

Imprint on the upper mantle discontinuities of a subducted Paleo-Tethys oceanic lithosphere and the formation of the Emeishan large igneous province

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Abstract:

Generally, it is suggested that mantle plume upwelling led to the formation of the Emeishan large igneous province (ELIP). However, this notion has been challenged by recent geological and seismic studies. In this study, 3 profiles of velocity perturbation crossing the ELIP were drawn following previous tomography, and common conversion point (CCP) stacking of receiver functions is carried out in the ELIP. The slab-like high-velocity structure with northeastward subduction is revealed, which may be associated with an oceanic lithosphere of the Paleo-Tethys (OLPT). CCP stacking of receiver functions shows that the OLPT generated an imprint on the 410 and 660 km discontinuities, respectively. Finally, it is suggested that the OLPT may induce large-scale return flow or upwelling of the mantle, which contributed to the formation of the ELIP.

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Oceanic lithosphere of the Paleo-Tethys; mantle upwelling; Emeishan large igneous
province

1. Introduction

Mantle dynamics are closely influenced by vast and transient magmatic eruptions or
outpourings, which have occurred throughout geological history around the globe (Ernst
and Buchan, 2001; Coffin and Eldholm, 2001). Mantle plumes rooted in the lower mantle
are generally considered (Wilson, 1963) to have generated several large igneous
(magmatic) provinces, such as the ELIP of China, the Siberian traps and the Deccan large
igneous province of India (Uenzelmann-Neben, 2013; Pirajno and Hoatson, 2012; Ernst et
al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2020). This process has been invoked to explain great environmental
changes on the Earth's surface and mass extinctions in the Permian (Buiter, 2014;
Wignall, 2011).

The ELIP, which formed from 263 to 260 Ma (Liu & Zhu 2009), is exposed over
250,000-300,000 km² in Southwest China, includes 250,000 km³ of basaltic flows (Deng
et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2018) (Fig. 1) and is one of most
well-known large igneous provinces in the world. Reports have proposed that the ELIP
may be linked with a later Permian mantle plume, and based on geochemical,
biostratigraphic, and sedimentological characteristics, the ELIP is divided into inner,

43 middle and outer zones (Fig. 1, left panel) (Xu et al., 2001; Deng et al., 2010).

44
45 However, recent geological studies discovered that certain lava flows erupted in a
46 submarine setting near the inner zone of the ELIP (Ukstins Peate and Bryan, 2008), and
47 several lava outcrops also formed at low elevations at the boundary of the inner and
48 middle uplift zones (Ukstins Peate and Bryan, 2008). These results challenge the mantle
49 plume model because numerical simulations have demonstrated that mantle plume
50 upwelling should have induced a 0.5–2 km broad dome uplift with an ~1000 km diameter
51 (Ernst et al., 2005; Sengör, 2001; Griffiths and Campbell, 1991).

52
53 Generally, mantle upwelling and lower crustal/lithospheric delamination (or a
54 subducting slab) in early Earth history can retain high- and low-velocity vestiges, which
55 can be preserved for two billion years or longer (Balling et al., 2000; Cook et al., 1999;
56 Zhai et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 1992; He et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2004; Anderson, 1982) and
57 be detected by seismic techniques (Wu et al., 1994; Deng et al., 2004; He and Santosh,
58 2021).

59
60 However, recent receiver functions and tomographic studies have not revealed any
61 relics of mantle plume upwelling in the ELIP (He et al., 2014; He and Santosh, 2020). On
62 contrary, tomography revealed large-scale low-velocity anomaly (or mantle upwelling) in
63 the upper mantle rather than rooted from core-mantle boundary (He and Santosh, 2020).
64 Meanwhile, receiver function (He, 2010) and tomographic studies (Huang et al., 2015;

Yang et al., 2014; He and Santosh, 2017; 2020) have revealed a vestige with subducted slab-like features in this area. However, previous receiver function studies only used a set of extremely limited data and obtained images of CCP stacking of receiver functions with low signal and noise ratios (He, 2010), and the detailed structure of the mantle transition zone (MTZ) is very obscure. Another receiver function study only used the depth domain receiver function to image the 410 and 660 km discontinuities with 446 teleseismic events (He et al., 2014), which did not remove the effect of velocity heterogeneities in the upper mantle; the depth of discontinuities only is pseudo depth. Although recent CCP stacking of receiver function used much data collected from the mobile seismic stations, the valid receiver function may be quite limited so that some important detail feature cannot be revealed, such as split 410 and 660 km discontinuities (e.g., Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2017), moreover, their works didn't involve the subducted slab and the formation of the ELIP.

