

The Late Cenozoic Climatic and Tectonic Evolution of the
Mount Everest Region, Central Himalaya

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Approved June 2017 by the
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August 2017

ABSTRACT

The collision of India and Eurasia constructed the Himalayan Mountains. Questions remain regarding how subsequent exhumation by climatic and tectonic processes shaped the landscape throughout the Late Cenozoic to create the complex architecture observed today. The Mount Everest region underwent tectonic denudation by extension and bestrides one of the world's most significant rain shadows. Also, glacial and fluvial processes eroded the Everest massif over shorter timescales. In this work, I review new bedrock and detrital thermochronological and geochronological data and both one- and two-dimensional thermal-mechanical modeling that provides insights on the age range and rates of tectonic and erosional processes in this region.

A strand of the South Tibetan detachment system (STDS), a series of prominent normal-sense structures that dip to the north and strike along the Himalayan spine, is exposed in the Rongbuk valley near Everest. Using thermochronometric techniques, thermal-kinematic modeling, and published (U-Th)/Pb geochronology, I show exhumation rates were high (~3-4 mm/a) from at least 20 to 13 Ma because of slip on the STDS. Subsequently, exhumation rates dropped drastically to ≤ 0.5 mm/a and remain low today. However, thermochronometric datasets and thermal-kinematic modeling results from Nepal south of Everest reveal a sharp transition in cooling ages and exhumation rates across a major knickpoint in the river profile, corresponding to the modern-day Himalayan rainfall transition. To the north of this transition, exhumation histories are similar to those in Tibet. Conversely, < 3 km south of the transition, exhumation rates were relatively low until the Pliocene, when they increased to ~4 mm/a before slowing at ~3 Ma. Such contrasting exhumation histories over a short distance suggest that bedrock

exhumation rates correlate with modern precipitation patterns in deep time, however, there are competing interpretations regarding this correlation.

My work also provides insights regarding how processes of glacial erosion act in a glacio-fluvial valley north of Everest. Integrated laser ablation U/Pb and (U-Th)/He dating of detrital zircon from fluvial and moraine sediments reveal sourcing from distinctive areas of the catchment. In general, the glacial advances eroded material from lower elevations, while the glacial outwash system carries material from higher elevations.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to all of the families affected by the April 2015 Gorkha earthquake in Nepal.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation would not have been possible without the help and support of my family and friends from both ASU and around the world. The past four and a half years have been an adventure in every sense of the word.

Thank you to Kip Hodges for accepting me as a student and for all your support. The learning curve was a steep one, but I was able to succeed with your patience and encouragement. Thank you for all you have taught me and for being such a steadfast supporter of women in science. Thanks also to the rest of my committee: Kelin Whipple, Steven Semken, Arjun Heimsath, and Christy Till for your wonderful guidance and mentorship. I must give a special thanks to Kelin for the many helpful and insightful discussions about my data, geothermal gradients, and knickpoints. A special thank you also must be given to Steven Semken. Your enthusiastic support for ASU and its students is astounding and your work will forever inspire me.

I would also like to give a big thank you to Matthijs van Soest, Jo-Anne Wartho, and Chris McDonald for their wonderful mentorship in the laboratories. All of you patiently helped me with analyses and participated in many informative discussions about my results. Thank you to Michelle Aigner for teaching me how to use the lab equipment, being my dissolution buddy, and for many wonderful discussions about science, music, and life.

Many thanks go to Todd Ehlers for teaching me about thermo-kinematic modeling and being so helpful and supportive half a world away and to Byron Adams, Adam Forte, and Cameron Mercer for their advice regarding *Matlab* codes and numerical methods.

Fieldwork in the Himalaya requires a lot of careful organization and planning. Many thanks go to Ding Lin (Chinese Academy of Geosciences), Ross Waldrip (University of Arizona), Paul Kapp (University of Arizona), and our guides and drivers for their excellent logistical assistance in Tibet. Thanks to Nathaniel Borneman for helping me get through my short bout of altitude sickness. Many thanks also to Bhim Chand and Bir Tamang of Earth's Paradise Trekking and Expeditions for organizing our fantastic fieldwork trek in Nepal.

A tremendous thanks to the National Science Foundation for funding my research in the form of Tectonics division grants EAR1007929 and EAR1346360 to my advisor, Kip Hodges.

Many thanks to Alexandra Horne, my seven sister. Thank you for being such an amazing field assistant in Nepal and partaking in rebooked flights and visas, 500 rummy, boiled potatoes, tingly fingers and toes, Mars chocolate pie, yaks, hummocky moraines, and all that came with the Himalaya.

I could not thank my current and past fellow research group members and colleagues enough: Alex, Alka, Alyssa, Anna, Byron, Cameron, Chris, Frances, Kelsey, Nate, Pye, Wendy, and all the folks in 603, you are all the reason why completing this dissertation was possible. Thank you thank you thank for all your encouragement and support through this process.

Finally, thank you to my incredible mother, Kathy, my father TC, Elizabeth, and Cee. You believed in me and have supported me every step of the way. I also owe so much to my fur-babies, Emm, Josie, and Leonard for the many cozy cuddles.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1. Motivation

The Himalayan Mountains were built by intense uplift following the collision of two continents, India and Eurasia. Climatic and tectonic forces have acted in concert, particularly over the last 20 million years, to develop the complex architecture of one of the world's younger ranges. Although much recent work has been done to study the modern-day interactions of these processes, understanding how Himalayan climate and tectonics have shaped landscape over longer timescales throughout the Late Cenozoic remains ambiguous. The Mount Everest region that straddles the border of eastern Nepal and south-central Tibet in the central Himalaya provides a unique opportunity to study a variety of these processes in detail. For example, the central Himalaya exhibit one of the most profound rain shadows in the world and questions remain regarding how long this rainfall pattern has existed and whether or not it is correlated with the modern-day precipitation pattern. Moreover, south-central Tibet underwent tectonic denudation by normal faulting, the magnitude and significance of which has generated considerable scientific discussion over the past few decades. On shorter timescales, glaciers have eroded the highest elevations, carving out well-defined peaks, depositing moraines, and eventually establishing modern-day glacio-fluvial systems. How these processes have acted in space in time to erode glacial catchments of the High Himalaya has not been quantified. In the following chapters, I review new bedrock and detrital thermochronological and geochronological data and both one- and two-dimensional

thermal-mechanical modeling that provides insights on the age range and rates of tectonic and erosional processes in the Everest region, as well as whether or not the modern precipitation pattern associated with the Himalayan rain shadow may have extended back in time and influenced erosion patterns over several million years.

The structurally highest feature of the Himalayan orogenic wedge is a north-dipping, low-angle extensional fault system called the South Tibetan detachment system (STDS) that is exposed at the crest of the range and can be traced across the majority of the range (e.g., Hodges, 2000). The significance of the STDS in the Miocene tectonic evolution of the Himalaya remains hotly debated. Some workers argue that the STDS accommodated tens to hundreds of kilometers of displacement and acted as the top boundary of a southward extruding channel containing the metamorphic core of the Himalaya, aided with the extreme precipitation from the Indian summer monsoon (ISM) on the southern flank of the range (Nelson et al., 1996; Beaumont et al., 2001; Hodges et al., 2001; Grujic et al., 2002). Others insist that the STDS was a former thrust system that reactivated as a normal fault and displaced no more than a few kilometers (Yin, 2013; Webb et al., 2007; Webb, 2013). The Mount Everest region in south-central Tibet offers a unique opportunity to study the slip history of this structure due to the spectacular exposure of the STDS footwall rocks. By the combination of thermochronological dating of footwall rocks and 1- and preliminary 2-D thermal-kinematic modeling, we determined that the minimum total displacement on the STDS in the Everest region from *ca.* 20 to 13 Ma was *ca.* 61 to 289 km, suggesting that the STDS was a defining structure in the tectonic evolution of the Miocene Himalaya.

Our thermal-kinematic results from the southern Tibetan plateau indicate the majority of rapid exhumation took place during slip on the STDS during the Miocene and any exhumation subsequent to *ca.* 13 Ma was low (≤ 0.5 mm/a) due to background erosion on the plateau. In contrast, the steep southern flank of the range exposes some of the highest modern-day erosion rates. Observations concerning present-day erosion in the Himalaya are generally consistent with data from the NASA/JAXA (Japan Aerospace Agency)'s joint Tropical Rainfall Measurement Mission (TRMM) that reveal a stark rain shadow existing across the ranges of the central Himalaya, with the rapidly eroding regions on the southern flank of the range receiving up to four meters of rainfall per year, while the southern Tibetan plateau with very low background erosion sees less than half a meter of rainfall annually. How far back in time the Himalayan rain shadow existed, however, remains uncertain. Previous studies have shown that exhumation rates north and south of the rainfall transition are uniform, with no change in rates across the precipitation gradient (Burbank et al., 2003; Blythe et al., 2007; McDermott, 2012). These studies, however, were all conducted along major Transhimalayan rivers with sources on the Tibetan plateau and that display extreme knickpoints in the river profile as they cross the range crest, their grand valleys possibly enabling large monsoon storms to track farther to the north (Barros et al., 2006). A transect across Mount Everest avoids this potential issue and indeed, we observed a sharp change in exhumation rates not at the top of the range crest, as proposed by Carrapa et al. (2016), but well to the south of the range crest, at the location of the major rainfall transition itself. To the north of this transition, cooling ages and exhumation histories were similar to our results from Chapter 2, with relatively high exhumation rates from at least *ca.* 20 to 13 Ma and very low

exhumation rates thereafter. In contrast, exhumation histories to the south of the rainfall change are relatively low throughout the Miocene until *ca.* 5 to 4 Ma, when they abruptly increase before relaxing slightly at *ca.* 3 Ma. The acute transition we observe in our cooling ages and modeled exhumation histories at the location of the rainfall transition suggests that the rainfall pattern has retained stability since at least the Pliocene and that bedrock exhumation has mimicked this pattern over millennial timescales.

In addition to tectonic denudation and precipitation, erosion due to glaciers has been crucial in shaping the spectacular topography of the Himalaya. Numerous studies have described and dated Himalayan glacial moraine deposits (Benn et al., 2002; Finkel et al., 2003; Gayer et al., 2006; Barnard et al., 2006; Owen et al., 2009); however, the spatial and temporal variations in Himalayan glacial erosion over long timescales have not yet been quantified unlike the glacial-fluvial systems of other orogens (Stock et al., 2006; Tranel et al., 2011; Ehlers et al., 2015; Enkelmann and Ehlers, 2015). We use geologic mapping of the Rongbuk glacial catchment in the Everest region, as well as the recently developed laser ablation U/Pb and (U-Th)/He double dating (LADD) technique on detrital zircons, to provide insight to how the erosive mechanisms of glaciers differ from those of the modern fluvial system. The results suggest that sediment from the modern fluvial system is sourced from much higher elevations than the glacial moraine material, implying that glacial and fluvial erosive processes act on distinctively different parts of a catchment.

2. Outline of Chapters 2-5

In Chapter 2, we constrain the Miocene slip history of the South Tibetan detachment system in the Rongbuk valley of south-central Tibet in the Everest region through a combination of low-temperature thermochronometric datasets consisting of muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ step heating, zircon (U-Th)/He (ZrnHe), and apatite (U-Th)/He (ApHe) and 1-D thermal and thermal-kinematic modeling. The thermochronologic cooling ages show no variation down the dip-direction of the fault and 1-D thermal modeling results suggest rapid cooling of the detachment's footwall occurred between *ca.* 15.5 and 11 Ma. We interpret the sharp decrease in modeled exhumation rates (*ca.* 3 mm/a to ≤ 0.5 mm/a) from *ca.* 15.4 to 13 Ma to indicate brittle displacement following ductile slip. We estimate that between *ca.* 61 to 289 km of total displacement occurred on the STDS during the Miocene in this area, suggesting that the STDS played a significant role in Himalayan tectonic evolution.

In Chapter 3, we use new thermochronometric datasets from the Dzakar Chu and Ra Chu (two valleys to the north of the Rongbuk valley), our published data from Chapter 2 (Schultz et al., 2017), and the more sophisticated 2-D thermal-kinematic modeling software package *Pecube* (Braun, 2003; Braun et al., 2012) to expand our understanding slip history of the STDS and to determine the appropriateness of the simpler 1-D modeling methodology we employed in Chapter 2. The amount of total displacement on the STDS from 2-D thermal-kinematic modeling is *ca.* 167 to 338 km, which agrees with the estimates from Chapter 2. We suggest that for rapidly exhuming orogenic environments, 1-D thermal-kinematic modeling methods are adequate.

Chapter 4 explores the longevity of the Himalayan rain shadow using data of the NASA/Japan Aerospace Agency's Tropical Rainfall Measurement Mission (TRMM), our thermochronologic and 1-D thermal-kinematic modeling results from Chapter 2, and additional 1-D thermal-kinematic modeling of new muscovite and biotite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and zircon and apatite (U-Th)/He datasets from the Khumbu region in eastern Nepal south of the range crest. Thermochronologic data and 1-D model results reveal a sharp transition in both cooling ages and exhumation rate histories across a major knickpoint in the Dudh Kosi river profile, well to the south of the range crest. This transition, occurring over the distance of only a few kilometers, also corresponds with the modern-day rainfall transition, suggesting that the Himalayan rain shadow has held its present pattern since at least the Pliocene.

In Chapter 5, we examine and compare various glacial erosional processes acting on the Rongbuk valley using our bedrock zircon (U-Th)/He results from Chapter 2 as well as new detrital zircon (U-Th)/He and U/Pb datasets from sediment of a Holocene moraine and material from the modern-day fluvial outwash system. Detrital zircon (U-Th)/He and U/Pb results indicate that glacial moraine and outwash processes contrast in both space and time in a catchment, with the glacial moraine eroding material from lower elevations and the modern outwash system source region being much higher in elevation.

Chapter 6 provides a synthesis of the previous chapters and discusses valuable future work.

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CHAPTER 2

THERMOCHRONOLOGIC CONSTRAINTS ON THE SLIP HISTORY OF THE SOUTH TIBETAN DETACHMENT SYSTEM IN THE EVEREST REGION, SOUTHERN TIBET

1. Abstract

North-dipping, low-angle normal faults of the South Tibetan detachment system (STDS) are tectonically important features of the Himalayan-Tibetan orogenic system. The STDS is best exposed in the N-S-trending Rongbuk Valley in southern Tibet, where the primary strand of the system – the Qomolangma detachment – can be traced down dip from the summit of Everest for a distance of over 30 km. The metamorphic discontinuity across this detachment implies a large net displacement, with previous studies suggesting >200 km of slip. Here we refine those estimates through thermal-kinematic modeling of new (U-Th)/He and $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ data from deformed footwall leucogranites. While previous studies focused on the early ductile history of deformation along the detachment, our data provide new insights regarding the brittle-ductile to brittle slip history. Thermal modeling results generated with the program *QTQt* indicate rapid, monotonic cooling from muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ closure (*ca.* 15.4 – 14.4 Ma at *ca.* 490°C) to zircon (U-Th)/He closure (*ca.* 14.3 – 11.0 Ma at *ca.* 200°C), followed by slower cooling to apatite (U-Th)/He closure at *ca.* 9 – 8 Ma (at *ca.* 70°C). Although previous work has suggested that ductile slip on the detachment lasted only until *ca.* 15.6 Ma, thermal-kinematic modeling of our new data suggests that rapid (*ca.* 3-4 km/Ma) tectonic exhumation by brittle-ductile to brittle fault slip continued to at least *ca.* 13.0 Ma. Much lower modeled

exhumation rates (≤ 0.5 km/Ma) after *ca.* 13 Ma are interpreted to reflect erosional denudation rather than tectonic exhumation. Projection of fault-related exhumation rates backward through time suggests total slip of *ca.* 61 to 289 km on the Qomolangma detachment, with slightly more than a third of that slip occurring under brittle-ductile to brittle conditions.

