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Xu Lin, Marc Jolivet, Jing Liu-Zeng, Feng Cheng, Yuntao Tian, et al.. Mesozoic-Cenozoic cooling history of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan (NW China): Apatite low-temperature thermochronology constraints. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, 2021, 572, pp.110416. 10.1016/j.palaeo.2021.110416 . insu-03203892

HAL Id: insu-03203892

<https://insu.hal.science/insu-03203892>

Submitted on 21 Apr 2021

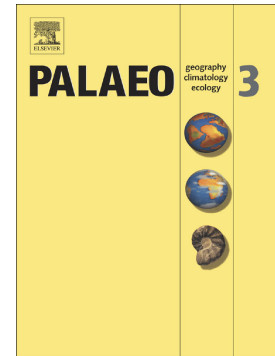
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Journal Pre-proof

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PII: S0031-0182(21)00201-7

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2021.110416>

Reference: PALAEO 110416

To appear in: *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*

Received date: 20 March 2020

Revised date: 11 March 2021

Accepted date: 13 April 2021

Please cite this article as: X. Lin, M. Jolivet, J. Liu-Zeng, et al., Mesozoic-Cenozoic cooling history of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan (NW China): Apatite low-temperature thermochronology constraints, *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* (2018), <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2021.110416>

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Mesozoic-Cenozoic cooling history of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan (NW China): apatite low-temperature thermochronology constraints

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Abstract: Understanding the formation of the Qilian Shan in the NE Tibetan Plateau provides insights into the growth mechanisms of the northern portion of the plateau through time. The onset time of exhumation in the Qilian Shan is still debated. The Qinghai Nan Shan subrange, located in the southeastern Qilian Shan, is cut by the Yellow River that forms Longyang Gorge, providing a good vertical profile for thermochronological investigation of exhumation. In this paper, we reconstruct the

cooling and exhumation history of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan using apatite fission-track (AFT) and apatite (U-Th)/He (AHe) thermochronological dating on basement rocks. The fission-track data display a marked age-elevation trend from Early Cretaceous (114-122 Ma) ages at the bottom of the canyon to Early-Middle Jurassic ages (165-180 Ma) at the top. Mean (U-Th)/He ages are mainly Early Cretaceous (97-128 Ma) with one Eocene outlier (42 Ma). Combined with fission track lengths, D_{par} values and thermal modeling results, these data indicate that the study area resided above the closure temperature of AFT and AHe until Early Cretaceous. Rapid cooling occurred during the Early Cretaceous and early Cenozoic likely driven by the Lhasa and Indian blocks collision with the southern margin of the Asian continent. Nonetheless, since then exhumation was limited to less than a few kilometers in the study area. Combined with regional geological studies, the thermochronological analysis demonstrates that, since the Mesozoic, intense exhumation occurred simultaneously along the northern and southern margins of the Qilian Shan. Hence, we suggest that the geomorphic framework of the northeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau was established during the Early Cretaceous-early Cenozoic.

Key words: Tibetan Plateau, Longyang Gorge, Yellow River, Fission track, U-Th/He

1. Introduction

The uplift of the Tibetan Plateau is one of the important geological event in East Asia (Fig. 1a), which had a profound impact on the regional and global climatic change (An et

al., 2001; Guo et al., 2002; Molnar, 2005; Sun et al., 2015; Ding et al., 2017), geomorphic evolution (Brookfield, 1998; Jolivet et al., 2001; Liu-Zeng et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2013; Meng et al., 2020), and animal and plant evolution (Deng et al., 2012; Spicer et al., 2020). However, how and when the Tibetan Plateau reached its modern extent is still debated. The Qilian Shan (“shan” = mountains) is a NW-SE trending orogenic belt on the northeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau (Fig. 1b), which is an ideal area to study the exhumation and expansion mode of the Tibetan Plateau (Yin and Harrison, 2000; George et al., 2001; Song et al., 2001; Jolivet et al., 2001; Zheng et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2011; Xiao et al., 2012; Pan et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2017a; An et al., 2018; Shi et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2019a,b; Tong et al., 2020). The range has a long and complex tectonic history, including late Proterozoic-early Paleozoic oceanic sutures and associated continental collision events as well as several late Paleozoic, Mesozoic and Cenozoic intracontinental deformation events (Yin and Harrison, 2000; Yang et al., 2001; Xu et al., 2006; Xiao et al., 2009; Song et al., 2013; Zuza et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2019a; Lin et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020a). Even though the geological history of the range has been largely studied, the timing of the Mesozoic and Cenozoic deformation phases and the resulting uplift and exhumation are still controversial. Several studies concluded that the Qilian Shan experienced strong uplift during the Mesozoic (Vincent and Allen, 1999; Ritts and Biffi, 2000; Jolivet et al., 2001; Horton et al., 2004; Lin et al., 2011; Jian et al., 2018; Zuza et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2019a,d). As for the Cenozoic, some studies propose that the deformation initiated at roughly the same time as the initial India-Asia collision (Yin et al., 2002; Dai et al., 2006; Guo et al., 2009; Cheng X et al., 2016; Wang

et al., 2016a; Cheng et al., 2019b; Fang et al., 2019; Zuza et al., 2019). However, others suggested that uplift initiated much more recently, in the late Cenozoic (Tapponnier et al., 2001; Lease et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2016b; Hu et al., 2019). Similarly, the models proposed for the uplift pattern of the Qilian Shan imply either stepwise uplift from south to north (Zheng et al., 2017; Zhuang et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2019b) or synchronous uplift from both north and south (Jolivet et al., 2001; He et al., 2017, 2018; Zuza et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2019c).

The eastern part of the Qilian Shan is drained by the Yellow River, which is the largest exorheic river in the northeastern Tibetan Plateau. It flows out of the eastern section of the Qilian Shan, cutting a series of deep canyons such as the Longyang Gorge located in the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan (Perrineau et al., 2011; Nie et al., 2015; Su et al., 2020). There, the Yellow River has incised more than 2 km below a low-relief regional surface (Liu-Zeng et al., 2008). Low-temperature thermochronological studies on vertical profiles along deeply incised river valleys have proven an effective approach to decipher the exhumation time and rates in orogenic belts such as the Longmen Shan, along the eastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau (Kirby et al., 2002; Clark et al., 2005; Jolivet et al., 2015; Tian et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016; Liu-Zeng et al., 2018). Apatite (U-Th)/He (AHe) (application range of 40 °C to 80 °C, representing the helium partial retention zone (HePRZ)) (Ehlers and Farley, 2003) and apatite fission track (AFT) (application range of ~110±10 °C to 60 °C, defining the Partial Annealing Zone (PAZ)) (Donelick et al., 2005) thermochronology has already been used to describe the evolution of the Qilian Shan (Jolivet et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2004; Lin et al., 2011; Pan et al., 2013; Li et al., 2019;

Wang et al., 2020). The scale of incision along the Longyang Gorge is large enough for low-temperature thermochronology to be used to constrain the long-term rock cooling histories. However, none of these above studies addressed the timing of exhumation using the vertical profiles provided by deeply incised river valleys along the Qilian Shan. Therefore, in this study, we use AFT and AHe data from a sub-vertical profile within the Longyang Gorge to date the exhumation of the range (Fig. 1c). Combining these data with regional geological studies, we discuss the Mesozoic and Cenozoic exhumation history of the Qilian Shan. The results improve our understanding of the tectonic evolution model of the northeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau.

2. Geological and geomorphic setting

The northeastern Tibetan Plateau is bounded by the West Qinling and East Kunlun Shan to the south, the Qilian Shan to the northwest, and the Liupan Shan to the east (Fig. 1a). Among these ranges, the Qilian Shan forms a major NW-trending thrust-fold belt overprinting a system that originally formed during the early Paleozoic and was later reactivated during the Mesozoic and Cenozoic (Xiao et al., 2009; Song et al., 2013; Zuza et al., 2018). The ~300-km-wide and 3000- to 4500-m-high range is one of the most active thrust belts in the India-Asia collision zone (Cheng et al., 2015; Zuza et al., 2016), flanked by basins with a mean elevation of 1500-3000 m. It can be subdivided, from north to south into the North Qilian Shan, the Tuole Shan, the Danghe Nan Shan, the Shule Nan Shan, the Central Qilian Shan, the South Qilian Shan and Zongwulong Shan, the Qinghai Nan Shan and finally the Laji Shan (Xiao et al., 2009, Fig. 1b).