In this study, the tomographic images (He and Santosh, 2020) are redrawn and reanalyzed and CCP stacking of receiver functions is performed by using a 3-D velocity mode that is used to remove the effect of velocity heterogeneities of the upper mantle. Three velocity perturbations and CCP stacking of receiver function profiles crossing the ELIP are created. The results affirm that there is a subducted lithosphere of the Paleo-Tethys beneath the ELIP, which might play a key role in ELIP formation.

2. Data and method

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88 A total of 1407 teleseismic events were collected from 177 permanent seismic
89 stations during 2007 to 2020 in Southwest China (Fig. 1). The events were limited to
90 $M_s > 6.0$, and the earthquake epicentral distances ranged from 30° to 90° for individual
91 event-station pairs. The raw waveforms with a 50 Hz or 100 Hz sampling rate were cut
92 from 15 s before the P-wave arrival time to 150 s after it and filtered by a Butterworth
93 bandpass filter ranging from 0.01 to 0.2 Hz; the sample rate of the waveform was
94 decimalized to 0.1 s increments. The waveform cross-correlation technique (VanDecar
95 and Crosson, 1990) was employed to select consistent raw data (an example can be
96 found in Fig. S1). The 1 s Gaussian factors and 0.01 water levels were adopted to
97 compute the receiver functions (Langston, 1977; Owens et al., 1984). Finally, 20910
98 high-quality and valid receiver functions were extracted and used to CCP stacking of
99 receiver function (for example, please see Fig. S2), which is far beyond any dataset of the
100 previous receiver function studies in this area (e.g., Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2017).

101

102 A CCP stacking of receiver functions (e.g., Dueker and Sheehan, 1997; Eagar et
103 al., 2010; Zhu, 2000) was used to stack receiver functions and image the MTZ of the ELIP.
104 The piercing points of receiver functions at 410 and 660 km depths are calculated by
105 using the AK135 1-D velocity model (Kennett et al., 1995). The spherical coordinates are
106 used to calculate the Ps–P differential time T_{Ps} (Eagar et al., 2010). The effect of velocity
107 heterogeneities of the upper mantle is removed by a global 3-D velocity model
108 (TX2019slab S- and P-wave velocity model) (Lu et al., 2019). Lateral grid intervals of 0.5°

and depth intervals of 1 km are designed for the CCP stacking process of receiver functions and the migrated receiver functions are searched within a radius of 75 km (Xu et al., 2018).

3. Results

The tomography results has been redrawn (He and Santosh, 2020) and reveals a subducted slab-like body of high velocity (SSBHV) beneath the southwestern ELIP (Fig. 2, B). The results identified by the CCP stacking of receiver functions show four interfaces corresponding to the location of the subducted slab, which are at depths of approximately 390, 400, 420 and 430 km (Fig. 2C, ②, ③, ④ and ⑤; Fig. 2). The 660 km discontinuity splits two or three interfaces, which deepens and is dislocated by approximately 30 km compared with the normal depth of the 660 km discontinuity at the location of the subducted slab (Fig. 2C, Fig. 2B).

Previous seismic studies indicate that the decreasing temperature can induce the split 520 km discontinuity (or two 520 km discontinuities) (Saikia et al., 2008; Deuss and Woodhouse, 2001). The high-velocity anomaly (or subducted slab) (Fig. 2B) might be linked to a lower temperature than that of the surrounding mantle (Foulger, 2012). Therefore, four interfaces at 390-430 km depth might be connected to the split 410 km discontinuity. Recent CCP stacking of receiver function in the South China also defined split 410 km discontinuity induced by a high-velocity anomaly (He and Santosh, 2021). Similarly, the deepening region of the 660 km discontinuity and split 660 km discontinuity

identified in this study might be also generated by the subducted slab due to its lower temperature than the high-velocity surrounding mantle (Foulger, 2012).

The X-discontinuity in the range of 250–350 km depth have reported from several seismological investigations (Deuss and Woodhouse, 2002, 2004; Revenaugh and Jordan, 1991). A large amplitude discontinuity identified in this study appears at 250 km depth (Fig. 2C, ①), which most likely represent an X-discontinuity, moreover, the discontinuity well correspond to the location of the low-velocity anomaly (Lv1).

Overlapping figures of the P-wave perturbation and CCP stacking of receiver function profiles further indicate the split 660 km discontinuity corresponding to a SSBHV (Fig. 3, the region within the blue ellipse), whereas the that of the X-discontinuity corresponding to the low velocity anomaly (Fig. 3, the region within the blue rectangle).