2. Introduction

Regional-scale, low-angle normal fault ('detachment') systems are common features of extensional tectonic regimes such as the Basin and Range province of the North American Cordillera, but similar features are also found in convergent settings and their significance has proved to be controversial. One of the most impressive confirmed structures of this type is the South Tibetan detachment system (STDS), which crops out near the crest of the Himalaya in Bhutan, India, and Nepal over a distance of well over 1000 km along strike (Burchfiel et al., 1992; Hodges, 2000). Some researchers have argued that normal-sense displacement along the STDS has been one of the defining structural events of Himalayan evolution, enabling the southward extrusion of a thick, mid-crustal channel, over distances of well over 100 km, during the Miocene (Nelson et al., 1996; Beaumont et al., 2001; Hodges et al., 2001; Grujic et al., 2002). Others have instead argued that this structure is comparatively minor and was initiated simply as the upper bounding thrust fault of a tectonic wedge that subsequently accommodated at most a few tens of kilometers of normal-sense offset (Yin, 2006; Webb et al., 2007; Webb, 2013).

One way to objectively evaluate these competing hypotheses is to establish robust constraints on the total normal-sense offset across the STDS. Here we report the results of a study designed to contribute to this effort through medium- and low-temperature thermochronometry and thermal-kinematic modeling of the results. Specifically, we present new $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ muscovite (MsAr), (U-Th)/He zircon (ZrnHe), and (U-Th)/He apatite (ApHe) data for samples collected in the Rongbuk Valley, 28.063159°N 86.865197°E to 28.273212°N 86.805560°E, north of the Everest massif, in southern

Tibet (Figure 2.1). In this region, the principal strand of the STDS is called the Qomolangma detachment (Burchfiel et al., 1992). Exposures of Qomolangma detachment footwall metamorphic and igneous rocks in this valley are among the best and most continuous examples discovered thus far in the orogen. As a consequence, there have been many detailed studies of the structural, metamorphic, and igneous processes that took place in these rocks during an early (ductile) phase of Qomolangma detachment displacement in the early to middle Miocene (Hodges et al., 1992; 1998; Murphy and Harrison, 1999; Law et al., 2004, 2011; Jessup et al., 2006, 2008; Cottle et al., 2015a; Corthouts et al., 2016). The goal of this study has been to build upon these efforts by examining the younger exhumation history of the detachment footwall during the waning stages of fault slip.

3. The South Tibetan Detachment System in Rongbuk Valley

The structural architecture of the Himalaya is a south-facing orogenic wedge that developed subsequent to the initial collision between Greater India and Eurasia at ~50-55 Ma (Najman et al., 2010; van Hinsbergen et al., 2012). Its basic geology and structural development were reviewed by Hodges (2000), to which interested readers might turn for additional information. In the context of the wedge, the shallowly north-dipping STDS is an anomalous, topographically high structural feature, typically cropping out near the crest of the Himalaya and marking the top of the metamorphic core of the range. The core – referred to here as the Greater Himalayan sequence (GHS) – includes high-grade metasedimentary and metaigneous gneisses with lowermost Paleozoic-Neoproterozoic protolith ages and Indian provenance (Parrish and Hodges, 1996). In some places,

particularly at high structural levels, the intensity of Oligocene-Miocene amphibolite-granulite facies metamorphism was such that anatectic melting occurred (Le Fort, 1987), and mobilization of this melt led to the intrusion of leucogranitic bodies of a variety of sizes (Searle et al., 2010). In contrast, the STDS hanging wall comprises Cambrian and younger, unmetamorphosed or weakly metamorphosed strata deposited along the thinned northern continental margin of India prior to collision (Gaetani and Garzanti, 1991; Myrow et al., 2009).

Hanging wall and footwall rocks of the STDS are spectacularly exposed in the Rongbuk Valley of southern Tibet, which extends north from the foot of Mount Everest for about 35 km before opening to the more subdued topography of the Dzakar Chu drainage (Figure 2.1). Exposures of the STDS, while present on both the eastern and western sides of the valley, are more obvious on the east (Burchfiel et al., 1992). As part of the first reconnaissance work on the STDS in the Rongbuk Valley in the mid-1980's, Burchfiel and colleagues identified the principle strand of the detachment system as a low-angle ($< 15^\circ$ NE) brittle fault that they named the Qomolangma detachment. In the northern part of the valley, where it dips into the valley floor and is most accessible, the Qomolangma detachment is marked by a zone of fault breccia and gouge several meters thick and juxtaposes weakly metamorphosed to unmetamorphosed hanging wall rocks on mylonitized amphibolite facies metamorphic rocks and leucogranitic dikes and sills. Noting that descriptions of rocks making up the summit pyramid of Everest by Yin and Kuo, (1978) suggested a similarity with rocks above the detachment in the northern Rongbuk Valley, Burchfiel et al. (1992) postulated that the fault projected to the south from the floor of the Rongbuk Valley, up dip, to the summit pyramid, a distance of

roughly 34 km. Subsequent work confirmed that the Qomolangma detachment is indeed exposed on the north face of Everest at an elevation of ~ 8520 m (Sakai et al., 2005). In the Rongbuk Valley exposures, the immediate hanging wall rocks are fossiliferous, silty to relatively pure limestones of the Lower-Middle Ordovician Mt. Qomolangma Formation (Myrow et al., 2009), and similar lithologies dominate rock exposures on the summit pyramid of Everest (Searle et al., 2003; Sakai et al., 2005; Jessup et al., 2006; Corthouts et al., 2016). Brecciated hanging wall rocks above the detachment are cut by minor, high-angle, NNE-dipping normal faults that are truncated down dip by the detachment, while footwall rocks in the brittlely deformed zone contain numerous shear bands separating asymmetric boudins of footwall rocks (Burchfiel et al., 1992; Carosi et al., 1998). The asymmetry of these features indicates hanging wall-to-the-NNE brittle displacement on the Qomolangma detachment.

Although hanging wall rocks display similar characteristics all along the roughly displacement-parallel cross section of the Qomolangma detachment between Everest and the northern end of Rongbuk Valley, the same is not true of the footwall. On Everest, the immediate footwall of the Qomolangma detachment comprises marbles, as well as calcareous metapsammites and metapelites, of the ‘Yellow Band’, a distinctive unit frequently described in the mountaineering literature (Figure 2.1). The rocks of the Yellow Band and underlying schists, metapsammites, and metaquartzites of the North Col Formation – sometimes less formally referred to as the Everest Series – are part of a coherent Cambrian stratigraphic sequence recognized along most of the length of the Himalaya (Myrow et al., 2009). The Mt. Qomolangma Formation and North Col Formation locally represent the structurally and stratigraphically lowest components of

the succession often referred to throughout the Himalaya as the Tibetan sedimentary sequence (e.g., Hodges, 2000). On Everest, the North Col Formation units overlay Precambrian high-grade metasedimentary units (pelitic, psammitic, and carbonaceous) that have been intruded by a complicated network of predominantly Miocene leucogranitic dikes, sills, and plutons (Yin and Kuo, 1978; Burchfiel et al., 1992; Carosi et al., 1998, 1999; Searle, 1999; Searle et al., 2003). Here as elsewhere in the Himalaya, these rocks are typically assigned to the Greater Himalayan tectonostratigraphic sequence (e.g., Hodges, 2000). In this contribution, we follow the convention of Burchfiel et al. (1992) in referring to these rocks as exposed in the Rongbuk Valley collectively as an ‘injection complex’ (Figure 2.1).

Several authors (e.g., Lombardo et al., 1993; Pognante and Benna, 1993; Carosi et al., 1998, 1999; Searle, 1999) have interpreted the sharp, N-dipping contact at the base of the North Col Formation as a second, structurally deeper extensional shear zone. In the interpretation of Searle (1999), this inferred structure – which he referred to as the Lhotse detachment – is the basal strand of the South Tibetan detachment system in the Everest area, and the Qomolangma detachment is a hanging wall splay from it. However, the contact at the base of the North Col Formation has not been studied in detail on the Everest massif and has not been confirmed to have ductile or brittle fabrics along it that would support its interpretation as a detachment. Observations on the north side of Everest have shown that this contact – whatever its structural significance – dips northward more shallowly than the Qomolangma detachment, such that the Qomolangma detachment cuts out the North Col Formation rocks entirely near the northern end of the Rongbuk Valley and places Mt. Qomolangma Formation carbonates directly on to the

injection complex as mapped by Burchfiel et al. (1992), Carosi et al. (1998), and Jessup et al. (2008). Although we follow Searle (1999) and Jessup et al. (2008) in showing exposures of the Lhotse detachment in the upper Rongbuk Valley on Figure 2.1 for the sake of consistency with earlier published maps, direct evidence for the existence of the Lhotse detachment has not been found in the Rongbuk Valley.

Wherever the structural geology of the North Col Formation or injection complex beneath the brittle Qomolangma detachment has been studied in the valley, both units display conspicuous mylonitic fabrics up to at least 1000 m-thick (Carosi et al., 1998); these fabrics are universally interpreted as having developed as a consequence of STDS extensional displacement (Figure 2.3). They include well-developed mineral and stretching lineations and S-C fabrics indicative of a significant component of top-to-the-NNE simple shear deformation (Burchfiel et al., 1992), although subsequent, more detailed studies have shown that these rocks were deformed through general shear during tectonic denudation related to slip on the STDS (Law et al., 2004; Jessup et al., 2006). Law et al. (2011) presented the results of a detailed study of microstructures and quartz c-axis fabrics in which they inferred a substantial, extension-related telescoping of isotherms in the footwall based on quartz fabric opening angles.

Of particular significance for interpreting the thermochronologic data presented below, Law et al. (2011) estimated a deformation temperature of 625 ± 50 °C for one mylonitized sample collected ~ 420 m beneath the detachment near the mouth of Hermit's Gorge (Figure 2.1). This is the same locality where a sillimanite-grade pelitic schist sample was collected that has yielded the only published quantitative pressure and temperature estimates for Qomolangma detachment footwall rocks in the Rongbuk

Valley (Hodges et al., 1992) based on major element partitioning thermobarometry: *ca.* 630°C and 460 MPa. Collectively, these data suggest that the mylonitic fabrics found beneath the Qomolangma detachment near Hermit's Gorge developed at paleodepths of roughly 17 km (Hodges et al., 1992).

The initiation age and duration of slip on the Qomolangma detachment in the Everest region are actively debated. Most estimates are based on (U-Th)/Pb dates obtained for accessory minerals in the leucogranites of the injection complex, which exhibit field relationships suggesting that their intrusions into the detachment footwall occurred before, during, and after the development of mylonitic fabrics (Copeland et al., 1988; Hodges et al., 1992; 1998; Murphy and Harrison, 1999; Cottle et al., 2007; 2015b). Unfortunately, obtaining easily interpretable ages for these leucogranites based on their accessory mineral (U-Th)/Pb systematics has proven extremely difficult. These leucogranites are products of local anatexis of the Greater Himalayan sequence, and many contain accessory minerals, inherited from their proximal sources that are only a few million years older. Published dates range from *ca.* 20 Ma to *ca.* 15 Ma, with the most dominant population ranging from 16.8 ± 0.8 to 16.4 ± 0.1 Ma (Hodges et al., 1998; Murphy and Harrison, 1999; Cottle et al., 2015b). (Note that throughout this contribution, we cite geochronologic and thermochronologic uncertainties at 2σ .) A second important population of leucogranites, some of which contain mylonitic fabrics and some of which are undeformed and cut the mylonitic fabrics at high angles, yields dates from 15.6 ± 0.1 to 15.3 ± 0.1 Ma, which Cottle et al. (2015b) interpreted as indicating that cessation of ductile deformational activity on the STDS in the Rongbuk Valley occurred before 15.6 Ma. However, none of these young granites obviously crosscut the brittle Qomolangma

detachment, leaving open the possibility of significant brittle displacement on the detachment after intrusion of the youngest of this population of granites.

4. Exploring the Late-Stage Slip History of the Qomolangma Detachment

The juxtaposition of unmetamorphosed and weakly metamorphosed hanging wall rocks and amphibolite facies footwall rocks across the Qomolangma detachment suggests that the total displacement across the structure is much greater than the minimum of ~ 34 km required by the total hanging wall-footwall overlap observed in cross section (Burchfiel et al., 1992). The stratigraphic level of the Mt. Qomolangma Formation exposed in the immediate hanging wall of the detachment is essentially the same on Everest and at the northernmost outcrops of the detachment in the Rongbuk Valley. Similarly, although the detachment does cut out the North Col Formation down dip, prograde metamorphic pressures and temperatures of the detachment footwall constrained by thermobarometry are similar on Everest and at the mouth of Hermit's Gorge, roughly 18 km to the north (Figure 2.1; Hodges et al., 1992; Jessup et al., 2008). Such observations demonstrate that the detachment occupies approximately the same structural level in both the hanging wall and footwall wherever it is exposed. Coupled with the present-day low ($\leq 15^\circ$) dip of the detachment, this means that the structure has not been appreciably rotated since its development (Figure 2.2). Thus, the net displacement on the structure can be estimated from trigonometry from its current dip and its tectonostratigraphic throw, the latter of which is calculated using the amount of vertical exhumation of the footwall during detachment slip.

One example of such an estimate was obtained by Searle et al. (2003), who calculated total slip amounts between 90 and 216 km (depending on different assumptions for the regional dip on the detachment: 10° and 5°, respectively) based on thermobarometrically constrained metamorphic depths of the footwall rocks. Subsequently, Law et al. (2011) estimated slip of between 25 and 170 km using particle path models based on the apparent telescoping of synkinematic isotherms during ductile deformation. As noted by Law et al. (2011), the latter set of estimates largely refer to the portion of offset accommodated by ductile deformation, whereas the higher values estimated by Searle et al. (2003) refer to the total offset and include both ductile and brittle deformation. An important goal of our low-temperature thermochronometric work has been to determine to what extent the differences between these estimates might be explained by transitional ductile-brittle and brittle faulting along the Qomolangma detachment.

4.1. Research Strategy

One of the most effective ways to explore the thermal history of an orogenic environment is the application of isotopic thermochronometers to a single sample or a single structural horizon. Many lithologies from the Qomolangma footwall are amenable to such studies, particularly the leucogranites, which contain a wide variety of major and accessory minerals. For this study, we collected eight deformed and undeformed leucogranite samples along a transect east of, and just above, the valley floor, over a distance of ~ 8.7 km roughly parallel to the dip direction of the Qomolangma detachment (Figure 2.2). The southernmost sample (R01), collected near the mouth of Hermit's

Gorge (Figures 1.2 and 2.2), is from an outcrop roughly 800 m beneath the projection of the Qomolangma detachment, whereas the northernmost sample (R08) is from roughly 300 m beneath the fault. Our strategy was to determine dates for the MsAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe thermochronometric systems, which have nominal closure temperatures (assuming a cooling rate of 10°C/Ma) of *ca.* 490°C (Harrison et al., 2009), *ca.* 170°C (Reiners et al., 2004), and *ca.* 70°C (Farley, 2000) respectively. We then used this information to constrain the cooling and exhumation history of the detachment footwall. We were particularly interested in whether or not we would find down-dip variations in the dating results because such variations have been found in thermochronologic datasets from detachment footwalls in other tectonic settings (e.g., John and Foster, 1993; Stockli et al., 2001; Brady, 2002; Bricchau, 2004; Stockli, 2005; Evans et al., 2015). For our highest-temperature thermochronometer, we chose MsAr because the nominal closure temperature range for this chronometer overlaps with the low end of the 680-480°C range of deformation temperatures estimated for the Rongbuk mylonites by Law et al. (2011) based on quartz fabric opening angles. Collectively, the Law et al. (2011) dataset implies that our MsAr closure dates might roughly reflect the timing of the waning stages of ductile deformation. Lower-temperature ZrnHe and ApHe thermochronometers were anticipated to provide constraints on the thermal and kinematic evolution of these rocks subsequent to the cessation of ductile deformation. Unfortunately, when the mineral separates for all samples were examined, most were found to contain only very small (60 µm) apatites with abundant inclusions, which were thus not suitable for ApHe dating due to concerns regarding the large alpha ejection corrections needed for such small grain sizes (Farley et al., 1996) and the effects of inclusions on the (U-Th)/He systematics

(Vermeesch et al., 2007). As a consequence, we dated muscovite and zircon from all eight samples, but apatite from only two samples, R01 and R02. $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and (U-Th)/He analyses were performed at the Group 18 Laboratories at Arizona State University using procedures outlined in Appendix A.