The lithospheric deformation of the northeastern Tibetan Plateau has been governed by convergence and collision of plates in the southern part of the Asian continent (Yin and Harrison, 2000; Zuza et al., 2018; Guillot et al., 2019, Fig. 1a). During the Jurassic and Cretaceous, the northeastern Tibetan Plateau has been affected by compressive tectonic deformation (Qinghai Geologic Bureau, 1989; Ritts and Biffi, 2000), as suggested by several angular unconformities in the Jurassic-Cretaceous coarse-grained clastic deposits of the Qaidam Basin to the south, the Hexi Corridor to the north and the Xining Basin to the east (Qinghai Geologic Bureau, 1989; Vincent and Allen, 1999; Horton et al., 2004). The Cenozoic tectonic evolution of the Qilian Shan was characterized by a renewed and intense episode of tectonic uplift driven by the ongoing India-Eurasia convergence and the associated rise, thickening, shortening and lateral extrusion of the Tibetan Plateau (Jolivet et al., 1999; Yin and Harrison, 2000; Wu et al., 2012; Cheng et al., 2016; Zuza et al., 2018).

The Qinghai Nan Shan is separating the Gonghe Basin to the south from the Qinghai Lake to the north (Chang et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2013, Fig. 2). The sub-range connects with the Zongwulong Shan to the west and the Laji Shan to the east, forming the southern rim of the Qilian Shan. Paleozoic and Mesozoic basic volcanic rocks, coarse-grained granodiorite and granites were intruded into the basement of the Qinghai Nan Shan (Qinghai Geologic Bureau, 1989, Fig. 2). Resting unconformably on the basement, Triassic, Jurassic and Neogene sedimentary rocks are widely distributed.

The Yellow River flows out of the eastern part of the Gonghe Basin and cuts through the Qinghai Nan Shan to form the Longyang Gorge. It is a 33 km long, 9 km wide and

900 m deep canyon (Fig. 3). Lake spillover in the Gonghe Basin and/or fluvial headwater erosion in the Guide Basin formed the deep Longyang Gorge during the period 1.2-0.012 Ma (Craddock, 2011; Zhang et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2018). A series of stepped erosion surfaces are exposed north and south of the gorges, the upper and most extended one being covered by flat lying Neogene to Quaternary sediments (Fang et al., 2005, Fig. 3). To the north, the base of the sediment cover is represented by Early Miocene alluvial fans of the Garang and Guide formations resting unconformably on the major surface worn through a basement formed by early Mesozoic granites and Triassic sediments (Fang et al., 2005). These deposits are overlain by the Late Miocene-Early Pliocene alluvial and lacustrine Ashigong and Herjia formations (Fang et al., 2005). The whole series are capped by Quaternary lacustrine and aeolian deposits (Guo et al., 2018). To the south, the Early Miocene deposits seem to be lacking and Late Miocene sediments directly cover the erosion surface.

3. Sampling and methods

3.1 Sampling strategy

The vertical profile approach uses samples collected over significant relief and a short horizontal distance in order to reconstruct the exhumation history of the region (Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Braun, 2002). We collected seven granite samples from an altitudinal transect ($36^{\circ}17'25''\text{N}$ - $36^{\circ}07'30''\text{N}$, $100^{\circ}51'16''\text{E}$ - $100^{\circ}59'30''\text{E}$) that maximizes relief by spanning the high elevation (3270 m), low-relief surfaces (2350 m), to near the Longyang Gorge bottom on the southern flanks of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan (Fig. 3;

Table 1). One additional bedrock sample (HR-9) was collected from bank of the Langma River (a tributary of the Yellow River, 36°08'29"N, 101°02'19"E, 2537 m) on the northern piedmont of the studied area. Samples cover an elevation range from 2350 m to 3270 m, measured using a hand-held Garmin GPS receiver. An age-elevation profile where AFT and/or AHe ages are plotted versus sample elevation allows for the evaluation of variations in the apparent exhumation rate (Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Braun, 2002). In this case, the elevation difference between the two samples (uppermost sample: h_1 and lowermost sample: h_2) is divided by the corresponding sample ages difference (uppermost sample: t_1 and lowermost sample: t_2) to obtain the exhumation rate, $E: E=(t_1-t_2)/(h_1/h_2)$ (Blythe et al., 2007; Malusà and Fitzgerald, 2017).

3.2 Analytical methods

Basement rock samples were crushed mechanically. Apatite grains were concentrated following standard procedures using heavy liquid and magnetic separation techniques. AFT analyses were performed at the Chronus Camp Research, Brazil. Apatite grains were mounted in epoxy resin, cut to expose internal grain surfaces. Sample mounts were etched in 5.5 M HNO_3 at 21 °C for 20 s to reveal the spontaneous fission tracks (Carslon et al., 1999). Spontaneous fission tracks were counted using a Zeiss microscope with a magnification of 1000. The lengths of horizontal confined tracks were measured in order to construct an AFT length-frequency distribution and model the thermal history of the samples. AFT ages were obtained using direct measurements of uranium concentrations with a Neptune high-resolution multi-collector ICP-MS coupled with a

193 Analyte Excite laser ablation system. The detailed dating method can be found in Soares et al. (2015). The uranium concentration of each counted grain was determined using a laser ablation spot size covering the maximum area over which etched tracks had been previously counted. The size of the area for fission-track measurement and consequently the LA-ICP-MS laser ablation depends on the grain size and the occurrence of inclusions or fractures with the standard analyzes beam size between 30-40 μm . The NIST SRM 610 standard was used as an independent check on LA-ICP-MS system performance. AFT ages were calculated using the scheme described by Donelick et al. (2005) based on an adaptation of the zeta calibration approach of Hurford and Green (1983) and Hasabe et al. (2004). The chemical composition of the apatite affects the characteristics of the annealing process, and the D_{par} parameter was used as a proxy for the annealing kinematics (Donelick et al., 2005; Sobel and Seward, 2010). The horizontal confined fission tracks were measured on surfaces parallel to the crystal C-axis (Green et al., 1986). For samples that passed the χ^2 test with age dispersion $< 10\%$, the pooled ages are used. However, due to the large spread of single grain ages (Gleadow et al., 1986; An et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020b), or chemical composition variation of apatite grains in a single sample (Galbraith and Laslett, 1993; O'Sullivan and Parrish, 1995), passing the χ^2 test with age dispersion $> 20\%$, the central ages are addressed.

The first step for (U-Th)/He dating was to make suitable grains selection. In general, the grains are selected based on their morphology, size, optical clarity, and compositional uniformity. Thereafter, the euhedral crystals or grains with morphologies that can be geometrically approximated are used as they allow the correction for alpha-ejection

(Flowers, 2009). The AHe analysis was also conducted at Chronus Camp Research, Brazil. Helium concentration was measured using an Alphachron (Australian Scientific Instrument Pty Limited-ASI) mass spectrometer with an extraction temperature of 850-900 °C obtained using a 970 nm diode laser and a heating duration of 5 min. Extraction values of >99% of ^4He in the heated crystal were obtained. This was verified through a replicate heating procedure checking that secondary extraction did not account for more than a hot blank. For apatite, 25 μL spike solution (diluted in 7 Mol/L HNO_3) containing about 15 ng/mL U and 5 ng/mL Th ($^{235}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U} = 838 \pm 7$, $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th} = 10.45 \pm 0.05$) was added into each vial. The time for full dissolution was about 4h at room temperature. 325 μL reagent grade Milli-Q water was then added to the vial, reaching a total volume of 350 μL . Durango apatite was used as an age standard to verify the quality of the analytical procedure.

