

Cenozoic deformation in the eastern domain of the North Qaidam thrust belt, northern Tibetan Plateau

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ABSTRACT

The present topography of the northern Tibetan Plateau is characterized by the northwest-trending Eastern Kunlun Range, Qaidam Basin, and Qilian Shan, which figure importantly into the evolution and mechanism of Tibetan plateau development during Cenozoic Indo-Asian convergence. Understanding the Cenozoic deformation history and the source-to-sink relationship through time has significant implications for deciphering the growth history of the northern Tibetan Plateau. Despite decades of study, the timing, pattern, and mechanisms of deformation across the northern Tibetan Plateau are still vigorously debated. The North Qaidam thrust belt, located between the Qaidam Basin and Qilian Shan thrust belt, provides a valuable record of Cenozoic deformation in the northern Tibetan Plateau. Here, we present the results of new geologic mapping, structural and sedimentology analysis, and apatite fission track thermochronology to constrain the Cenozoic evolution history and reconstruct the paleogeomorphology of the eastern domain of the North Qaidam thrust belt and its foreland, the Wulan Basin. Our analyses reveal the North Qaidam thrust belt experienced multi-phase exhumation since the Cretaceous. A period of Eocene localized thrust-related uplift of the North Qaidam thrust belt initiated shortly after India-Asia collision, and lower erosion rates in the Oligocene allowed the thrust belt to expand along-strike eastward. Local uplift shed sediments to the southwest, directly into the Qaidam Basin. Reactivation of the

proximal thrust faults and initiation of the northwest-striking right-slip Elashan fault at ca. 15–10 Ma drove the final accelerated mid-Miocene cooling and denudation to the surface. This phase of deformation established the overall framework morphology of the northeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau, including the overall structure of the basins and ranges.

INTRODUCTION

Understanding the spatiotemporal development of Cenozoic deformation across the Tibetan Plateau is critical in determining the mechanisms of crustal thickening and strain accommodation in continental tectonics (e.g., England and Houseman, 1986; Tapponnier et al., 1982, 2001; Yin et al., 2010; Zuza et al., 2020). Although the basic evolutionary history of the plateau has been established after decades of research, the distribution pattern, initial timing, and geodynamics of orogen-scale continental deformation remain debated (Meyer et al., 1998; Clark, 2012; Hough et al., 2011; Molnar et al., 1993, 2009; Royden et al., 2008; Tapponnier et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2008, 2014; Lin et al., 2016). Addressing the questions of when and how the Tibetan Plateau reached its modern elevation and established its northern margin can help us understand the processes of orogenic plateau construction (Burchfiel et al., 1991; Tapponnier et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2008; Yin, 2010; Clark, 2012; Wang et al., 2016a; Zuza et al., 2016).

The northeastern margin of the plateau is characterized by northwest-trending mountain ranges and basins, including the Eastern Kunlun Range, Qaidam Basin, and Qilian Shan (Shan = mountains in Chinese) from south to north, respectively (Fig. 1; Cheng et al., 2016a;

Wu et al., 2019a). The Eastern Kunlun Range and Qilian Shan are active thrust belts, bounded by the active left-slip Altyn Tagh fault to the west, that accommodate largely distributed thrusting, crustal thickening, and complex strain partitioning during northward convergence (e.g., Zuza and Yin, 2016; Wu et al., 2019b; Cheng et al., 2021a). The left-slip Altyn Tagh fault has absorbed a large portion of thrusting and uplift across the whole present-day Qilian Shan (Meyer et al., 1998; Bovet et al., 2009; Zuza and Yin, 2016; Zhuang et al., 2018), and subordinately affected the interior of the Qaidam Basin by folding and reverse faulting (e.g., Chen et al., 2006; Wei et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016b; Wu et al., 2019b). The Qaidam Basin represents a region of relatively lower strain between the aforementioned two deformation belts, and the North Qaidam thrust belt marking the transition between the Qaidam Basin and Qilian Shan (Fig. 1; Yin et al., 2008a, 2008b; Cheng et al., 2016a). The initiation timing and deformation pattern of the Cenozoic structures, and its role in impacting the deposition history of the related foreland basins, are poorly constrained.

There are broadly two end-member models for the Cenozoic growth and development of the northern Tibetan Plateau: (1) the in-sequence northeast-propagation model where deformation systematically propagated from the southern collisional zone of the Himalaya-Tibetan orogen to its northeast margin over the course of the Cenozoic (e.g., Meyer et al., 1998; Tapponnier et al., 2001; Zheng et al., 2010, 2017; Yu et al., 2019a, 2019b), with initial strain reaching the northeastern plateau in the middle Miocene or later (e.g., Yue and Liou, 1999; Meyer et al., 1998; Sun et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2017; Pang et al., 2019); and (2) an out-of-sequence deformation model where growth of the northern Tibetan Plateau initiated

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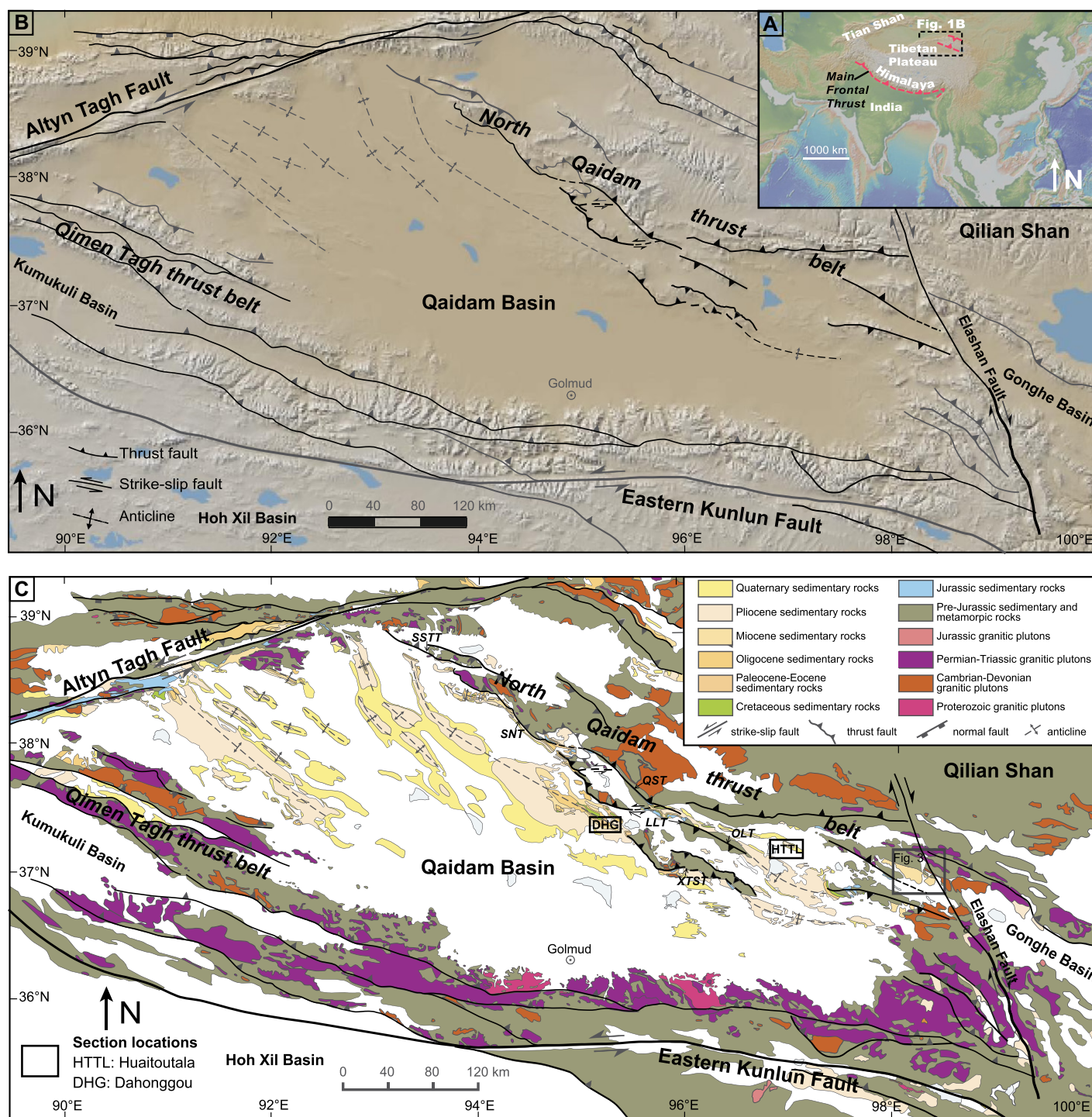


Figure 1. (A) Map of the Himalayan-Tibetan orogen showing the location of B as a dashed box. (B) Cenozoic tectonic map of the Qaidam Basin and surrounding area of the northern Tibetan Plateau. (C) Geologic map version of B (Yin et al., 2008a; Chen et al., 2012; Bush et al., 2016), showing the location of the previous published sections (see Fig. 2 for details), detailed geologic map of study area (see box labeled Fig. 3), and major thrust of the North Qaidam thrust belt. SSTT—Saishiteng thrust; SNT—Sainan thrust; QST—Qaidam Shan thrust; LLT—Luliang thrust; XTST—Xitie Shan thrust; OLT—Olongbulak thrust. Structures are from Yin et al. (2008a), Chen et al. (2012), Yu et al. (2017b), and Zuza et al. (2019). The digital topographic basemaps are from the GeoMapApp program (www.geomapp.org) (Ryan et al., 2009).

shortly after the initial India-Asia collision in the Paleogene, and this region has persisted as the stationary boundary of the entire Tibetan Plateau

since (Jolivet et al., 2001; Dupont-Nivet et al., 2004; Clark et al., 2010; Duvall et al., 2011, 2013; Zhuang et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2015;

Qi et al., 2016; He et al., 2018; Zuza et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019c, 2021; An et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020, 2021). These previous studies highlight

our incomplete understanding of the Cenozoic deformation pattern and intra-plate basin evolution within the northern Tibetan Plateau. Continuous sediment accumulation in the Qaidam Basin may have recorded the onset of exhumation across the basin-bounding ranges and associated switch of sediment depositional settings and sources. In this study, we focused on examining the sedimentary record in the Qaidam Basin to decipher and reconstruct the topographic growth history of the North Qaidam thrust belt since the early Cenozoic.

To determine the Cenozoic spatial-temporal evolution history and characterize the nature of the basin and range relationships across the North Qaidam thrust belt, we systematically conducted geologic mapping, structural and sedimentology analysis, and apatite fission track (AFT) thermochronology. This study focused on the eastern domain of the North Qaidam thrust belt, where the exposure of Proterozoic to Paleozoic bedrock and Miocene sediments in range-bounded basins allow us to reconstruct the cooling and basin-infilling history of this region. Taken together, we document a complex history of overprinting thrust and strike-slip faulting, and reconstruct the geomorphic evolution of the North Qaidam thrust belt. We argue the North Qaidam thrust belt experienced multi-phase growth history of Eocene fault-related uplift shortly after the India-Asia collision, which was followed by eastward along-strike expansion of the thrust belt in the Oligocene. Middle Miocene regional deformation reactivated the proximal thrust faults and initiated the northwest-striking Elashan right-slip fault at ca. 15–10 Ma, which established the overall framework morphology of the northeastern margin of the Tibet Plateau, including the overall structure of the basins and ranges.