5. Thermochronology Results and Age Interpretations

Muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ laser step-heating age spectra data for the Rongbuk samples can be found in Figures 2.4 and A1 and Table A1. All samples exhibited uncomplicated behavior and yielded statistically defined plateau dates ranging from 15.420 ± 0.050 Ma (R04) to 14.400 ± 0.060 (R05) Ma. There is no obvious correlation between the MsAr cooling age of a sample and the latitude at which it was collected or its structural distance below the detachment (Table 2.1).

As noted in the Supplementary Materials (Tables A2 and A3), several of our samples yielded (U-Th)/He zircon and apatite age datasets that are ‘over-dispersed’, meaning that their dispersion is greater than would be expected from analytical imprecision alone. For example, only two samples (R04 and R08) yielded inverse-variance weighted mean ZrnHe dates that are not overdispersed (Table 2.1 and Table A2). The remainder of the samples yielded over-dispersed (U-Th)/He results as defined by the mean squared weighted deviation (MSWD) of each dataset (Wendt and Carl, 1991). For those datasets, we tried to identify obvious outliers using the Hampel identifier method with a threshold value of four (Pearson, 2011), but unfortunately, no outliers were identified. As a consequence, we conservatively report uncertainties for the ZrnHe inverse-variance weighted mean dates of the six over-dispersed datasets using

twice the standard deviation of the population of ZrnHe dates for the sample (Table 2.1 and A2). The complete set of ZrnHe mean dates range from 14.32 ± 0.28 Ma (sample R04) to 11.0 ± 1.1 Ma for sample R06. We noted no correlation between individual ZrnHe dates and effective uranium (eU) values (Guenther et al., 2013), calculated from the U and Th concentrations for the dated grains as $eU = 0.235[Th] + [U]$, where the brackets indicate mass concentrations. Inasmuch as such values are sometimes used as a proxy for radiation damage (Guenther et al., 2013), we see no evidence that radiation damage played a major role in the dispersion of observed ZrnHe dates. As was the case for the MsAr dates from the same samples, the ZrnHe dates show no clear pattern geographically or with structural depth (Table 2.1).

Apatite (U-Th)/He dates for samples R01 and R02 are summarized in Table 2.1 and presented in detail in Table A3. For sample R01, one ApHe date (4.09 ± 0.26 Ma) was identified as an outlier by the Hampel identifier method and remaining six dates ranged from 10.99 ± 0.34 Ma to 7.38 ± 0.42 Ma. Even after removal of the 4.09 Ma outlier date, the remaining R01 sample dates were still over-dispersed, with an inverse-variance weighted mean date of 9.3 ± 2.8 Ma, with the 2σ uncertainty again reported as twice the standard deviation of the population distribution. Only three datable apatite crystals were found in sample R02, and one of them – with an apparent age of 11.96 ± 0.62 Ma – was identified as an outlier using the Hampel identifier method. The other two yielded a mean ApHe date of 7.76 ± 0.52 Ma, younger than, but statistically indistinguishable from, the mean ApHe date for sample R01. If the apparent outlier is not excluded, the inverse-variance weighted mean date for all three R02 apatites would be

9.5 ± 5.0 Ma. For both R01 and R02, the ApHe dates are predictably younger than the ZrnHe dates.

We interpret the MsAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe dates (Table 2.1) as indicative of the ages of cooling of the samples through nominal closure conditions for the applied thermochronometers. Our new MsAr data indicate that the temperature of the Qomolangma detachment footwall did not cool below amphibolite facies temperatures until after at least 15.420 ± 0.050 Ma, consistent with the interpretation of Cottle et al. (2015b), based on U/Pb monazite ages of different generations of leucogranites, that ductile activity on the Qomolangma detachment, recorded by its high-temperature footwall mylonites, was largely over by *ca.* 15.6 Ma. There are two previously published $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ mica dates for a sample collected in 1986 from the approximate location of our sample R05, which yielded a MsAr plateau date of 16.56 ± 0.23 Ma and a biotite plateau date of 16.51 ± 0.30 Ma (Hodges et al., 1998). The inconsistency of these previous results with our new data – as well as the Cottle et al. (2015b) inference regarding the cooling history – is interpreted as a reflection of the much higher analytical precision of the new MsAr data, and the fact that the Hodges et al. (1998) data were obtained for large, multigrain aliquots rather than single mica crystals.

6. Reconstructions of the Thermal and Exhumation History of the Qomolangma Detachment Footwall

We present here the results of two different, but complimentary, approaches to modeling the thermal and thermal-kinematic history of the Qomolangma detachment

footwall during its exhumation, and we use the results to infer the late-stage slip history of the structure.

6.1. Temperature-Time Trajectories from QTQt Modeling

Many recent attempts to model time-temperature histories of rocks from thermochronologic data have taken advantage of one of two, freely available software packages: *HeFTy* (Ketcham, 2005) and *QTQt* (Gallagher, 2012). Here we apply the *QTQt* software because of its capacity to simulate the three mineral-isotopic systems measured in the Rongbuk Valley samples.

Employing a Bayesian transdimensional Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) inversion scheme, *QTQt* constrains a set of best-fit temperature-time paths given a posterior probability distribution (Gallagher, 2012). Essential input parameters for models using this program are diffusion parameters for the mineral-isotopic systems, diffusion domain sizes, diffusion geometry, apparent ages, and uncertainties in these apparent ages.

We assumed diffusion parameters for MsAr as determined by Harrison et al. (2009) for MsAr and corrected to a pressure of 500 MPa, which is within uncertainty of the thermobarometrically estimated pressure for amphibolite facies metamorphism in the Rongbuk Valley as determined by Hodges et al. (1992). We employed the diffusion parameters of Reiners et al. (2004) for ZrnHe and Farley (2000) for ApHe. We made no attempt to adjust these helium diffusion parameters to account for radiation damage as suggested by Shuster et al. (2006), Flowers et al. (2009), and Guenthner et al. (2013) for two reasons. First, as noted above, there is no clear correlation between eU and apparent

age for our sample set. Second, these samples experienced amphibolite facies metamorphism in the Miocene, only a few million years prior to ZrnHe and ApHe closure. That metamorphism was of sufficiently high grade to have effectively annealed any pre-Miocene radiation damage, such that we would expect any radiation damage accumulated between metamorphism and ZrnHe and ApHe closure to be negligible. We assumed a spherical geometry for He and Ar diffusion, consistent with the experimental interpretations of Farley (2000), Harrison et al. (2009), and Reiners et al. (2004) of their experimental results. We then calculated equivalent spherical radii from grain sizes using the equations of Reiners and Brandon (2006). Our sieved muscovite grains had a mean equivalent spherical radius of 375 μm ; for zircon and apatite, we used the average of the spherical radii for all the crystals in each sample (Tables A2 and A3) for $QTQt$ modeling purposes.

$QTQt$ also requires the input of certain characteristics of the inversion search protocol (usually determined by trial-and-error, as outlined by Gallagher, 2012), and it permits the specification of certain temperature-time constraints to narrow the search space. For our models, we specified that the modeled cooling trajectories pass through: 1) the 17-15 Ma time window at temperatures between 750 and 550°C; and 2) the 0.38-0.28 Ma time window at temperatures between 10 and 0°C. The first specification reflects the presumption that these samples had temperatures near that of the muscovite- or biotite-dehydration melting reactions at *ca.* 500 MPa (Le Breton and Thompson, 1988; Patiño-Douce and Harris, 1998) in the age range of most leucogranites in the injection complex. The second reflects the requirement that these samples had to be at the surface by at least the time of deposition of the oldest known glacial deposits in the valley (Owen et al.,

2009). All models represent 20,000 iterations: 10,000 used to stabilize or ‘burn-in’ the inversion process, and the second 10,000 used for the inversion itself; see Gallagher, (2012). Exploratory runs using larger numbers did not appreciably change model outcomes.

The resulting models for samples R01 and R02 (which include ApHe constraints) are presented in Figure 2.5, along with the models for R05 and R08 to illustrate results for samples for which ApHe are unavailable; the figures for all other samples may be found Appendix Figure A2. In the figures, we illustrate the expected model from $QTQt$ (the weighted mean of all best-fitting thermal histories) as well as the 95% credible confidence intervals for that model.

Overall, this modeling exercise suggests that the thermochronologic data for the Rongbuk Valley imply a simple, monotonic cooling history, with a progressive decrease in cooling rate since ductile deformation on the Qomolangma detachment. Specifically, they indicate rapid cooling from ambient temperatures of *ca.* 500°C at *ca.* 15.4 to 14.4 Ma to *ca.* 170°C by no later than *ca.* 12 Ma. Although the model output for sample R01 suggests that it cooled less rapidly compared to the other samples, we note that the uncertainties of the ZrnHe dates for this sample are large, which permits greater variability in possible cooling trajectories. The output for this sample still shows rapid cooling from *ca.* 15 to 13 Ma followed by cooling to *ca.* 70°C by *ca.* 9 Ma, similar to R02.

6.2. Exhumation Rates Through Time from Thermal-Kinematic Modeling

Calculation of transient exhumation histories that could produce the previous thermal histories is best done through thermal-kinematic modeling in which the advection-diffusion equation is solved for a range of temporally varying exhumation rates. For this we use a modified version of the *Pecube* software originally presented by Braun, (2003) and Braun et al., (2012). The modified version used here (Thiede and Ehlers, 2013; Adams et al., 2015) assumes one-dimensional heat transport (from depth toward Earth's surface, by both advection and conduction) and applies a smart-search Monte Carlo method to identify the range of all possible exhumation rates that could produce the observed cooling ages. Modeling parameters for our study follow those used by Thiede and Ehlers (2013) and Adams et al., (2015); see Appendix A for details.

Because many published applications of *Pecube* to problems in tectonics and landscape evolution employ two- or three-dimensional heat transport, our choice to use the 1-D approach of Thiede and Ehlers (2013) merits further explanation. While large-displacement normal faulting on moderately to steeply dipping structures can lead to significant lateral heat advection (Ruppel et al., 1988; Campani et al., 2010; Braun et al., 2012), which might be an argument for our using at least a 2-D model, these effects are actually minor for extremely low-angle structures like the Qomolangma detachment. For example, we can compare the nearly uniform ZrnHe dates obtained along the Rongbuk Valley transect with ZrnHe dates for samples collected over a similar distance along a dip-parallel transect beneath the more steeply dipping Snake Range detachment in Nevada (Evans et al., 2015). Those authors reported that ZrnHe apparent ages decreased from *ca.* 41 Ma to *ca.* 21 Ma in the dip direction of dip, roughly a factor of two. Had

there been considerable lateral heat advection during slip on the Qomolangma detachment faulting, we likely would have detected evidence for it in the form of a progressive younging of closure ages. In addition, previous work comparing the outcomes of 1-D and 3-D thermal-kinematic models suggest that rapid exhumation regardless of mechanism largely results in a vertical compression of isotherms and an essentially 1-D thermal field at the shallow depths where ZrnHe and ApHe chronometers pass through their partial retention zones; compare, for example, 1-D, 2-D, and 3-D modelling results reported by Thiede and Ehlers (2013). Concerns regarding the suitability of 1-D techniques for thermal-kinematic modeling of thermochronologic data are generally more valid for regions that experience low (<1 mm/a) exhumation rates, where lateral heat advection rates due to faulting may exceed vertical heat advection rates, especially for higher temperature chronometers like MsAr, as noted by Thiede and Ehlers (2013). As we show below, modeled exhumation rates for the Rongbuk samples at the time of MsAr closure are much higher. Due to its relative computational simplicity, a 1-D version of Pecube modeling has an important advantage of over multidimensional modeling: it permits the rapid testing of hundreds of thousands of theoretical exhumation histories for compatibility with observed cooling ages with relative computational ease and speed.

Our thermal-kinematic models for the Rongbuk samples show two general types of behavior (Figures 2.6 and A3). Models for six of the eight samples indicate high exhumation rates (≥ 3.5 mm/a) persisting to as recently as 14.0-13.0 Ma and a rapid decrease in exhumation rate to ≤ 0.5 mm/a thereafter. Models for two samples (R01 and R06) also show a factor of two or more decrease in exhumation rate at 13.0 Ma, but

indicate moderate (*ca.* 1.0-1.5 mm/a) exhumation rates from 13.0 to 8.0 Ma that then decrease to ≤ 0.5 mm/a thereafter.

7. Tectonic Interpretations

The MsAr dates reported here indicate that the Qomolangma detachment footwall exposed in Rongbuk Valley maintained relatively high temperatures (*ca.* 450-500 °C) well after 15.6 Ma, the timing of the end of ductile activity on the structure as inferred from U/Pb monazite dates of Cottle et al. (2015b). Our thermal models indicate rapid cooling (*ca.* 262 - 72°C/Ma) of the footwall commencing after MsAr closure at 15.420 ± 0.050 to 14.40 ± 0.060 Ma (Figures 2.5 and A2). The thermal-kinematic models imply that this cooling was accompanied by exhumation at rates of *ca.* 3-4 mm/a prior to *ca.* 13.0 Ma (Figures 2.6 and A3). Those rates are a factor of 3 higher than erosional exhumation rates during that same period as deduced from thermochronological data for the southern flank of the Himalaya (e.g., Thiede and Ehlers, 2013). It is improbable that the high 3 – 4 mm/a exhumation rates implied by our data reflect high precipitation-driven erosion, given that Mount Everest was near its present-day elevation in the Miocene, with the southern Tibetan Plateau likely already established and the current monsoonal precipitation pattern probably in place by 15.4-13.0 Ma (Coleman and Hodges, 1995; Blisniuk et al., 2001; Spicer et al., 2003; Harris, 2006; Clift et al., 2008; Gébelin et al., 2013). As a consequence, we might expect dryer, rather than wetter, conditions to have prevailed north of the Himalayan crest where our samples under study would have been at the time. We interpret the high modeled exhumation rates prior to *ca.* 13 Ma to be related to rapid slip on the Qomolangma detachment.

Our thermal-kinematic models further suggest that this early period of very rapid tectonic denudation ended at *ca.* 13 Ma. Modeling of two of our eight samples (R01 and R06) indicate at least a factor of two lowering of the exhumation rates from *ca.* 2.2-3.4 mm/a to 1.0-1.2 mm/a at this time, and the other six samples indicate an even higher (order of magnitude) decrease from 1.5-4 mm/a to <0.5 mm/a (Figures 2.6 and A3). The most reasonable interpretation of this behavior is that slip on the Qomolangma detachment effectively terminated or drastically slowed at *ca.* 13 Ma (within the ± 1 Ma resolution of our models). By no later than 8 Ma, the exhumation rate of *ca.* <1 mm/a, indicated by our models was sufficiently low to be explained exclusively by erosional denudation similar to that currently operating on the Tibetan Plateau (e.g., Rades et al., 2015; Strobl et al., 2012).

7.1. Fault displacement estimations based on exhumation

Our thermal-kinematic modeling results inform a reconstruction of Qomolangma detachment footwall exhumation since the inferred cessation of ductile deformation at *ca.* 15.6 Ma. This reconstruction, along with a little simple trigonometry, permits an estimation of the displacement history of the fault.