The weighted mean AHe ages were calculated using Isoplot/Ex_ver3 (Ludwig, 2003). Accurate interpretation of AHe ages must incorporate the effect of crystal size (radius, R_s) and effective U concentration ($e\text{U} = \text{U} + 0.235 \times \text{Th}$) as both parameters have a non-negligible effect on the He diffusion (Reiners and Farley, 2001; Farley, 2002; Shuster et al., 2006).

3.3 Thermal modeling

Forward and inverse thermal modeling can be performed simultaneously using the HeFTy software (version 1.9.1) (Ketcham, 2005). Forward modeling is the process of predicting what thermochronometer measurements one would expect for a sample that

has undergone a particular temperature history. A comparison between predicted results and measured values is possible. Inverse models have the distinct advantage over forward modeling by hand of permitting many thousands of forward models to be calculated for a sample, obtaining hundreds or even thousands of acceptable time-temperature histories. A combination of AFT age, confined track length data, and available geological background are considered in the inversion modeling with the following time-temperature path constraints. (a) The maximum time and maximum temperature were set at 270 Ma-160 Ma and 200 °C-160 °C respectively, a temperature above which fission tracks in apatite grains are totally annealed. (b) We assumed an average annual surface temperature of 20 °C. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was employed to assess the fit between the modeled and measured track-length distributions, with merit values of 0.5 and 0.05 for good and acceptable fits respectively. Ten thousand paths were calculated for each sample, producing several hundreds of acceptable and good time-temperature paths. To better constrain the low-temperature thermal history of the eastern Qinghai Nan Shan, the time-temperature histories were further modeled using the AHe data and the diffusion model proposed by Farley (2000). The following parameters were used as input: the weighted mean of all measured ages, the grain radius, and the content of uranium, thorium and samarium. Because of intrasample age variability, AHe data had to be entered selectively into the models to achieve reasonable results (Ketchum et al., 2018). Thermal history modeling was carried out for samples with similar or consistent AHe ages. Otherwise, if the AHe ages in the sample were too dispersed, it could not be selected.

4. Results

Six samples from the hanging wall of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan thrust fault provided AFT ages and seven samples yielded AHe ages. AFT ages range between 180 ± 11 Ma and 114.3 ± 7.9 Ma. These samples yield fairly consistent mean AHe ages from the vertical section clustering in the Early Cretaceous (128 ± 5.9 - 97.7 ± 1.6 Ma) and Eocene (42.5 ± 0.6 Ma). Geographic locations and AFT ages with 1σ standard errors are reported in Figure 3 and 5 and Table 2. U, Th, and He concentrations, crystal dimensions, AHe raw and corrected ages are summarized in Table 3.

The AFT age data display a marked correlation with sample elevation ($r^2=0.67$) allowing to calculate a mean exhumation rate of 1 ± 0.1 m/Ma ranging from 119 Ma to 180 Ma (Fig. 5). AFT age-elevation profiles from both this and earlier studies in the central part of Qinghai Nan Shan (Craddock, 2011) are presented in Figure 5. These AFT ages are clearly younger than the Indosinian crystallization age (~ 270 Ma) of the granitic intrusions they belong to (Zeng et al., 2018), suggesting post-crystallization cooling through the apatite fission track PAZ during regional exhumation events. The mean track lengths are within 11.9 – 13.2 μm (Table 2), with standard deviations of 1.53 μm to 2.55 μm . The track length distributions are of “undisturbed basement” type (Gleadow et al., 1986). The D_{par} values vary from 1.0 μm to 4.2 μm and do not show clear relationships with the corresponding AFT ages and fission track lengths implying that chemical heterogeneity of the samples has little effect on the annealing kinetics (Fig. 6).

Three to five single-grain AHe age analyses were performed for each sample from the Longyang Gorge and Langma River transects (Fig. 5). The samples yield single AHe ages ranging from 159.1 ± 7.3 Ma to 36.6 ± 0.5 Ma (Table 3). Most AHe ages are

significantly younger than the AFT ages on the same sample, especially the higher elevation samples (HR-6, HR-7, Fig. 5). The lower elevation samples (LY-1, 2, 3), however, have several single-grain AHe ages that overlap with the AFT ages within uncertainty. In addition, there are some single-grain AHe ages in each of the three lower samples older than their corresponding AFT ages. The comparisons between single-grain AHe ages and eU and R_s do not show clear relationship, suggesting that radiation damages or grain size are not the main factors explaining the abnormally older AHe ages (Shuster et al., 2006, Fig. 7). In contrast, it is likely linked to other magnified factors such as a protracted residence in the apatite (U-Th)/He TRZ (Fitzgerald et al., 2006; Biswas et al., 2007; Clinkscales et al., 2020), U, and Th zoning (Flowers and Kelley, 2011) or other elements zoning (Jolivet et al., 2003; Dimini et al., 2015).

Modeled t-T paths obtained from AFT data are shown in Figure 8. Samples HR-6, and HR-7 cooled relatively rapidly during the Middle Triassic to the Early-Middle Jurassic, before a phase of slow cooling through the PAZ, which the samples exited during the Early Cretaceous (HR-7) to Late Cretaceous (HR-6). Samples LY-1, LY-2 and LY-3 are characterized by a poorly defined initial cooling during the Triassic to Jurassic up to the base of the PAZ followed by a rapid cooling that initiated during the Early Cretaceous. Modeling of AHe data confirm the occurrence of a Cretaceous-early Cenozoic exhumation event (Fig. 9).

5. Discussion

5.1 Exhumation history of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan and implications for the

formation of the Qilian Shan

AFT ages of samples HR-6 and HR-7 at the top of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan cluster at 180 ± 11 - 165 ± 9.5 Ma, cooling below the AFT PAZ occurred during the Early-Middle Jurassic. AFT and AHe thermal history modeling results and AHe ages from the lower samples LY-1 and LY-2 also support a Jurassic cooling in the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan. Regionally, Jurassic cooling has been reported from the North Qilian Shan (George et al., 2001; Jolivet et al., 2001; Li et al., 2015), the Altun Shan (Sobel et al., 2001), the East Kunlun Shan (Tian et al., 2020), the Lipan Shan (Lin et al., 2011; Peng et al., 2019), the West Qinling Shan (Zattin and Wang, 2019) or the Longmen Shan (Roger et al., 2010; Jolivet et al., 2015). Jurassic cooling event may be the response to the collision between the Qiangtang and Kunlun blocks (Jolivet et al., 2001; Karplus et al., 2011; Tian et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020a).

However, on the age-elevation profile, the bottom three samples (LY-1, LY-2, and LY-3) show overlapping mean AFT and AHe ages concentrated in the Early Cretaceous (Fig. 5), which suggests the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan experienced rapid exhumation during that time. This timing is further confirmed by the AFT and AHe thermal history modeling results. Similar events have been suggested based on AFT and AHe ages in the central part of Qinghai Nan Shan (Craddock, 2011, Fig. 5). In addition, Craddock (2011)'s AHe results support a rapid exhumation during the early Cenozoic (39-51 Ma), consistent with the AHe age in sample HR-9 (42 Ma) obtained in this study. Such an outlier AHe age (HR-9) is likely to be controlled by regional fault activity. Therefore, it indicates that exhumation again appeared in the whole Qinghai Nan Shan during the early

Cenozoic. However, that amount of Cenozoic exhumation was probably not large enough to completely erase the Mesozoic low temperature signal still preserved in the range.

Moreover, tectonic exhumation events can also be found in the Central and North Qilian Shan during the Early Cretaceous and Early Cenozoic. For example, bedrock apatite FT age and thermal history modeling results show that the Central Qilian Shan were exhumed rapidly at 120-68 Ma and 60-40 Ma (Qi et al., 2016; He et al., 2020, Fig. 10), which is consistent with the detrital AFT ages from the adjacent sedimentary strata (Li et al., 2020b). Similarly, bedrock and detrital AFT ages indicate that intense exhumation occurred in the North Qilian Shan at 115-80 Ma (George et al., 2001; Jolivet et al., 2001; Duvall et al., 2013; Fan et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2019) and 59-38 Ma (He et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019, Fig. 10). Sediments characteristics in the northeastern Qaidam Basin and Hexi Corridor provide evidence of simultaneous sustained exhumation in the South and North Qilian Shan during the Early Cretaceous and early Cenozoic (Vincent and Allen, 1999; Rick and Biffi, 2000; Dai et al., 2005; Fang et al., 2005; Yin et al., 2008a,b; Cheng et al., 2019b,d; Zhang et al., 2020b). It is therefore that both the Early Cretaceous and the early Cenozoic are the most important periods for the formation of the Qilian Shan.

