature of -20 to -
99 25 that has been intruded by ~ 1.8 Ga granites. In contrast, the GHS is a younger, Neoproterozoic-
100 Ediacaran (and possibly Palaeozoic) sequence of metasedimentary rocks, characterised by an $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(0)}$
101 signature of -15 to -20 indicative of younger source regions, typically intruded by younger, ~ 500 and
102 subordinate ~ 830 Ma granites (Parrish and Hodges 1996; Ahmad et al. 2000; Robinson et al. 2001;

103 Martin et al. 2005; Richards et al. 2005; Imayama and Arita 2008; Gehrels et al. 2011; Long et al.
104 2011b; Martin et al. 2011; Tobgay et al. 2011; McQuarrie et al. 2013; Webb et al. 2013).

105 In southern Sikkim and the Darjeeling Hills (referred to collectively as the Sikkim Himalaya) a
106 combination of poor exposure around the MCT and widespread diffuse ductile deformation obscure
107 both the location and nature of the MCT. Previous studies have identified a zone, up to 20 km wide
108 (in map view), of ductile deformation and inverted metamorphism termed the Main Central thrust
109 'Zone' (Goswami 2005; Gupta et al. 2010; Fig. 2a). Although this inverted metamorphic sequence is
110 recognised elsewhere along the Himalaya, there are few other localities where there is such a well-
111 developed and complete sequence of Barrovian metamorphic zones (Dasgupta et al. 2009), from the
112 biotite-in isograd to the second sillimanite-in zone (Fig. 2b and see photomicrographs in the
113 supplementary material S2 for metamorphic minerals). A late-stage duplex beneath the Ramgarh
114 thrust (Bhattacharyya and Mitra 2009; Long et al. 2011a) has created the Teesta Dome, deforming
115 the MCT and producing one of the largest re-entrants, in map view, across the Himalaya (Figs 2a, 2c).
116 Throughout the region, the MCT separates the overlying GHS from the LHS. The transition between
117 these two rock packages in this ductile shear zone appears gradational in various respects. There is a
118 several kilometre-wide zone of penetratively deformed rocks, with no obvious single discrete
119 horizon of much higher strain located within this wide zone. Structurally lower levels of the zone
120 consist of pelitic schists, psammities, quartzites, calc-silicates and orthogneisses known locally as the
121 Lingtse gneiss (Paul et al. 1982). Sequences of paragneiss, orthogneiss and migmatites become
122 increasingly abundant in the overlying, highest-grade rocks, but there is no single, abrupt change
123 from one lithology to another. The inverted metamorphic zones appear continuous over a very wide
124 extent, up to 50km across strike, and this gradual change in peak P-T conditions lacks a single
125 discrete discontinuity in grade at any level in the zone. The apparent absence of a zone of this width
126 elsewhere in the Himalaya may result from later brittle movement on the MCT that has truncated
127 the zone of earlier ductile deformation in these transects (Macfarlane et al. 1992).

128 In the Sikkim Himalaya, there have been many conflicting interpretations of the exact location of the
129 MCT. Studies have variously bounded the MCT zone with two named thrusts (Catlos et al. 2004;
130 Dubey et al. 2005; Bhattacharyya and Mitra 2009; 2011), placed the MCT at the top of the MCT zone
131 (Ghosh 1956; Acharyya 1975; Banerjee et al. 1983) or placed the MCT at the base of the MCT zone
132 (Searle and Szulc 2005). Furthermore, the distinctive Palaeoproterozoic Lingtse gneiss, strongly
133 sheared along the MCT zone throughout the Sikkim Himalaya, has been used in other studies as a
134 defining lithology for determining the location of the MCT (Neogi et al. 1998; Chakraborty et al.
135 2003; Dasgupta et al. 2004).

136 We have collected both structural measurements and samples along several transects across the
137 MCT in the Sikkim Himalaya (Fig. 2b). Throughout the region, the MCT zone displays well-developed,
138 polydeformational fabrics typical of large-scale shearing and thrusting that have been extensively
139 described and catalogued in previous structural studies (Goswami 2005). Structures are dominated
140 by south-directed thrusting along the MCT as typified by the Mangan transect with fabrics detailed
141 in Figure 3. There is a strong N-S stretching lineation identified from boudinage structures (Fig. 3a),
142 stretching fabrics in L-tectonites (Fig. 3b), aligned fold axes, and mineral lineations (Fig. 3d).

143 Extensive shearing has formed the main penetrative MCT foliation. Shearing is also localised into
144 well-developed shear bands in metapelites (Fig. 3c) across several kilometres of thickness of the
145 MCT zone. Shear indicators indicate a top-to-the-south sense of shear.

146 Structural mapping reveals that there are high-strain indicators distributed over a distance of ~20 km
147 across and beneath the MCT (Fig. 3); hence most previous studies have considered the MCT to form
148 a 'zone'. The rocks within this zone differ in strength and rheology, creating several domains of high
149 strain. The MCT cannot be marked or mapped as a single plane within this zone due to the
150 distributed nature of the strain. This is illustrated in the Mangan section (Fig. 3) where the strain
151 appears to be recorded differently in each lithology. In the metapelites, strain is localised into shear
152 bands, whereas early quartz veins are boudinaged and the mechanically strong orthogneisses

153 develop L-tectonite and LS-tectonite fabrics. The deformation associated with the MCT is principally
154 syn-metamorphic with earlier strain fabrics being reworked and/or erased by metamorphic
155 recrystallization and new mineral growth.

156 In summary, the widespread, heterogeneous and diffuse nature of the strain associated with the
157 MCT zone in the Sikkim Himalaya obscures the differentiation between the LHS and GHS purely on
158 the basis of lithology and/or deformation. This has prompted this study into the use of geochemical
159 and geochronological data in addressing the problem of understanding the location and nature of
160 the MCT.

161 **Analytical methods**

162 ***Zircon U-Pb geochronology***

163 Samples for zircon U-Pb geochronology were collected from clastic metasedimentary and igneous
164 protoliths across the MCT in the Sikkim Himalaya to investigate the tectonic affinity of these rocks
165 (locations shown in Fig. 2b, and in the table and photomicrographs in the supplementary material S1
166 and S2). Thirteen samples were collected: six quartzites for detrital zircon analysis and seven
167 orthogneiss samples, representing pre-Himalayan granites metamorphosed during the Tertiary
168 orogeny.

169 Zircon was analysed using laser ablation multi-collector inductively-coupled plasma mass
170 spectrometry (LA-MC-ICP-MS) at the NERC Isotope Geosciences Laboratory, Keyworth, UK.

171 Separated grains were imaged using cathodoluminescence scanning electron microscopy (SEMCL),
172 on a FEI Quanta 600 ESEM, at 10nA, 15mm working distance at the British Geological Survey, UK to
173 investigate zoning patterns and to choose appropriate spots for analysis (see CL images in the
174 supplementary material S3). The zircons show several stages of growth recorded in the concentric
175 zoning patterns of the magmatic crystals. Some zircons had more complex histories due to additional

176 post-magmatic metamorphic growth (see the supplementary material S3 for atlas of zircon
177 textures).

178 Zircons were mainly analysed for U-Pb isotopes using a Nu Plasma HR multi-collector inductively
179 coupled plasma mass spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS) (Nu Instruments, Wrexham, UK) and a UP193FX
180 (193nm) excimer or UP193SS (193nm) Nd:YAG laser ablation system (New Wave Research, UK).

181 Measurement procedures followed methods described in Thomas et al. (2010) and full analytical
182 conditions are given in the supplementary material S4. A small number of zircons (sample 292) were
183 analysed using an AttoM single collector sector field (SC-SF) ICP-MS (Nu Instruments, Wrexham, UK)
184 and a New Wave Research UP193FX (193nm), excimer ablation system (New Wave Research, UK).

185 The instrumental configuration and measurement procedures follow previous methods (Thomas et
186 al. 2013) and full analytical conditions are shown in the supplementary material S5. Only $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$
187 data within 5% of concordance were plotted in relative probability plots in Figures 6 and 7. Between
188 eighty and one hundred grains were analysed for each sample in order to retain statistically
189 significant numbers of concordant analyses. For this number of grains, it has been calculated by
190 Vermeesch (2004) that no fraction of the population comprising more than 5.7-6.8% of the total is
191 missed at the 95% confidence level. All data, quoted at 2σ confidence level, are shown in the U-Pb
192 data table in the supplementary material.

193 ***Sm-Nd Geochemistry***

194 Twenty samples for whole-rock Nd geochemistry were collected along transects across the MCT in
195 the Sikkim Himalaya. Schistose pelitic samples (rather than more psammitic samples) were selected
196 because of their high REE concentration and because their fine-grained sedimentary protoliths
197 present a more representative average of the source region (McLennan et al. 1989). Full sample
198 locations and rock types are shown on map in Fig. 2b and in the Sm–Nd whole rock data table, and
199 photomicrographs in the supplementary material S2.