GEOLOGIC SETTING

The >500-km-long North Qaidam thrust belt is located between the Qilian Shan to the north and Qaidam Basin to the south along the northern Tibetan Plateau. This NW-trending tectonic belt is geometrically truncated by the Altyn Tagh fault to the west and Elashan fault to the east (Fig. 1). The North Qaidam thrust belt consists of major contractional structures, including the Saishiteng thrusts, Sainan thrust, Qaidam Shan thrust, Luliang thrusts, Xitie Shan thrusts, Olongbulak thrust, and Aimunlik thrust from west to east (Fig. 1C; Yin et al., 2008a). The south-directed thrust belt experienced a complex tectonic evolution through the Phanerozoic, associated with the early Paleozoic Qilian orogen (e.g., Yang et al., 2002; Song et al., 2013; Zuza et al., 2018), late Paleozoic Zongwulong orogen

(e.g., Guo et al., 2009), Mesozoic evolution with early extension transitioning to compression in the Early Cretaceous (Chen et al., 2003; Wu et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2017a; Zhang et al., 2020), and Cenozoic contractional and transpressional deformation (e.g., Yin et al., 2008a, 2008b; Cheng et al., 2016a). The overprinting Cenozoic deformation juxtaposes Neoproterozoic gneisses, early Paleozoic ultrahigh-pressure metamorphic rocks, metamorphosed Ordovician-Silurian arc sequences, and Jurassic sedimentary rocks over the Cenozoic strata (Fig. 1C; e.g., Yang et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2005; Yin et al., 2008a). The Cenozoic contractional structures resulting from the brittle deformation evolved consistently throughout the unmetamorphosed Devonian to Cenozoic strata, which differ from the development of ductile deformation in the pre-Devonian structures (Yang et al., 2001; Yin et al., 2008a).

The Cenozoic North Qaidam thrust belt is characterized by folds and thrust faults that accommodate the India-Asia convergence (e.g., Yin et al., 2008a, 2008b; Cheng et al., 2016a; Zuza et al., 2019). Cenozoic deformation and crustal shortening across the North Qaidam thrust belt are kinematically associated with the Qaidam Basin and the Qilian Shan thrust belt (Yin et al., 2007, 2008a, 2008b; Chen et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2013; Zuza et al., 2016). Below, we briefly describe the Cenozoic deformation of these two tectonic units.

Cenozoic Qaidam Basin

The Cenozoic Qaidam Basin, currently the largest interior depression inside the Tibetan Plateau, is surrounded by the Qilian Shan, the Eastern Kunlun Range, and the Altyn Tagh Range (Fig. 1B; e.g., Yin et al., 2002; Rieser et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2016a; Wang et al., 2017). The overall present-day structure of the Cenozoic Qaidam Basin is dominated by a series of anticlines bounded by active thrust faults in the north and south that initiated at ca. 50 Ma and 30–20 Ma, respectively (Fig. 1C; Yin et al., 2008b), in response to the ongoing contractional strain generated by the India-Asia collision (Yin et al., 2008a; Chen et al., 2010). Growth strata from seismic interpretations indicates that Cenozoic deformation of the northern Qaidam Basin transitioned eastward since the early Eocene time (Yin et al., 2008a; Chen et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2019a, 2021b), based on debated Cenozoic sediment age models outlined below.

The Cenozoic stratigraphy and their age estimates of the Qaidam Basin was recognized by detailed sedimentology, magnetostratigraphy, and various data sources (e.g., Yang et al., 1992; Xia et al., 2001; Sun et al., 2005; Rieser et al.,

2006; Fang et al., 2007; Yin et al., 2008b; Chen et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2016a; Bush et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017; McRivette et al., 2019). Continuous Cenozoic sedimentary sequences are mainly composed of: (1) Lulehe Formation, Paleocene to early Eocene (ca. 53.5–43.8 Ma; Yang et al., 1992; Rieser et al., 2006; Ke et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2014a; Ji et al., 2017); (2) Xiaganchaigou Formation, middle Eocene to early Oligocene (43.8–35.5 Ma; Yang et al., 1992; Sun et al., 2005; Yu et al., 2014a; Li et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2017); (3) Shangganchaigou Formation, late Oligocene (35.5–22.0 Ma; Sun et al., 1999; Yu et al., 2014a; Chang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2017); (4) Xiayoushan Formation, lower to middle Miocene (22.0–15.3 Ma; Sun et al., 1999; Chang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2017); (5) Shangyoushan Formation, middle to late Miocene (15.3–8.2 Ma; Sun et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2007; Fang et al., 2007; Chang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2017); and (6) Shizigou Formation, upper Miocene and Pliocene (8.2–2.5 Ma; Sun et al., 1999; Fang et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2014a; Li et al., 2016; Fig. 2).

The Lulehe Formation, as the Cenozoic basal sedimentation in the Qaidam Basin, presumably represents the initiation of thrust-induced loading around the basin's periphery in response to the India-Asia convergence. However, the depositional age of the Lulehe Formation is highly debated, and two end-member age models have been proposed. The Lulehe Formation is generally considered to be Paleocene to early Eocene in age, based on previous magnetostratigraphy studies, regional lithostratigraphic correlations, spore and pollen assemblages, as well as seismic reflection interpretations (Yang et al., 1992; Rieser et al., 2006; Yin et al., 2008b; Ke et al., 2013; Ji et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2019a, 2021b), but a recent age model proposes an Oligocene initial depositional age (ca. 30 Ma) of the Lulehe Formation, on the basis of the magnetostratigraphy study of the Dahonggou section in the northern Qaidam Basin (Fig. 1C; Wang et al., 2017). A younger Oligocene age for the Lulehe Formation would shift the overall age of Cenozoic sediments in the Qaidam Basin, and shift the timing of the deformation implied by the erosion and deposition of this detritus to be younger.

Cenozoic Qilian Shan Thrust Belt

The ~350-km-wide Cenozoic Qilian Shan thrust belt defines the northeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau (Fig. 1B), which can be divided into the North Qilian Shan, Central Qilian Shan, and South Qilian Shan (e.g., Gehrels et al., 2003; Yue et al., 2005; Bovet et al., 2009; Yan et al., 2019). This tectonic belt is mainly comprised of

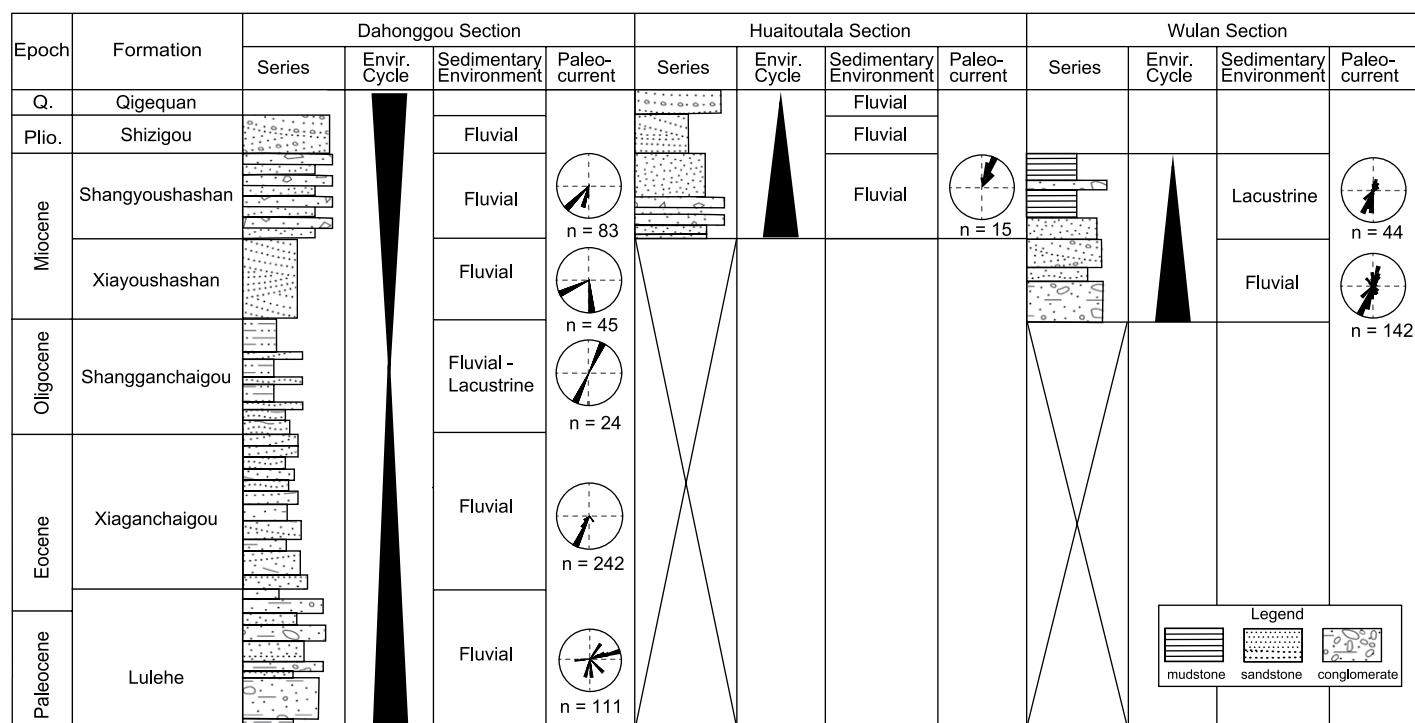


Figure 2. Generalized stratigraphic column of the Cenozoic series in the north Qaidam Basin, northern Tibetan Plateau. Lithology and sedimentary facies, and paleocurrent directions for the Dahonggou section were obtained from Lu and Xiong (2009) and Bush et al. (2016), whereas the sedimentary characteristics and paleocurrent data for the Huaitoutala section were obtained from Fang et al. (2007) and Pang et al. (2019), respectively. Deposit data for the Wulan section were measured in this study. The age ranges of each sequence are from Fang et al. (2007), Lu and Xiong. (2009), and Lu et al. (2012), respectively. Q.—Quaternary; Plio.—Pliocene; Envir. Cycle—Environment Cycle; n—number of paleo-current measurements.

NW-striking thrust and strike-slip faults overprinting the early frameworks originally formed during early Paleozoic orogeny and related arc-arc and arc-continent accretion (e.g., Song et al., 2013; Zuza et al., 2018; Li et al., 2021). The Qilian Shan thrust belt experienced widespread Jurassic–Cretaceous extension or transtension with the development of terrestrial basins (e.g., Vincent and Allen, 1999; Chen et al., 2003, 2004; Yin et al., 2008b; Zuza et al., 2018; He et al., 2019). This area also experienced a pulse of Early Cretaceous contractional deformation, triggered by far-field effects of the Lhasa–Qiangtang collision (Chen et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2019c; He et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2019c; Zhang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021a).

Cenozoic deformation in the Qilian Shan generally involved mixed thrust and strike-slip faulting (Tapponnier et al., 2001; Duvall et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2013; Yin et al., 2008a, 2008b; Zuza and Yin, 2016; Li et al., 2019, 2020). The Cenozoic strain appears to have propagated to the northern Tibetan Plateau by Eocene to Oligocene time (e.g., Jolivet et al., 2001; Clark et al., 2010; He et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2016a; An et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020), and the exhumed Qilian Shan provided the clastic material

deposited in both the Qaidam Basin to the south and Hexi Corridor to the north (Yin et al., 2008a; Bovet et al., 2009; Zhuang et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2019b, 2019c; Yu et al., 2019c). Subsequent regional Miocene deformation across the Qilian Shan was accompanied by thrust-related rapid exhumation and the initiation of the major left-slip Haiyuan fault (e.g., Duvall et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2019a; Zheng et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019, 2020; Yu et al., 2021a). Subsidiary right-slip faults, such as the Elashan and Riyueshan faults, initiated in the Miocene (Yuan et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2021a) and are probably kinematically linked with the left-slip Haiyuan and Kunlun faults (e.g., Duvall and Clark, 2010; Cheng et al., 2021a). Therefore, protracted Cenozoic deformation has affected the region since the Eocene, and overprinted the complex pre-Cenozoic structures under the regime of the intracontinental strain accommodating the convergence of the India–Asia collision (e.g., Yin et al., 2008a, 2008b; Zuza et al., 2018, 2019; Chen et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021). Previous studies also show that tectonic activity in the Qilian Shan and the Qaidam Basin have been significantly enhanced during the Quaternary (Kapp et al., 2011; Yuan et al., 2011; Lu et al.,

2015; Yu et al., 2015, 2021b; Bao et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2021).