5.2 Implications for intracontinental deformation of the northeastern Tibetan Plateau

Combined with existing low-temperature thermochronology datasets and thermal history modeling results, we infer that the intense exhumation occurred in the whole

Qinghai Nan Shan during the Early Cretaceous and early Cenozoic. However, thick Early Miocene sandstone and conglomerate deposits (Garang and Guidemen fms.) are widely distributed in the piedmonts of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan, unconformably overlying the crystalline basement (Fig. 3). Moreover, well-developed Late Miocene initiated growth strata along the western and central parts of Qinghai Nan Shan, revealed that strong topographic gradients occurred in the Late Miocene-Pliocene (Chang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2012). Our low temperature thermochronology data and thermal modeling results, however, do not show any Neogene cooling event. Considering the mean exhumation rate derived from our models (15.0 m/1Ma), the total exhumation of the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan at 120 Ma can reach 300 m while the subsequent exhumation is very limited. Regional exhumation in the study area and central parts of Qinghai Nan Shan during the Neogene (Craddock, 2011) was not enough to completely obliterate the Mesozoic signal. Although the Qinghai Nan Shan underwent rapid exhumation during the Early Cretaceous and early Cenozoic, the subsequent exhumation was limited and the Miocene intense exhumation occurred (Chang et al., 2009; Craddock, 2011; Zhang et al., 2012), most probably due to tectonic compression. A similar orogenic belt exhumation pattern was discussed in the West Qinling Shan (Zattin and Wang, 2019) and eastern part of the North Qilian Shan (Pan et al., 2013; Li et al., 2019).

Regionally, Early Cretaceous-early Cenozoic exhumation events are also recorded in the Liupan Shan (Lin et al., 2011; Peng et al., 2019), the Altun Shan (Jolivet et al., 2001; Sobel et al., 2001), the Qimantagh Shan (Wang et al., 2019), the East Kunlun Shan (Yuan et al., 2006; Dai et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2017c), as well as in the Kuantan Shan and

Longshou Shan (Zhang et al., 2017; An et al., 2020). We suggest that the geomorphic framework of the northeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau was initially established during the Early Cretaceous in response to the collision of the Qiangtang and Lhasa blocks (120 Ma, Kapp et al., 2007; Guillot et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019) and further enhanced during the early Cenozoic initial stage of the Indian collision (Hu et al., 2016).

6. Conclusions

New AFT and AHe thermochronological data combined with inverse thermal modeling from the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan record exhumation during the Early Cretaceous-early Cenozoic following a period of continuous but slow cooling during the Late Jurassic. We relate this first exhumation phase to the collision between the Qiangtang and the Kunlun blocks, and the second exhumation to the collisions of the Lhasa and Indian blocks with the southern margin of Eurasia. However, the Early Cretaceous-early Cenozoic exhumation was not sufficient to completely exhume the early Mesozoic apatite PAZ and Early Jurassic AFT ages are still preserved. Combined with previous regional geological studies, indicates intense exhumation occurred simultaneously along the northern and southern margins of the Qilian Shan since the Mesozoic. The geomorphic framework of the northeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau was initially established since the Early Cretaceous.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank Xitao Zhao from the Institute of Geology and Geophysics at Chinese

Academy of Sciences in Beijing for helping us so much with the field work for this study.

This work was financially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant 41671011, 41702178, 41972212), and the Hunan Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant 2019JJ40198). Profound comments and suggestions from the Guest editor Dr. Ryan Leary, Reviewer Dr. Xiubin Lin, Dr. Devon Orme and an anonymous reviewer are appreciated, which help to improve the paper significantly.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1 (a) Sketch map of the major blocks and suture zones of Tibetan Plateau and adjacent regions (after Yin and Harrison, 2000; Tapponnier et al., 2001). The red arrows indicate where the plate is moving (after Wang et al., 2017b). (b) Topography and major faults in the northeastern Tibetan Plateau. NQS=North Qilian Shan, TLS=Tuole Shan, TLNS=Tuole Nan Shan, SLNS=Shule Nan Shan, CQS=Central Qilian Shan, LJS=Laji Shan, DHNS= Danghe Nan Shan, ZWLS=Zongwulong Shan, QHNS=Qinghai Nan Shan, GHNS=Gonghe Nan Shan, WQL=West Qingling. (c) Topographic profile along the transect A-A'. Yellow dots denote the locations of samples from the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan. See Fig. 1b for location of A-A'.

Fig. 2 Simplified geologic map of the Qinghai Nan Shan and adjacent areas (modified from the 1:2.5 million scale geologic map of China (China Geological Survey, 2004)).

Fig. 3 Detailed geologic map of the study area, with sample locations shown as white squares. The late Cenozoic strata, overlying the Mesozoic granitoids (Zeng et al., 2018), are distributed on the north and south sides of Longyang Gorge unconformably.

Fig. 4 Radial plots constructed using RadialPlotter software (Vermeesch, 2009) for AFT ages from the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan.

Fig. 5 AFT and AHe cooling ages vs. elevations for eastern (our data) and central (Craddock, 2011) part of the Qinghai Nan Shan. Dashed lines outline age-elevation trend.

Fig. 6 Plots of (A) AFT age and (B) track length vs. D_{par} . D_{par} is the arithmetic mean fission-track etch figure diameter parallel to the crystallographic c-axis (Donelick et al., 2005).

Fig. 7 Plots of AHe ages vs. eU (eU=effective U concentration) (A) and R_s (sphere equivalent radius) (B).

Fig. 8 AFT thermal history models obtained for the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan vertical transect samples produced using HeFTy (Ketcham, 2005). The pink and green envelope represents a good fit and an acceptable fit. The black line corresponds to the “best fit model” line. Black rectangles are the constraint boxes. T-t constraints imposed into the modeling were described in the text. PAZ: partial annealing zone of apatite fission track.

Fig. 9 AHe thermal history modeling using HeFTy software (Ketcham, 2005) for the Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan vertical transect samples. Results presented as envelopes surrounding good (pink) and acceptable (green) fitting histories, and black lines are corresponds to the “best fit model” line. Black boxes indicate time-temperature constraints. The detailed T-t constraints were described in the text. PRZ: partial retention zone of helium.

Fig. 10 Shown are distribution of major AFT or AHe and sedimentary studying locations and results.

Table 1. Information of the samples reported in this study

Sample	Lithology	Altitude (m)	Latitude	Longitude
HR-6	Indosinian granite	3270	36°17'25"	100°51'16"
HR-7	Indosinian granite	3061	36°14'45"	100°51'58"
HR-8	Indosinian granite	2734	36°08'40"	100°55'04"
HR-9	Indosinian granite	2537	36°08'29"	101°02'19"
LY-1	Indosinian granite	2450	36°07'51"	100°59'45"
LY-2	Indosinian granite	2409	36°07'48"	100°59'56"
LY-3	Indosinian granite	2350	36°07'30"	100°59'30"

Table 2 Measured apatite fission track data in this study

Sample	N(grains)	n(tracks)	ρ_s (Ns) $\times 10E+6$	ρ_{STD} $\times 10E+5$	Zeta $\times 10E+3$	U-UNK ug/g	U-STD μg/g	$P(\chi^2)$	Dpar μm	Age Ma ($\pm 1\sigma$)	$L \pm SD(n)$ μm
HR-6	37	457	0.56	1.63	1.79	8.5	9.22	0.35	2.99	180 \pm 11	11.93 \pm 2.55(63)
HR-7	31	521	1.05	1.63	2.31	14.9	10.99	0.86	1.61	165.6 \pm 9.5	13.18 \pm 1.85(48)
HR-9	24	373	0.99	1.63	1.75	15.5	9.04	0.00	2.63	169 \pm 18	12.12 \pm 2.17(64)
LY-1	39	719	1.16	1.98	1.59	19.68	9.98	0.11	1.94	114.3 \pm 7.9	13.23 \pm 1.53(57)
LY-2	38	607	1.02	1.98	1.59	13.49	9.98	0.46	2.42	122.7 \pm 6.6	12.64 \pm 1.98(56)
LY-3	31	453	0.95	1.98	1.64	16.48	10.27	0.10	1.92	119.1 \pm 7.8	13.07 \pm 1.55(54)

N(grains): number of apatite crystals analyzed; n(tracks): number of apatite fission track analyzed; ρ_s (Ns) and ρ_{STD} : spontaneous fission-track density of apatite crystals analyzed of samples and standards; Zeta: LA-ICP-MS calibration factor determined against Dur-2 standards; U-UNK and U-STD: uranium-238 concentration of samples and Dur-2 standards measured by LA-ICP-MS; $P(\chi^2)$: chi-squared probability; Dpar: mean diameter of fission-track etch images parallel to the crystallographic c-axis. $L \pm SD$: mean track length+ standard deviation, n, number of tracks measured.