For these calculations, we assumed that total exhumation was constant during each of the time steps shown in Figures 2.6 and A3. For example, we assumed that the total exhumation between 15.6 Ma and 15.0 Ma for sample R01 was 2.0 km based on the *ca.* 3 – 4 mm/a exhumation rate estimated by our 1-D thermo-kinematic model for this interval. From 15.0 to 14.0 Ma, a comparable calculation indicated an additional 2.8 km of exhumation. Continuing this process for all of the modeled increments from 15.6

through the 13.0 Ma interval indicated 7.7 km of cumulative exhumation. Modeled cumulative exhumation for the other seven samples ranged from 10.4 km for R05 to 6.3 km for R03 and the average for all eight samples is 8.3 km.

Given that we have no indication that the Qomolangma detachment has rotated significantly since it was active, or that its dip changes significantly between the summit pyramid of Everest and the north end of Rongbuk Valley where it disappears between the valley floor (over 30 km down dip), we estimate displacement values using a simple geometrical model: displacement = exhumation/(sin α), where α is fault dip (Figure 2.2). The detachment surface is not easily accessible for direct measurement in Rongbuk Valley, so its regional dip – between 5 and 10° – is estimated from its intersection with topography along the valley (Figure 2.1; Figure 2.2). Figure 2.7 illustrates detachment displacement histories over the 15.6 to 13.0 Ma time period as calculated from our exhumation histories (based on the alternative assumptions of a 5° or 10° dip) for the two samples with the most complete thermochronologic datasets (R01 and R02). By the cessation of fault slip (presumed to be *ca.* 13.0 Ma), data from both samples indicate a consistent 44 ± 11 km of slip assuming a 10° dip. If the dip is assumed to be 5°, the amount of slip doubles to 88 ± 22 km. (In both cases, uncertainties reflect the cumulative effects of propagating the 2σ uncertainties in the *Pecube* models for successive time steps.) Calculations for all eight samples yielded average 10° fault slip estimates ranging from 60 ± 8 km (R05) to 36 ± 11 km (R03). For an assumed 5° dip, the range was from 119 ± 17 km to 72 ± 22 km.

The modeling results are most consistent with the cessation of slip by *ca.* 13.0 Ma, but we cannot completely rule out an alternative interpretation: that minor slip may

have persisted into the 13.0-8.0 Ma timeframe. Unfortunately, the lack of apatite crystals suitable for ApHe thermochronology in most samples precluded our examining this possibility in more detail. Smaller step thermal-kinematic modeling increments between 13.0 and 8.0 Ma would not have yielded robust results given the lack of quantitative constraints on temperature-time paths. The dotted lines in Figure 2.7 show modeled projections of the slip history for our R01 and R02 samples if we assume that detachment activity continued until 8.0 Ma. Of all the models, sample R01 would imply the most total slip in this case: 78 ± 21 km (for $\alpha = 10^\circ$) or 156 ± 42 km (for $\alpha = 5^\circ$).

8. Discussion

8.1 Comparisons with previous work

On the same timeframe as – but independent of – our thermochronologic work in the Rongbuk Valley, another team (Orme et al., 2015; Carrapa et al., 2016) also conducted low-temperature thermochronologic studies in the Rongbuk Valley. They reported ZrnHe, ApHe, and apatite fission-track (ApFT) dates for seven different bedrock samples (mostly leucogranites) from outcrops close to the collection localities for our samples. While providing more detailed insights, our analytical results and modeling generally support the interpretation of the other team that the injection complex cooled rapidly during the middle Miocene (Carrapa et al., 2016). However, neither our new data nor the monazite U/Pb data of Cottle et al. (2015b) are consistent with the contention of Orme et al. (2015) that the footwall of the Qomolangma detachment has not experienced temperatures greater than the nominal ApFT closure temperature (ca. 110-120°C; (Reiners and Brandon, 2006)) since 16 Ma.

The ApFT results in Carrapa et al. (2016) are particularly challenging to interpret in a robust way. In theory, the ApFT chronometer should provide constraints on the timeframe of cooling of a sample through the partial annealing zone for apatite; a nominal closure temperature range for ApFT assuming a cooling rate of 10°C/Ma is ca. 100-120°C (Reiners and Brandon, 2006). The Rongbuk ApFT dates reported by Carrapa et al. (2016) were significantly over-dispersed in individual samples, and showed a sample-to-sample range of weighted mean dates from 12.7 ± 3.0 Ma to 15.6 ± 5.6 Ma, with a mean for all samples of 14.8 ± 6.4 Ma (uncertainties reported at the 2σ level). Some of the ApFT dates seem impossibly old, approaching or exceeding the U/Pb crystallization ages of leucogranite dikes in these collection outcrops (Cottle et al., 2015b). Five of the seven samples yielded mean ApFT dates as old or older than the MsAr dates reported here, even though the closure temperature range for MsAr is several hundred degrees higher than that for ApFT. Given that the ApFT dates reported by Carrapa et al. (2016) have low precision and are highly over-dispersed regardless, they do not provide very useful constraints on the thermal history of Rongbuk Valley.

Analyzing their zircons using methods essentially identical to ours, including the assumption of homogeneous U+Th in the crystals, Orme et al. (2015) obtained 25 single-crystal ZrnHe dates ranging from 14.70 ± 0.46 Ma to 9.87 ± 0.29 Ma, with all but two dates between ca. 12.8 and 9.9 Ma. Noting that Sakai et al. (2005) obtained 14-15 Ma ApFT and zircon fission track (ZrnFT) dates for a sample collected beneath the Qomolangma detachment near the summit of Everest and likely mindful of the team's own ApFT data from the Rongbuk Valley that would be published in Carrapa et al. (2016), Orme et al. (2015) questioned the reliability of their own ZrnHe dates since the

closure temperature for the ZrnHe chronometer is higher than that of the ApFT chronometer. Orme et al. (2015) also presented laser ablation ICPMS depth profiling data for five of their dated crystals, showing evidence for significant U and Th zonation, often featuring rims highly enriched in uranium. This sort of zoning, if not recognized and properly accounted for during the data reduction procedure, can result in improper alpha ejection corrections leading to substantial underestimates of the true ZrnHe ages (Hourigan et al., 2005). However, U-Th zoning in zircon is typically complex in three dimensions and can vary widely among zircons from the same sample (Corfu et al., 2003). This is why most (U-Th)/He researchers, without *a priori* comprehensive knowledge of zoning in a zircon, choose the simplifying assumption that the U-Th element distribution is homogeneous within the crystal as they correct raw (U-Th)/He zircon dates for alpha-particle ejection (Farley et al., 1996). Given their knowledge of zoning in at least one dimension at one place beneath the rims of the five profiled zircons, Orme et al. (2015) attempted a correction of their original ZrnHe dates for the five crystals, obtaining new estimates ranging from 17.00 ± 0.36 to 14.82 ± 0.31 Ma. These corrections assumed that the single 1-D profiles they obtained for each crystal could be extrapolated concentrically around the zircon.

As noted by Orme et al. (2015) and Bargnesi et al. (2016), such a correction exercise is not an exact science. Some knowledge of the magnitude of chemical zoning, such as that obtained by one-dimensional depth profiling measurements of U and Th, can provide useful information regarding the likelihood that the homogeneity assumption yields alpha ejection corrections that are too large or too small, but quantitative adjustments based on such data can be misleading. In the case of the samples analyzed by

Orme et al. (2015), it appears that the correction procedure used led to an over-correction of most or all of their ZrnHe dates. All of their corrected ZrnHe dates are as old as or older than our MsAr dates for the same structural horizons, which is inconsistent with published kinetic data indicating that the MsAr chronometer has a much higher nominal closure temperature than the ZrnHe thermochronometer. Our ZrnHe analytical procedures, like those used by Orme et al., (2015) for most of their samples, did not permit evaluation of parent element zoning, but we note that our dates are generally older than original dates obtained by Orme et al. (2015) (assuming parent element homogeneity), while still being appropriately younger than MsAr dates for the same samples.

In contrast to the low-temperature thermochronometry results published by Orme et al. (2015) and Carrapa et al. (2016), our ZrnHe and ApHe dates are appropriately younger than the higher-precision MsAr dates obtained for Rongbuk Valley samples. Moreover, our thermochronologic dataset is consistent with previously published data indicating that amphibolite facies metamorphic conditions were maintained in the Qomolangma detachment footwall until at least 15.6 Ma (Law et al., 2011; Cottle et al., 2015b). Thus, we regard our dataset and the thermal and thermal-kinematic models derived from it as robust indicators of the thermal evolution of the Qomolangma detachment footwall in Rongbuk Valley.

8.2. Tectonic ramifications of this Rongbuk Valley study

One popular model for the development and evolution of the South Tibetan detachment is that it represents a fundamental structural boundary at the top of a

southward extruding metamorphic infrastructure, the Greater Himalayan sequence (Nelson et al., 1996; Beaumont et al., 2001; Hodges et al., 2001; Grujic et al., 2002; Hodges, 2006; Cottle et al., 2015a). If correct, this interpretation would predict the compression of isotherms within the detachment-related mylonites of the detachment footwall. Indeed, Law et al. (2011) presented evidence of this having accompanied the development of mylonitic fabrics in the Qomolangma detachment footwall in Rongbuk Valley: a systematic variation in quartz *c*-axis fabric opening angles that serves as a proxy for geothermal gradient (Law, 2014). Law et al. (2011) used two particle-path geometric models, with one particle assigned to the 475°C isotherm and another to the 675°C isotherm, to infer displacement on the detachment of 25-170 km during mylonite development, with estimates toward the low and high ends of this range derived assuming a 10° or 5° detachment dip, respectively.

Importantly, Law et al. (2011) also estimated the range of mylonitization temperatures in the Hermit's Gorge area as increasing from *ca.* 480-490 °C immediately near the detachment to *ca.* 625-680°C at a structural level *ca.* 480 m beneath the brittle fault trace. The fact that this entire temperature range is at or above the nominal closure temperature of MsAr indicates strongly that the cooling history reported in this paper reflects footwall exhumation subsequent to the ductile deformation responsible for the footwall mylonites. Thus, an important – and somewhat unanticipated – finding of our work is that the amount of brittle-ductile to brittle displacement on the Qomolangma detachment (36 ± 11 to 119 ± 17 km) was similar to the amount of ductile displacement when the mylonites predominantly developed (Law et al., 2011). Our estimates (*ca.* 36 to *ca.* 119 km) and those of Law et al. (2011) (25 to 170 km) can be combined to arrive at

an estimate for the total STDS offset in the Everest area of *ca.* 61 to 289 km. This total compares reasonably well with the very rough estimate of 90 to 216 km calculated by Searle et al. (2006) based in the inference that such displacements (varying depending on fault dip) were necessary to juxtapose high-grade rocks from the detachment footwall to the upper crust.

Our preferred interpretation that slip on the Qomolangma detachment terminated at *ca.* 13 Ma is consistent with an emerging consensus estimate for the end of STDS displacement from the Everest region eastward to Sikkim, India (Leloup et al., 2010; Cottle et al., 2011; Kellett et al., 2013; Braun, 2016). Farther east – across the Yadong cross-structure (Figure 2.1) in Bhutan and adjacent areas of Tibet – STDS activity appears to have continued for another 1-2 Ma; whether or not this inconsistency is tectonically significant remains unclear (Cooper et al., 2015). Our estimate of many tens to perhaps more than two hundred kilometers of total slip on the Qomolangma detachment adds to a growing body of evidence (e.g., Cooper et al., 2012; 2013) that the South Tibetan detachment system played a major role in the Miocene tectonic evolution of the Himalaya.

9. Conclusions

Multisystem, medium- to low-temperature thermochronology (MsAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe) of samples collected along a footwall transect parallel to the displacement direction of the Qomolangma detachment have been used to constrain the brittle-ductile and brittle slip history of this important strand of the South Tibetan detachment system. Collectively, the thermochronologic data indicate cooling from the $\geq 480^{\circ}\text{C}$ temperatures

that pertained during ductile deformation on the detachment as recently as 15.6 Ma, followed by cooling through MsAr closure (*ca.* 15.4 – 14.4 Ma), ZrnHe closure (14.3 – 11.0 Ma), and lastly ApHe closure (*ca.* 9.3 – 7.8 Ma).

QTQt thermal modeling of the data suggests monotonic rapid cooling from MsAr closure at *ca.* 490°C and 15.4-14.4 Ma to ZrnHe closure at *ca.* 200°C (closure temperatures re-calculated from the resulting *QTQt* cooling histories) by no later than 12 Ma. Thermal-kinematic (1-D *Pecube*) modeling indicates that this rapid cooling accompanied rapid exhumation from at least *ca.* 15.6 (nominally the end of ductile deformation on the detachment; (Cottle et al., 2015b) to *ca.* 13.0 Ma. We interpret this exhumation to have been caused by brittle-ductile to brittle slip on the detachment subsequent to footwall mylonitization. Our preferred interpretation of the models is that Qomolangma detachment activity effectively ceased *ca.* 13.0 Ma, but we cannot completely rule out the possibility of minor displacements as recently as *ca.* 8 Ma.

Reconstructions of the exhumation history between *ca.* 15.6 Ma and 13.0 Ma for two samples containing all three thermochronometers indicate brittle-ductile to brittle displacements of 44 ± 11 km assuming a 10° fault dip and 88 ± 11 km assuming a 5° fault dip. Six other samples are consistent with fault offsets between 36 ± 11 km and 119 ± 17 km with fault dips of 5 and 10°. When added to previously published estimates for ductile displacement on the detachment (Law et al., 2011), these model results indicate total displacements of *ca.* 61 to 289 km.

STDS displacements of this magnitude appear to favor tectonic models that feature significant channel flow of the Greater Himalayan metamorphic infrastructure of the range, with the STDS as the upper bounding structure of the core. This interpretation

seems inconsistent, however, with models that assign small displacements to the STDS and relegate the structure to a minor role in Himalayan tectonics (Yin, 2006; Webb et al., 2007; Webb, 2013; Kohn, 2008; He et al., 2015).

10. Acknowledgments

This work was supported by National Science Foundation Tectonics Program grants EAR1007929 and EAR1346360 to K.V.H. The fieldwork in Tibet would not have been possible without the logistical assistance of Ding Lin (Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences), Paul Kapp (University of Arizona), and Ross Waldrip (University of Arizona). Thanks to Kerry Gallagher (Geosciences Rennes, Université Rennes 1) for his help and guidance with the *QTQt* program. Many thanks to Willi Kappler and Byron Adams (Department of Geosciences, Universität Tübingen) for their assistance with running Monte Carlo version of *Pecube* used in this study.

Comments and suggestions by Frances Cooper (School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol) on earlier versions of this manuscript by are much appreciated. All analytical data presented in this study are provided in Appendix A in the Supplementary Materials.

11. Figure Captions

Figure 2.1. A) Map showing the position of the STDS along the crest of the Himalaya. The bold shaded box indicates the location of Fig. 2.1B and the boxes to the east indicate regions where the STDS has been previously studied (Cottle et al., 2011; Cooper et al., 2012; 2013; Kellett et al., 2013). The map is based on Cooper et al., (2012). B) Regional map of the Rongbuk Valley in the Everest region of Tibet. Geologic units are mapped

after Searle et al., (2003). Sample localities are shown with blue and red circles and the different colors represent different chronometric systems measured for each sample. See inset map for sample names. The base map is taken from the ArcGIS World Imagery catalogue.

Figure 2.2. Geologic cross-section of the Rongbuk Valley showing major geologic units and sample localities. The map is after Jessup et al., (2008). This figure highlights the structural position of the samples in the footwall of the Qomolangma detachment. MsAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe ages of samples R01 and R02 are shown. All other age data can be found in Table 2.1.