STRUCTURAL GEOLOGY OF THE EASTERN DOMAIN OF NORTH QAIDAM THRUST BELT

The Cenozoic North Qaidam thrust belt bounds the southernmost part of the active Qilian Shan fold-thrust belt (Fig. 1B; Wang and Burchfiel, 2004; Yin et al., 2008a). The eastern domain of thrust belt, where this study was conducted, consists of the Buguote Shan, Wulan Basin, and Aimunik Shan from north to south, respectively (Figs. 1 and 3). Structures along the Buguote Shan trend northwest, which control the present-day morphology of the range. Cambrian–Ordovician metamorphic rocks are thrust over Miocene sediments by the Laohukou fault (f_2), which dips ~40–50° NE (Figs. 3 and 4A–4D; Site NQ1). Cambrian foliated marbles in fault zone display complex folds at Site NQ2 (Fig. 4E).

Southwest of field site NQ3 in our mapping area, the north-dipping thrust fault was directly observed in the field, which places Proterozoic metamorphic rocks over southward overturned Jurassic sandstone and continuous Cenozoic

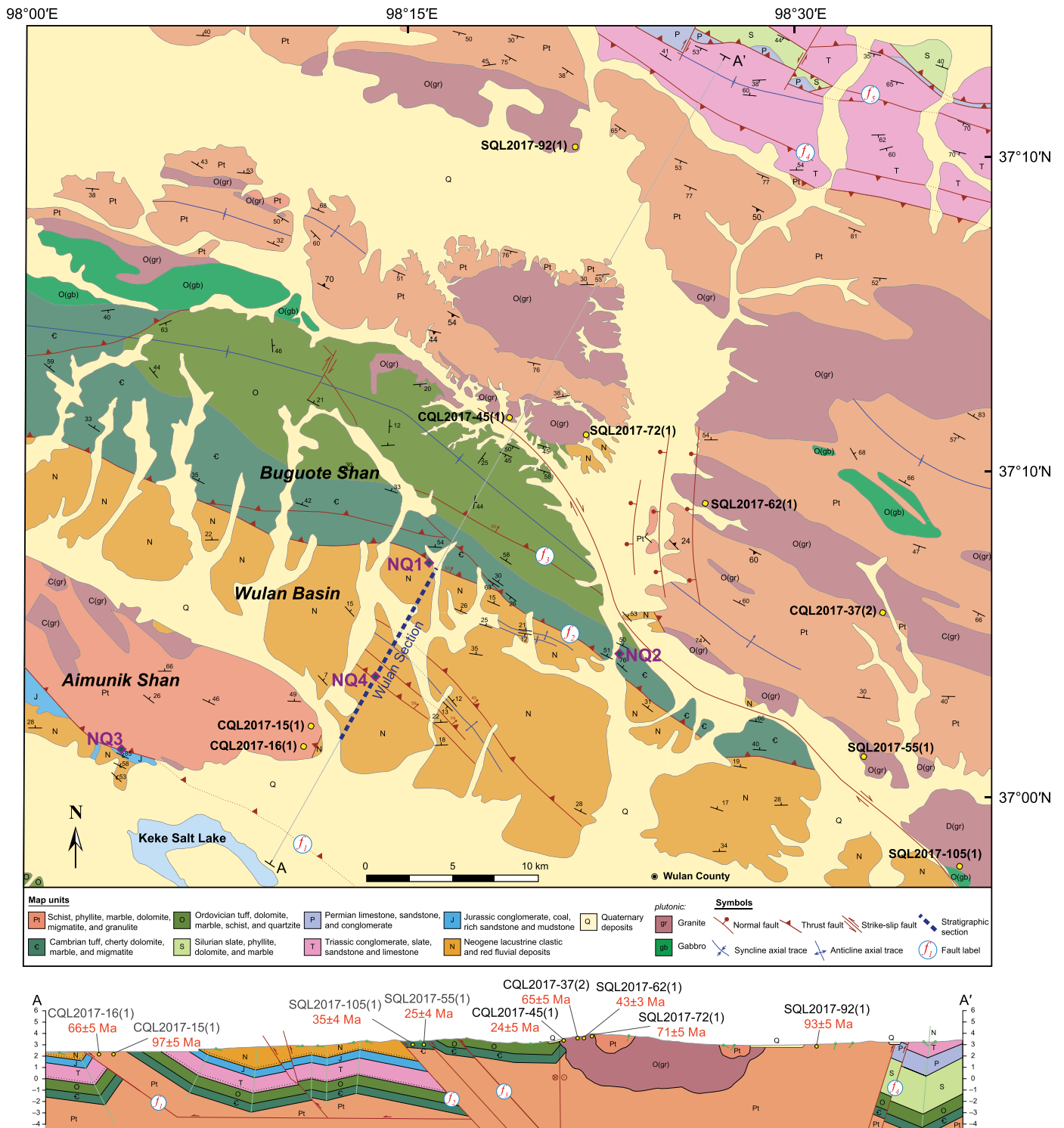


Figure 3. Geologic map (for location, see Fig. 1C) with sample locations (above), and cross section with apatite fission track ages of samples (below) across the easternmost segment of the North Qaidam thrust belt of the northern Tibetan Plateau based on Qinghai BGMR (1991) and our own detailed mapping. Annotations NQ1, NQ2, NQ3, and NQ4 correspond to field sites discussed in this study. f_1 —Aimunik thrust; f_2 —Laohukou Fault; f_3 —Buguote Shan Fault; f_4 —South Zongwulong Shan Fault; f_5 —North Zongwulong Shan Fault; f_6 —Elashan Fault.

sedimentary successions (Figs. 3, 5A, and 5B). Precise age constraints on these local Cenozoic sediments are lacking, but similar rocks have

been inferred to be Miocene in the Wulan and nearby basins (Lu and Xiong, 2009; Lu et al., 2012). Lu et al. (2012) interpreted a set of dark

red mudstone and conglomerate as the basal sediments of early Miocene age recorded within the Wulan basin. The presence of an unconfor-

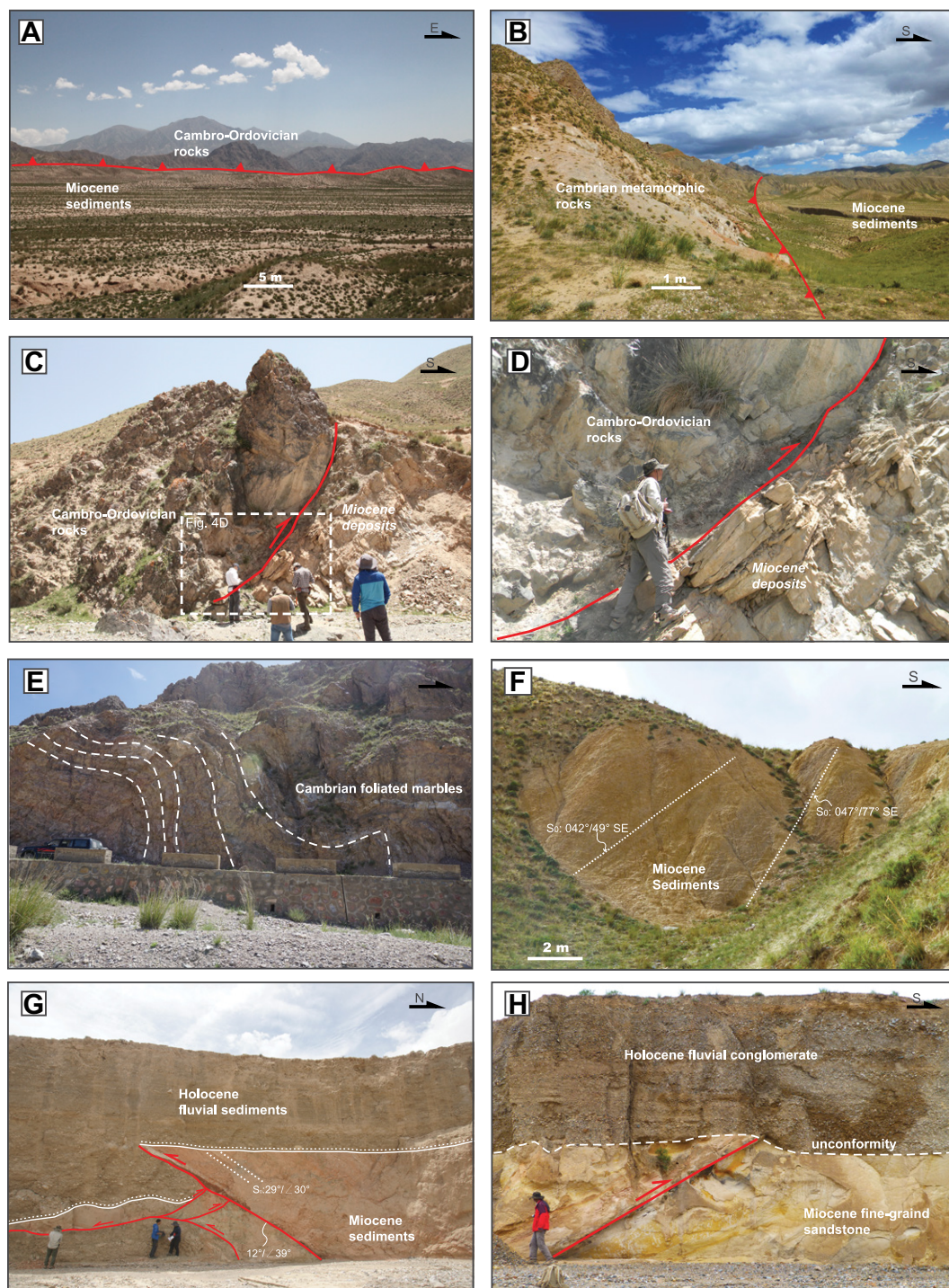


Figure 4. Field photographs of the easternmost segment of the North Qaidam thrust belt of the northern Tibetan Plateau highlighting important Miocene deformation relationships. (A–D) Views of the north-dipping Laohukou thrust fault (f_2), which places Cambro-Ordovician metamorphic rocks over gently north-dipping Miocene sediments (Fig. 3). This thrust system is the southern boundary of the Qilian Shan thrust belt, connecting to the east, along strike, with the Qinghai Nan Shan (e.g., Craddock et al., 2014). Photos were taken near site NQ1 (see Fig. 3). (E) View of the south vergent hanging-wall anticline in Cambrian thrust shown in A and B. Photo was taken at site NQ2. (F) Tilted Miocene strata developed in the Shangyoushan Formation in the Wulan Basin, photo was taken near site NQ1. (G–H) North-dipping thrust fault with syn-tectonic Holocene basin-fill deposits. Photo was taken near site NQ4 (see Fig. 3). Note the attitudes reported in the figures are in the form of strike and dip.

mity between the early Miocene red mudstone and the underlying Jurassic coal-bearing strata could be observed in the field (Fig. 5A). The Miocene basal sediments and overlying yellowish brown sandstone were discordant by $\sim 16^\circ$ across tens of m (Fig. 5A), which we interpret to be resulting from the trishear deformation with the development of fault-related fold after the deposition of the early-Miocene sediments (e.g., Hardy and Ford, 1997; Allmendinger,

1998; Pei et al., 2017). These trishear-induced discordant relationships reflect pulses of Miocene deformation, which are commonly observed from seismic profiles across the Qaidam basin (e.g., Cheng et al., 2015; Pei et al., 2017).