200 Nd isotope analyses were obtained at The Open University, UK, by thermal ionisation mass
201 spectrometry (TIMS) using a Triton instrument. Isotopic analytical techniques are as described by Pin
202 and Zalduegui (1997). Full details of sample preparation and analytical conditions can be found in
203 the supplementary material S6. $^{147}\text{Sm}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratios were calculated from elemental ratios obtained
204 from quadrupole ICP-MS (full conditions in the supplementary material S6). Epsilon Nd values were
205 calculated at time 0 using present day CHUR values of 0.512638 (Hamilton et al. 1983).

206 **Results**

207 ***Orthogneiss geochronology***

208 The ages of the analysed zircons from the seven orthogneiss samples (Figs 4, 5 and 8) fall into three
209 age groups; Palaeoproterozoic granites (Lingtse gneiss), Neoproterozoic granites, and Ediacaran-
210 Cambrian granites. Each of these samples yield discordant scattered age populations due to the later
211 metamorphism and subsequent Pb loss which affected these zircons. Ages have therefore been
212 reported as average $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ages with 2SD uncertainties. Lingtse gneiss (samples 49 and 58) from
213 the same body of granitic gneiss, yield average $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ages within error of each other (Sample
214 49= 1837 ± 45 Ma, MSWD 11.6 and Sample 58= 1836 ± 26 Ma, MSWD 11.5). Samples 233 and 245
215 are from two thin Lingtse gneiss units interlayered with metasedimentary rocks and record average
216 $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ages of 1834 ± 37 Ma, MSWD 20 (Sample 233) and 1853 ± 19 Ma, MSWD 17 (Sample
217 245). These ages are interpreted as the timing of magmatic intrusion of the granite pluton as the
218 analyses are yielded from zircons with typical magmatic oscillatory zoning (see zircon atlas in the
219 supplementary material S3). All of the Lingtse gneiss samples contain older zircon cores that
220 preserve evidence of older Proterozoic and Archaean magmatic events.

221 The three analysed Neoproterozoic and Ediacaran orthogneiss samples record three separate
222 magmatic events (Fig. 5). Although all the samples contain inherited zircon cores that match the
223 Palaeoproterozoic age of the Lingtse gneiss, the main magmatic zircon populations of these granites

224 vary in age. The youngest sample (280) yields a spread in age of ~490 – 520 Ma, which produced an
225 average $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ age of 508 ± 22 Ma (MSWD=3.3); sample 115 yields an average $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ age
226 of 604 ± 28 Ma (MSWD=7); and the oldest sample (32) yields an average $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ age of 829 ± 28
227 Ma (MSWD=16).

228 ***Detrital zircon geochronology***

229 The detrital zircon data from the six samples analysed are presented in Figures 6, 7 and 8. Four of
230 the samples yield detrital zircon populations that have a prominent peak at ~1800 Ma with older
231 grains spread throughout the Proterozoic and Archaean, and yield no grains younger than ~1700 Ma.
232 In detail, samples 12 and 38x show dominant 1800 Ma peaks with a small number of older zircons.
233 Sample 203 shows a peak at ~1900 Ma and relatively more Archaean zircons than samples 12 and
234 38x. Sample 292 lacks a dominant peak but zircon ages range from ~1900 Ma to ~2600 Ma; this
235 sample contains the oldest zircons seen in this study, dating to c.3600 Ma. The remaining two
236 samples (161 and 211) also contain minor components of Proterozoic and Archaean material, but
237 display a range of ages down to younger than ~800 Ma. Sample 161 yields a dominant age peak at
238 ~800-1100 Ma with minor, older, peaks at ~1500-1700 Ma and ~2300-2500 Ma. Sample 211 yields a
239 similar age spectrum, but with a slightly older dominant peak at ~1000-1300 Ma and a spread of
240 older zircons from 1300 Ma to 2600 Ma. There is also one discordant zircon analysis at ~500 Ma,
241 indicative that this sample may contain Palaeozoic zircon populations.

242 ***Sm-Nd geochemistry***

243 The ϵ_{Nd} results are shown in the Sm-Nd whole-rock data table in the supplementary material and are
244 plotted on Figures 8 and 9 to demonstrate the geochemical variations with spatial reference to the
245 MCT zone. The data range in $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(0)}$ from -27.7 to -12.1.

246 **Discussion**

247 ***The magmatic history***

248 The Palaeoproterozoic granites ('Lingtse gneiss') from the MCT zone were originally dated using Rb-
249 Sr, yielding ages of c.1075-2034 Ma (Paul et al. 1982; Paul et al. 1996). The Lingtse gneiss samples
250 from the Sikkim Himalaya analysed in this study provide an age cluster within error between $1834 \pm$
251 37 Ma and 1853 ± 19 Ma (Fig. 4) and may be age-correlated with other Lesser Himalayan granite
252 gneisses across the Himalaya (Goswami et al. 2009; see Table 1 from Kohn et al. 2010 for summary
253 of ages). This widespread Palaeoproterozoic magmatic event has been ascribed to a continental
254 volcanic arc that was active during the formation of the supercontinent Columbia (Kohn et al. 2010).

255 Samples 32, 115 and 280 analysed in this study yield ages of 829 ± 28 Ma, 604 ± 28 Ma and 508 ± 22
256 Ma (Fig. 5). These orthogneiss ages are consistent with similar meta-igneous intrusion ages from the
257 GHS elsewhere in the Himalaya. These include an event at ~ 500 Ma (Bhargava 1995; Marquer et al.
258 2000; Miller et al. 2001; Ghosh et al. 2005; Richards et al. 2005) and an earlier Neoproterozoic event
259 at ~ 800 Ma (DiPietro and Isachsen 2001; Singh et al. 2002; Ghosh et al. 2005; Richards et al. 2006;
260 Spencer et al. 2012). A widespread Cambro-Ordovician tectonic event has been documented across
261 the GHS (Argles et al. 1999; Marquer et al. 2000; Gehrels et al. 2003; Gehrels et al. 2006). This has
262 been termed the 'Bhimphedian orogeny' (Cawood et al. 2007), and has been related to the
263 Cambrian formation of Gondwana (Yin et al. 2010b).

264 The significance of the ~ 800 Ma magmatism is somewhat more enigmatic but has been tentatively
265 linked to the presence of a superplume beneath the Rodinian continent resulting in intracontinental
266 rifting (Li et al. 2008). This has been linked to the Malani magmatic event (750 Ma) on the Indian
267 craton, during which volcanism resulted from the final rifting and break-up of this part of the
268 supercontinent (Sharma 2005). The precise cause of the magmatism at this time remains unclear,
269 but suggestions include back-arc extension (Zhou et al. 2002), the arrival of a mantle plume (Gyynn
270 et al. 2012), or post-orogenic slab break off (Wang et al. 2006).

271 ***The MCT zone in the Sikkim Himalaya***

272 The geochronological and geochemical data from this study can be categorised into two isotopic
273 groups, shown in Fig. 8. The samples with detrital zircon ages that show a dominant peak at ~1800
274 Ma, with no zircons younger than ~1700 Ma (Fig. 6), and those samples with an ϵNd signature of -
275 27.7 to -23.4, are indicative of an LHS signature when compared to the published literature as
276 reviewed above. The youngest detrital zircons in the LHS sediments are coeval to the granite
277 intrusion ages, which date from ~1800 Ma. The samples that have a detrital zircon age signature
278 which ranges down to younger than 800 Ma (Fig. 7) or an ϵNd signature of -18.3 to -12.1 can be
279 characterised as GHS samples when compared to previous studies. The youngest concordant Greater
280 Himalayan detrital zircons are roughly contemporaneous with the oldest granite intrusion (~800
281 Ma), suggesting that these were deposited in an active tectonic environment.

282 It has recently been suggested that the significance of detrital age information is obscured in some
283 Himalayan regions, because some of the Lesser Himalayan formations overlap in characteristics with
284 some of the Greater Himalayan lithologies (Myrow et al. 2010). The LHS units in the eastern
285 Himalaya are divided into three quite distinct supracrustal formations (Fig. 1): the Palaeoproterozoic
286 Daling formation, the Neoproterozoic-Cambrian Buxa formation and the much younger Permian
287 Gondwana sediments. Whereas the Buxa and Gondwana sediments (sometimes termed the Outer
288 Lesser Himalaya, Richards et al. 2005) have an isotopic signature that can overlap with the GHS
289 (McQuarrie et al. 2013), the older predominant Daling unit has an isotopic signature which contrasts
290 markedly with that of the GHS, producing a geochemical contrast across the thrust zone wherever
291 the Daling and GHS are juxtaposed, such as in the Sikkim Himalaya.