Figure 2.3. Field photograph taken in the Rongbuk Valley looking east into the mouth of Hermit's Gorge. The photo clearly shows the leucogranitic dikes and sills of the injection complex, which makes up the immediate footwall of the STDS in this area. The large leucogranite sill near the base of the photo is about 2 m tall. The high-grade sillimanite gneisses are the surrounding dark-colored layers. The photo also highlights the mylonitic fabric and shows how thick the zone is, as the trace of the brittle, low-dipping Qomolangma detachment can be observed near the top of the northern gorge wall.

Figure 2.4. Muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ release spectra for samples R01, R02, R05, and R08. All eight samples have well-defined plateau ages. See Table 2.1 for the rest of the plateau ages and the Supplementary Material for the individual heating steps.

Figure 2.5. Time-temperature histories output from the 1-D thermal model $QTQt$ for samples R01 and R02 (with ApHe constraints) and R05 and R08 (without). The bold black line is the “Expected Model,” which is the weighted mean of all best-fit thermal histories (Gallagher, 2012). Grey shading indicates the 95% credible confidence intervals. The input chronometer data (along with their 2σ uncertainties) are shown on the cooling curve.

Figure 2.6. Exhumation rate histories from thermal-kinematic modeling using a 1-D version of *Pecube* for samples R01 and R02 (with MsAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe constraints) and R05 and R08 (MsAr and ZrnHe only). The bold black lines indicate the mean exhumation rate history, and the horizontal grey boxes indicate two standard deviations from the mean. The input chronometer data (along with their 2σ uncertainties) are presented at the top of each figure pane. The number of acceptable fits to the data are noted. See Figures 2.1 and 2.2 for sample locality information. The dashed vertical line at ~ 15.6 Ma indicates the timing of transition from ductile shearing to ductile-brittle slip on the detachment according to Cottle et al. (2015).

Figure 2.7. Estimates of displacement on the Qomolangma detachment between 15.6 and 13.0 Ma for samples R01 and R02, which have the most thermochronometric information. These detachment displacement histories were calculated from *Pecube* exhumation history results (see Figure 2.6) and presume either a 5° or 10° dip on the

detachment. The shaded areas represent the uncertainties that reflect the propagation of the 2σ uncertainties in the *Pecube* models for successive time steps.

12. References

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TABLE 2.1. THERMOCRONOLOGIC DATA FOR QOMOLANGMA DETACHMENT FOOTWALL SAMPLES, RONGBUK VALLEY, TIBET

Sample number	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (m)	Structural depth beneath Qomolangma detachment (m)	Rock type	MsAr (Ma) ¹	ZrnHe (Ma) ²	ApHe (Ma) ²
R01	28.14056° N	86.85194° E	5157	800	Leucogranite	15.37 ± 0.16 (98.8)	11.4 ± 2.4 (4)	9.3 ± 2.8 (6)
R02	28.17328° N	86.84003° E	5114	700	Mylonitized leucogranite	15.000 ± 0.060 (100)	13.0 ± 1.5 (4)	7.76 ± 0.52 (2)
R03	28.17300° N	86.84297° E	5089	600	Mylonitized leucogranite	15.25 ± 0.11 (99)	12.9 ± 1.7 (2)	-
R04	28.18148° N	86.83585° E	5025	600	Mylonitized leucogranite	15.420 ± 0.050 (99.8)	14.32 ± 0.21 (4)	-
R05	28.19000° N	86.83243° E	5019	500	Leucogranite	14.400 ± 0.060 (100)	13.1 ± 1.7 (4)	-
R06	28.20502° N	86.82913° E	5128	450	Mylonitized leucogranite	14.770 ± 0.070 (100)	11.0 ± 1.1 (4)	-
R07	28.20610° N	86.82580° E	4997	400	Leucogranite	14.450 ± 0.070 (99.9)	12.9 ± 1.9 (7)	-
R08	28.21285° N	86.82395° E	4961	300	Leucogranite	14.930 ± 0.080 (99)	13.66 ± 0.17 (5)	-

All uncertainties quoted at 2 σ

¹Numbers in parentheses indicates the total %Ar making up the plateau Ar-Ar age.