The Wulan Basin is located in the northeastern most domain of the Qaidam Basin, and bounded by the Laohukou fault (f_2) to the north and the right-slip Elashan fault to the east, respectively (Fig. 3). Two continuous

Miocene sedimentary successions of the Xiayoushan Formation and Shangyoushan Formation are well exposed within the basin, with age constraints from magnetostratigraphic data (Fang et al., 2007; Lu and Xiong, 2009; Lu et al., 2012). The most recent multi-phase thrusts crosscut the Miocene sediments, which are unconformably overlain by Holocene fluvial sediments in Site NQ4 (Figs. 4G and 4H). These faults dip $\sim 40^\circ$ – 60° north, and

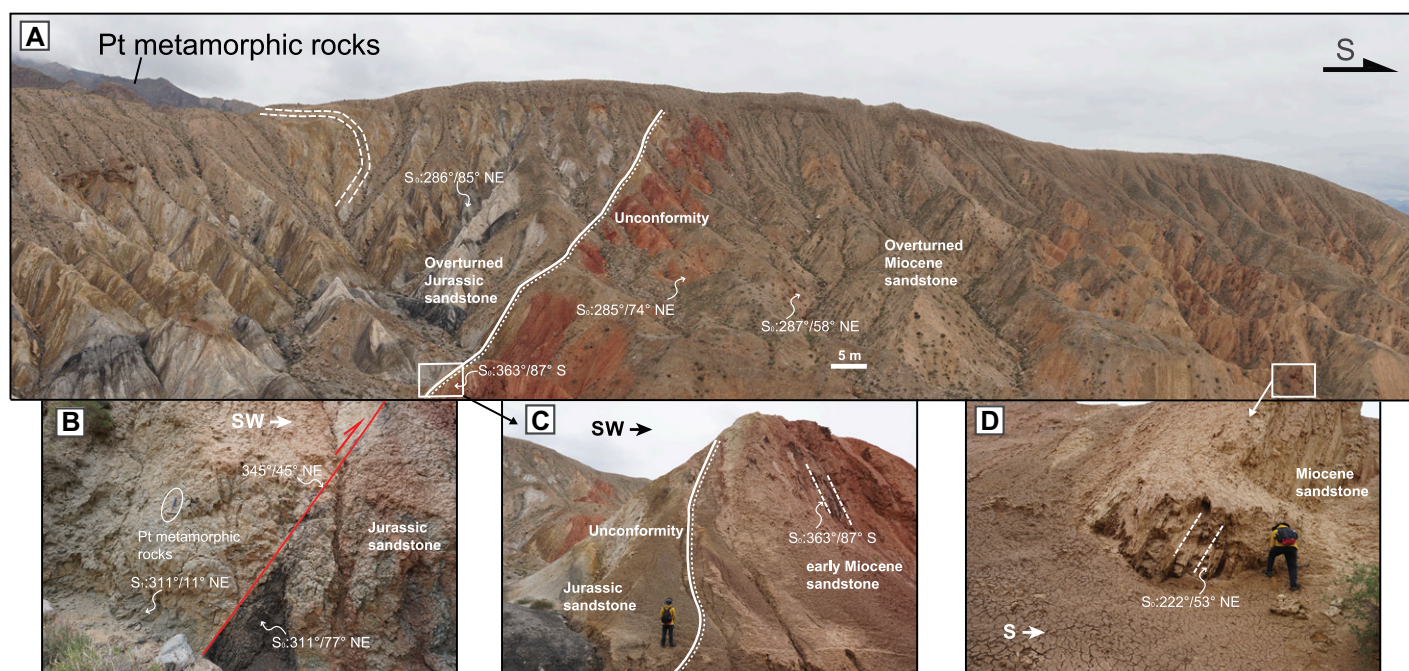


Figure 5. Field photograph of the North Qaidam thrust belt of the northern Tibetan Plateau showing exposure of multi-phase deformation. The location of this site is NQ3 (see Fig. 3). (A) Interpreted field photograph of the overturned Jurassic and Cenozoic strata involved in mid-Miocene trishear thrusting as footwall anticline. (B) View of the north-dipping thrust fault, which places Proterozoic (Pt) metamorphic rocks over Jurassic coal-bearing sediments. (C–D) Field relations of the overturned Jurassic and Cenozoic strata with attitudes.

are parallel to the prominent range-bounding Laohukou fault (f_2) in map view (Fig. 3). This relationship indicates that the active thrusting propagated southward to the interior of the Wulan Basin along these newly formed faults, subsequently deforming footwall rocks of the thrust fault system.

STRATIGRAPHIC ANALYSIS IN WULAN BASIN

In order to characterize the stratigraphic architecture of the Wulan basin, we conducted a 2060 m field-based section and provenance analysis that spans the Cenozoic basin fill (Figs. 3, 6, and 7). Age constraints of the Wulan section are from magnetostratigraphic data of Lu et al. (2012). Provenance analysis was conducted in the Wulan section (nine sites) by measuring the paleocurrent orientations, which were determined from cross bedding and gravel imbrications. We recognized major depositional shifts based on facies distributions of the Xiayoushashan and Shangyoushashan formations (Fig. 7), which have assigned depositional ages of ca. 22–15 Ma and ca 15–8 Ma, respectively (Lu et al., 2012). This stratigraphic constraint could allow us to bracket the onset of deformation along the fault systems bounding the Wulan Basin, and reconstruct the tectonic paleogeomorphic pattern of this region.

Xiayoushashan Formation

The 1025-m-thick Xiayoushashan Formation represents the initial deposit of the Wulan Basin, and is mainly comprised of coarse-grained fluvial and fine-grained lacustrine sediments. Dull-red deposits of the Xiayoushashan Formation (0–70 m) are distinctively characterized by normally graded, lenticular conglomerate, trough cross-stratified sandstone, and structureless to ripple siltstone and mudstone, with ~3–5 sedimentary cycles (Figs. 6A and 7A). Upper stratigraphic levels (70–390 m) include a set of regressively upward-fining sedimentary sequences. The lower part of the deposit is dominated by clast-supported, thick bedded or massive conglomerate containing clasts of 1–10 cm diameter, and intercalated with sandstone (Fig. 6B). The middle to upper part of this sequence commonly fines upward, and is characterized by coarse-grained sandstone of trough cross-bedding with interbedded siltstone and mudstone, to fine- to very fine-grained, ripple cross-stratified silty sandstone and mottled, 5–10-cm-thick beds of mudstone (Figs. 6C and 6D).

The intermediate succession (390–443 m) contains coarser material with few gravel clasts. The deposits consist of multistory glutenite bodies with sharp bases, these are composed of clast-supported, poorly sorted, granulecobble conglomerate interbedded with medium-to

coarse-grained, horizontally and inclined stratified gravel sandstone (Fig. 6E). At 576–860 m, thick beds of coarse-grained, clast-supported, trough cross-stratified conglomerate are interbedded with fine- to very fine-grained, structureless siltstone. Above the fluvial deposits (860–1025 m), the frequency and thickness of sediments decrease, with deposits dominated by medium-fine grained, cross-stratified sandstone, ripple cross-stratified mudstone and clasts.

Lithofacies and strata geometries of the Xiayoushashan Formation are basically characteristic of two gravely to sandy braided fluvial system (Fig. 7A). Coarse-grain size, cross-stratification, and lenticular bed geometries of the basal sediments are representative of proximal deposition in an aggradational channel belt. Paleocurrent directions measured for the Xiayoushashan Formation indicate variable southward flow (Fig. 7A), implying that transported clasts were derived from regions north of the Wulan Basin, most probably uplifted flanking ranges due to the early initiation of the North Qaidam thrust belt.

Shangyoushashan Formation

Compared to the sedimentary sequences of the Xiayoushashan Formation, the lithology of the 1035-m-thick Shangyoushashan Formation is relatively monotonous, and dominated by heavy-layered and mottled mudstone and

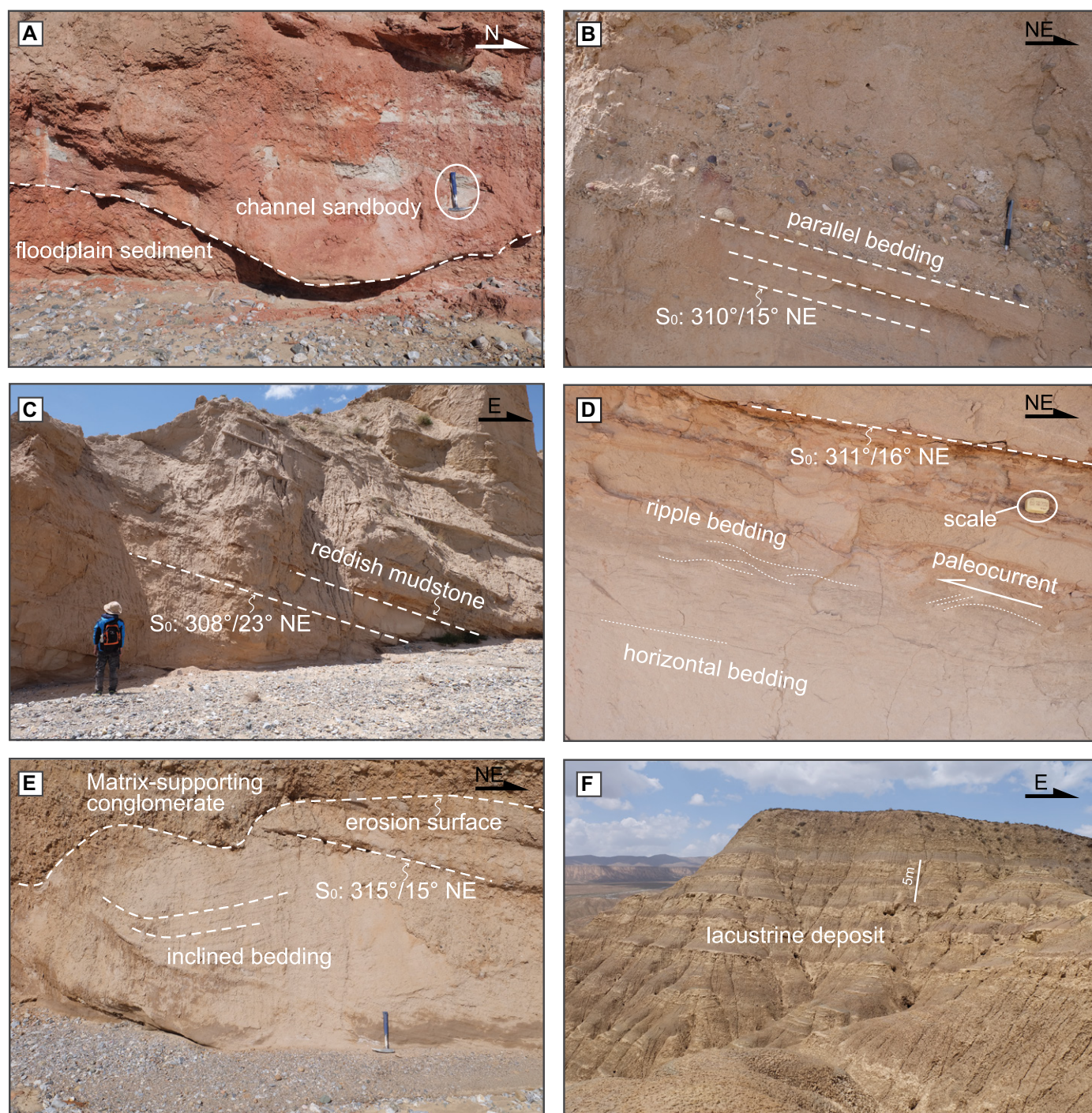


Figure 6. Typical field photographs of sedimentary characteristic in the Wulan Basin, northern Tibetan Plateau. (A) Lenticular sandstone deposited above the muddy overbank sediments, with widespread development of gray-greenish calcareous bands. (B) Horizontally stratified bedding of sandstone and conglomerate, indicating vertical aggradation of flatbed under high flow regime. (C) Tabular medium-grained sandstone interbedded with mudstone, suggesting shallow lacustrine environment. (D) Sandstone with horizontal bedding and ripple lamination developed in the shallow lacustrine environment. (E) Matrix-supported conglomerate interbedded with cross-stratified sandstone, indicating proximal rapid deposition. (F) Massive mudstone interbedded with thin-bedded silty sandstone, suggesting open lacustrine environment of the Shangyoushashan Formation. Note photos A–E were taken of the Xiayoushashan Formation.

laminated and fine-grained siltstone (Fig. 6F). This upward-thickening and upward-fining pattern in the Xiayoushashan Formation likely

indicates a retrogradational system in which coarse-grained transverse fluvial systems regressed into the lacustrine systems. In addition,

several sets of interbedded coarse-grained sediments of conglomerate and sandstone developed in this sequence, which could be interpreted as

Lv—volcanic lithic grains; and Ls—sedimentary lithic grains.