292 The geochemical and geochronological characterisation of the samples from this study has allowed
293 for a more precise trace of the MCT to be proposed in the Sikkim Himalaya (Fig. 2b), which is
294 generally consistent with that presented in Rubatto et al. (2012). Our study, which presents the first
295 isotopic data from the rocks of the Sikkim Himalaya, demonstrates that rocks sometimes mapped as

296 a separate lithological unit, the 'MCT zone' (Fig. 2a), are primarily of Daling Lesser Himalayan
297 isotopic affinity. This is an important conclusion because it implies that the deformation associated
298 with the MCT has mainly penetrated downwards from the "protolith boundary" marked by a distinct
299 break in isotopic signature and granite intrusion age, several kilometres into the footwall of the
300 structure. The deformation associated with thrust faults is known to migrate down into the footwall
301 of the structure when there is progressive failure of the footwall ramps. This results in the
302 abandonment of the old thrust surface and the development of new thrusts in the footwall that
303 eventually leads to the formation of an imbricate stack (Butler 1982). This suggests that as
304 movement on the MCT occurred in the Sikkim Himalaya at ~22-10 Ma (Catlos et al. 2004),
305 deformation migrated down-section from the original isotopic break, interpreted as the location of
306 the original décollement zone of the MCT, into the underlying Lesser Himalayan rocks.

307 ***Tectonic imbrication***

308 Three transects (Figs 9a, b and c) provide exceptions to the simple division between the hanging wall
309 and footwall of the MCT, as outlined above. Samples in these locations yield abrupt out-of-
310 sequence, alternating shifts in ϵ_{Nd} and detrital zircon characteristics in a ~5-10 km thick zone (shown
311 as outliers in Figure 8). This has important implications both for the geochemical "fingerprinting" of
312 rock units on either side of the MCT, and potentially other obscure ductile faults with major
313 displacements worldwide, and for understanding the mechanics of thrusting.

314 There are several possible alternative explanations for these shifts:

315 **i) Fluid alteration**

316 The Sm–Nd system could have been perturbed by fluid alteration or some other process, giving an
317 anomalous signature. However, the unperturbed Sm/Nd values (~0.11) for the rocks measured in
318 this study do not support significant disturbance of the Sm–Nd system (Ahmad et al. 2000).

319 **ii) Sediment sources**

320 It has been proposed that the Paro and Jaishidanda sequences in Bhutan were deposited in a
321 tectonically active, distal foreland basin associated with the 'Bhimpedian' orogeny, affected by shifts
322 in sediment source with material sourced from both the GHS rocks (younger detritus) and the Indian
323 shield (older detritus) (McQuarrie et al. 2013). The Bhutan sequences probably correlate to the
324 along-strike MCT zone of the Sikkim Himalaya. Sample 292 in this study lacks a prominent 1800 Ma
325 detrital zircon peak and has a larger spread of older zircons than other typical 'LHS' rocks (Fig. 6),
326 potentially supporting the theory of different sediment sources for certain rocks within the MCT
327 zone.

328 The 'interleaved' signatures could therefore reflect abrupt shifts in the nature of detritus being
329 deposited in the MCT zone sedimentary protoliths (Tobgay et al. 2011; McQuarrie et al. 2013). These
330 shifts could result from one or more of the following: 1) specific depositional settings, 2) sediment
331 transport processes, and 3) erosion processes in the catchments.

332 A marine depositional environment is indicated for MCT zone rocks in the Sikkim Himalaya by the
333 abundance of tourmaline (implying high boron concentrations; Carrano et al. 2009), and the
334 interbedding of pelites and quartzites. In the relatively near-shore (delta or continental shelf) setting
335 suggested by these lithologies, sediment can be deposited in a dynamic environment (Allen 2005),
336 which could explain the observed abrupt shifts in geochemical signature in different rock packages.
337 However, the dispersal of sediment from rivers into marine systems may be unpredictable (Wright
338 and Nittrouer 1995), suggesting that detritus from a single river can become dispersed and mixed
339 with other sediment, causing signatures of individual rivers to be obscured in the final depositional
340 marine setting. The abrupt shifts in geochemical signature we observed in the Sikkim Himalaya
341 would require very distinct sediment sources for certain rocks, with little basin-scale mixing.

342 Differences in isotopic signature between two sedimentary packages may also be due to a difference
343 in their duration of transport, and hence time of deposition. For instance, it has been proposed that

344 grain size can act as a buffer, with larger grains (i.e. in the quartzite) being transported faster to the
345 final deposition site than the finer grains that characterise the pelitic lithologies (Allen 2007).

346 The third controlling factor could have been changes in the catchment and erosion areas of rivers in
347 a tectonically active region. Recent work has shown that the route of the Yarlung-Tsangpo-Irrawaddy
348 system was modified by river capture during Himalayan uplift (Robinson et al. 2013). A similar
349 catchment shift could have occurred during the Palaeozoic, perhaps associated with uplift during the
350 Bhimpedian orogeny when the GHS rocks were deposited. However, such shifts in river catchment
351 are likely to result in a single switching of sediment source and isotopic signature; since we observe
352 repeated reversals of the signatures, this scenario seems less likely in the Sikkim Himalaya.

353 In a marine sedimentary environment any shifts in erosion, deposition or river catchment would be
354 recorded as progressive, not abrupt, changes in the sedimentary record. In addition, the alternating
355 geochemical signatures of packages in the Sikkim Himalaya are uniquely associated with proximity to
356 the MCT (Fig. 8). Moreover our observation, based on detailed geochemical studies, that rock
357 packages characterised by specific detrital isotopic signatures are intruded by granite intrusions of
358 contrasting ages favours a tectonic explanation. Overall, we do not consider that the evidence
359 provided in this study supports a purely sedimentological interpretation of the variation of isotopic
360 signatures.

361 **iii) Tectonic interleaving**

362 The observed signature of the rocks could have been caused by tectonic interleaving of LHS and GHS
363 rocks associated with the tectonic movement along the MCT. This model is supported by evidence in
364 Figures 9a and 9b where narrow slivers of pelites are exposed that yield distinct ϵ_{Nd} signatures from
365 their immediately adjacent orthogneisses and pelites with contrasting geochemical signature. Since
366 such complexities are only found in the area surrounding the MCT, we suggest that ductile shearing
367 was involved in determining the observed spatial distribution of the hanging wall and footwall rocks.

368 This study is not the first to discover tectonic complications associated with the MCT. Gansser (1991)
369 observed that the MCT can form either a “zone of imbrication or can expose a sharp contact”. Our
370 work confirms that there may be along-strike geochemical and structural variations and complexities
371 regarding the nature of the MCT. To the east, detrital zircon and ϵ_{Nd} signatures from the Paro
372 window in Bhutan (Tobgay et al. 2011) are also suggestive of an imbricate zone similar to the MCT in
373 the Sikkim Himalaya. This has important implications for the tectonic affinity of the Paro
374 metasedimentary rocks, and may suggest that the Yadong cross-structure (Fig. 1; Cooper et al. 2012
375 and references therein) does not mark a fundamental orogenic break separating contrasting
376 protolith sources for the constituent metasedimentary lithologies. There are also examples of mixing
377 around the MCT to the west. Although Martin et al. (2005) found no evidence of an imbricate zone
378 associated with the MCT in the Annapurna region of western Nepal, Parrish and Hodges (1996)
379 termed a relatively narrow conspicuous zone of lithological and structural imbrication around the
380 MCT in the Langtang region of central Nepal as the “MCT imbricate zone”, characterised by $\epsilon_{Nd(0)}$
381 signatures of -16.3 to -21.4. This latter study suggested that variations in the ϵ_{Nd} ratios in this zone
382 showed that the MCT zone was formed from interleaving of slices of both footwall and hanging wall
383 rocks. Studies in other Nepal transects have also reported ambiguous overlapping ϵ_{Nd} signatures
384 from the vicinity of the MCT, which could also be interpreted as evidence for imbrication (Robinson
385 et al. 2001; Imayama and Arita 2008).