Table 3 Results of single grain AHe dating in this study

Sample	length μm	width μm	Mass mg	Rs μm	⁴ He nmol/g	U ppm	Th ppm	Sm ppm	eU ppm	Th/ U	Raw age Ma	Ft	Corr. age Ma	Error ($\pm 1\sigma$) Ma	Mean age ($\pm 1\sigma$) Ma
HR-6															
G-1	298	111.3	6.55	64.45	8.232	12.54	31.11	30.44	19.8	2.48	75.3	0.77	97.5	1.3	
G-2	274.8	134.9	7.37	71.35	19.402	30.06	70.31	36.22	46.6	2.33	76.1	0.79	95.9	1.3	97.7 \pm 1.6

G-3	225.2	107.6	3.07	50.26	12.184	20.27	46.17	45.19	31.1	2.27	71.2	0.71	99.9	1.7	
HR-7															
G-1	162.2	77.4	1.26	38.19	29.528	48.29	113.99	57.3	75.1	2.36	71.9	0.68	115.4	1.6	
G-2	165.6	108.4	1.83	45.46	17.841	28.44	63.89	60.13	43.5	2.24	74.7	0.68	108.9	2.2	
G-3	151.9	62.9	1.02	35.33	10.801	19.33	61.91	37.98	33.9	3.20	58.1	0.58	98.7	3.3	107.6±2.4
HR-8															
G-1	231.2	144.7	6.75	72.82	9.118	15.42	21.43	27.59	20.5	1.39	81.1	0.80	100.8	1.7	
G-2	243.9	116.4	5.67	66.43	23.957	30.43	49.75	44.58	42.1	1.63	103.5	0.78	132.1	1.3	
G-3	214.1	154	5.96	70.43	21.375	37.69	45.28	38.98	48.3	1.20	80.8	0.79	101.2	1.1	111.3±1.5
HR-9															
G-1	214.3	90.6	3.05	51.57	12.496	35.55	102.56	48.51	59.7	2.88	38.3	0.71	53.6	0.8	
G-2	155.4	83.4	1.59	43.51	9.129	38.05	123.42	65.22	67	3.74	24.9	0.66	37.5	0.5	
G-3	225.4	45.6	1.29	33.71	7.151	38.24	106.14	64.35	63.2	2.77	20.7	0.56	36.6	0.5	42.5±0.6
LY-1															
G-1	175.4	90.8	2.86	49.9	11.428	28.93	15.6	43.95	32.6	0.53	87.2	0.72	137.8	3.8	
G-2	133.8	83.5	1.98	42.7	16.513	37.13	14.33	50.59	40.5	0.38	101.1	0.67	159.1	7.3	
G-3	196	110.2	5.52	64.06	19.063	23.85	12.37	36.28	20.8	0.51	55.1	0.78	87.1	5.9	128.0±5.9
LY-2															
G-1	162.1	87	2.44	48.61	16.414	31.04	45.8	64.04	41.8	1.47	71.4	0.70	114.3	4.3	
G-2	120.8	102.2	2.77	49.55	15.758	26.16	17.09	46.07	30.2	0.65	94.8	0.72	149.9	4.3	
G-3	132.3	79.4	2.37	46.18	0.146	0	0	0.93	0	N/A	N/A	0.69	N/A	N/A	
G-4	131	95.4	2.26	48.29	14.119	30.05	20.68	58.34	36.3	0.88	70.7	0.71	112.2	5.5	
G-5	13.4	102.2	1.73	42.23	21.089	55.78	24.11	84.45	61.4	0.43	62.6	0.68	98.8	6.4	118.8±4.9
LY-3															
G-1	155.2	51.4	1.15	35.28	14.209	22.61	40.09	75	32.1	1.77	80.0	0.59	128.1	9.2	
G-2	122.3	79.4	2.19	45.12	28.468	61.58	41.53	55.03	78.3	0.60	66.6	0.69	105.6	4.4	
G-3	135.9	63.8	1.31	38.55	23.937	51.55	51.6	78.13	64.1	0.99	68.1	0.63	108.5	6.5	
G-4	123.3	101.7	3.11	51.33	16.229	45.33	23.51	39.3	51.4	0.51	57.9	0.73	91.7	1.6	
G-5	135.3	81.4	1.19	37.44	30.760	55.19	59.45	84.96	79.2	0.91	71	0.63	112.9	3.1	109.3±2.6

Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Journal Pre-proof

Highlights

- Low-temperature thermochronological study was carried out for Yellow River valley.
- Eastern Qinghai Nan Shan experienced rapid exhumation since the late Mesozoic.
- Geomorphic framework of the NE Tibetan Plateau was initially established since the late Mesozoic.