The topographies of the 410 and 660 km discontinuities have been extracted. The shallowing of the 410 km discontinuity (Fig. 4e, blue rectangle region) and the deepening of the 660 km discontinuity (Fig. 4f, blue rectangle region) correspond to the location of the SSBHV. On the other hand, the topographies of the 410 and 660 km discontinuities have also been extracted by using a local 3-D P-wave velocity model (He and Santosh, 2020) and inferred the S-wave velocity based on the V_p/V_s ratio of the AK135 velocity model correction (Kennett et al., 1995) (Fig. 5). Results show that the shallowing of the 410 km discontinuity (Fig. 5a, blue rectangle region) and the deepening of the 660 km

discontinuity (Fig. 5b, blue rectangle region) correspond to the location of the SSBHV. Finally, the thickness of the MTZ is extracted by used two kind velocity model corrections (Lu et al., 2019; He and Santosh, 2020) (Fig. 6). Results indicate that the thinning region of the MTZ (blue rectangle region) corresponding to the SSBHV (Fig. 2, Fig. 3 and Fig. 6).

Seismic studies has reported the 410 km discontinuity has positive Clapeyron slope, whereas that of the 660 km discontinuity has negative Clapeyron slope due to the phase change (e.g., van der Meijde et al., 2005; Bina and Helffrich, 1994). When the temperature decreased, the depth of the 410 km discontinuity respond to a shallowing topography, whereas that of the 660 km discontinuity reflect a deepening topography. Therefore, the thinning region of the MZT might be imprint of the subducted slab.

4. Subducted oceanic lithosphere of the Paleo-Tethys

The Ailaoshan suture is a Paleo-Tethys suture (Metcalf, 2013), and the amalgamation time of the suture is ca. 245 Ma (Reid et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2015), which nearly overlaps with the formation time of the ELIP. Geological studies have indicated that the ELIP was cut by several strike-slip faults due to the latest phase of orogeny, particularly the Red River Fault (or Ailaoshan suture) (Wang et al. 1998; Leloup et al. 1995) (Fig. 1, the Red River Fault located in the inner zone of the ELIP). These changes led to the transport of a number of fragments in the western part of the ELIP several hundred kilometers to the southeast, including the terranes that are now exposed in northwestern Vietnam and

176 nearby regions (Wang et al. 1998; Leloup et al. 1995). Accordingly, the formation of the
177 ELIP likely occurred later than the closure of the Paleo-Tethys Ocean and may have been
178 linked to the closure of the Paleo-Tethys Ocean.

179
180 The Sanjiang Tethys zone of China (Fig. 1) belongs to the eastern Tethyan tectonic
181 belt, including the Ailaoshan suture (or Red River Fault), which retains the tectonic
182 evolutionary vestige of the Tethyan tectonic belt in Southeast Asia within the convergent
183 plate margin (Deng et al., 2014; Zi et al., 2012; Fan et al., 2010). This belt evolved through
184 the subduction of the oceanic plate and the process of continent–continent collision (Mo et
185 al., 2001; Metcalfe, 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2012). In particular, the
186 Paleo-Tethyan Ocean plate subducted beneath the Eurasian plate, accompanied by
187 Paleo-Tethyan Ocean closure during the Paleozoic–Mesozoic (Hou et al., 2007; Hennig et
188 al., 2009; Chatterjee et al., 2012; Mo et al., 1998; Song et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2018; Xu
189 et al., 2019).

190
191 Thus, the subducted SSBHV identified by tomography (Figs. 2B) might belong to a
192 subducted OLPT. Although some workers suggest the possibility that the subducted
193 Indian plate contributes SSBHV (Huang et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2018; Lei et al., 2019),
194 geological, geochronological and tectonic investigations indicate that the
195 northeastward-subducted slab in this area is mainly related to the Paleo-Tethys tectonic
196 domain rather than the Indian plate (Weislogel, 2008; Liu and Xia, 2015; L Zhang et al.,
197 2007; iu and Xia, 2015; Peng et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2000). Moreover, the Indian plate

mainly subducted or moved northward, which is different from the subducted direction of the SSBHV defined by the present study. Specially, the extensive distribution of the later Paleozoic-Mesozoic igneous rocks in the Sanjiang Tethys region (Zhang et al., 2007; Weislogel, 2008; Liu and Xia, 2015; Liu and Xia, 2015; Peng et al., 2013) that might be linked to the subducted slab, which further demonstrates the subducted slab might belong to the OLPT.

5. Return flow and upwelling of the mantle

In assembled plate marginal regions, oceanic plates (lithospheric) subducted into the MTZ, resulting in a return flow or upwelling of mantle (Zhao and Ohtani, 2009; Santosh et al., 2010; Garfunkel, 1975), forming convective circulation in the upper mantle that leads to strong and extensive crust-mantle interactions (or melting of such metasomatized mantle) and magmatic activities (Kou et al., 2012; Wilson, 1989). Kincaid et al. (2013) reported the results of a mantle upwelling simulation in a subduction zone and indicated that the subducting slab can generate large-scale mantle flow. Multiline studies also suggested that some typical flood basalt provinces might be generated by subduction processes (Strak and Schellart, 2018), such as the Siberian Traps large igneous province (e.g., Ivanov and Litasov, 2013; Ivanov et al., 2008) and Columbia River flood basalts (e.g., Cabato et al., 2015; Stefano et al., 2011).