²Numbers in parentheses designates number of analyses contributing to the mean

FIGURE 2.1

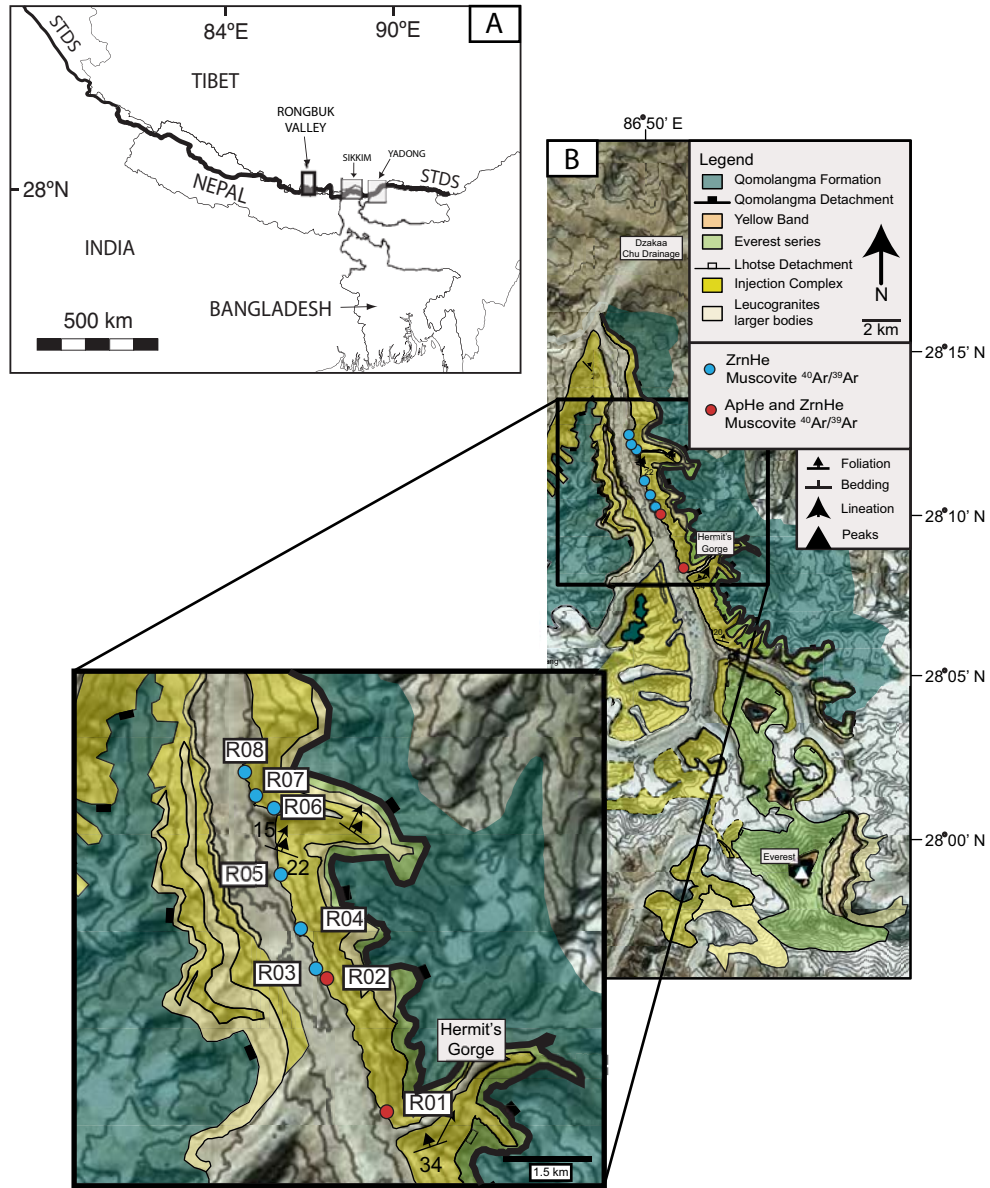


FIGURE 2.2

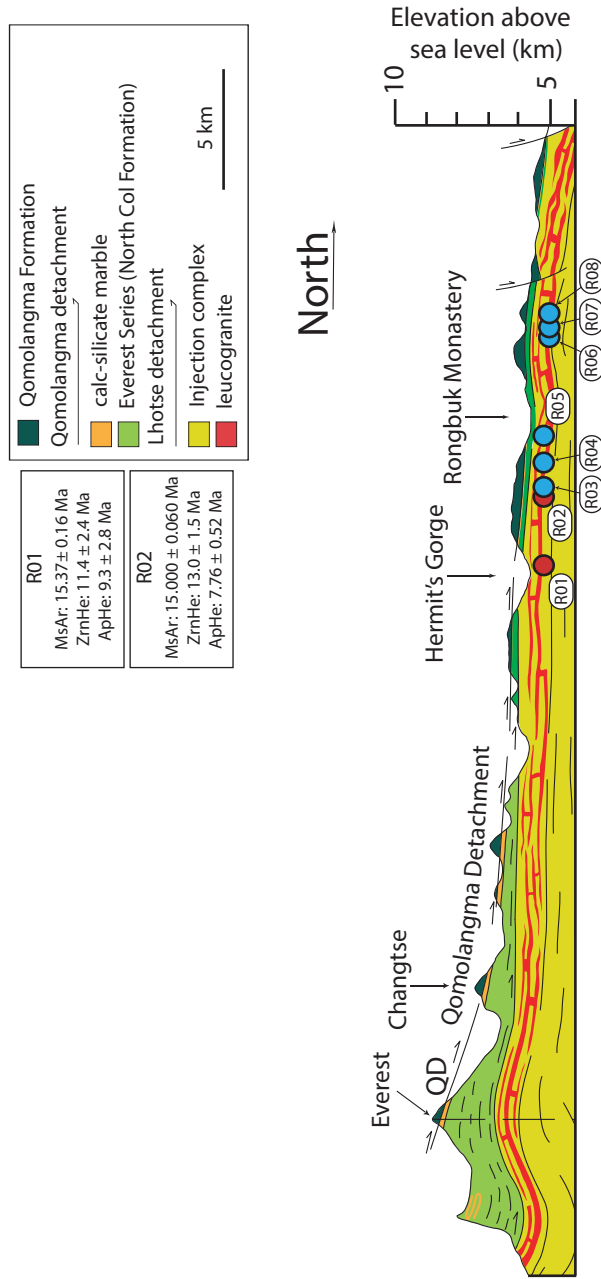


FIGURE 2.3



FIGURE 2.4

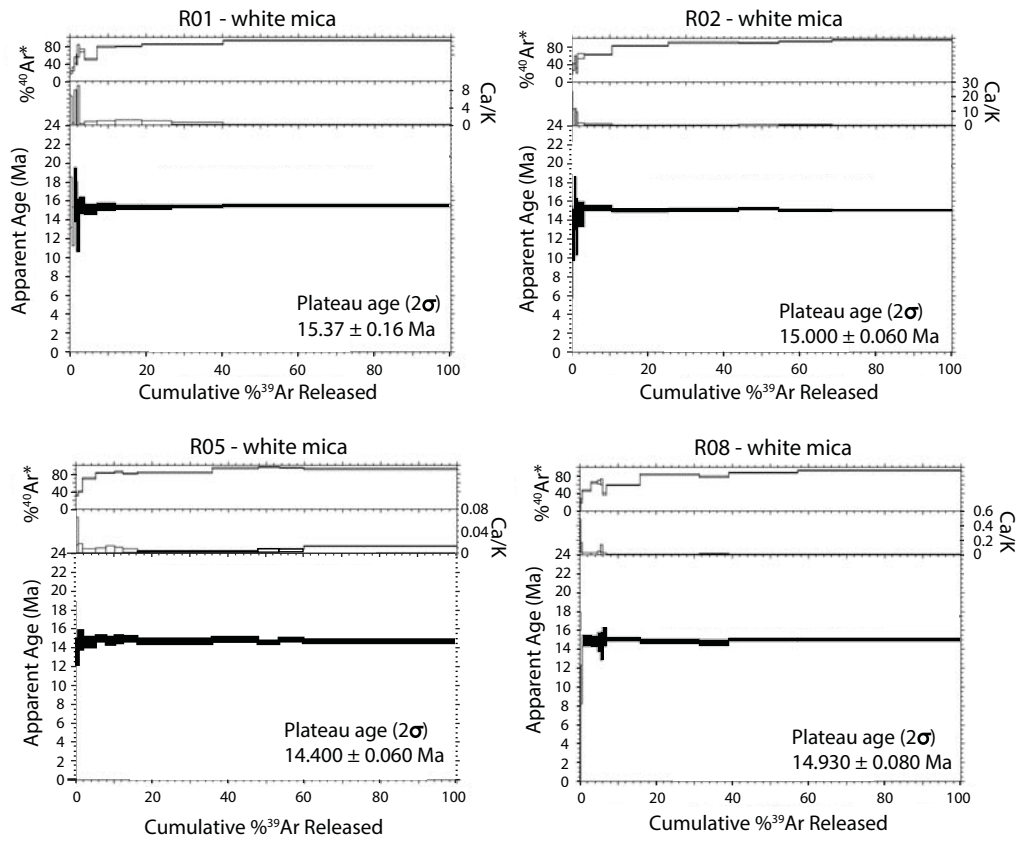


FIGURE 2.5

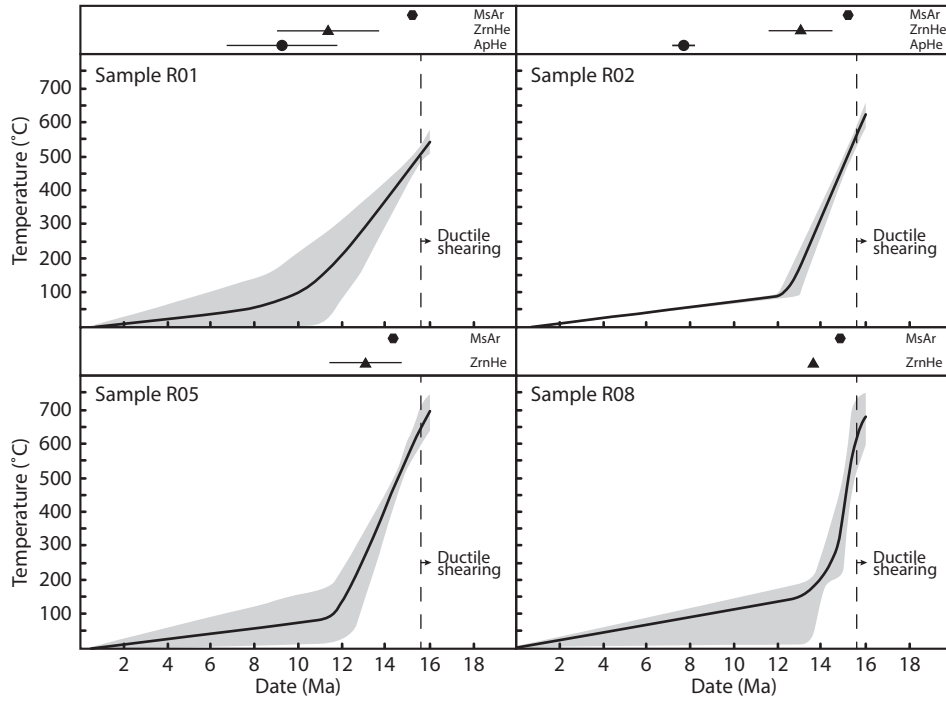


FIGURE 2.6

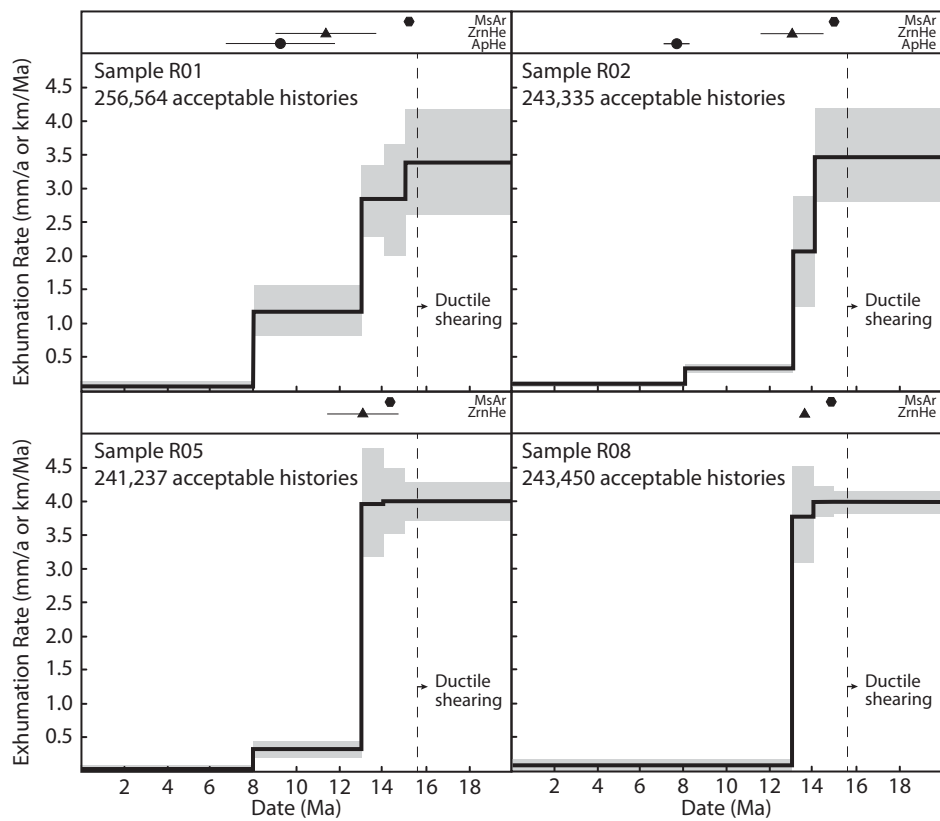
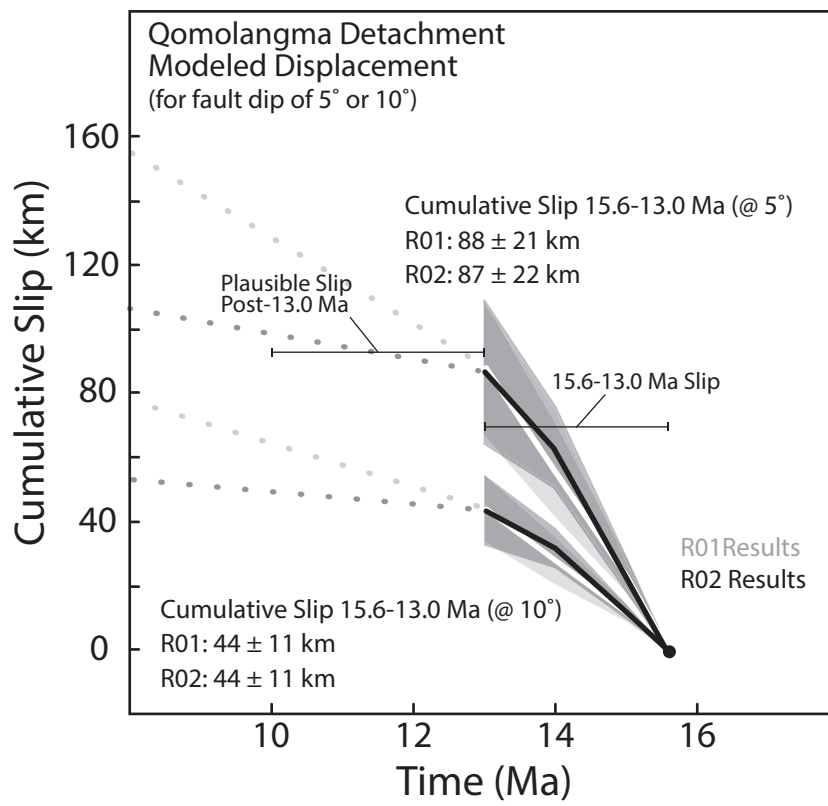


FIGURE 2.7



CHAPTER 3

TWO-DIMENSIONAL THERMAL-KINEMATIC MODELING OF THE SLIP HISTORY OF THE SOUTH TIBETAN DETACHMENT SYSTEM, EVEREST REGION, SOUTH-CENTRAL TIBET

1. Abstract

The South Tibetan detachment system includes numerous, north-dipping, low-angle extensional faults and shear zones exposed for over 1000 km along the length of the Himalaya. Here we present two-dimensional thermal-kinematic models of the slip history of the major displacement horizon of the system in south-central Tibet, north of Mount Everest. These models are constrained by previously published and new $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and (U-Th)/He thermochronologic data from gneisses and granites at three geographically dispersed exposures of the immediate footwall (Rongbuk, Ra Chu, and Dzakar Chu). These data are largely consistent with forward thermal-kinematic models which assume that the basal structure of the South Tibetan system in this region is a simple, planar, north-dipping detachment represented at the different study areas as a high-strain ductile shear zone often – but not always – capped by a discrete brittle fault surface depending on the depth at which the dominant tectonite fabrics developed. Best fits of models to thermochronologic data suggest between *ca.* 84 and 219 km of high-temperature slip between *ca.* 20 and 15.6 Ma and *ca.* 83 to 119 km of lower-temperature displacement between *ca.* 15.4 and 13 Ma, for a total displacement of *ca.* 167 to 338 km in this region. The broad consistency of these preliminary results with previously published one-dimensional modeling of the Rongbuk dataset alone suggests that much of

the essential thermal structure in regions of active tectonics can be deduced successfully using simpler, one-dimensional models when exhumation rates are high.

2. Introduction

The discovery a few decades ago of regional-scale, north-dipping, low-angle normal faults (detachments) in the Himalaya (Caby et al., 1983; Burg and Chen, 1984; Burchfiel and Royden, 1985; Burchfiel et al., 1992) profoundly altered the views of the earth science community regarding the possible importance of extensional faulting in the evolution of convergent orogenic systems. The South Tibetan detachment system (STDS), as Burchfiel and colleagues (1992) named that family of structures, can be traced along the spine of the Himalaya for over 1000 kilometers (Figure 3.1). While STDS faults have been studied in detail over the course of dozens of studies since their discovery, their origin and significance remain controversial; compare, for example, alternative interpretations in papers collected in Law et al. (2006). For example, many researchers – focusing on the distinctive north-vergent kinematics of the STDS faults as compared to the broadly coeval, south-vergent kinematics of major thrust faults of the Himalayan orogenic wedge – have interpreted the STDS as the upper boundary of a major Miocene, southward-extruding channel of middle or lower crust (e.g., Grujic et al., 1996; Nelson et al., 1996; Beaumont et al., 2001; Hodges et al., 2001; Hodges, 2006). Others have suggested that the STDS is little more than a reactivated earlier thrust fault in the upper part of the Himalayan orogenic wedge, with total normal-sense displacement of no more than a few kilometers (Yin 2006; Webb et al., 2007; Webb, 2013).

The area north of Mount Everest in south-central Tibet (Figure 3.2) offers an excellent opportunity to evaluate the evolution of a relatively large segment of the STDS and further evaluate the importance of the STDS in Himalayan tectonics. This part of the system was first mapped in reconnaissance fashion by Burchfiel et al. (1992) in their

foundational study of the STDS. They documented excellent exposures of the STDS in the walls of the Rongbuk valley, a glacio-fluvial catchment draining the north slopes of the Everest massif and noted that the system could be traced at the base of a series of klippen projecting southward to the Everest summit pyramid. These field relationships limited the regional NNE-dip of the major STDS detachment in the region – which they named the Qomolangma detachment – to no more than about 10°. Noting that no footwall and hanging wall units could be matched across the Qomolangma detachment, they inferred a minimum displacement of 35 km on the structure. Although they did not trace the detachment beyond the mouth of the Rongbuk valley, the low dip of the structure, the moderate topography of the southern Tibetan Plateau, and its high desert climate favored the eventual identification of other segments of the STDS down dip to the north. Two were eventually discovered about 15 km north of the mouth of the Rongbuk valley and a few tens of kilometers to the east and west (Figure 3.2). Exposures to the west, along the banks of the Ra Chu (“chu” is the Tibetan word for small river) were characterized geologically by Jessup and Cottle (2010). Exposures to the east, along the banks of the Dzakar Chu, were characterized by Cottle et al. (2007). Together, the Rongbuk, Ra Chu, and Dzakar Chu outcrops define the best three-dimensional exposure of a single segment of the STDS known at present: roughly 50 km down dip and a comparable distance along strike.

Building on recent medium- and low-temperature thermochronometry of Qomolangma detachment footwall rocks in the Rongbuk valley (Schultz et al., 2017), we present here new $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and (U-Th)/He data for the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu footwalls. We also report the results of a two-dimensional (2D) thermal-kinematic

modeling study of the STDS in the Everest area, done using the software package *Pecube* (Braun, 2003; Braun et al., 2012), and aimed at constraining better its probable time-integrated displacement and slip rate. The results support previous geometric (Searle et al., 2003; Law et al., 2004) and thermal-kinematic modeling (Schultz et al., 2017) arguments that the STDS was a major Miocene tectonic feature that likely played a fundamental role in Himalayan orogenesis.

3. Regional Geologic Setting

The Himalayan component of the Himalayan-Tibetan orogenic system, stretching from northeast India to northern Pakistan, developed as a consequence of the collision of Greater India with Eurasia at *ca.* 55 to 50 Ma (Hodges, 2000; Najman et al., 2010; van Hinsbergen et al., 2012). South of the Yarlung suture that marks the zone of initial collision, the central Himalayan orogenic wedge comprises several tectonostratigraphic elements separated by major, north-dipping, south-vergent thrust fault system and the STDS. South of the Himalayan range crest, the northernmost major contractional structure is the Main Central thrust system (MCT), which initiated in the latest Oligocene or early Miocene and was active concurrently (at least in part) with the STDS (Hodges et al., 1992). The tectonostratigraphic unit between the MCT and the STDS, commonly referred to as the Greater Himalayan sequence (GHS), represents the metamorphic core of the Himalaya. It is composed of Indian provenance high-grade metasedimentary and metigneous gneisses with protolith ages that are lowermost Paleozoic-Neoproterozoic (Parrish and Hodges, 1996). Leucogranitic intrusions in the footwall rocks are a consequence of anatectic melting of the upper GHS that occurred during amphibolite-

granulite facies metamorphism in the Oligocene-Miocene (Le Fort, 1987; Searle et al., 2010). The STDS hanging wall instead consists of weakly metamorphosed to unmetamorphosed, Cambrian and younger strata of the Tibetan Sedimentary sequence (TSS) (Gaetani and Garzanti, 1991; Myrow et al., 2009).

3.1 Rongbuk valley

The Rongbuk valley extends about 35 km north from the base of the north face of Mount Everest to the confluence of its small river – the upper Dzakar Chu – with the Gyachung Chu merging from the southwest (Figure 3.2). GHS units, a large and complex leucogranite network that intrudes them, and TSS units are exposed in the valley, and the existence of a structural contact between the GHS and TSS had been postulated by Burg (1983) and Burg and Chen (1984) prior to the definition of the Qomolangma detachment by Burchfiel et al., (1992). In the central, accessible lower-elevation parts of the Rongbuk valley, the uppermost exposures of the GHS and its leucogranite dikes and sills constrain strong, high and medium temperature mylonitic fabrics (Burchfiel et al., 1992; Carosi et al., 1998; Law et al., 2004; Jessup et al., 2006). At the contact, which corresponds to a dramatic metamorphic discontinuity (upper amphibolite facies rocks in the footwall and lower greenschist facies or unmetamorphosed rocks in the hanging wall) lies a breccia zone oriented subparallel to the dominant mylonitic fabrics in the footwall. This fault zone is interpreted as the brittle expression of the Qomolangma detachment and the detachment as well as the underlying shear zone are mapped as the STDS in the valley.

In outcrops near the valley floor, the detachment hanging wall comprises fossiliferous, silty to relatively pure limestones of the Lower-Middle Ordovician Mt.

Qomolangma Formation (Yin and Kuo, 1978; Myrow et al., 2009). Sakai et al. (2005) confirmed the projection of the Qomolangma detachment to the Everest summit pyramid and documented that the Mt. Qomolangma Formation in its hanging wall there was indeed correlative to hanging wall lithologies in the Rongbuk valley (see also Corthouts et al., 2016). However, the immediate footwall rocks on the mountain are distinctive from those in the Rongbuk valley floor, and include metacarbonate and metaclastic rocks of the Cambrian Yellow Band and North Col Formation (Myrow et al., 2009). This relationship led to the proposition that a second, low-angle, north-dipping STDS structure – the Lhotse detachment – may occur beneath the North Col formation and above the GHS-leucogranite package as exposed on the southern flanks of Everest (Lombardo et al., 1993; Pognante and Benna, 1993; Carosi et al., 1998, 1999; Searle, 1999), even though the proposed structure has never been studied in detail. If this structural configuration is correct, the Qomolangma detachment must be a younger structure than the Lhotse detachment and must have a slightly steeper dip so as to cut out the Yellow Band and North Col Formation to the north between the mountain and the more accessible STDS exposures in the Rongbuk valley (Carosi et al., 1998; Jessup et al., 2008).

Studies of the Qomolangma detachment footwall mylonites in the Rongbuk valley imply that this structure, like similar, regional-scale detachments found in extensional terrains such as the Basin and Range province of western North America, shows evidence for progressive exhumation of the footwall in the form of overprinting textures and fabrics that formed at progressively lower temperatures with time. Based on quartz fabric opening angles, the primary mylonitic fabrics formed over a range of temperatures (Law

et al., 2011), ranging from ca. $625 \pm 50^\circ\text{C}$ at the deepest structural levels exposed in the middle reaches of the valley, to chlorite grade near the brittle Qomolangma detachment. The temperature estimate of Law et al. (2011) for the highest temperature fabrics is nearly identical to that determined by Hodges et al. (1992) for the prograde GHS metamorphic assemblages at that structural level based on element partitioning thermobarometry. Based on the pressure estimated from the thermobarometric work, the depth of formation of the high-temperature mylonitic fabrics was ca. 17 km.

3.2 Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu Exposures

Jessup and Cottle (2010) noted the existence of several localities in the Everest region also thought to provide additional exposures of the STDS. We collected samples from two of these – which we will refer to as the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu exposures (Figures 3.2 and 3.3) – for thermochronologic study in anticipation of the thermal-kinematic modeling presented here.

At the Ra Chu exposures, roughly 30 km to the northwest of Hermit's Gorge in the Rongbuk valley, Jessup and Cottle (2010) documented exposures of the STDS shear zone (Figure 3.2). Our samples were collected in a bedrock cliff section by the river bank that includes a *ca.* 30-m-thick section of the STDS shear zone (Figure 3.3). The outcrop consists largely of basal calc-silicate rocks and overlying marbles, which together represent the GHS. Both are intruded by foliated leucogranites that present as lenses concordant with the prominent mylonitic fabric in the outcrop. Jessup and Cottle (2010) documented a prominent pseudotachylite cutting the leucogranitic pods at high angles, which attests to the progressive ductile to brittle evolution of the STDS at this locality. A

sharp, low-angle, N-dipping fault separates the mylonitized GHS rocks from overlying Carbonaceous terrigenous sediments assigned to the TSS. Jessup and Cottle (2010) estimated deformation temperatures in the footwall mylonites of 200 to 400°C.

Below the confluence of the Dzakar Chu and the Gyachung Chu at the north end of the Rongbuk valley, the combined flow is referred to as the Dzakar Chu. Roughly 40 km to the east of the Rongbuk valley along this drainage, Cottle et al. (2007) documented another exposure of the STDS, which they referred to as the Dzakaa Chu section (Figure 3.2). (There is much inconsistency on maps and in the literature regarding the English spelling of translations from the Tibetan. For the purposes of consistency, we conform to the Royal Geographical Society spelling convention, and thus will refer here to the section studied by Cottle et al. (2007) as the “Dzakar Chu” section rather than the “Dzakaa Chu” section.)