Journal Pre-proof

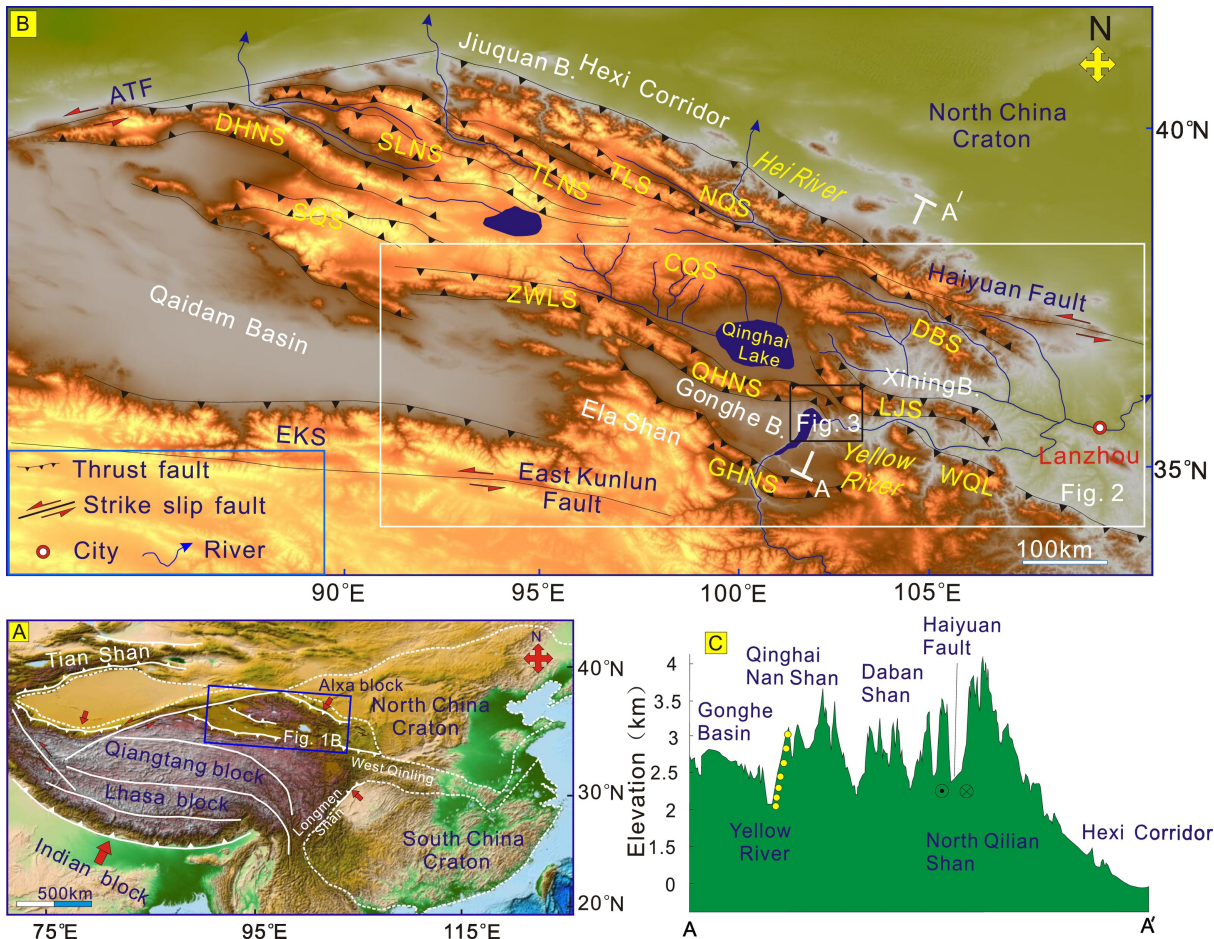


Figure 1

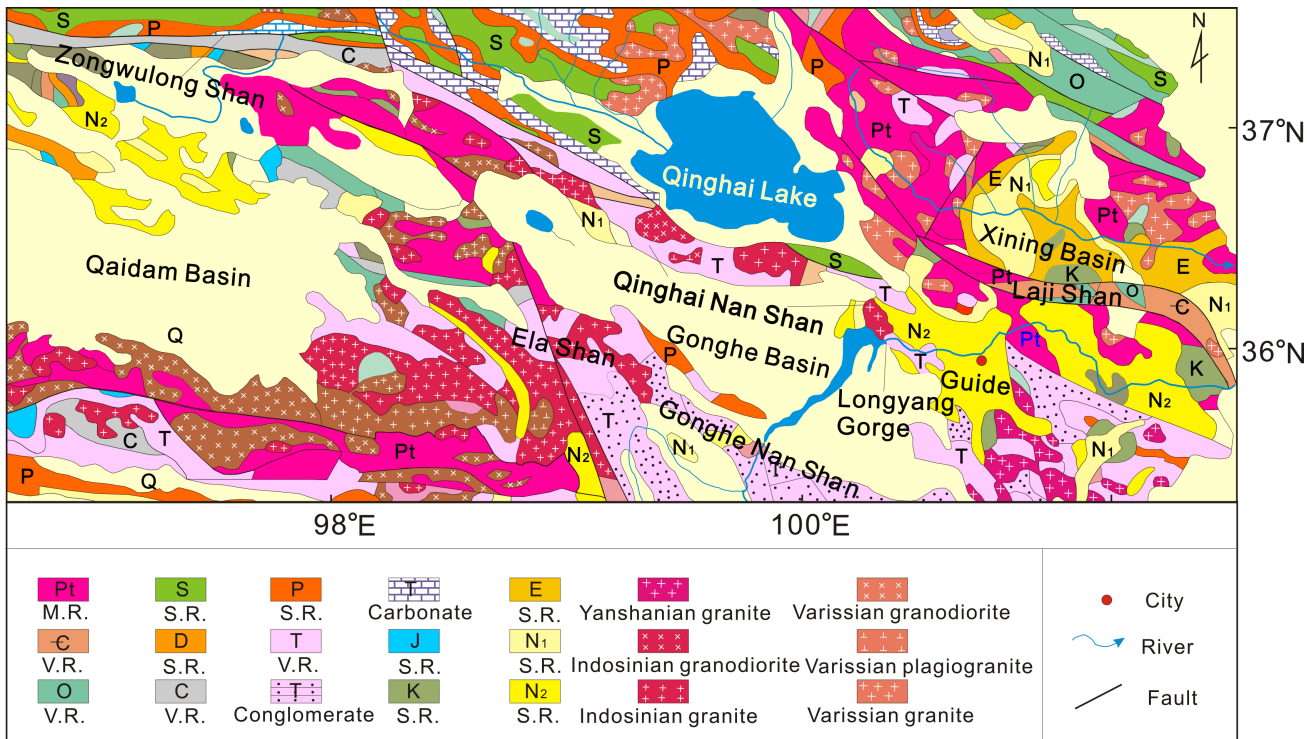
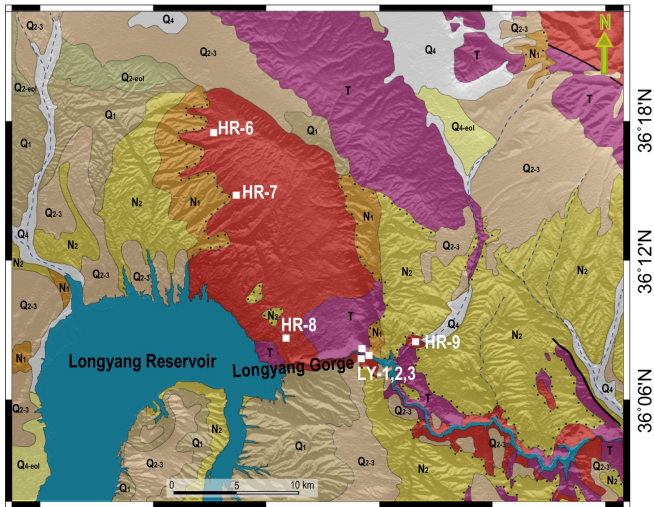


Figure 2



100°42'E 100°48'E 100°54'E 101°00'E 101°06'E 101°12'E












- | | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|---|----------------|--|--------------------------------------|
|  | Lake and Yellow river |  | N ₂ | Late Miocene lacustrine and alluvial deposits (Ashigong, Herjia and Ganjia fms.) | |
|  | Active aeolian deposits |  | N ₁ | Early Miocene alluvial fans (Garang and Guidemen fms.) | |
|  | Alluvial deposits (active rivers) | | | | |
|  | Aeolian deposits | | | | |
|  | Alluvial deposits | | | | |
|  | Lacustrine deposits (Amigang Fm.) | | | | |
|  | HR-6 Samples from this study | | | | |
| | | | | <i>Erosion level</i> | |
| | | | |  | Triassic sediments |
| | | | |  | Undifferentiated Mesozoic granitoids |