386 Although major brittle thrust faults can form a single sharp contact (Butler 1982; Law 1998),
387 imbrication and duplexing is more likely to develop in a ductile thrust system. The development of
388 new thrusts in the footwall of structures may lead to piggyback thrusting and the development of a
389 duplex (Butler 1982) and has been identified in the LHS rocks of the Sikkim Himalaya (Bhattacharyya
390 and Mitra 2009). A similar process could occur in ductile structures, with subsequent reworking
391 making it difficult to identify. A mixing zone can be seen in thrust faults around the world on a
392 variety of scales, from centimetres thick (Dickinson 1991), to a few minor structures over the
393 lengthscale of metres (Gilotti and Kumpulainen 1986; Yonkee 1997), to large-scale structures over

394 hundreds to metres (Barr 1986; Holdsworth and Strachan 1991; Gilotti and McClelland 2008; Leslie
395 et al. 2010). A similar setting to the MCT we describe in the Sikkim Himalaya is identified in the
396 Caledonian orogenic belt in eastern Greenland, where imbricate slices, tens of metres thick, are
397 interleaved by ductile thrusting in a zone of inverted metamorphism (Holdsworth and Strachan
398 1991). In the case of the Sikkim Himalaya, structural evidence for imbrication may be difficult to
399 recognise in a zone of progressive ductile deformation due to subsequent reworking. Geochemical
400 ‘fingerprinting’ therefore provides a complementary and potentially more robust tool for identifying
401 such imbrication within any major ductile shear zone.

402 ***Provenance and tectonic implications***

403 Several regional studies have proposed that the Lesser Himalayan/Greater Himalayan/Tethyan
404 sediments were deposited on the proximal (LHS) to distal (GHS) parts of the passive margin of India
405 (Brookfield 1993; Myrow et al. 2003; Myrow et al. 2010). Cenozoic movement on the MCT
406 juxtaposed these once widely separated parts of the Indian continent. We have developed a model
407 for the provenance and pre-Himalayan architecture of the eastern Himalaya, constrained by the
408 geochemical data presented in this study (Fig. 10).

409 The model shows that Lesser Himalayan Daling and subsequent Buxa sediments were deposited on
410 the proximal margin of India. The Daling sediments were intruded by granites, probably in a
411 continental arc-type setting, during the Palaeoproterozoic (Kohn et al. 2010). Palaeoproterozoic
412 zircons from the granites were transported out to the more distal parts of the margin where the
413 Greater Himalayan rocks were deposited. The Neoproterozoic magmatism (820-850 Ma) may relate
414 to a plume-related intracratonic rift separating the LHS and GHS sedimentary basins of the margin (Li
415 et al. 2008). This would explain the exposure of the distal GHS sediments to the Cambro-Ordovician
416 Bhimphedian orogeny, in marked contrast to the more southerly, proximal, LHS package that was
417 apparently unaffected by this event (Fig. 10).

418 The juxtaposition of the exposed parts of the GHS and LHS postdates the 500 Ma event. During the
419 early stages of the India-Asia collision, following the subduction of the Tethys Ocean, the Mesozoic
420 and Palaeozoic succession on the northern flank of the Indian continental margin was thickened and
421 deformed, causing tectonic burial and prograde metamorphism of the underlying GHS package.
422 Following this burial and northward subduction of the Neoproterozoic-Mesozoic northern Indian
423 margin, the GHS sediments were detached from their (unknown) depositional basement along a
424 deep-seated décollement (the proto-MCT) and began to be translated southwards, while undergoing
425 syn-metamorphic deformation. It is possible that the MCT exploited the closed, failed
426 Neoproterozoic rift as the thrust propagated southwards, which could help to explain the striking
427 coincidence of the MCT with the isotopic break along the entire Himalaya. Progressive convergence
428 and crustal thickening triggered extrusion of the ductile and weak GHS between the South Tibetan
429 Detachment and the Main Central thrust, which transported the GHS 140-500 kilometres over the
430 previously proximal Lesser Himalayan rocks that originally lay to the south (Dewey et al. 1989;
431 Schelling and Arita 1991; Brookfield 1993; Robinson et al. 2006; Tobgay et al. 2012; Webb 2013). The
432 ductile deformation and associated inverted metamorphism in the footwall of the MCT suggest that
433 some Daling sediments were both strongly deformed and heated during MCT motion, as heat was
434 transferred from the hotter GHS rocks above. Simultaneous footwall heating and hanging wall
435 cooling caused the inverted metamorphism which straddles the hanging wall-footwall contact. The
436 Sikkim Himalaya can therefore be seen as preserving a mid-crustal section of the ductile shear zone
437 associated with the MCT. In this ductile setting, ramps and flats on the MCT resulted in imbrication
438 or interleaving of the LHS and GHS in the immediate vicinity of the thrust. Deformation was
439 subsequently transferred to the Ramgarh thrust (Pearson and DeCelles 2005; Webb 2013; Robinson
440 and Pearson 2013), which was responsible for finally exhuming the deformed Daling rocks in its
441 hanging wall and thrusting them upon the Buxa rocks, inverting the original Daling-Buxa sedimentary
442 relationship in the LHS (Fig. 2c).

443 **Conclusions**

444 The Sikkim Himalaya exposes a window into a well-preserved mid-crustal thrust zone formed during
445 the Himalayan orogeny. New geochemical and geochronological data show that there is a significant
446 isotopic break between the juxtaposed LHS and GHS packages in this region. The GHS rocks are
447 characterised by detrital zircon age peaks at ~800-1000 Ma, 1500-1700 Ma and 2300-2500 Ma and
448 by an $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(0)}$ signature of -18.3 to -12.1. This rock package was intruded by granites of
449 Neoproterozoic (~800 Ma) and Ediacaran-Cambrian (~500-600 Ma) age. In contrast, the Daling part
450 of the LHS rocks comprise a Palaeoproterozoic rock package with prominent Archaean and
451 Palaeoproterozoic detrital zircon populations and an $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(0)}$ signature of -27.7 to -23.4. These rocks
452 were intruded by Palaeoproterozoic granites but not by the younger granites seen in the hanging
453 wall. The Lesser and Greater Himalayan sediments represent older/more proximal, and
454 younger/more distal parts of the Indian margin respectively. The two packages have been
455 juxtaposed over several hundred kilometres by Cenozoic thrusting along the mid-crustal shear zone
456 exposed at the surface in the Sikkim Himalaya. The deformation associated with the MCT has
457 penetrated down into the Lesser Himalayan rocks of the footwall forming a zone of progressive
458 ductile shearing.

459 In detail, the data show significant apparent out-of-sequence isotopic signatures in some locations,
460 consistent with local imbrication. These isotopic anomalies are interpreted as representing slices of
461 footwall and hanging wall that became locally interleaved during protracted deformation. Similar
462 isotopic anomalies have previously been reported along strike eastwards, in the 'Paro Window' of
463 Bhutan. This similarity suggests that these rocks may be of similar protolith and have experienced
464 similar tectonic disruption, placing constraints on the amount of displacement caused by the
465 intervening, Yadong cross structure.

466 Isotope geochemistry is a robust tool for defining differences between and the juxtaposition of two
467 distinct terranes across a structure which spans over 2500 kilometres along the Himalayan orogen.

468 It is equally useful for resolving tectonic problems that have proved intractable to conventional
469 structural methods. This approach is applicable to studies of other orogenic interiors where detailed
470 footwall-hanging wall relationships of major terrane boundaries have been obscured by pervasive
471 ductile shearing.

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769 **Figure Captions**

770 **Fig. 1.** Geological sketch map of the central and eastern Himalayas. Adapted from McQuarrie et al.
771 2008 and Greenwood, 2013.

772 **Fig. 2. a)** Geological map of Sikkim based on previous maps of the area [Goswami, 2005; Gupta et al.
773 2010]. Insets for Figures 3 and 9. **b)** Geological map of Sikkim modified from data presented in this
774 study with key sample locations (further sample locations are shown in Figure 9). Line of section
775 presented for Figure 2c. **c)** Sketch geological cross section, with no vertical exaggeration (line of
776 section shown in Figure 2b) from data presented in this study. Lesser Himalayan Duplex taken from
777 Bhattacharyya and Mitra, 2009. Abbreviations are the same as in Figure 1.

778 **Fig. 3.** Summary of structural features beneath the MCT in Mangan transect, North Sikkim. A)
779 Stretched quartz vein boudinage. B) L-tectonite fabric in Lingtse orthogneiss. C) Shear bands in
780 garnet-mica schists. D) Stretching lineation developed in an orthogneiss intruding chlorite-grade
781 metasedimentary rocks (note colour changes are weathering on fractured surfaces rather than veins
782 of melt). The orthogneiss body displays a more developed stretching lineation than the surrounding
783 rocks indicating how contrasting lithologies accommodate strain differently. Localities of the
784 photographs are shown on map, top right of figure. Map units as for Figures 1 and 2.

785 **Fig. 4.** Orthogneiss concordia plots (1). Ages for each sample are reported as average $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$
786 ages with 2SD uncertainties. The MSWD of the population is quoted and reflects excess scatter in
787 the Pb/Pb data. Sample locations shown in inset map.

788 **Fig. 5.** Orthogneiss concordia plots (2). Ages for each sample are reported as average $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$
789 ages with 2SD uncertainties. The MSWD of the population is quoted and reflects excess scatter in
790 the Pb/Pb data. Sample locations shown in inset map.