The STDS in the Dzakar Chu section manifests as a ~1000 m-thick shear zone containing at least three generations of centimeter to decimeter-scale leucogranitic sills and dykes that intrude into gneisses, metapelites, calc-silicates, and marbles of the GHS (Cottle et al., 2007; Figure 3.3). This section displays well-developed fabrics and mylonites, the intensity of which increases up-section. Cottle et al. (2007) suggested the lower exposed portions of the shear zone reached deformation temperatures $>500^{\circ}\text{C}$, based on the occurrence of syn-kinematic fibrolitic sillimanite. Cottle et al. (2007) also reported estimated P - T conditions of $705 \pm 30^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 7.8 ± 1.5 kbar based on preliminary garnet-biotite thermometry and garnet-plagioclase-aluminosilicate-quartz barometry.

Unlike the Rongbuk and Ra Chu examples, the Dzakar Chu exposure appears not to feature a sharp, brittle fault at the transition between the GHS rocks below and TSS

rocks above. Instead, Cottle et al. (2007) describe a progressive drop in shear zone temperatures at higher structural levels. At the highest levels of the section, low-grade metaclastic rocks with weak cleavage were interpreted by Cottle and co-workers as Ordovician TSS rocks.

4. Previous estimates of the timing and magnitude of slip on the STDS in the Everest region

Great efforts have been made over the past 25 years to resolve the magnitude and duration of slip on the Qomolangma detachment. Hodges et al. (1992) argued that slip on the structure was on-going at the time of upper amphibolite facies metamorphism in the GHS mylonites at *ca.* 21-20 Ma based on the overlapping ages of U/Pb and $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dates of metamorphic titanite and hornblende, respectively. This interpretation was strengthened by the inference by Law et al. (2011) that at least some of the mylonitic fabrics in the shear zone were developed under upper amphibolite facies conditions. Subsequent (U-Th)/Pb work documented that mylonitic fabrics were developed in *ca.* 16.7 to 16.4 Ma leucogranite sills (Hodges et al., 1998; Murphy and Harrison, 1999; Cottle et al., 2015), but Cottle et al. (2015) showed that cross-cutting, post-mylonitization leucogranite dikes limited ductile STDS deformation to being older than 15.6 Ma.

Schultz et al. (2017) generated $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and (U-Th)/He data for eight leucogranite samples from the Rongbuk shear zone that placed additional constraints on their post-15.6 Ma exhumation history. Following the approach of Thiede and Ehlers (2013), they modeled footwall exhumation histories that implied a steep drop from exhumation rates of *ca.* 3 to 4 km/Ma to ≤ 0.5 km/Ma at roughly 13 Ma. Schultz et al.

(2017) inferred from these results that STDS activity continued on the brittle Qomolangma detachment between *ca.* 15.4 Ma and 13 Ma, but then ceased, with exhumation subsequent to *ca.* 13 Ma reflecting erosional processes rather than tectonic denudation by slip on the detachment. Projecting the modeled exhumation rates back in time, Schultz et al. (2017) estimated total brittle displacement on the detachment to be between *ca.* 36 and 119 km. Schultz et al. (2017) added these values to the ductile deformation estimates (*ca.* 25 to 170 km) presented by Law et al. (2011), indicating *ca.* 61 to 289 km of total slip occurred on the STDS in the Everest region during the Miocene.

Less is known regarding the age and slip magnitude for the STDS based on studies of the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu exposures. Monazite from an unfoliated dyke that intruded almost orthogonal to the host rock foliation at Dzakar Chu yielded a $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{232}\text{Th}$ date of *ca.* 20.4 Ma, implying that the fabric of the shear zone at this locality developed prior to this time (Cottle et al., 2007). Cottle et al. (2007) also adopted a simple trigonometric model for STDS displacement at Dzakar Chu, using their P – T estimates of $705 \pm 30^\circ\text{C}$ and 7.8 ± 1.5 kbar and the approximate 32° dip of the mylonitic foliation to calculate a minimum horizontal displacement of *ca.* 50 km. Noting that the detachment may have been rotated locally by subsequent faulting from its primary orientation, those authors repeated the calculation using what they regarded as the 15°N regional dip of the STDS and hypothesized that the displacement may have been as high as *ca.* 80 to 120 km.

5. New Thermochronologic Data

Many of the thermochronologic studies that explored the slip histories of Basin and Range metamorphic core complexes in western North America observed a progressive younging of cooling ages in the footwall along the dip direction of the main detachments (John and Foster, 1993; Brady et al., 2002; Stockli, 2005; Bricchau, 2004; Evans et al., 2015). For example, the ZrnHe apparent ages presented by Evans et al. (2015) show a *ca.* 20 Myr decrease along the Snake Range detachment in Nevada. Though Schultz et al. (2017) did not observe this trend in their Rongbuk data, it is possible that there was not enough down-dip length in the footwall exposures they studied to reveal such a distribution. The Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu exposures of the STDS proximal footwall offer the possibility to revisit the question of down-dip variability in closure dates. To that end, we collected footwall samples at both localities for both $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and (U-Th)/He thermochronology (Figure 3.2). From the Ra Chu section, we collected one sample (RC01) that contained both calc-silicate and amphibolite lithologies. From the Dzakar Chu exposures, we collected one leucogranite (DC01) and two biotite gneiss samples (DC02, DC03).

5.1 Methods

5.1.1 $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ thermochronology

Muscovite and biotite crystals from the 250 to 500 μm size fraction were handpicked and cleaned. Samples were individually wrapped in aluminum foil packets and loaded into small aluminum disks, which were interdispersed with grains of biotite standard HD-B1 (24.18 ± 0.09 Ma, uncertainty at 1σ , Schwarz et al., 2007) to monitor the

overall neutron flux. Synthetic and natural K and Ca salts were added to determine interfering nuclear production ratios. Ra Chu biotite and Dzakar Chu muscovites were irradiated in a Cd-shielded package at the Oregon State University CLICIT facility for 0.33 hours.

After irradiation, the unknowns, monitors, and standards were loaded into an ultrahigh-vacuum line for argon isotopic analysis. The analytical experiments involved incremental heating of individual crystals using a Photon Machines/Atlex ArF 193 nm excimer laser operated at successively high power levels ranging from 0.8 to 3 W for biotite sample RC01 and 0.6 to 10 W for muscovite sample DC01. Released gasses were purified by passing them over hot and cold SAES NP10 metal alloy ‘getters’ prior to Ar isotopic analysis with a Nu Instruments *Noblesse* magnetic sector mass spectrometer. For most release steps, signals were measured using an ETP ion counting detector, but a few ^{40}Ar signals were so large that a Faraday detector (fitted with a 10^{11} Ohm resistor) was used. The fully automated laser heating, automated valves operation, and data acquisition was computer controlled using Alan Deino’s *MassSpec* software program.

Cooling age results were calculated using Isoplot 3.75 (Ludwig, 2012). Both the biotite and muscovite incremental heating analyses resulted in plateau ages, defined as three or more steps comprising 50% or more of the total ^{39}Ar in a sample, with individual calculated ages that overlap at the 2σ level without propagation of the J -value uncertainty (Fleck et al., 1977). The reported plateau dates and their 2σ uncertainties (inclusive of the J -value uncertainties) represent the ^{39}Ar -weighted means of the ages of all the steps defining each plateau. We also used the inverse-isochron method (Grove and Harrison, 1996) to determine if there was a presence of excess argon in the biotite of sample RC01.

While the inverse-isochron initially implied the presence of excess argon with a $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratio, we removed three heating steps, B, E, and J that were not steps included in the calculation of the plateau age. The removal of these steps resulted in a $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratio that lies statistically within the range of the atmospheric ratio of 295.5 and displays a MSWD of 0.65.

5.1.2 (U-Th)/He thermochronology

Using a binocular microscope, individual crystals of clear, euhedral, and apparently inclusion-free zircon and apatite were picked for (U-Th)/He dating from rough concentrates. We report dates for five individual crystals of apatite for sample DC03 and between four and six zircon grains per sample (Tables B2 and B3). Each crystal was measured to establish the necessary parameters for the alpha ejection corrections of the resulting dates using the approach of Farley et al. (1996) for apatite and Hourigan et al. (2005) for zircon. For both minerals, we assumed a homogeneous distribution of U and Th for determining correction factors. The grains were then loaded into small niobium tubes prior to analysis. All helium measurements were made with an Australian Scientific Instruments (ASI) *Alphachron* system, which features a 45 Watt, infrared (980 nm) diode laser for gas extraction and a Balzers *Prisma QMS 200* quadrupole mass spectrometer for isotopic measurements. Gasses including helium were released from apatite by laser heating for five minutes at 9A, and from zircon by laser heating for ten minutes at 20A. The released gasses were mixed with a known quantity of ^3He spike in preparation for isotope-dilution analysis, after which the mixture was purified of reactive gasses using a combination of hot and cold metal alloy getters. Along with sample unknowns, we also

analyzed aliquots of Fish Canyon zircon and Durango fluorapatite to monitor system performance, and empty Nb tubes to allow for blank correction of the resulting data.

After ^4He analysis, each sample packet was unloaded from the laser chamber and dissolved for U and Th analysis. Apatites were dissolved using 25 μl of 50% nitric (HNO_3) acid that contains a mixed spike of ~ 5 ng of ^{230}Th and ~ 15 ng of ^{235}U . In contrast, zircons were digested at elevated temperatures and pressures in Parr vessels using concentrated hydrofluoric (HF), nitric (HNO_3), and hydrochloric (HCl) acids mixed with the U+Th spike. After dissolution, samples, together with specially prepared batches of spiked standard solutions, were analyzed for U and Th using a Thermo Scientific *ICAP-Q* inductively coupled, plasma source mass spectrometer.

The He, U, and Th data were used to calculate raw ages using an iterative approach to the (U-Th)/He age equation. Within this calculation, the concentration of ^{235}U is derived from the measured ^{238}U concentration using the known ratio of these isotopes in nature. The raw ages are then corrected for alpha ejection as described above. All uncertainties for ApHe and ZrnHe dates reflect the full propagation of analytical errors, but no errors were assigned to the alpha ejection correction calculations or propagated into the reported uncertainties.

5.2 Results

A biotite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ (BtAr) incremental release experiment was conducted on material separated from the Ra Chu sample RC01 (Tables 3.1 and B2; Figure 3.5). Although there was some apparent age variability in the first few steps of the experiment, many contiguous, high-temperature steps – representing 68.1% of the ^{39}Ar released

during the experiment – defined a statistically significant plateau (Fleck et al., 1977) indicative of a 13.39 ± 0.38 Ma BtAr closure age. While excess ^{40}Ar is a commonly encountered problem in Himalayan biotites (Hubbard and Harrison, 1989; Viskupic et al., 2005; Adams et al., 2015; Stübner et al., 2017), it can be difficult to detect and account for unambiguously in many cases due to the fact that high radiogenic yields are common in these biotites. The RC01 biotite, however, shows significant distribution on a $^{36}\text{Ar}/^{40}\text{Ar}$ vs. $^{39}\text{Ar}/^{40}\text{Ar}$ correlation diagram (Figure 3.5). Despite some scatter on such a diagram, the distribution is suggestive of an initial $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratio close to atmospheric, so we infer that the ca. 13.4 Ma plateau date is robust.

Tables 3.1 and B2 show the (U-Th)/He zircon (ZrnHe) data for RC01. (We were unable to identify and separate sufficiently clean and large apatite crystals from this sample for (U-Th)/He analysis.) ZrnHe dates for five individual crystals range between 10.62 ± 0.33 Ma and 13.92 ± 0.41 Ma. This range is greater than would be expected from analytical imprecision alone. Unfortunately, attempts to identify outliers using the Hampel identifier method (Pearson, 2011) failed, so we conservatively estimate the ZrnHe closure date for RC01 as 11.9 ± 1.3 Ma, the inverse variance-weighted standard deviation of the weighted mean as magnified by the square root of the mean squared weighted deviation (MSWD) in accordance with common practice (Wendt and Carl, 1991).

DC01 muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ step-heating age spectra can be found in Figure 3.5 and Tables 3.1 and B1. The DC01 muscovite yielded a plateau age of 13.693 ± 0.092 Ma and like the muscovite release spectra of the Rongbuk samples, displayed uncomplicated behavior. Based on the ample availability of micas, particularly muscovite, in the

Rongbuk valley samples, we expected to find similar yields in the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu samples. Unfortunately, the leucogranites and calc-silicates collected from the footwall rocks at Ra Chu did not contain any muscovite and provided only biotite. Sample DC01 from Dzakar Chu produced muscovite, however, the other Dzakar Chu samples either did not contain micas or if they did, the biotite grains were unsuitable to send for irradiation.

Inverse-variance weighted mean ZrnHe for the Dzakar Chu samples DC01, DC02, and DC03 can be found in Tables 3.1 and B2. The Dzakar Chu ZrnHe dates are also over-dispersed. The Hampel method identified two individual ZrnHe dates from sample DC03: z04 (8.59 ± 0.26 Ma) and z06 (8.31 ± 0.25 Ma). Finding no other outliers, we multiplied each weighted mean's date 2σ uncertainties by the square-root of their individual MSWD values. ZrnHe dates for the Dzakar Chu samples range from 12.16 ± 0.35 Ma to 8.67 ± 0.54 Ma.

For all Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu samples, we plotted the individual ZrnHe dates of each sample against effective uranium (eU) values (where $eU = 0.235[\text{Th}] + [\text{U}]$) to determine if radiation damage could explain the younger ZrnHe dates, even though ZrnHe analyses from Rongbuk indicated no correlation between the cooling ages and eU (Guenther et al., 2013; Schultz et al., 2017). These samples also did not display a correlation between cooling age and eU.

The ApHe inverse-variance weighted mean for five individual apatite grains in sample DC03 is 10.2 ± 2.6 Ma and can be found in Tables 3.1 and B3. The Hampel method identified no outliers and thus we expanded the uncertainty of its weighted mean as we did for the ZrnHe dates described above.

As has been observed in other low-angle detachment systems (e.g. Stockli et al., 2001; Brady, 2002; Bricchau, 2004; Stockli, 2005; Evans et al., 2015), we expected to observe a younging trend in thermochronometric cooling ages from the Rongbuk valley down the dip of the detachment to the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu sampling collection sites over ten kilometers to the north. Indeed, the MsAr plateau age for sample DC01 (13.963 ± 0.092 Ma) is younger than the youngest MsAr plateau age revealed for the Rongbuk valley (14.400 ± 0.060 Ma; Schultz et al. (2017)) even taking into account the uncertainties of each plateau age. ZrnHe cooling ages from Dzakar Chu samples DC01 and DC02 are also younger than what was revealed from the Rongbuk leucogranites to the south, although the weighted mean ZrnHe dates from the Ra Chu sample and sample DC03 compare very well with ZrnHe cooling ages from the Rongbuk samples, making our assessment of a down-dip younging of cooling ages more nebulous. One explanation for these contradicting ZrnHe cooling ages is that slip on this particular structure was very rapid, as shown by the thermal-kinematic modeling results of Schultz et al. (2017), resulting in nearly horizontal isotherms, differing from other low-angle normal fault systems with slower slip rates. A second potential causation for both younger and older ZrnHe cooling ages in the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu samples is the possible enrichment of parent isotopes around the rims of these zircon crystals, as was reported by Orme et al. (2015) for zircons in the Rongbuk valley. As explained in Hourigan et al. (2005), zircon crystal rims with much higher eU values than the core may lead to an underestimate of the true ZrnHe date.