Large-scale low-velocity anomalies (Lv1) in the ELIP is just above the OLPT, which

most likely belong to the vestiges of the return flow of the mantle (or mantle upwelling) induced by the subducted OLPT (Fig. 2B). If it that is right, the subducted OLPT or return flow of the mantle might have played a key role in the formation of the ELIP (Fig. 7).

Recent geochemical and petrological studies also indicated that interaction between the mantle upwelling and the subduction system of the Paleo-Tethyan in the ELIP (Xu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2019), which do not exclude the northeastward subduction of the OLPT along the Sanjiang Tethys zone (Liu et al., 2000) led to the mantle upwelling.

6. Conclusions

Tomography and CCP stacking of receiver functions demonstrated that there is a remnant of the Paleo-Tethyan lithosphere that subducted northeastward or beneath the ELIP along the Sanjiang Tethys zone accompanied by Paleo-Tethyan Ocean closure. The subduction of the Paleo-Tethyan Plate can generate return flow or upwelling of the mantle, which may have played a key role in ELIP formation. Meanwhile, interesting findings show that a subducted slab can lead to a split 410 km discontinuity and 660 km discontinuities, whereas the low velocity anomaly can enhance the X-discontinuity, which is the first such discovery in the geoscience field.

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502
503 **Additional information**

504 Competing Interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

Electronic supplementary material

Supplementary Information

Figure captions:

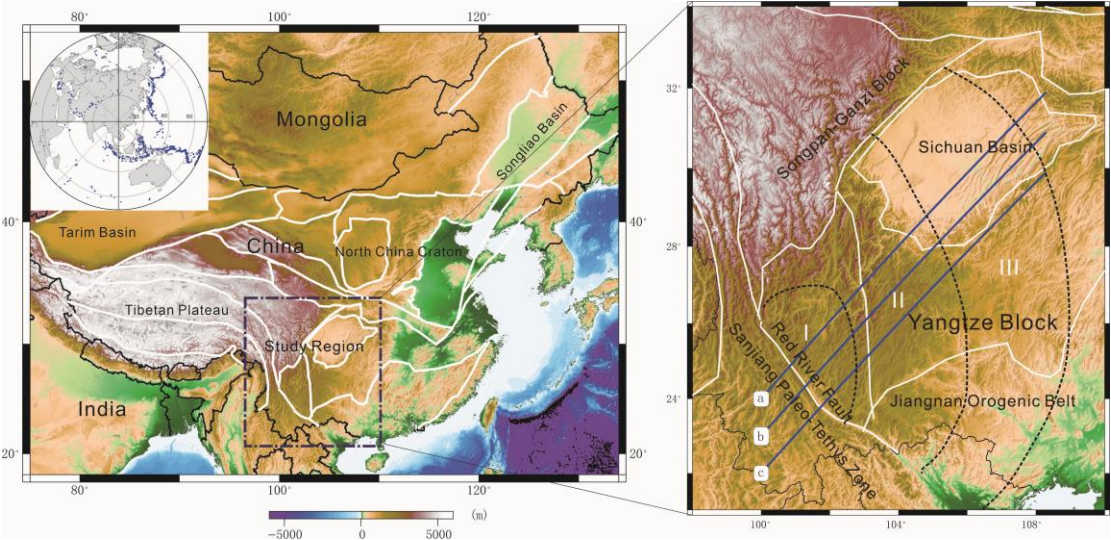


Fig. 1. The location of the study region. White lines: tectonic boundaries; black triangles: seismic stations; black dotted lines: boundaries of the inner, middle and outer zones of the ELIP (I: inner zone; II: middle zone; III: outer zone); blue lines: overlapping profiles of P-wave velocity perturbations and CCP stacking of receiver functions. Upper corner of left panel (insert figure): distribution of teleseismic events collected from the China Earthquake Network in this study, which yields reasonable coverage at the different azimuthal angles.