Apatite Fission Track Thermochronology

We collected eight Neoproterozoic to Paleozoic granitoid samples and one sandstone sample for AFT analyses across the Cenozoic North Qaidam thrust belt. Apatite grains were separated using traditional heavy-liquid, magnetic, and handpicking separation techniques at the Hebei Institute of Geology and Mineral Resources in China. The apatite grains were then mounted in epoxy resin on glass slides, ground and polished to an optical finish to expose internal grain surface. Spontaneous tracks were revealed by 5.5% HNO₃ at 21 °C for 20 s. Thin low-uranium (<4 ppb) muscovite grains as external track detectors were packed together with apatite sample grain mounts and CN5 uranium glass dosimeters were irradiated in the well thermalized hot-neutron flux in the 492 Light-water reactor at China Institute of Atomic Energy, Beijing. Muscovite grains were detached and etched in 40% HF for 20 min at 25 °C to reveal the induced fission tracks (Yuan et al., 2003). Fission-track ages were measured and calculated at Beijing Zekang'en Technology Co. LTD in China by the zeta calibration approach (Hurford, 1990). Track densities for both natural and induced fission-track populations were measured with a dry objective magnification. Neutron fluence was monitored by CN5 uranium dosimeter glasses (Bellemans et al., 1995). The lengths of confined fission tracks and its corresponding the mean etch pit diameter (Dpar) values were measured by transmitted light microscopy with a Zeiss Axioplan 2. The zeta value is obtained by dating standard Durango and Fish Canyon Tuff apatite, with the value of 391 ± 17.8 a/cm². The Chi-square (χ^2) test was used to detect the probability of all analyzed age grains with the binomial “peak-fitting” method (Galbraith, 1990) by the RadialPlotter program (Vermeesch, 2009).

Thermal History Modeling

Considering the fission-track parameters and the particular geological setting of the northern Tibetan Plateau, we performed inverse modeling of the AFT data using the QTQt program of (v. 5.5.0; Gallagher, 2012) with the multi-kinetic annealing model of Ketcham et al. (2007) and Dpar values as a kinetic parameter. QTQt uses a Bayesian transdimensional Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampling method to generate a range of acceptable thermal histories, quantified in terms of a posterior probability distribution (Gallagher, 2012).

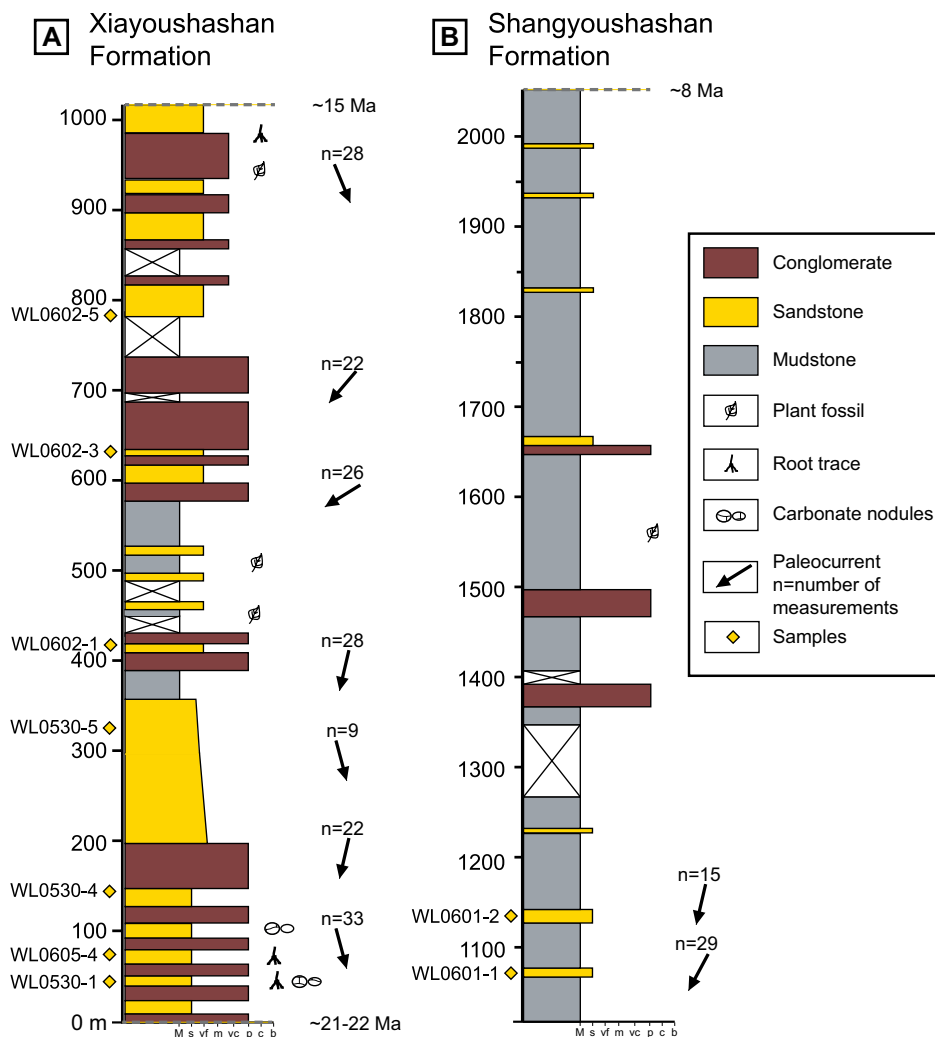


Figure 7. Stratigraphic columns for major depositional environments of the Wulan section in the northern Tibetan Plateau. Age assignment of the sediment units were from Lu et al. (2012). (A) Braided and meandering fluvial deposits of the early Miocene Xiayoushashan Formation. (B) Lacustrine deposits of the late Miocene Shangyoushashan Formation.

subaqueous turbid deposits (Fig. 7B). Paleocurrent directions measured for the Shangyoushashan Formation suggest apparent southeastward flow (Fig. 7B), indicating the transported detritus originated from the north and east regions of the north Qaidam and Elashan, respectively.

METHODS

Sandstone Petrology

Nine Miocene sandstone samples were collected from the Wulan Basin for petrographic analysis. We examined samples using a standard petrographic microscope to observe features such as the mineral composition, grain size, sorting, and roundness on standard and stained thin sections. Modal compositions were then measured with a minimum of 500 points using

the modified Gazzi-Dickinson method on each thin section (Ingersoll et al., 1984). Detailed sample locations and raw point-counting data are summarized in the Table S1¹. Samples were classified and plotted on the ternary diagrams using the scheme outlined in Dickinson et al. (1983). We follow the mineral abbreviation of Dickinson and Suczek (1979) to better describe our results: Qt—total quartz; Qm—monocrystalline quartz; F—feldspar; Lt—total lithic grains;

¹Supplemental Material. Table S1: Detrital framework grain compositions of Miocene sandstones from the Wulan Basin, northern Tibetan Plateau. Table S2: Analytical data of the apatite fission track samples from the eastern domain of the North Qaidam thrust belt, northern Tibetan Plateau. Please visit <https://doi.org/10.1130/GSAB.S.19372097> to access the supplemental material, and contact editing@geosociety.org with any questions.

The inversion models were run with single grain ages and track lengths associated for each sample. The thermal history model inputs for simulations proceed from an initial randomly chosen time-temperature without any additional constrain to obtain the maximum interpolation range. Each inversion was run at 100,000 burn-in and 100,000 post-burn-in iterations, respectively, which are sufficient to provide stable models with their associated probabilities. This would allow the calculation of model statistics and the representative “expected” model (Gallagher, 2012). Samples were collected along a traverse across the east domain of the North Qaidam thrust belt, but most were not collected along a single vertical elevation profile (Fig. 3). Therefore, we modeled the AFT data for samples which passed the chi-square (χ^2) test individually. Based on the fission-track results (i.e., ages and lengths), the inversion modeling was performed with the following temperature constraints: (1) An initial condition began at high temperatures of 160–200 °C, as available AFT data indicated complete apatite annealing occurred at this high temperature. (2) The present-day surface temperature of 10 ± 10 °C by 0 Ma provided the final modeling constraint.

RESULTS

Sandstone Petrographic Results

Samples collected from the Wulan Basin are medium- to fine-grained sandstones, they are all

well to moderately sorted and characterized by subangular to subrounded grains (Figs. 8A–8D). The average compositions of the lithics in the samples can reach up to 45.11% (Table S1; see footnote 1), although the lithic composition of single samples are relatively discrete. The overall transition pattern of samples in the QmFLt diagram shows good correspondence with their sedimentary process on the stratigraphic columns (Figs. 6 and 7).

Sample WL0530-1 is collected from the lower stratigraphic level of the Wulan section, and suggests a meandering river deposit system. The modal compositions of sample WL0530-1 are Qt: F: L = 44:11:45, Qm: F: Lt = 44:11:45, and Qp: Lv: Ls = 1:1:98, plotting into the “recycled orogen” field in the Qt-F-L and “quartzose recycled orogen” field in the Qm-F-Lt diagrams (Figs. 8E and 8F). Samples WL0530-4, WL0530-5, and WL0605-4 represent a retrogradational deposit system in which a coarse-grained braided river system regressed into the lacustrine system, and their average modal compositions are Qt:F:L = 64:10:26, Qm:F:Lt = 64:10:26, and Qp: Lv:Ls = 4:1:95, also plotting into the “recycled orogen” field in both the Qt-F-L and the “quartzose recycled orogen” field in the Qm-F-Lt diagrams (Figs. 8E and 8F).

Samples collected from the upper stratigraphic level of the Xiayoushashan Formation deposited in the fan-delta (WL0602-1) and braided river (WL0602-3 and WL0602-5) deposit systems showed average modal compositions of

Qt: F: L = 53:10:37, Qm: F: Lt = 52:10:38, and Qp: Lv: Ls = 3:1:96, also plotting into the “recycled orogen” field in the Qt-F-L diagram. Samples WL0602-3 and WL0602-5 plotted in the “quartzose recycled orogen” field of the Qm-F-Lt diagram; whereas sample WL0602-1 plotted on the border of the “transitional recycled orogen” (Figs. 8E and 8F).

Sandstone samples WL0601-1 and WL0601-2 from the Shangyoushashan Formation indicated the subaqueous turbid current sediment system. The modal compositions of sample WL0601-1 are Qt: F: L = 30:7:63, Qm: F: Lt = 30:7:63, and Qp: Lv: Ls = 1:0:99, plotting into the magmatic field of the “undissected arc” in the Qt-F-L diagram and the “lithic recycled” field in the Qm-F-Lt diagram; whereas the modal compositions of sample WL0601-2 are Qt:F:L = 30:28:42, Qm:F:Lt = 29:28:42, and Qp:Lv:Ls = 1:0:99, plotting into the magmatic field of the “dissected arc” in the Qt-F-L and the Qm-F-Lt diagrams (Figs. 8E and 8F).