Figure 3

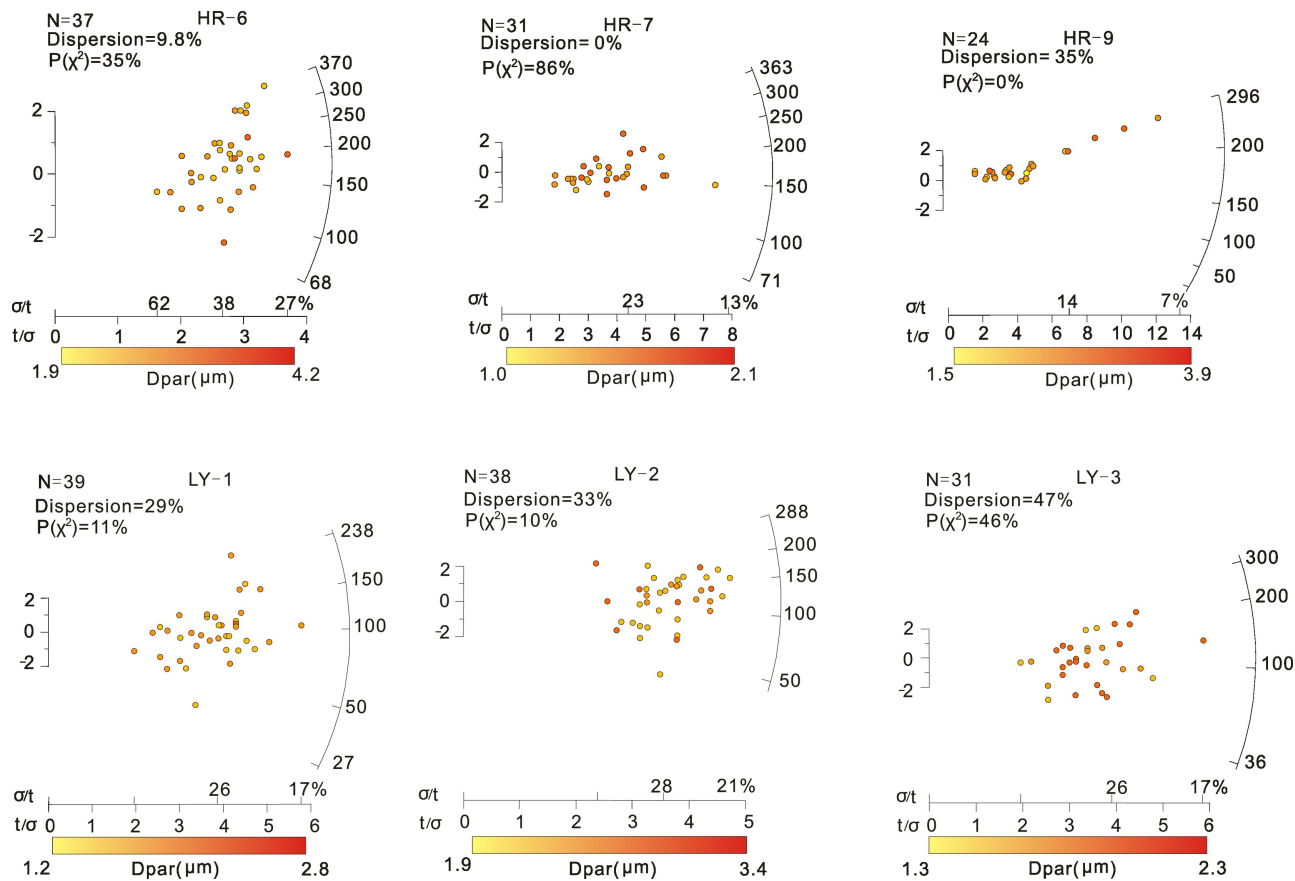


Figure 4

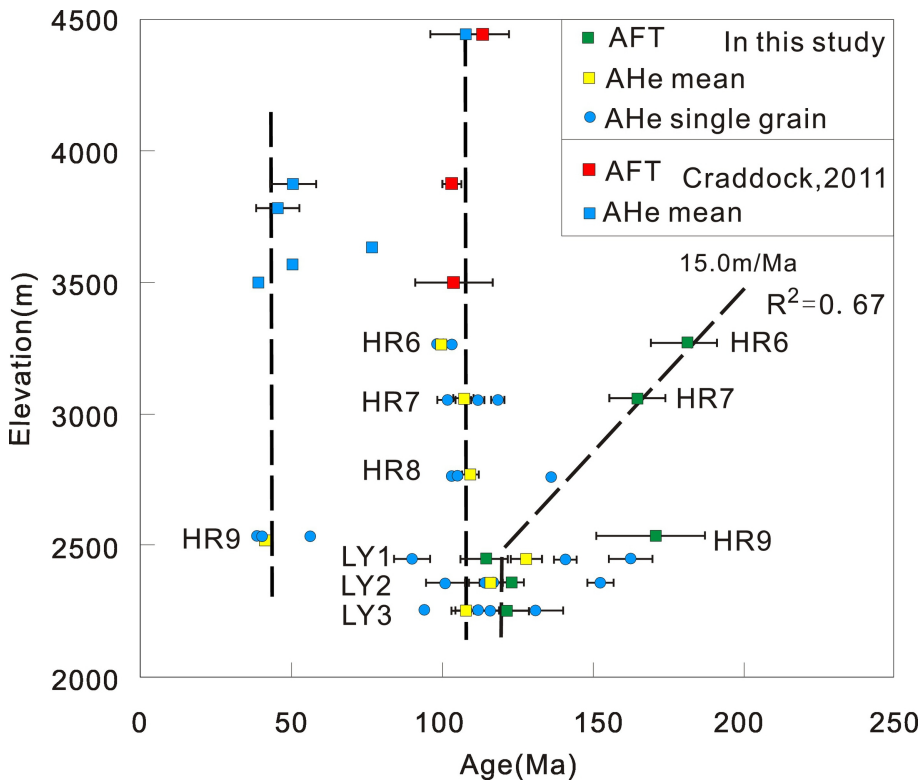


Figure 5

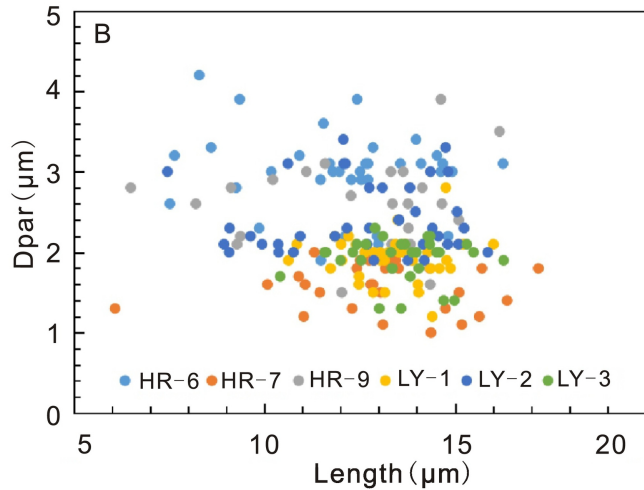
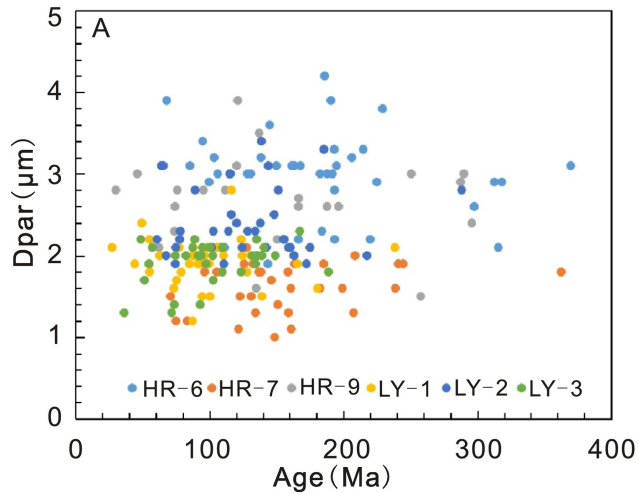


Figure 6

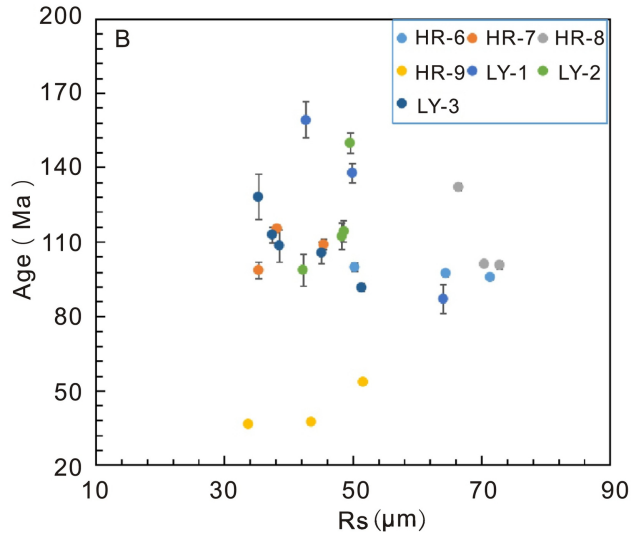
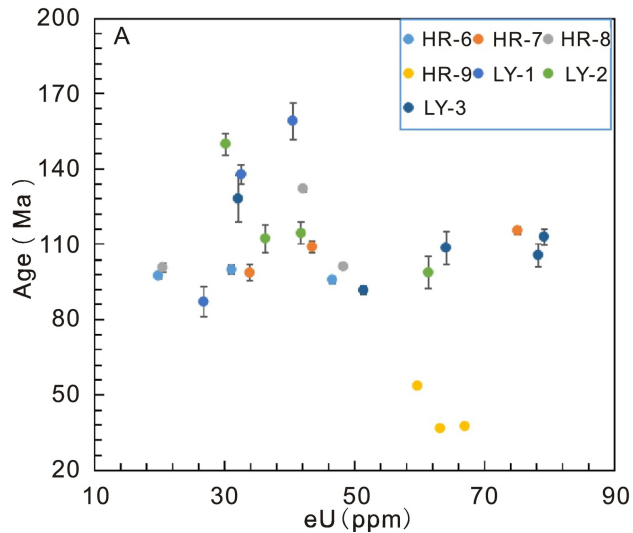