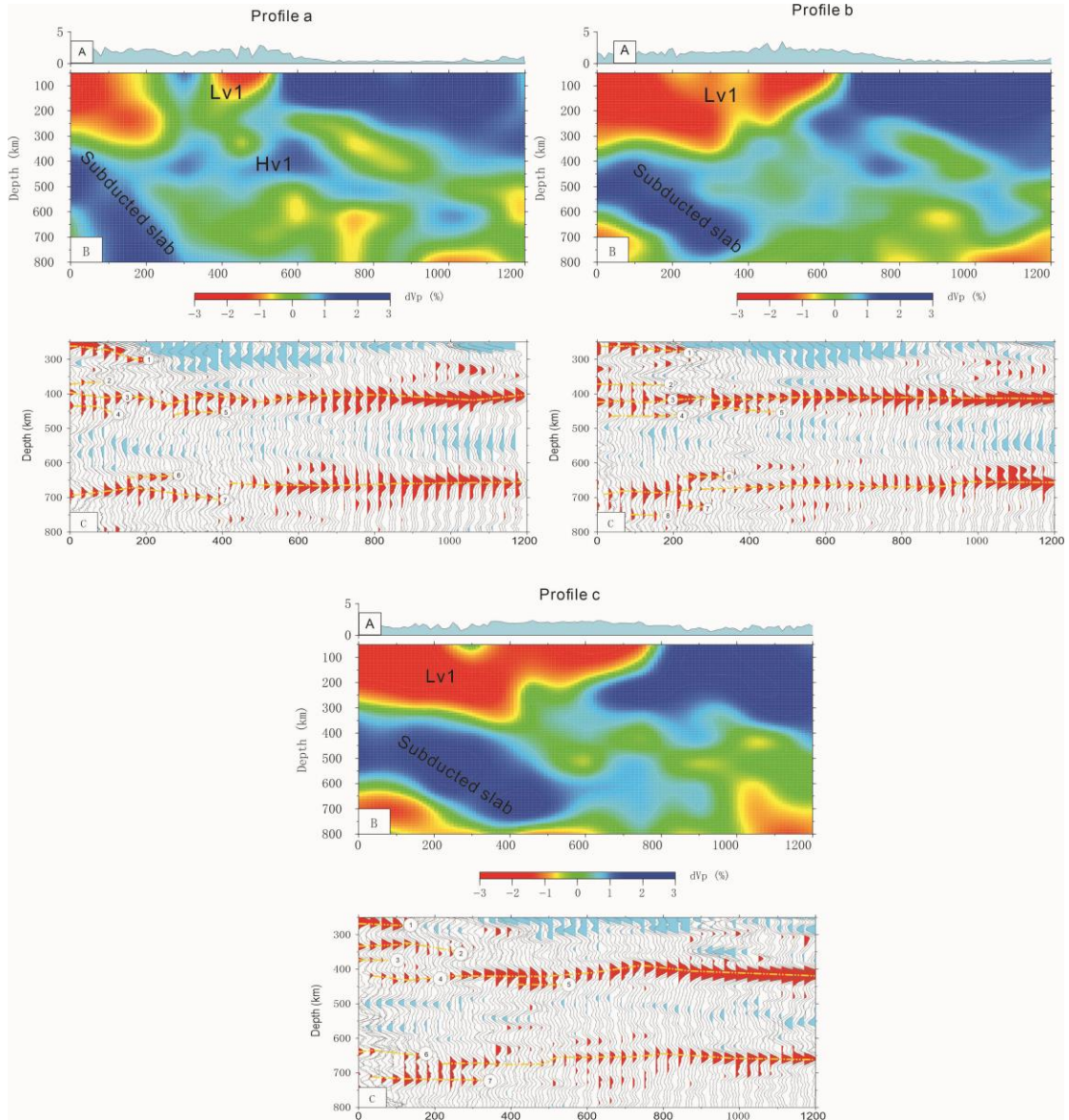


Fig. 2. Profile a, b and c (location of the profiles, see Fig. 1). A: topographic profile; B: P-wave velocity perturbation profile (He and Santosh, 2020); C: CCP stacking of receiver function profile. The bootstrapping method is used to calculate the stacked amplitudes (resampling 2000 times in the dataset), and the 95% confidence level is used to calculate the final mean receiver functions (middle lines). ①: X-discontinuity; ②, ③, ④ and ⑤: split 410 km discontinuity; ⑥, ⑦ and ⑧: split 660 km discontinuity or deepening 660 km discontinuity.