791 **Fig. 6.** Data for detrital zircon in clastic metasedimentary samples (1): concordia plots reporting all
792 analyses; probability density plots based on analyses with discordance lower than 5%. Sample
793 locations shown in inset map.

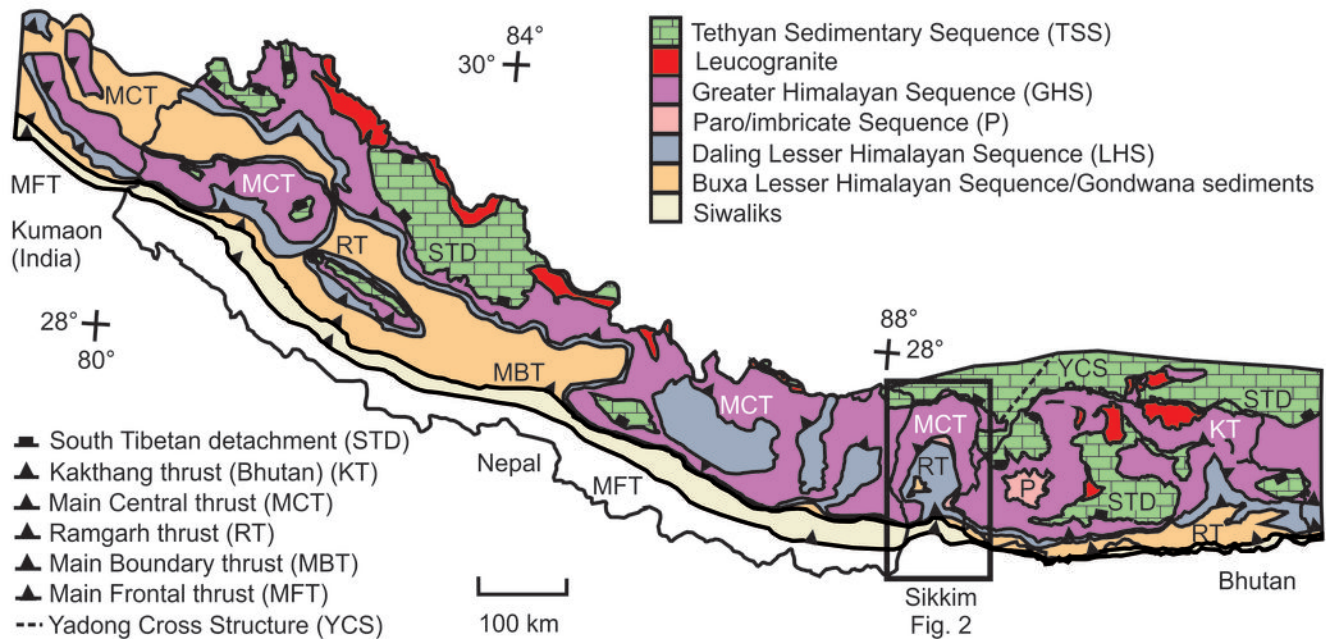
794 **Fig. 7.** Data for detrital zircon in clastic metasedimentary samples (2): concordia plots reporting all
795 analyses; probability density plots based on analyses with discordance lower than 5%. Sample
796 locations shown in inset map.

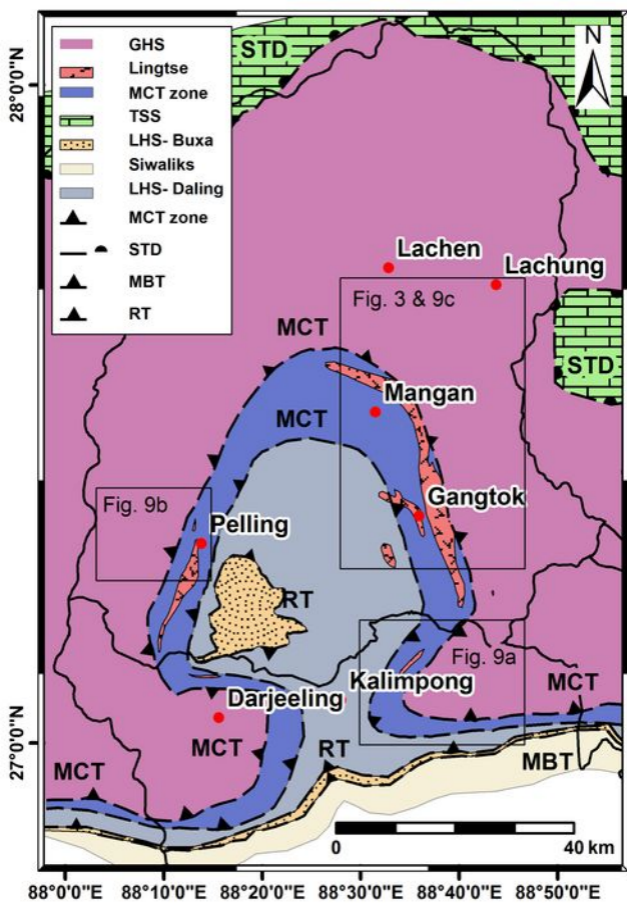
797 **Fig. 8.** Plot of a) ϵ Nd signature and b) detrital zircon and orthogneiss U-Pb age, as a function of depth
798 above and below the MCT (positive numbers=up section into GHS and negative numbers= down
799 section into LHS). The MCT is defined here as the protolith boundary as outlined in the text and in
800 Fig. 2b. The LHS/GHS classification is based on previous Himalayan studies; these signatures overlap
801 slightly in the zircon plot (b) marked by the hatched area. The LHS signature however does not
802 extend younger than 1700 Ma. There are three outliers marked with arrows which demonstrate the
803 location of proposed interleaved slices.

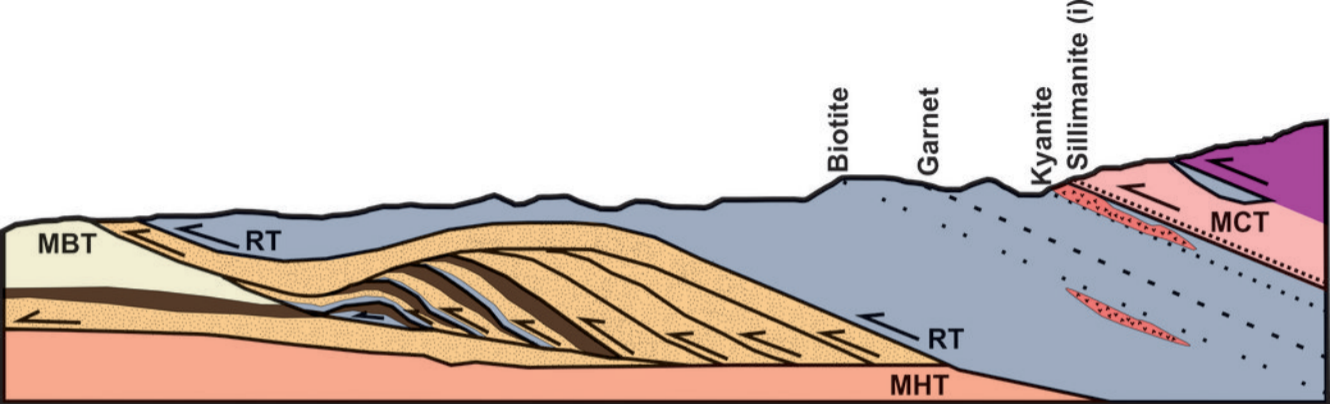
804 **Fig. 9.** Detailed maps of combined Nd and U-Pb isotopic data. **a)** Kalimpong-Lava transect. **b)** Pelling-
805 Dentam-Yoksom transect. **c)** Mangan transect. Geological units are the same as in legend in Figures
806 1-2. 'Imbricate zone', as discussed in the text, is shown in grey. Large numbers preceded by minus
807 signs are ϵ Nd values; ϵ Nd values for GHS surrounded by black box. Small numbers in italics are
808 sample locations. Orthogneiss ages are shown in circles (dashed line for LHS values and solid line for
809 GHS samples). Detrital zircons populations are shown as probability density plots or as a rectangular
810 dashed outline box (Fig. 9a). Full concordia and probability density plots can be found in Figures 4-7.

811 **Fig. 10.** Schematic cartoon showing the pre-Himalayan architecture of the Sikkim rocks, during the
812 mid-Palaeozoic. The LHS lithologies were once separated from the GHS rocks by a Neoproterozoic
813 rift. The Bhimpedian orogeny was responsible for closing the rift and thickened the GHS, causing

814 metamorphism and intrusion of granites. The failed closed rift may represent a weak structure later
815 exploited by the MCT. Lithologies are the same as in legend in Figures 1-2.