In the Qp-Lv-Ls diagram and the raw point-counting data (Table S1; see footnote 1), sedimentary lithic grains are the dominant composition of the total lithic fragments, which plot in the “collision orogen and fold-thrust belt” field of Figure 8G. The apparent increase of feldspar grains in sample WL0601-29 (Fig. 8F) may be related to the large-scale exhumation of the plutons from the Qilian orogen (e.g., Liu et al., 2019b; Li et al., 2021) and Zongwulong orogen (e.g., Guo et al., 2009) in the north. The clastic

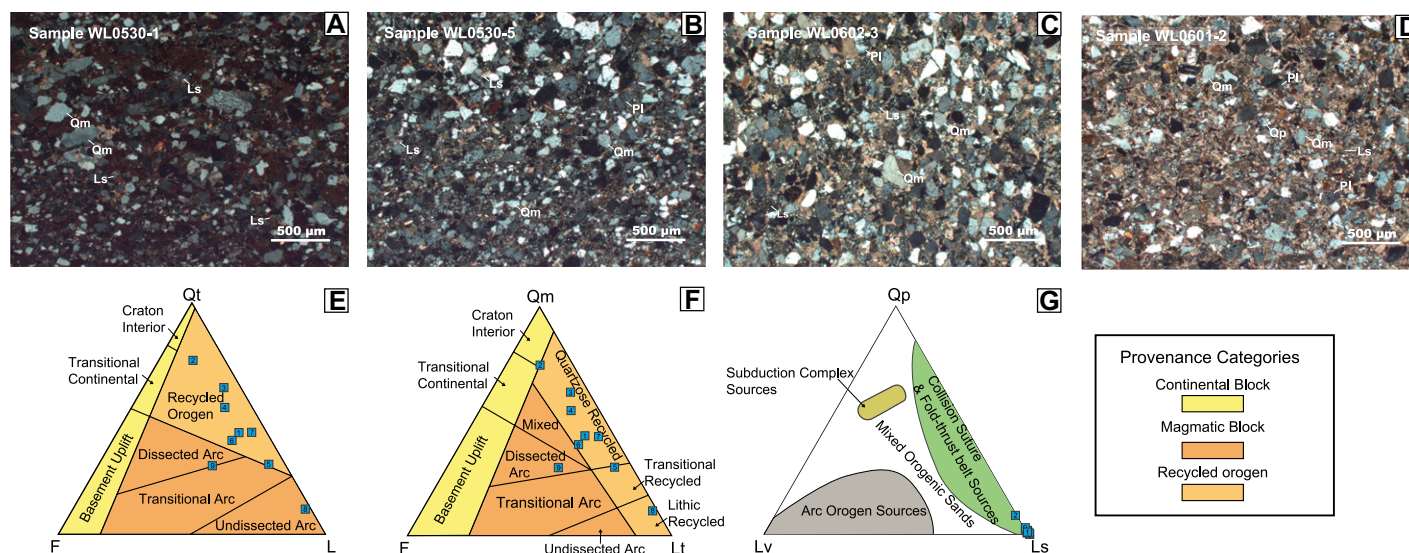


Figure 8. (A–D) Cross-polarized light photomicrograph of four representative Miocene samples from the Wulan Basin, northern Tibetan Plateau. (E–G) Ternary diagrams showing the relative abundance of framework grains in sandstone from the Miocene strata in the Wulan Basin. The provenance fields follow the method of Gazzi-Dickinson (Dickinson et al., 1983). Qt—total quartz; Qm—monocrystalline quartz; Qp—polycrystalline quartz; F—feldspar; L—lithic rock fragments; Lv—volcanic lithic fragments; Ls—sedimentary lithic fragments; Lt—total lithic fragments (lithic rock fragments and polycrystalline quartz).

components of the sandstones in the Wulan Basin correspond with their sedimentary process, indicating the provenance distributions may be impacted by the multi-phase tectonic activities of the North Qaidam thrust belt.

Apatite Fission Track Results

Results obtained from AFT analysis of bedrock samples are listed in Table S2, including AFT ages, mean track lengths, and Dpar in-

formation. The AFT ages from nine bedrock samples can be divided into two distinct groups of Cretaceous and Cenozoic ages, ranging from 97 ± 5 Ma (1σ ; Sample CQL2017-15(1)) to 24 ± 5 Ma (1σ ; Sample CQL2017-45(1)). All AFT ages are much younger than their crystallization and depositional ages (Fig. 3; Guo et al., 2009), which represent the cooling ages that may record post-crystallization regional exhumation events. AFT ages for almost all analyzed samples passed the chi-square (χ^2) test ($P(\chi^2) < 5\%$; Gal-

braith, 1990) with the two exception of samples SQL2017-105(1) and CQL2017-16(1). The ratio plot of obtained single grain ages from this Devonian granite sample (SQL2017-105(1)) presents an age-dispersion of 64% and two dominated age populations of 67.2 ± 5.9 Ma ($60.2 \pm 8.6\%$) and 14.6 ± 1.3 Ma ($39.8 \pm 8.6\%$); whereas sample CQL2017-16(1) shows slight age-dispersion of 19% and two age peaks of 61.6 ± 3.9 Ma ($79 \pm 12\%$) and 103.0 ± 13.0 Ma ($21 \pm 12\%$) (Fig. 9; Vermeesch, 2009). The age dispersion

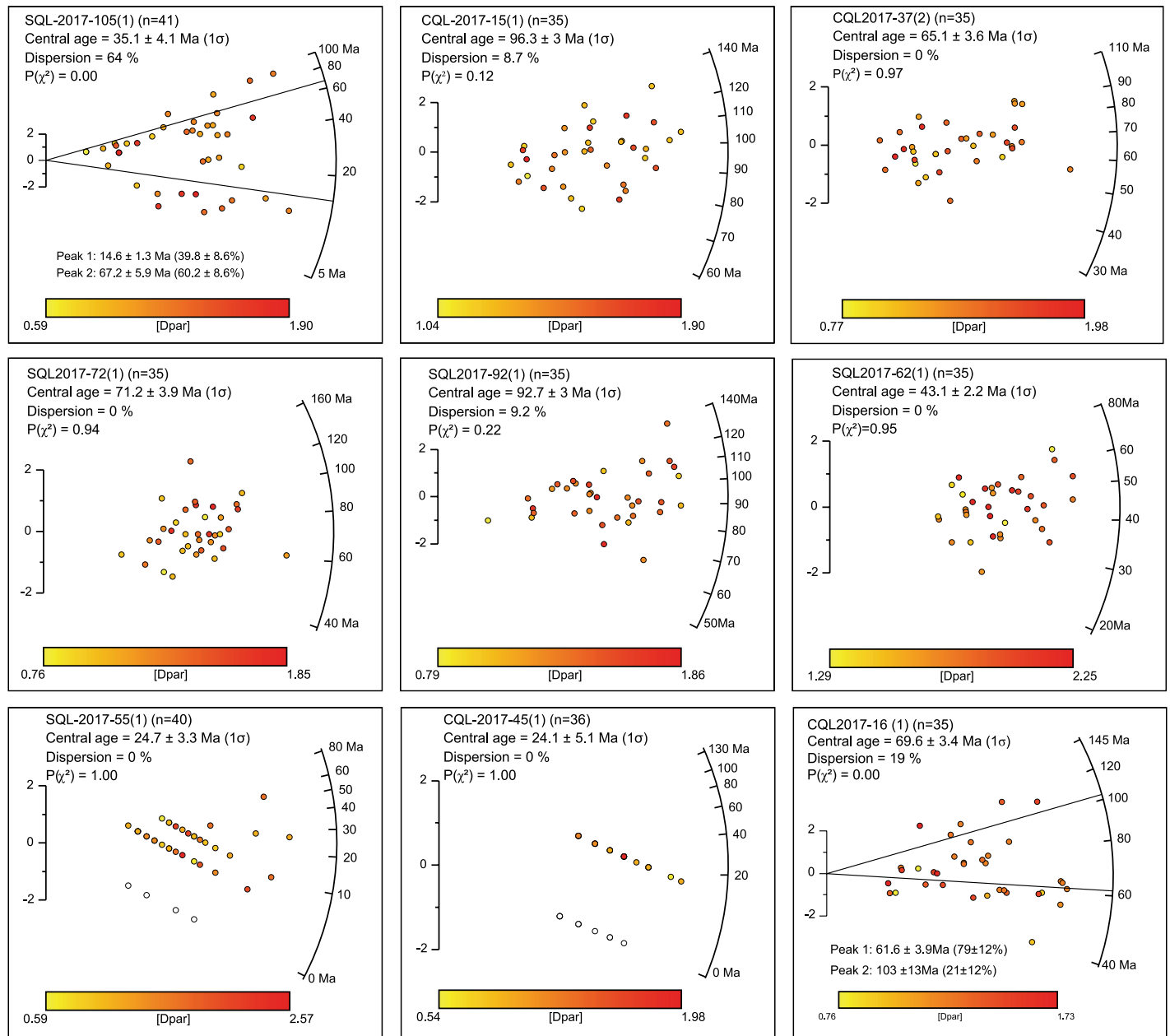


Figure 9. Apatite fission track radial plots (from RadialPlotter of Vermeesch, 2009) for bedrock samples from the eastern domain of the North Qaidam thrust belt, northern Tibetan Plateau with thermal history modeled. Single-grain ages are statistically split into two populations (Peak 1 and Peak 2) for samples SQL2017-105(1) and CQL2017-16(1) due to $P(\chi^2) < 5\%$.

could be attributed to the existing heavily annealed and shortened fission tracks causing difficulties in accurate identification of these tracks and/or a bias in the data acquisition (e.g., Gleadow et al., 1986; Green, 1988; Lin et al., 2011). For samples that passed the χ^2 test, the pooled ages are reported as AFT ages; otherwise, the central ages are adopted (Sobel et al., 2006).

In the analyzed apatite grains, mean track lengths range between $13.4 \pm 1.9 \mu\text{m}$ and $10.4 \pm 2.3 \mu\text{m}$, with most proportion in the 12–13 μm range (Table S2). This suggests the track lengths in most of the samples have been shortened by annealing and indicates the samples have been experienced long-term annealing-related residence in the partial annealing zone (PAZ). Dpar values primarily range from 1.17 to 1.84 μm (Table S2).

Thermal History Modeling

The AFT cooling ages indicate when the mineral grain passed through the PAZ at 60–120 °C, which may not directly reflect a specific geological event given a complex tectonic and thermal history (Gleadow and Brown, 2000; Zhang and Wang, 2004; Flowers et al., 2015). Inverse thermal modeling is therefore required to infer the thermal history of samples (e.g., Ketcham et al., 2007; Gallagher, 2012). The AFT ages and measured track lengths can be inverted into thermal history models to reveal the cooling history of rocks within the shallow crust (e.g., Ketcham, 2005; Ketcham et al., 2007). In this work, two of nine samples were not modeled because not enough satisfactory mean track lengths were measured for modeling (Table S2; samples CQL2017-45(1) and SQL2017-55(1)).

In the thermal history modeling, sample SQL2017-92(1) reveals steady cooling from a temperature around the upper limit of the PAZ since the Early Cretaceous and residence in the PAZ until it was cooled rapidly through the lower limit of the PAZ since the Paleocene (Fig. 10). Samples CQL2017-37(2) and SQL2017-72(1) reflect steady cooling since the late Cretaceous (Fig. 10).

The time-temperature model for sample CQL2017-15(1) experienced Early Cretaceous cooling, subsequent long-term tectonic quiescence around the lower limit of the PAZ, and accelerated cooling to the surface since the Eocene (ca. 40 Ma); whereas sample SQL2017-105(1) underwent a long-term thermal stagnation within the PAZ since the Late Cretaceous, and a strong pulse of rapid cooling to the surface at mid-late Miocene time (ca. 10 Ma; Fig. 10).

DISCUSSION

Cenozoic Structural Deformation in the Eastern North Qaidam Thrust Belt

The field relationships presented in this study constrain the Mesozoic-Cenozoic kinematic history of the eastern North Qaidam thrust belt (Figs. 3–5). Previous field observations and seismic profile interpretation suggest that Paleozoic-Jurassic strata were subhorizontal across the northern Tibetan Plateau prior to the Cenozoic (Fig. 5; Zuza et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2021). There are observations across the northern Qaidam Basin and South Qilian Shan that suggest Early Cretaceous contractional deformation may have occurred locally (e.g., Cheng et al., 2019c; Zhang et al., 2020), but no significant late Paleozoic through Jurassic phases of deformation have been reported, and these strata regionally appear parallel (Fig. 3).

The Paleocene to early Eocene coarse-grained clastic deposit of the Lulehe Formation marks the initiation of the Cenozoic foreland sedimentation in the Qaidam Basin (Fig. 2; e.g., Yin et al., 2008b; Zhuang et al., 2011; Bush et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2019a, 2021b; Wang et al., 2021b). However, one site in the northern Qaidam Basin has reinterpreted the Lulehe Formation age at Oligocene or Miocene (Wang et al., 2017; Nie et al., 2020). Here we prefer the Paleocene-Eocene assignment for the Lulehe Formation, which is based on independent studies across the Qaidam Basin (e.g., Yin et al., 2008b; Ji et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2019a, 2021b), rather than a single site (Wang et al., 2017). Additional confirmation of this older age model comes from flexural modeling of the Lulehe Formation that suggests there was a period of topographic load during its deposition induced by the rapid uplifting of the Qilian Shan (Cheng et al., 2018a; Wang et al., 2021b). Compiled thermochronology from the Qilian Shan shows pulses of exhumation throughout the Cenozoic (e.g., Ji et al., 2017; He et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020) and, therefore, the simplest model suggests that this Cenozoic exhumation loaded the Qaidam Basin and provided sediments for deposition in the early Cenozoic.