Figure 7

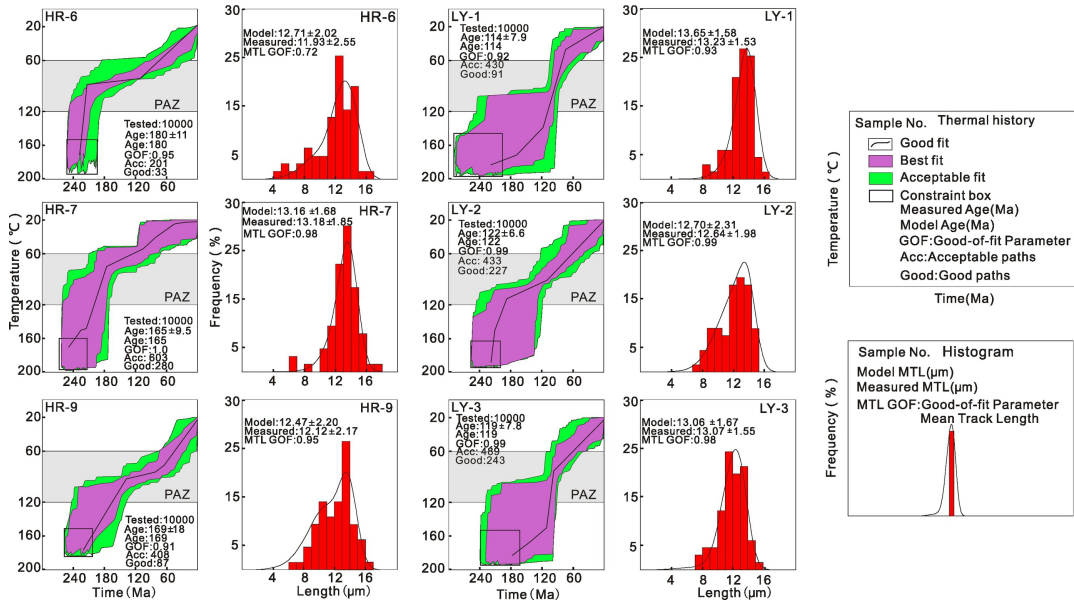


Figure 8

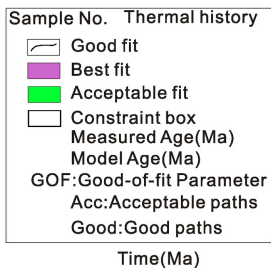
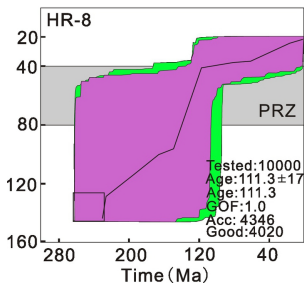
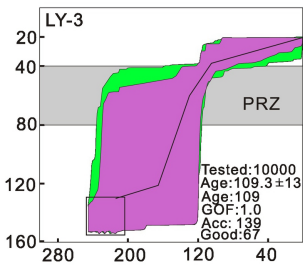
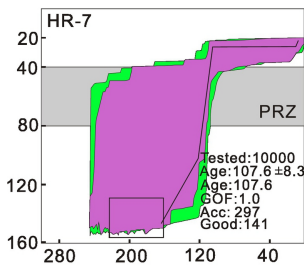
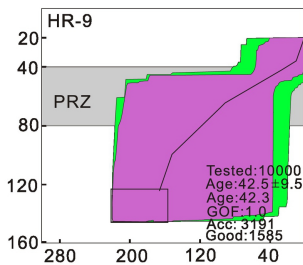
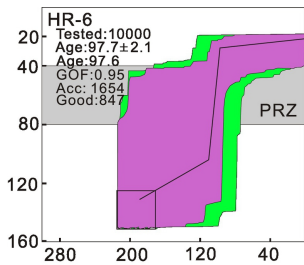


Figure 9

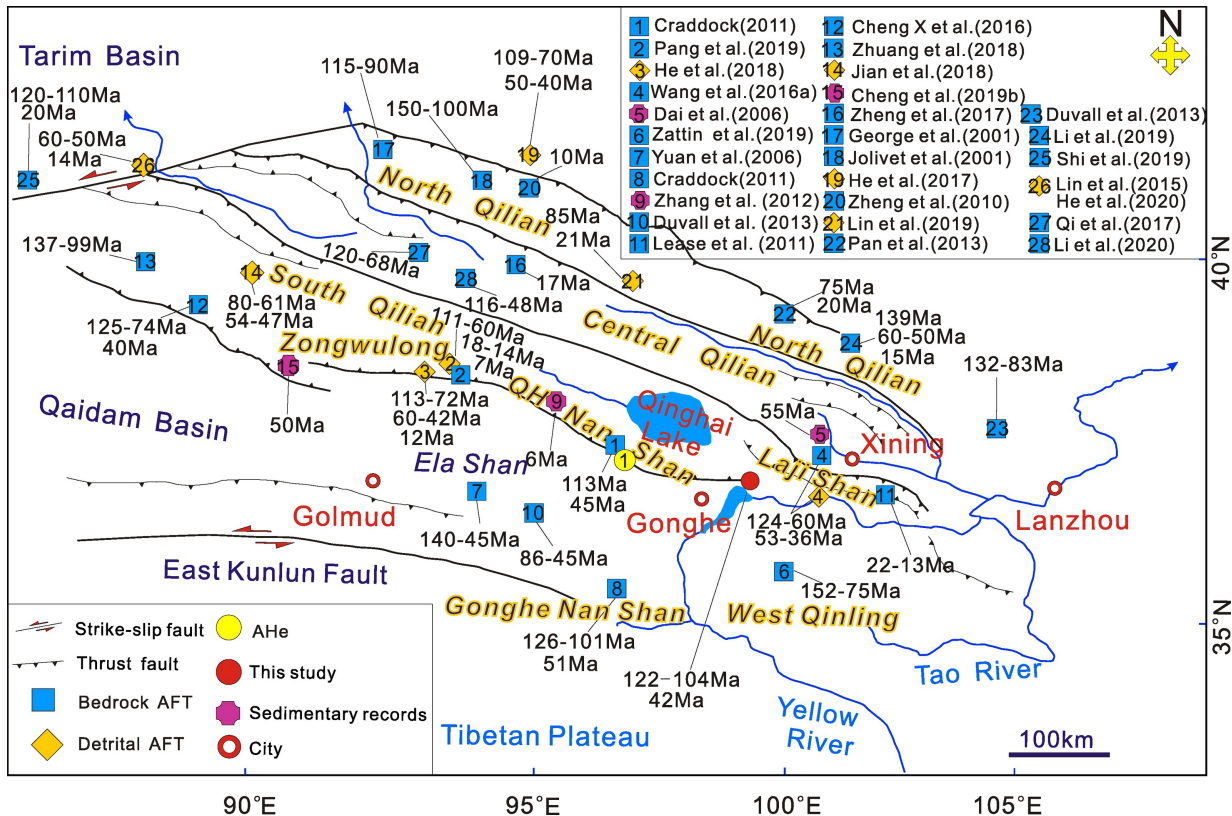


Figure 10