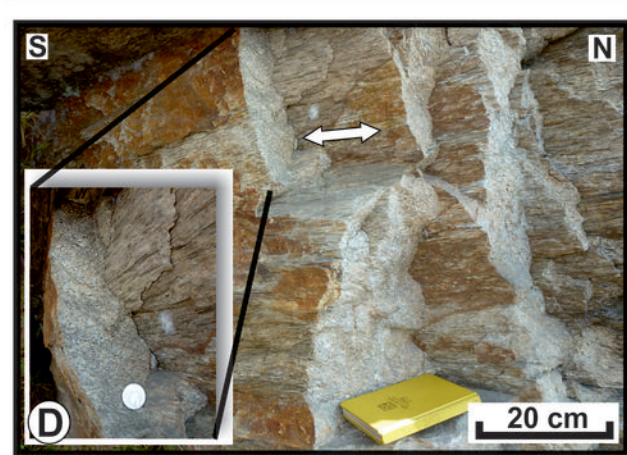
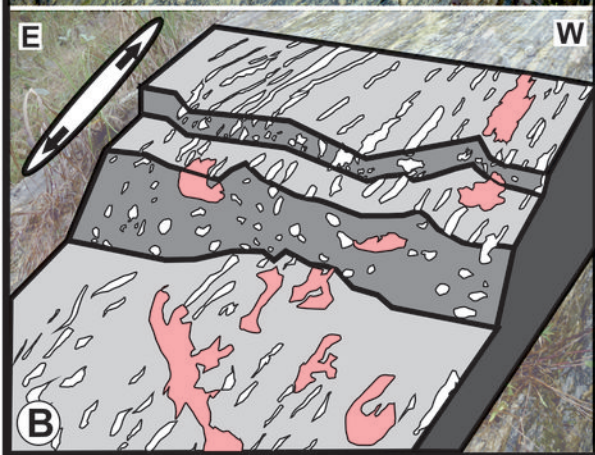
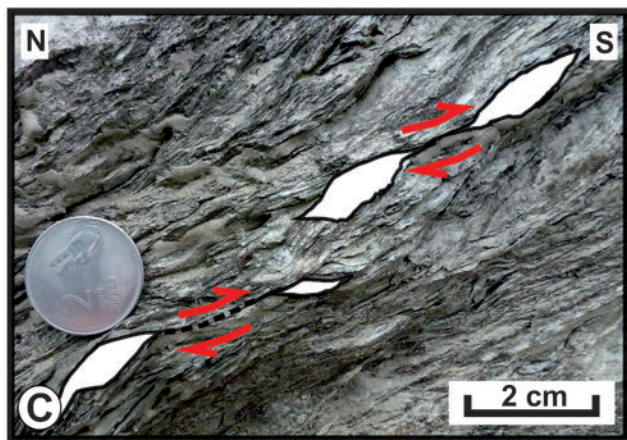
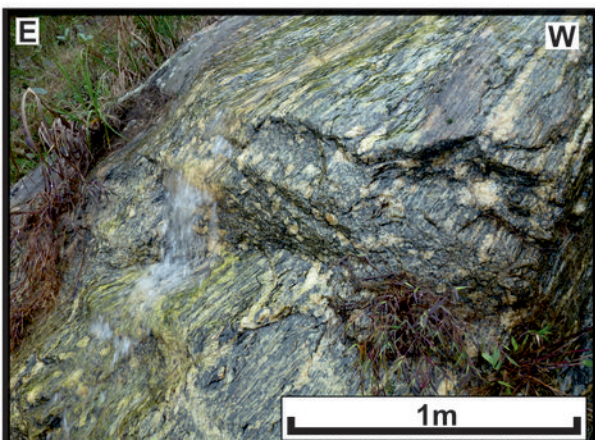
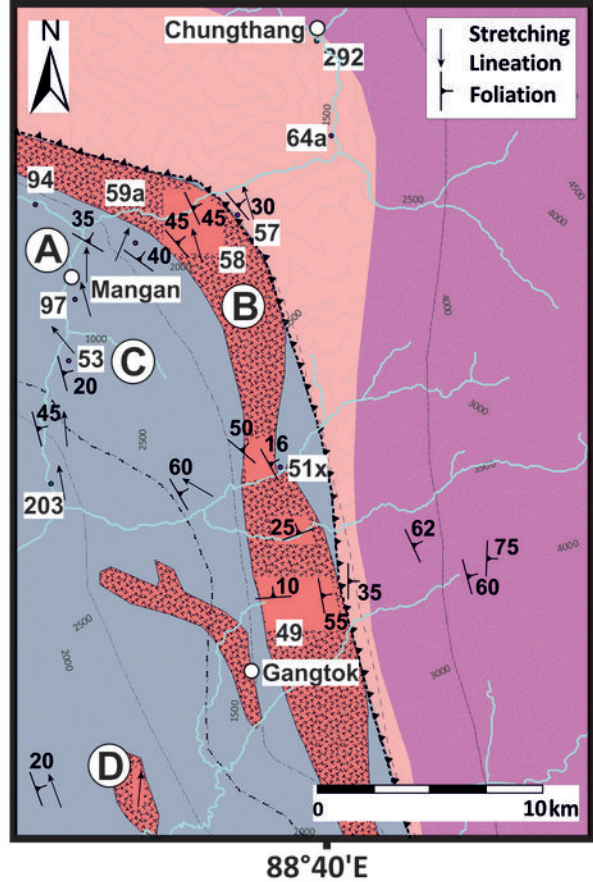
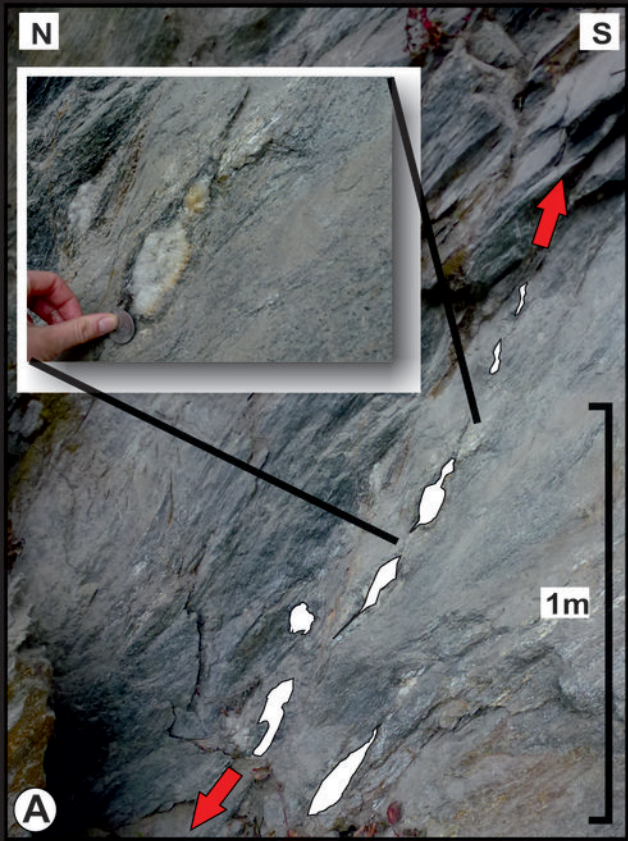




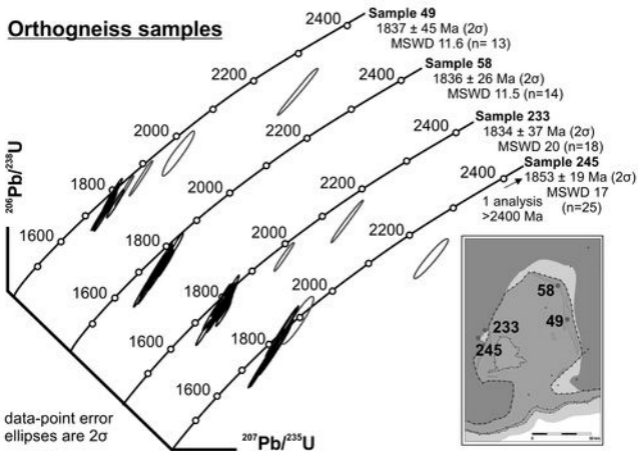


- Main Central thrust (MCT)
- Ramgarh thrust (RT)
- Main Boundary thrust (MBT)
- Main Himalayan thrust (MHT)