Based on the traditional age model for Cenozoic sediments in the Qaidam Basin, where the basal Lulehe Formation is Paleocene-Eocene (Fig. 2; e.g., Yin et al., 2008b; Cheng et al., 2019a), we interpret the early Cenozoic uplift in the North Qaidam thrust belt must have generated relief and erosion for the deposition of the Eocene strata in the Qaidam Basin and local Wulan Basin (Figs. 5; Yu et al., 2014a, 2017b). This may have been distal uplift, as the Eocene Xiaganchaigou Formation and Oligocene

Shangganchaigou Formation growth-strata have been observed and interpreted across the nearby basins from seismic profiles and drilling data (Fig. 2; i.e., Yu et al., 2017b). In this study area, the Proterozoic metamorphic gneiss was thrust southwest over Jurassic sandstone and Cenozoic basin sediments (Figs. 5A and 5B). These early Miocene sediments were deposited unconformably with Jurassic strata, which might result from the Eocene-Oligocene deformation. Finally, a phase of Miocene-to-present south-directed faulting overturned the section to the south, which led to the development of the $\sim 16^\circ$ discordant within the Miocene sediments (Fig. 5A). This deformation continued to the present as evidenced by tilted strata within the Shangyoushashan Formation (Fig. 4D) and minor thrusts interior of the Wulan Basin cutting Miocene strata (Figs. 4G and 4H).

Late Cretaceous to Cenozoic Multi-Phase Cooling History of the North Qaidam Thrust Belt

Our new AFT ages and time-temperature thermal models suggest that the Neoproterozoic to Paleozoic rocks across the North Qaidam thrust belt were deeply buried and subsequently experienced multiple phases of cooling history and uplifting events through the Cretaceous to the present day.

The thermal histories for some samples suggest consistent slow cooling exhumation since Late Cretaceous to the present, and indicate that these samples have resided for a long-term period in the apatite PAZ through the Late Cretaceous to Cenozoic (Fig. 10). The rest of the samples yielded variable Cenozoic AFT ages and thermal histories (Table S2; Fig. 10). The inverse thermal histories for these samples suggest two broad Cenozoic cooling stages: pronounced cooling through the AFT PAZ in the early Eocene (ca. 40 Ma) and late Miocene (ca. 10 Ma; Fig. 10). The bimodal and complicated track-length distributions suggest phases of slight reheating, possibly due to thrust burial (Fig. 10).

In this case, bedrock samples with slow cooling exhumation since Late Cretaceous to the present revealed the progressive development of the northeastern Qaidam thrust belt (Fig. 10), which corresponds with the isostatic effects of the Cenozoic sedimentary accumulation in the Qaidam Basin (Yu et al., 2015; Yu and Guo, 2021); whereas multi-phase Cretaceous to present exhumations have also been observed across the eastern domain of the North Qaidam thrust belt. The first phase of the local Late Cretaceous cooling (Fig. 10), documented by our AFT results, suggests a period of regional exhumation, which corresponds with similar observations

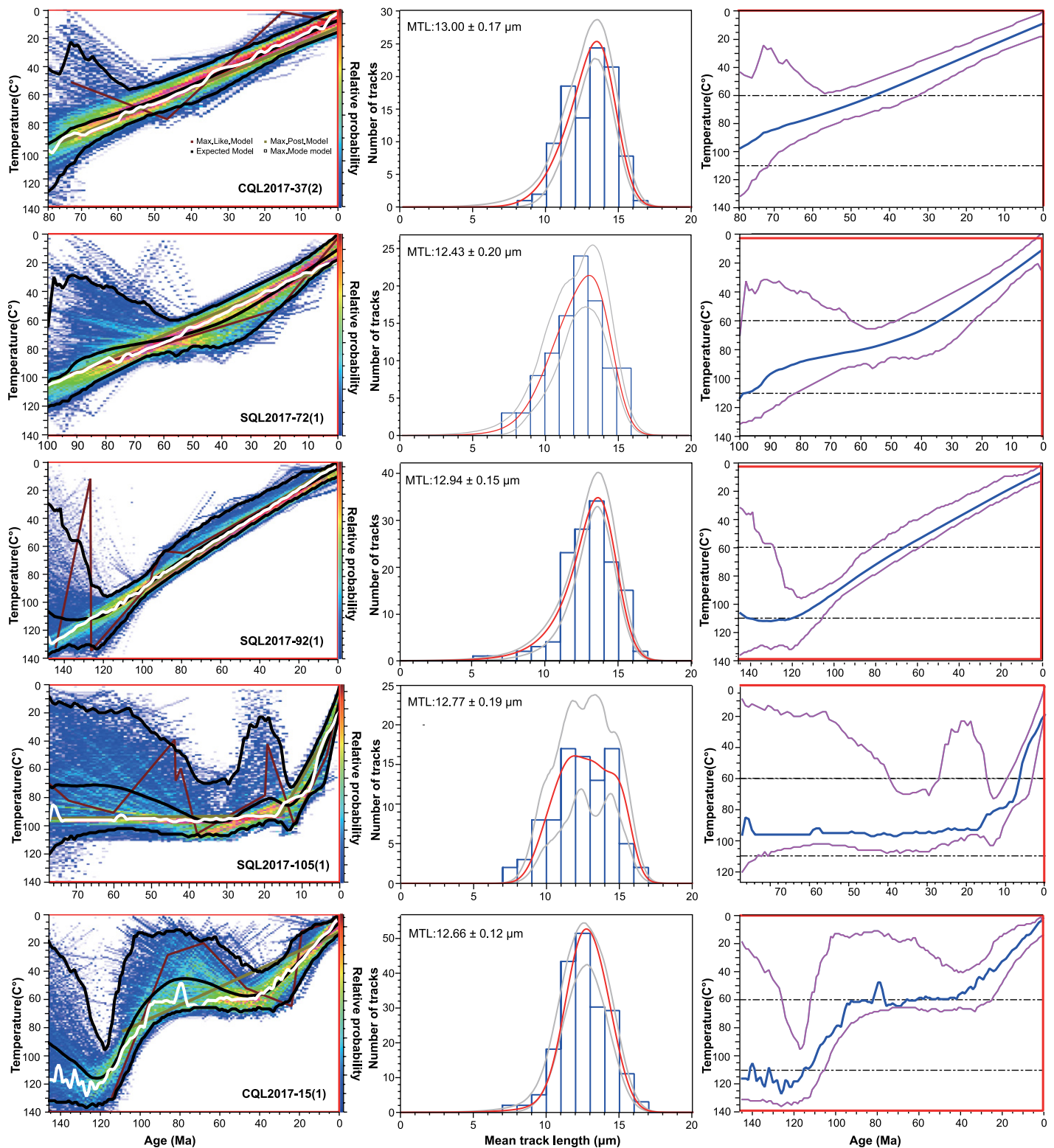


Figure 10. Apatite fission track thermal history models and length distributions of samples from the eastern domain of the North Qaidam thrust belt, northern Tibetan Plateau. The left and right plots display the thermal history models, in which the thick black lines show the expected model (i.e., average of all models weighted for their posterior probability); fine black lines indicate 95% credible intervals for the expected model; red box represents the prior time-temperature information. Middle hand plot displays the mean track length data that was inserted into the modeling program. More details can be found in Gallagher (2012).

elsewhere in the central segment of the North Qaidam thrust belt and the Qilian Shan to the north (Fig. 10; e.g., George et al., 2001; Cheng et al., 2016b; Yu et al., 2019a; Li et al., 2020). This phase of exhumation may have resulted in the Cretaceous exhumation of the Elashan Range (Jiang et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2012; Duvall et al., 2013), and the development of the Elashan highland (also referred to as the Dulan-Chaka highland; Duvall et al., 2013). The exact mechanism of this pulse of cooling has not been well constrained due to severe reactivation and overprinting by subsequent Cenozoic deformation, but it may possibly be due to the regional deformation driven by the far-field effects of the collision between the Lhasa and Qiangtang terranes during Middle Jurassic to Early Cretaceous (e.g., Kapp et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2019c), which has been interpreted to have affected much of the northern Tibetan Plateau (e.g., Wu et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021a).

The period of rapid cooling since the Eocene, as revealed by sample CQL2017-15(1), may indicate the early initiation of the Aimunik thrust fault (f_1 ; Fig. 3) in response to the early Cenozoic collision of the India-Asia plates to the south (e.g., Hu et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2015). This is also identified in the Qaidam Shan, Saishiteng Shan, and Zongwulong Shan from west to east across the North Qaidam thrust belt (Fig. 1C; Wang et al., 2004; Wan et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2016b; Yu et al., 2017b). The existence of the unconformity between the Jurassic and Miocene strata is also evidence for early Cenozoic, pre-Miocene deformation (Fig. 5A). We propose that Eocene-Oligocene fault-related uplift led to local cooling, which shed the sediments to the southwest into the Qaidam Basin until at least early Miocene time. The Xiaganchaigou Formation had a small depocenter in the northeast Qaidam Basin that may have collected sediments shed from the study region (Yin et al., 2008b; Yu et al., 2014a; Cheng et al., 2018a).

The mid-late Miocene accelerated cooling corresponds to a widespread phase of exhumation across the North Qaidam thrust belt. Specifically, sample SQL 2017-105(1) from the fault-bounded area of North Qaidam thrust fault and right-slip Elashan fault (f_6) displays Miocene rapid cooling signal (Figs. 10). This phase of deformation led to south-directed thrusting and local overturning of Eocene-Miocene strata (Fig. 5A). Distributed Miocene growth strata have been observed throughout the Qaidam Basin based on field mapping and seismic profile interpretation (Fig. 4F; Cheng et al., 2016a, 2018b; 2021b; Yu et al., 2021a). These observations suggest widespread Miocene tectonic deformation along the thrust system and within the basin (Zhou et al., 2006; Yin et al., 2007, 2008a,

2008b; Wu et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2016a, 2019c; Wei et al., 2016).

Structural and Sedimentary Evolution of the Eastern Qaidam Basin

We integrated field observations, sedimentologic analysis, thermochronology dating, and previous studies to reconstruct the tectonic evolution of the Wulan Basin. We identified variations in drainage patterns dictated by multi-episode shifts in the tectonic development of flanking the North Qaidam thrust belt and its related range growth. Results presented here document the Cenozoic depositional record in the Wulan Basin, and its relations to the northeastern Qaidam Basin and the broader northern Tibetan Plateau.

The Late Cretaceous contractional deformation and related range growth in the Elashan Range, recorded by previous studies and our AFT thermal history (i.e., samples SQL2017-72(1) and SQL2017-92(1)), indicate an early and constant exhumation of the Elashan fault (f_6). This could be interpreted as a northeastern onlap boundary of the Paleo-Wulan Basin, as the deposit of Cenozoic sediments north of the fault are negligible (Fig. 3). That said the Miocene strata would possibly pinch out in the depth of the Elashan fault (f_6 ; Fig. 3). The subsequent Eocene cooling signal from sample CQL2017-15(1) indicates the initiation of the Aimunik thrust fault (f_1) interior of the Paleo-Wulan Basin, which probably shed the deposits southwestward into the Qaidam Basin until the aforementioned early Miocene time (Yin et al., 2008b; Yu et al., 2014a; Cheng et al., 2018a).

In the Wulan Basin, the coarser-grained Xiayoushashan Formation (ca. 22–15 Ma), of conglomerate and sandstone, generally reflects braided river, braided river delta, and some of lacustrine sedimentary systems (Figs. 2 and 7A), suggesting the initial stages of basin development. Signs of soilification, such as gray-green calcareous bands, nodules, plant roots, and wormholes can be observed on the deposit sequence of the dull red, tens of meters thick, meandering sedimentary system of the lower stratigraphic level of the Xiayoushashan Formation (Fig. 7A). The extensive development of the early-mid Miocene high-energetic, braided river and delta deposits flowing southward indicate the Wulan Basin performed as a typical inter-mountain flexural basin and was mainly filled by the nearby Buguote Shan to the north and the Elashan Range to the east.