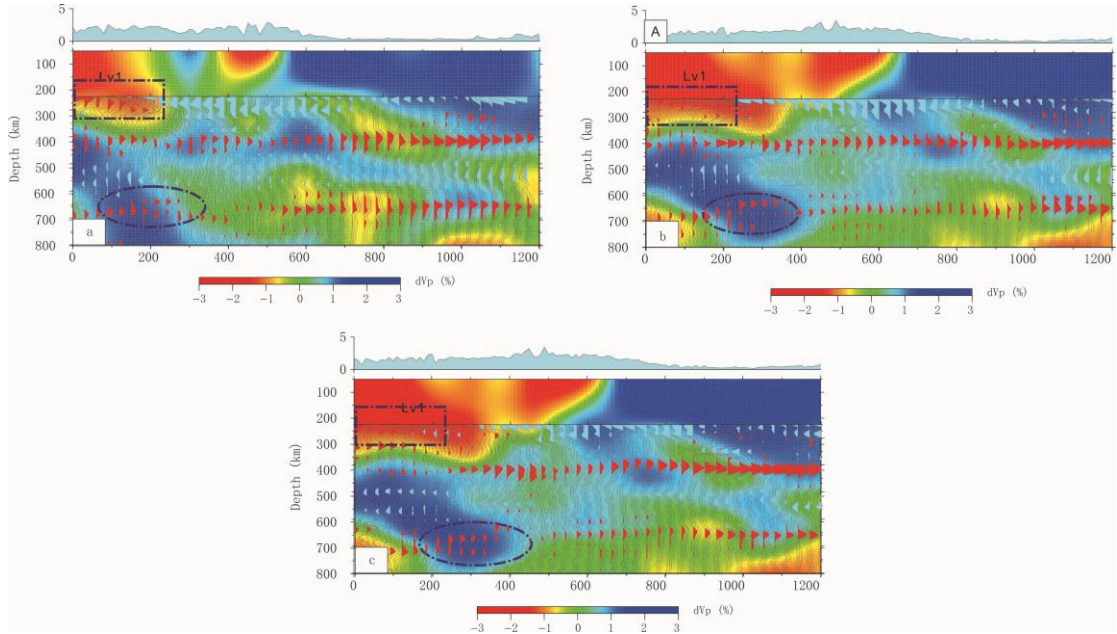
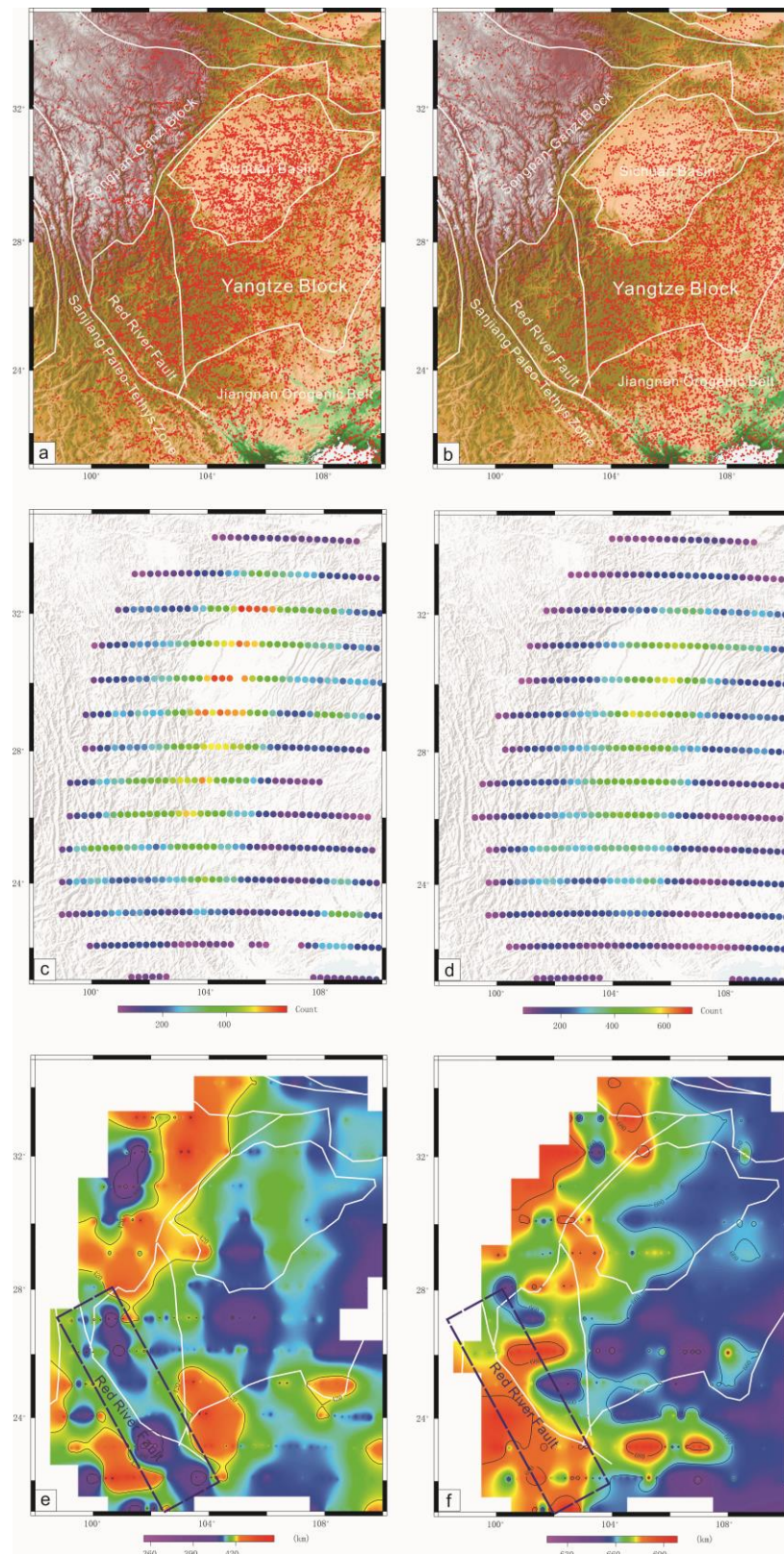