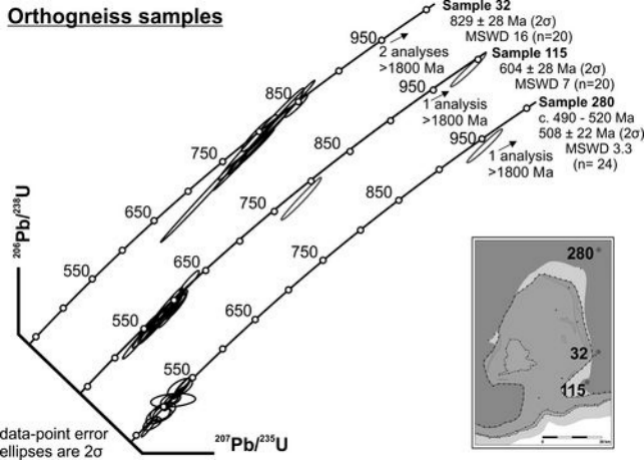
- Greater Himalayan Sequence (GHS)
- Imbricate zone
- Lesser Himalayan Sequence Daling (LHS)
- Lingtse Orthogneiss
- Lesser Himalayan Sequence Buxa (LHS)
- Gondwana sediments
- Siwaliks



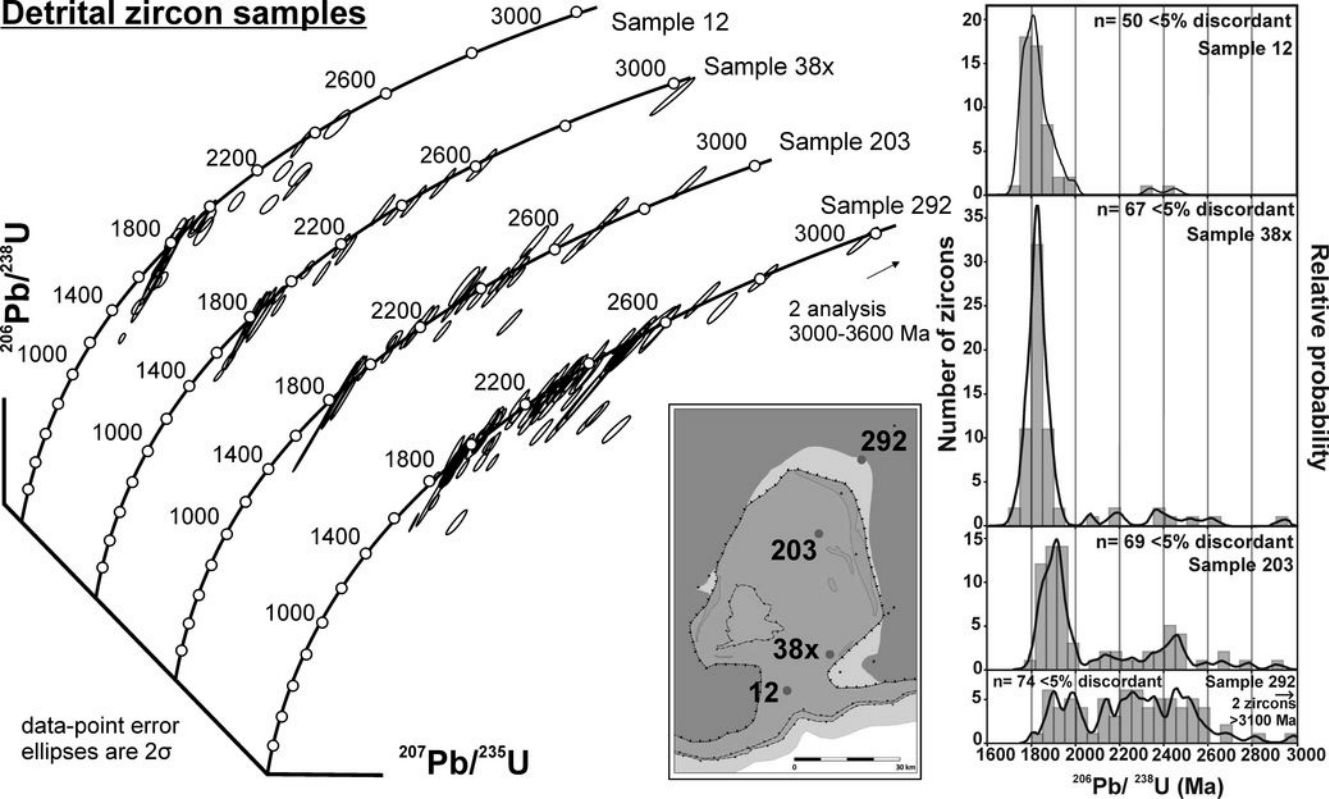
Orthogneiss samples



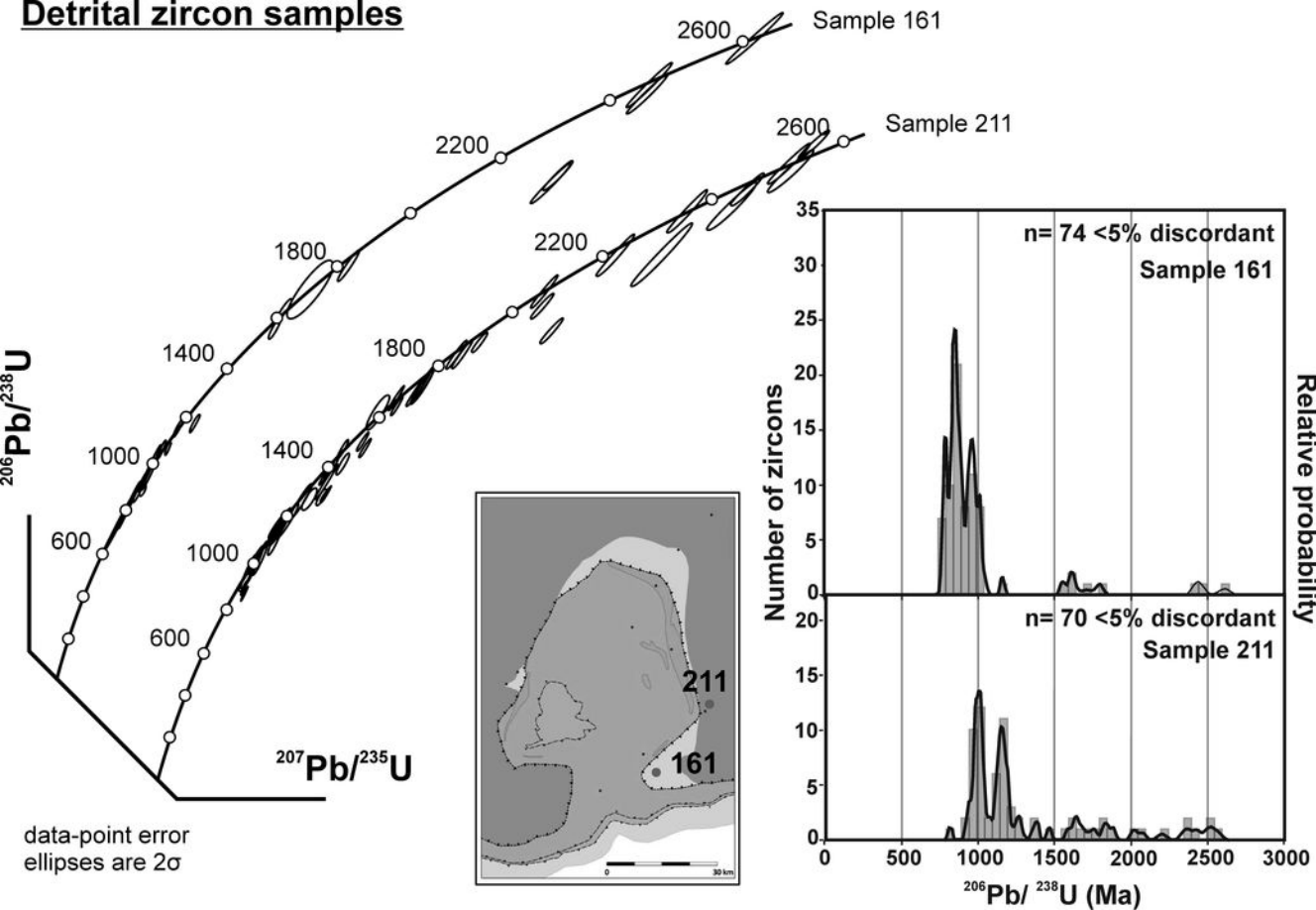
Orthogneiss samples

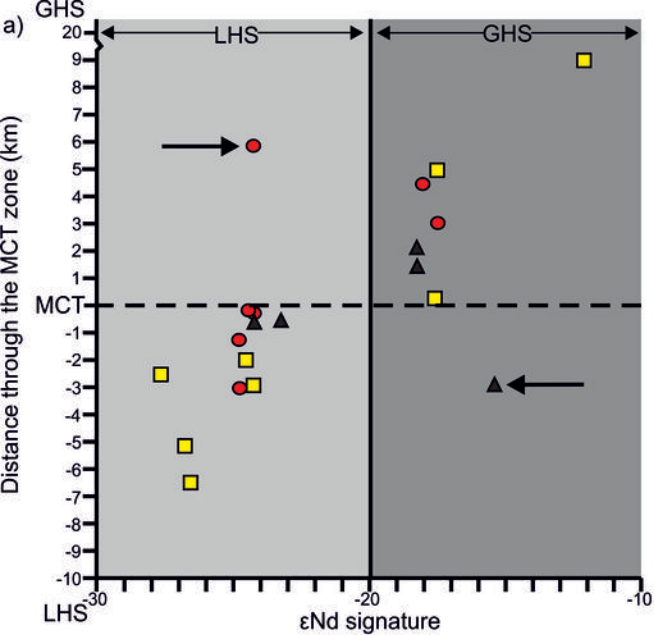


Detrital zircon samples



Detrital zircon samples

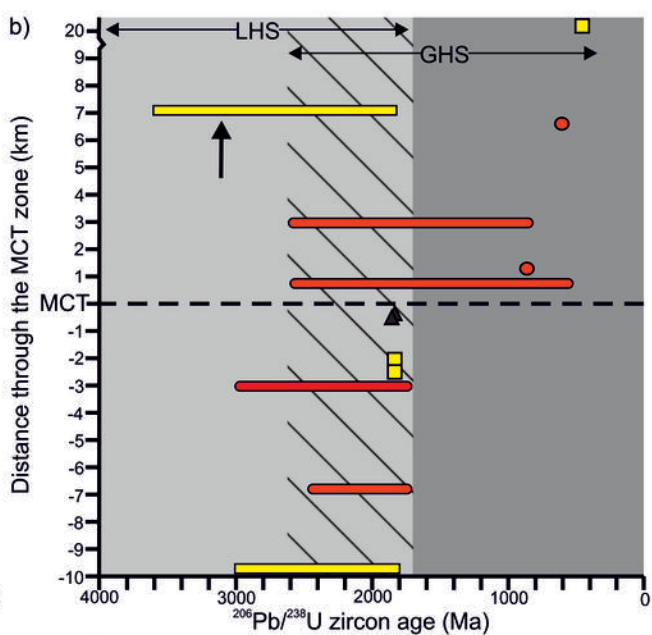




■ Gangtok-Chungthang section

● Kalimpong-Lava section

▲ Pelling-Yuksom section



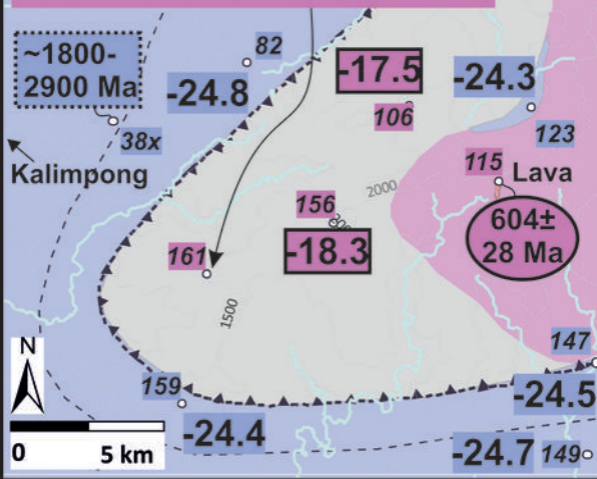
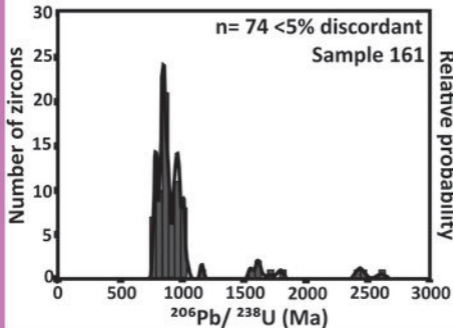