In the mid-late Miocene, the deposits in the Wulan Basin transitioned into a low-energy lacustrine sedimentary system of the Shangyoushashan Formation (ca. 15–8 Ma; Figs. 2 and

7B). However, the subaqueous turbid sediments of conglomerate and sandstone from our new measured stratigraphic section indicate the relief between the basin and range was still significant (Fig. 7B). This suggests the Wulan Basin was characterized with high water-level and underfilled lacustrine fan-delta system during the mid-late Miocene (e.g., Horton and Schmitt, 1996). This lacustrine fan-delta system, coupling with the high level of lithic fragments in the sandstones (Table S1, see footnote 1; Fig. 8) suggest the initiation of the Laohukou fault (f_2) and the right-slip Elashan fault (f_6), which bound the northern and eastern Wulan Basin (Figs. 1 and 3). The clastic components of the Miocene sandstones from the Wulan Basin also correspond with their depositional process (Fig. 8), indicating the provenance distributions may be impacted by the mid-Miocene thrust and strike-slip faulting of the eastern Qaidam Basin.

The Elashan Range, east of the Wulan Basin, may have experienced thrust-related protracted uplift since the Cretaceous to the early Oligocene as revealed by the AFT thermal history (Figs. 1 and 11A; Jiang et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2012; Duvall et al., 2013). This pre-Cenozoic existing Elashan highland led to the absence of Paleogene sediment in the surrounding region, and separated the eastern Qaidam Basin and western Gonghe Basin as independent sedimentary basins (Craddock et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2012). Previous studies have inferred the right-slip initial age of the Elashan fault at ca. 10–15 Ma based on estimated Quaternary slip rates at ~ 1.1 mm/yr (Yuan et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2021a) and apatite helium age from vertical transect (Duvall et al., 2013). Our study bolsters the validity of this hypothesis based on the following observations and analysis: (1) the dominate rapid cooling signal from sample SQL2017-105(1) may also correspond to the lateral motion of the Elashan fault as the sample was collected from the footwall of the horsetail splay fault system (Fig. 3; Cheng et al., 2021a); (2) the retrogradational transition of the clastic provenance and the increasing of the lithic grains in the Miocene sandstones from the Wulan Basin indicate nearby exhumation of the Elashan Range, which was possibly associated with the slip motion of the Elashan fault (Figs. 8E and 11B; Table S1, see footnote 1). The synchronous uplift of the surrounding mountain ranges around the Wulan Basin led to the sedimentary system transition into a relatively topographically enclosed lacustrine environment (Fig. 11). On a larger scale, the deposits begin coarsening upward since the deposition of the Shangganchaigou Formation in the Dahonggou section (Fig. 1C). Fining sedimentation in the Huaitoutala section (Fig. 1C; Fang et al., 2007) and the Wulan section (this study) from west to

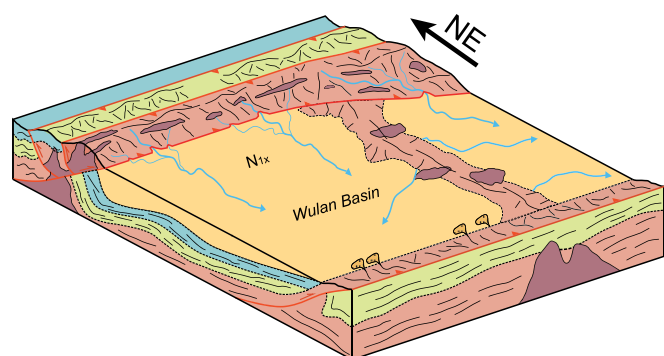
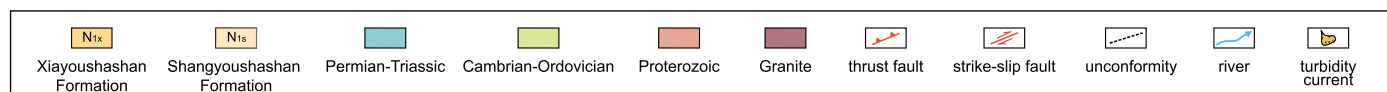
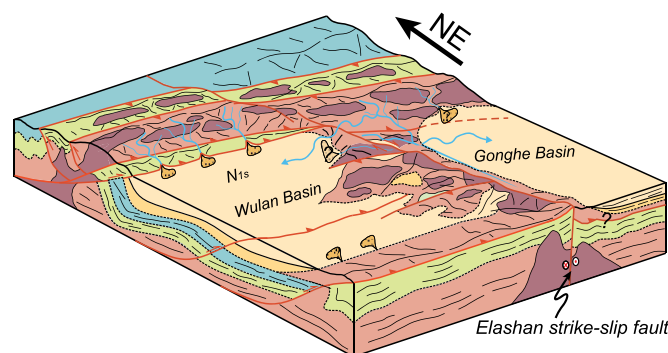
A Early Miocene**B** Mid Miocene

Figure 11. Late Cenozoic development and paleogeomorphologic reconstruction in the east domain of the North Qaidam thrust belt, northern Tibetan Plateau (Modified from Wang et al., 2021c).

east, indicates the depocenter of the northern Qaidam Basin shifted eastward during the Miocene time (Fig. 2; Wang et al., 2006; Yin et al., 2007, 2008a; Chen et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2014a).

The northern Tibetan Plateau underwent a major pulse of regional mid-Miocene reorganization with the onset of the major left-slip faults (i.e., Haiyuan and Kunlun faults; e.g., Lease et al., 2011; Zuza and Yin, 2016; Cheng et al., 2018b; Wu et al., 2019c; Cheng et al., 2021a; Yu et al., 2021a). The subsidiary right-slip Elashan and Riyueshan faults may kinematically link to the left-slip faults related to left lateral extrusion (Tapponnier et al., 1982; Wang and Burchfiel, 2004; Cheng et al., 2015), and/or bookshelf faulting associated with clockwise fault rotation (England and Houseman, 1989; Zuza and Yin, 2016; Cheng et al., 2021a). Therefore, such widespread initiation of these intertwined strike-slip faults at ca. 15–10 Ma may have disrupted the previous sedimentary system and established the overall framework morphology across the northeast domain of the Qaidam Basin (Fig. 11; Craddock et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Cheng et al., 2021b and this study).

Cenozoic Expansion of the North Qaidam Thrust Belt during the Growth of the Northern Tibetan Plateau

Ascertaining the existence and exploring the mechanism of the early Cenozoic deformation in the northern Tibetan Plateau has significant implications for understanding the kinematics of intracontinental deformation of the Tibetan Plateau. This phase of contemporaneous early Cenozoic tectonic events has been supported by

the published low temperature thermochronology ages across most of the northern Tibetan Plateau, such as in the Qimen Tagh, southern and northern margins of the Qaidam Basin, Qilian Shan, and western Qinling (e.g., Jolivet et al., 2001; Clark et al., 2010; Duvall et al., 2011; Zhuang et al., 2011, 2018; Cheng et al., 2016a, 2016b; Qi et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017; He et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020). Specific to this study, observed Eocene AFT cooling and the apparent unconformity between the Jurassic and Miocene sediments (Figs. 5A and 10) suggest the North Qaidam thrust belt was exhuming in the early Cenozoic, implying the Cenozoic contractional strain transferred to the northern Tibetan Plateau shortly after the initial India-Asia collision at ca. 58 Ma (e.g., DeCelles et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2015, 2016).

Previous studies indicate that thrust-induced sedimentation in the Qaidam Basin began with the deposition of the Lulehe Formation (e.g., Ji et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2018a; Wang et al., 2021b). The early Cenozoic sediments are relatively thin (i.e., <1000 m) and their distribution is restricted to the west-central part of the Qaidam Basin as revealed by the isopach maps (Yin et al., 2008b; Yu et al., 2014a; Cheng et al., 2018a). However, there is an apparent eastward expansion of sedimentation since the Oligocene time (e.g., Yu et al., 2014a) that we interpret may relate to deformation observed in field observations presented in Figure 5. The expansion of sedimentation in the Qaidam Basin may be triggered by the transition of the stress field (Yu et al., 2014a, 2014b) and/or the accelerated activity of the Altyn Tagh fault (e.g., Yin et al., 2002; Wu et al., 2012; Cheng et al., 2016a),

where uplift of the Altyn Tagh Range blocked the westward flowing drainages and eventually closed off the contiguous interconnected Tarim-Qaidam Basin (Fig. 1C; Yin et al., 2002; Meng and Fang, 2008). With this interpretation, a closed Qaidam Basin (Yin et al., 2002; Yu and Guo, 2019) with a higher erosive base level, coupled with an overall dryer post-Eocene climate (e.g., Cheng et al., 2019b; Wu et al., 2021), could have dramatically reduced erosion rates in the growing basin-bounding mountain ranges. Less focused erosion promotes along-strike growth of the thrust belt (e.g., McQuarrie et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2020), in addition to promoting across-strike thrust belt expansion (e.g., Malavieille, 2010; Cheng et al., 2019b). Therefore, we interpret that expanded Oligocene to the present deposition in the Qaidam Basin reflects: (1) closure of the integrated Tarim-Qaidam Basin system shifting the Qaidam Basin depocenter eastward and (2) eastward growth of the North Qaidam thrust due to less focused erosion in the western part of the thrust belt (e.g., Hilley et al., 2004; Champagnac et al., 2012; Cheng et al., 2019b).

Our new obtained AFT thermochronology combined with previous data across the northern Tibetan Plateau indicate a period of accelerated mid-Miocene exhumation (e.g., George et al., 2001; Jolivet et al., 2001; Craddock et al., 2011; Duvall et al., 2011; Yuan et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2017; Zhuang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2019a, 2019b; Wang et al., 2020). This period of deflation is consistent with the initiation and development of the major strike-slip faults (e.g., Fu and Awata, 2007; Duvall et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2013; Zuza and Yin, 2016; Li et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019c; Yu et al., 2020),

and may have resulted in the shift of deformation pattern from early thrusting to mixed-mode of thrust and strike-slip faulting (Lease et al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2013) in the middle Miocene time when the crustal thickening would have reached its present-day value (e.g., Zuza et al., 2020). This Miocene to the present pulse of deformation and synchronous range growth imply that contractional structures possibly having reactivated the older structures (e.g., Meyers et al., 1992; Zuza et al., 2018; Li et al., 2021), and established the current geomorphic and tectonic pattern of the northern Tibetan Plateau (e.g., Yuan et al., 2013).

CONCLUSIONS

Geologic mapping, field observations, sandstone petrologic and sedimentologic analysis, and AFT thermochronology dating provide constraints on the complex Cenozoic exhumation history, initiation ages of thrust and strike-slip faults, and the paleogeomorphic reconstruction of the North Qaidam thrust belt. The integrated results of our study have led to the following interpretations.

The North Qaidam thrust belt experienced uplift and exhumation in the Cretaceous due to a far-field tectonic response, Eocene-Oligocene thrust faulting and strata tilting, and the continued mid-Miocene to present exhumation.

Sandstone petrologic and sedimentologic results indicate the well-preserved Wulan Basin experienced a distinct two-stage evolution, with a switch from the fluvial stage to lacustrine stage during the mid-late Miocene. This transition may have been triggered by the growth of the surrounding ranges during the initiation of the right-slip Elashan fault at ca. 15–10 Ma.

Based on the previous studies and our observations, we argue the North Qaidam thrust belt experienced multiple phases of Cenozoic growth and expansion in response to the complex evolution of the northern Tibetan plateau. Eocene thrust-induced uplift and deformation may reflect an initial response to early Cenozoic India-Asia collision. The eastward Oligocene expansion of the North Qaidam thrust belt and related migration of the Qaidam Basin depocenter may be related to lower erosion rates induced by rising local base level and/or arid climate conditions in the Oligocene. Middle Miocene deformation that involved the initiation of major strike-slip fault systems established the current geomorphic tectonic pattern of the northern Tibetan Plateau.

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