Fig. 3. Profile a, b and c. Composite picture of the CCP stacking of receiver functions and P-wave velocity perturbation. The deepening of the 660 km discontinuity or split 660 km discontinuity corresponding to the location of the subducted slab (the region within the blue ellipse). X-discontinuity corresponding to the location of the low-velocity anomaly (Lv1) (the region within the blue rectangle). Horizontal coordinate: km.



532

533 Fig. 4. Topographies of the 410 and 660 km discontinuities. Piercing points at 410 km

534 depth (a) and 660 km depth (b), red point: piercing points. CCP stacking points of mean

535 receiver function at 410 km discontinuity (c) and 660 km discontinuity (d), sample point:

the latitudinal interval is 25 km and longitudinal interval is 1° , the bootstrapping method is used to calculate the stacked amplitudes (resampling 2000 times in the dataset), and the 95% confidence level is used to calculate the final mean receiver functions and the number of stacking amplitude points is greater than 60 (c and d). Depths of the 410 km discontinuity (e) and 660 km discontinuity (f), which have been corrected on the basis of a global 3-D local velocity model (Lu et al., 2019).

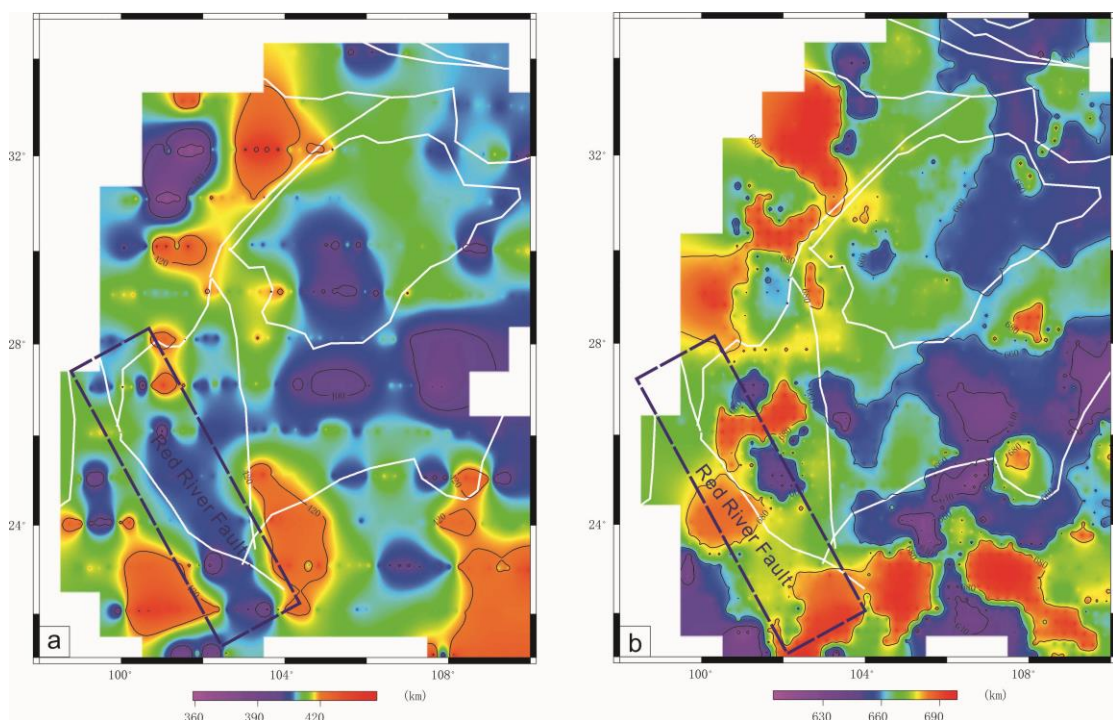


Fig. 5. Topography of 410 km discontinuity (a) and 660 km discontinuity, which have been corrected on the basis of a local 3-D local velocity model (He and Santosh, 2020). The bootstrapping method is used to calculate the stacked amplitudes (resampling 2000 times in the dataset), and the 95% confidence level is used to calculate the final mean receiver functions and the number of stacking amplitude points is greater than 60. Sample point: the latitudinal interval is 25 km and longitudinal interval is 1° .