■ Gangtok-Chungthang section (orthogneiss ages) ■ (detrital zircon ages)

● Kalimpong-Lava section (orthogneiss ages) ● (detrital zircon ages)

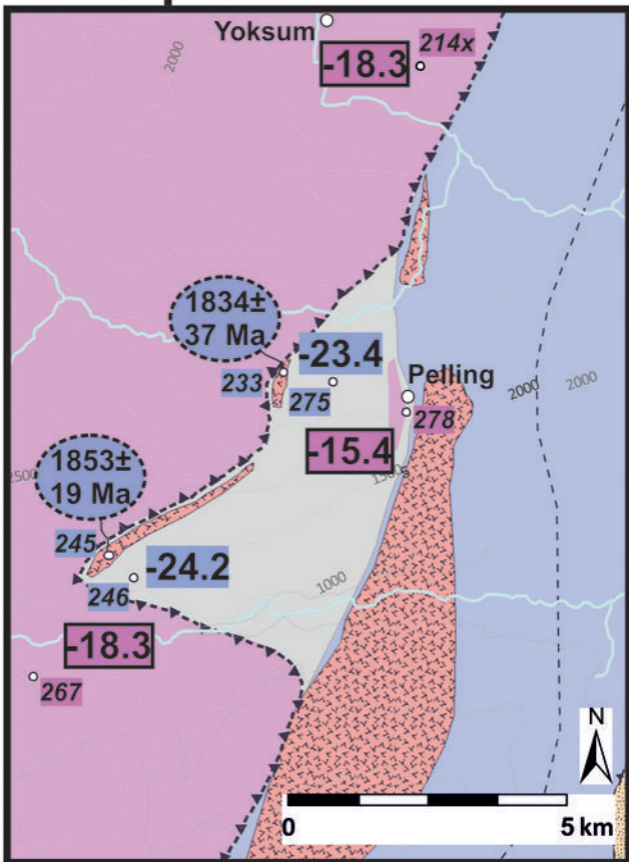
▲ Pelling-Yuksom section (orthogneiss ages)

88°40'0"E

88°40'0"E

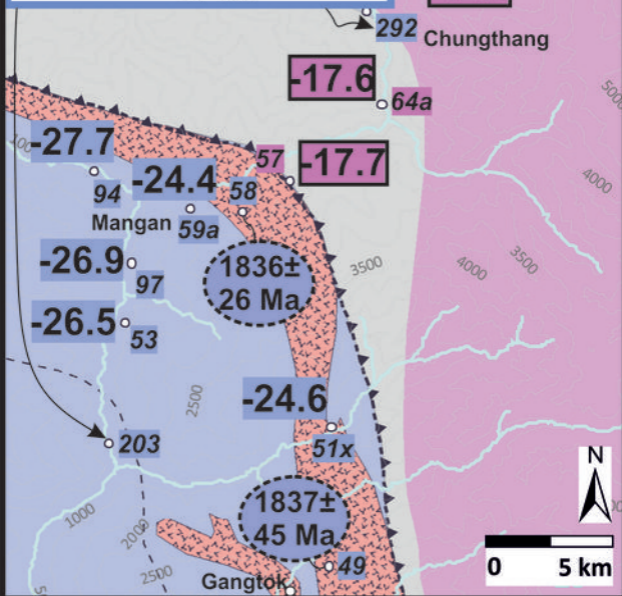
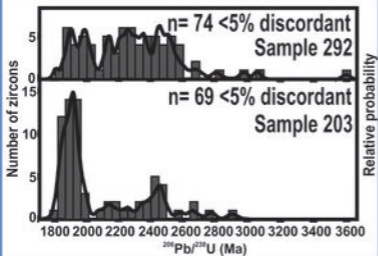


88°10'0"E



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Mid-Palaeozoic architecture

S

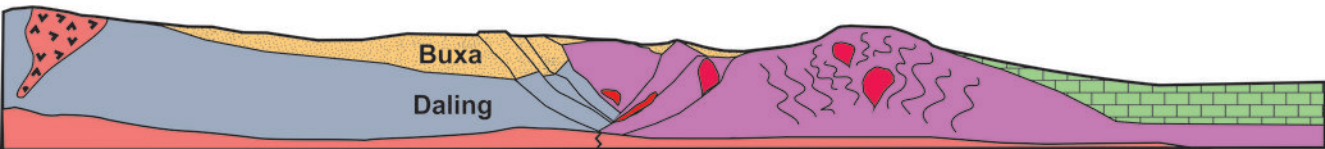
N

Palaeoproterozoic granite intrusions/ basement slices

Closed Neoproterozoic rift (?)

Deformation and magmatism from the Cambro-Ordovician 'Bhimphedian orogeny'

Tethys Ocean sediments



Proximal

Indian passive margin

Distal

Schematic (not to scale)