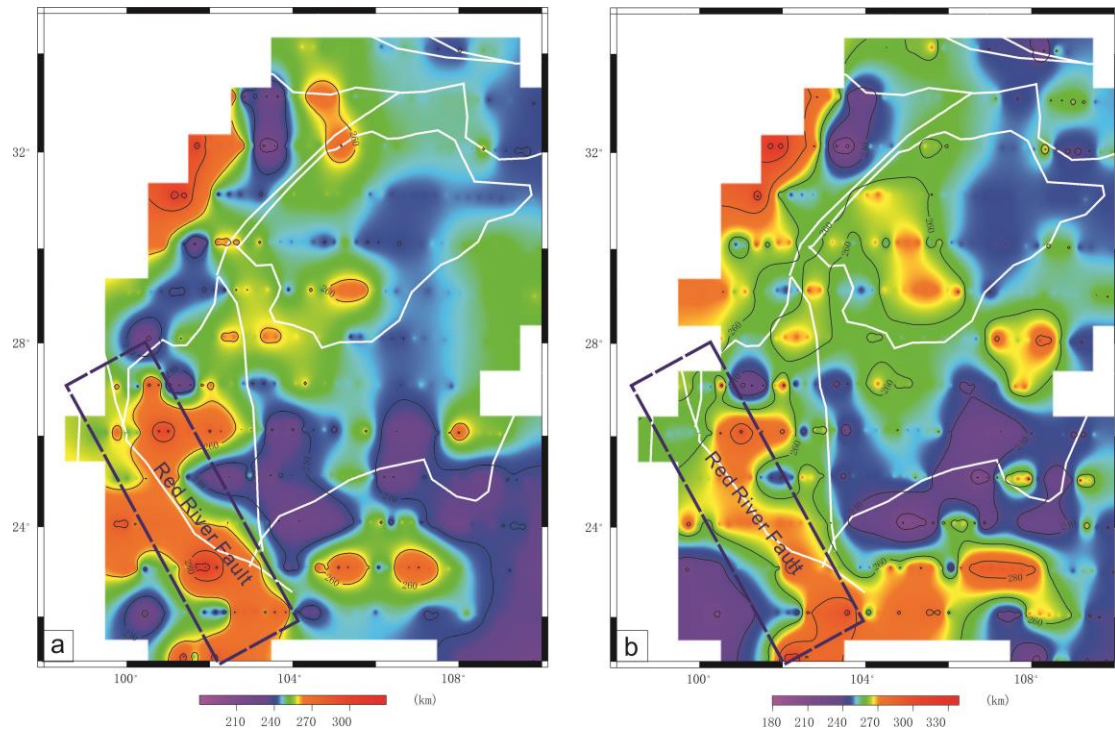


Fig. 6. Thickness of the MTZ extracted from a global 3-D velocity model (Lu et al., 2019) (a) and the thickness of the MTZ extracted from a local 3-D velocity model (He and Santosh, 2020) (b). The bootstrapping method is used to calculate the stacked amplitudes (resampling 2000 times in the dataset), and the 95% confidence level is used to calculate the final mean receiver functions and the number of stacking amplitude points is greater than 60. Sample point: the latitudinal interval is 25 km and longitudinal interval is 1°.

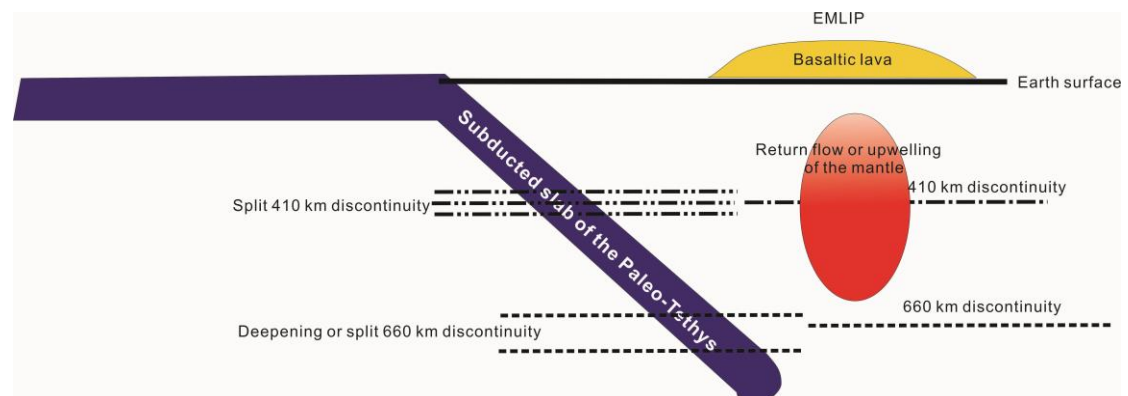


Fig. 7. Sketch of the model for the subducted OLPT, which might induce large-scale return flow or upwelling of the mantle and lead to the formation of the ELIP.