6. 2D Thermal-Kinematic Modeling

The addition of data from the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu exposures to the Schultz et al. (2017) thermochronological dataset invites multi-dimensional thermal-kinematic modeling, the results of which can be compared with the simpler 1D modeling approach used by Schultz et al. (2017).

6.1 Methods

Our 2D approach took advantage of the widely used *Pecube software environment* of Braun (2003) and Braun et al. (2012). *Pecube* solves the three-dimensional advection-diffusion equation to predict thermochronometer cooling ages. The version of *Pecube* that we employed also incorporates the Neighborhood Algorithm (NA) presented in Sambridge (1999), which searches for optimal values of given parameters of the model that will minimize a misfit function defined by the difference between observed ages and predictions (Equation 3.1):

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{N} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(\alpha_{i,pred} - \alpha_{i,obs})^2}{\sigma_i^2}} \quad (3.1)$$

Prior values for our 2D thermal-kinematic inversion modeling are presented in Table 3.2 and the overall model setup can be seen in Figure 3.4. An ASTER Global Digital Elevation Model V002 (GDEM) covering the entire Everest region and valleys to the north (86.6°E, 28.4°N; 87.4°E, 27.9°N) was incorporated into *Pecube*. The model depth was set to 35 kilometers and the model ran through a total of 11 time steps based on our observed thermochronologic data. As is true for most thermal-kinematic models,

this version of *Pecube* requires a “spin-up” time. We set this to 40 Ma because earlier trials in which we prescribed a later spin-up time (i.e. 25 Ma), the model did not have enough time to adjust to the given scenario set by the thermal parameters. Following this time step, we had a single 5 million-year time step from 20 to 15 Ma. We set the topography half its value for the 40 and 20 Ma time steps as *Pecube* requires a similar start-up adjustment for topography. We implemented the topography as it appears today for every time step after 20 Ma, which we believe to be a sound decision based on the paleotopographic evidence presented in Gébelin et al. (2013) that argued the Mount Everest massif was close to its present-day elevation by *ca.* 15 to 13 Ma. After 15 Ma, we set the model to run one million-year time steps until 7 Ma. A final time step was set from 7 Ma to the present day as we do not have any thermochronological constraints following ApHe closure at *ca.* 8 Ma.

We modeled the STDS as a single shear surface, setting the intersection of the detachment with the surface to be [87.4°E, 27.94°N; 86.6°E, 27.94°N], constrained by its southern exposure on the Everest summit and the longitudinal range of the footwall exposures down-dip at the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu (Figure 3.4). The Indus-Tsangpo suture zone marks the northern boundary of the detachment.

Pecube models fault movement as one half-space moving with respect to the other. We decided that the hanging wall should remain fixed, with displacement entirely due to the southward motion of the footwall. This assumption is supported by several former studies (Walker et al., 1999; Vannay and Grasemann, 2001; Searle et al., 2003; Law et al., 2004; Jessup et al., 2006; Cottle et al., 2007; Schultz et al., 2017), all of which interpreted the STDS as a passive roof fault to the southward-extruding GHS.

Based on what we know from the previous work at Rongbuk, we set two time intervals for slip on the detachment: T1 to reflect the duration of ductile deformation and T2 to encompass slip during brittle displacement. We set T1 to be between *ca.* 20 and 15.6 Ma, based on the geochronologic constraints in Cottle et al. (2015). We acknowledge that these constraints are only truly valid for the movement of footwall at Rongbuk and are only estimates for the other two localities. Cottle et al. (2007) pointed out that mylonite fabric development had ended by *ca.* 20.4 Ma at Dzakar Chu, however, there is no upper limit for that estimate. Thus, the amount of ductile deformation revealed by the modeling results will be treated as a minimum estimate. We set the timing for brittle displacement, T2, to range between 15.5 and 9 Ma, based on our thermochronological results and those of Schultz et al. (2017).

Pecube allows the user to implement changes in the dip angle of a fault and although the mylonitic fabric at Dzakar Chu dips more steeply than at Rongbuk, there is a possibility that the detachment rotated after displacement (Cottle et al., 2007). As there is no such evidence for a change in geometry down-dip of the detachment elsewhere in the region, we applied a constant dip to the detachment (Figure 3.4). Unfortunately, it is difficult to test different geometric scenarios as the *Pecube* software only allows the user to set the geometry of the structure before the model run begins. *Pecube* does, however, permit the variation of the structure's dip. We set the priors for the northernmost depth of the detachment to vary between 1 and 20 km for the inversion run to try to determine the depth of the detachment, however, this was not a primary goal of this study.

For the inversion, we ran 40 samples with 24 iterations for a total of 1000 models. We decided that the basal temperature and heat production should be free parameters

during the inversion runs as the published values for these parameters range widely. Estimated radiogenic heat production values for GHS rocks range between *ca.* 3 and 0.8 $\mu\text{W}/\text{m}^3$ (Ray et al., 2007; Whipp et al., 2007). We set the basal temperature to range between 600 and 1000°C.

6.2. Predicted versus observed thermochronological data from forward modeling

Before beginning the inversion, we ran a forward model using the 1D thermal parameters in Schultz et al. (2017) to determine how thermochronological cooling ages predicted by *Pecube* would compare to the observed cooling ages. The input thermal parameter constraints from Schultz et al. (2017) are indicated in Table 3.4. For the forward model, we specified that ductile slip on the detachment should occur between *ca.* 20 and 15.6 Ma and the slip rate to be *ca.* 23 km/Ma – the average slip rate that would produce the average total ductile displacement estimate in Law et al. (2011). Based on the 1D thermal-kinematic results of Schultz et al. (2017), we specified the interval *ca.* 15.4 to 13 Ma for brittle displacement to occur the detachment and a faster slip rate of *ca.* 33 km/Ma. We also set the detachment dip to 10°. The results of the forward model are presented in Table 3.3 and Figure 3.6. There is general agreement with the predicted and observed cooling ages, although the predicted dates for MsAr are *ca.* 0.5 to 1 Ma older than published MsAr plateau ages and the MsAr plateau age of sample DC01. Similarly, the observed plateau age for the RC01 biotite sample is slightly younger than the predicted BtAr cooling age. The predicted ZrnHe dates are also somewhat older than the observed dataset, although half of the modeled cooling ages fall within the 2σ uncertainties of the observed ZrnHe dates. Two of the exceptions, the *ca.* 24.6 Ma

predicted ZrnHe dates for samples DC01 and DC03 were unrealistic predictions made by the model, probably due to the fact that the simple, planar fault geometry we implemented would predict that samples at these locations would be in the hanging wall, rather than in the footwall where they were actually collected. Two of the predicted ApHe cooling ages (R01 and DC03) are within uncertainty of the observed dates, however the *ca.* 10.2 Ma predicted ApHe cooling age for sample R02 is *ca.* 2.4 Ma older than what is observed. Given these discrepancies, we also used the NA inversion option in *Pecube* software (see Section 6.1) to determine what thermal and structural parameters might yield better fits to the data.

6.3 2D thermal-kinematic NA inversion modeling results

The results of the NA inversion are shown in Figure 3.7 as six scatterplots in the parameter space. Each symbol represents a forward model and the type of symbol reveals the quality of fit to the data (using the misfit Φ). The inversion run resulted in misfit values between 5345 and 2.82 (see Equation 3.1). The ranges of parameter values revealing the lowest misfits from the inversion run can be found in Table 3.4 and the best fit model is indicated by a star on each of the plots in Figure 3.7. Results reveal a wide range of acceptable values for the temperature at the Moho (*ca.* 700 to 1000°C) and high estimates for radiogenic heat production (*ca.* 2.6 to 1.48 $\mu\text{W}/\text{m}^3$). The best-fit northernmost detachment depth at the location of the suture zone is *ca.* 3.2 km below sea level, resulting in a very shallow detachment dip of *ca.* 5°, which agrees with field observations that the detachment dips no more than 10° (Figure 3.7B). Preliminary best-fit slip rates for T1 (*ca.* 20 to 15.6 Ma) during ductile deformation range from *ca.* 19 to

50 km/Ma, with total ductile displacement estimates ranging from *ca.* 84 to 219 km (Figure 3.7D and E). Results suggest extension during lower-temperature brittle deformation (T2) occurred following MsAr closure at *ca.* 15.5 Ma until *ca.* 13 Ma with best-fit average slip rates even faster for those during ductile deformation ranging between *ca.* 33 and 48 km/Ma (Figure 3.7C and D). Best-fit estimates for total brittle slip from *ca.* 15.4 to 13 Ma are between *ca.* 83 and 119 km (Figure 3.7F). Adding the slip estimates for T1 and T2 implies *ca.* 167 to 338 km of total displacement on the STDS.

7. Discussion

7.1 Comparing 1D and 2D modeling approaches

New MsAr, BtAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe datasets from the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu combined with the Rongbuk thermochronology results of Schultz et al. (2017) and 2D thermal-kinematic modeling indicate at least *ca.* 84 km of ductile displacement occurred on the STDS from *ca.* 20 to 15.6 Ma. Ductile deformation on the detachment was followed by at least *ca.* 83 km slip in the ductile-brittle to brittle realm from *ca.* 15.4 to 13 Ma. Added together, these estimates suggest a minimum total displacement on the STDS of *ca.* 167 to 338 km in the Everest region.

The STDS slip histories revealed by our multidimensional modeling are directly comparable to those in Schultz et al. (2017) that suggested *ca.* 36 to 119 km of brittle displacement took place on the Qomolangma detachment in the Rongbuk valley between *ca.* 15.4 and 13 Ma based on exhumation histories produced by 1D thermal-kinematic modeling. The similarities of the results between the 2D modeling method presented here and 1D modeling scheme originally introduced by Thiede and Ehlers (2013) and used in

Schultz et al. (2017) suggest that, when tectonic denudation is rapid enough beneath a very shallowly dipping detachment, simpler 1D models may adequately reflect the basic physics of exhumation and cooling (Table 3.4). Previous workers, however, have emphasized the generally improved representation of orogenic thermal structures provided by multi-dimensional models (Whipp et al., 2007; Herman et al., 2010). Whipp et al. (2007), for example, employed a 3D thermal-kinematic model to explore exhumation in the Marsiyangdi region of central Nepal and argued that, because of extreme topography and non-vertical exhumation pathways, 1D-models could produce more misleading results than multi-dimensional models. We certainly agree that the effects of topography and lateral heat advection due to faulting can affect the thermal evolution of samples significantly in orogenic environments, but the degree to which these complications matter when denudation is dominantly controlled by tectonic denudation depends critically on the exhumation rate dictated by the slip rates and geometries of the major detachments involved (Ruppel et al., 1988). Apparently, the combination of a very shallow dip of the STDS and the rapid exhumation of the footwall prevented formation of a geometrically complex thermal field in our study area in southern Tibet. When one-dimensional modeling is a viable option for at least obtaining a first-order understanding of the thermal evolution of a region, it has a clear practical advantage over two-dimensional modeling: each of our 1D models developed for the Rongbuk samples (Schultz et al., 2017) represent hundreds of thousands of simulations that were completed over the course of a day, while the 1000 multidimensional models presented here required many weeks of computational time.

7.2 Tectonic significance

The 1D thermal-kinematic modeling results in Schultz et al. (2017) and results of the *Pecube* NA inversion run offer strong arguments that the STDS was a tectonically significant structure in the Miocene evolution of the Himalaya and likely accommodated a minimum of 160 km of slip. Observed MsAr dates from the region generally agree with predicted dates from forward modeling using *Pecube* and indicate closure through the *ca.* 490°C isotherm from *ca.* 15.8 to 14.2 Ma, with slightly younger predicted MsAr and BtAr dates at Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu. Inversion modeling results suggest high-temperature detachment slip rates over the period of *ca.* 20 to 15.6 Ma were anywhere from *ca.* 19 to 50 km/Ma, the average of which are comparable to the ductile slip rates implied by the estimates of Law et al. (2011). Rapid exhumation of the footwall slowed drastically after ZrnHe closure at *ca.* 13 Ma, as indicated in both the observed ZrnHe bedrock dataset as well as the ZrnHe modeled dates. NA inversion results imply that brittle slip on the detachment, with more rapid slip rates between *ca.* 33 and 48 km/Ma, likely occurred over the period of *ca.* 15.4 to 13 Ma.

Estimated slip rates for the STDS, during both high-temperature ductile displacement and low-temperature brittle slip, are reasonable; they are, for example, comparable to moderate sea-floor spreading half-rates (Müller et al., 2008). However, we note that previously estimated slip rates on Basin and Range detachments are typically an order of magnitude lower (Brady, 2002; Evans et al., 2015). One reason for this discrepancy may be the unusual tectonic significance of the STDS. Unlike detachment systems in continental regions where the entire lithosphere is in extension, the STDS served as a roof structure for an evolving infrastructure within a collisional orogen

(Hodges, 2016), likely originating as a consequence of the dramatic gradient in gravitational potential energy between a Miocene Tibetan Plateau and the much lower elevation Indian craton to the south (Hodges et al., 2001).

The results of both the 1D (Schultz et al., 2017) and 2D thermal-kinematic modeling indicate substantial amounts of displacement on the STDS, possibly over 300 km, and favor the interpretation that the STDS represents the top boundary of the southward-extruding GHS (Hodges et al., 2001; Jamieson et al., 2004; Cottle et al., 2007). The timing of the cessation of slip at *ca.* 13 Ma is consistent with other estimates for the end of STDS displacement to the east in Sikkim and Bhutan (Leloup et al., 2010; Cooper et al., 2012, 2013; Kellett et al., 2013; Braun et al., 2016).

8. Conclusions

New and previously published thermochronological datasets including MsAr, BtAr, ZrnHe and ApHe, paired with results from multidimensional thermal-kinematic modeling of the data, constrain the Miocene slip history of the STDS in the Everest region of south-central Tibet. NA inversion modeling of the thermochronological datasets and free thermal parameters of the GHS footwall in this region reveal a minimum of *ca.* 84 to 219 km of ductile deformation taking place between *ca.* 20 and 15.6 Ma. Models with the lowest misfit values indicate that the transition from ductile to brittle slip on the detachment likely occurred following MsAr closure at *ca.* 15.4 Ma and that total brittle displacement on the STDS was *ca.* 83 to 119 km, almost as much movement as during ductile shearing. High radiogenic heat production values between *ca.* 2.6 and 1.48 $\mu\text{W}/\text{m}^3$ accompanied movement on the shallowly dipping detachment. STDS displacements this

large favor tectonic models that invoke channel flow of the Greater Himalayan sequence, with the STDS acting as the upper boundary. Models that suggest the STDS was a minor structure in the evolution of Himalayan tectonics are incompatible with our results (Yin, 2006; Webb et al., 2007; Webb, 2013; He et al., 2015).

9. Acknowledgments

This work was supported by National Science Foundation Tectonics Program grants EAR1007929 and EAR1346360 to K.V.H. Many thanks to Ding Lin (Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research), Paul Kapp (University of Arizona), and Ross Waldrip (University of Arizona) for their exceptional logistical assistance during fieldwork in Tibet. Many thanks to Jean Braun (Université Joseph Fourier – Grenoble, France) for guidance with the *Pecube* software. Thanks also to Adam Forte (Arizona State University) for great help and insightful discussions regarding the *Pecube* modeling setup.

10. Figure Captions

Figure 3.1. Map of the central Himalaya showing the E-W striking STDS. The trace of the detachment is after Hodges (2000).

Figure 3.2. Generalized geologic map of the Everest region in south-central Tibet showing the Rongbuk valley sampling localities of Schultz et al. (2017) and the sample collection sites of this study at Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu. The dark shading indicates the units of the Greater Himalayan Sequence, separated from the Tibetan Sedimentary Sequence above by the STDS (Qomolangma detachment at Rongbuk). Shapes and colors

of symbols indicated the chronometric systems analyzed in each sample. Abbreviations: MsAr = muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$, BtAr = biotite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$, ZrnHe = zircon (U-Th)/He, and ApHe = apatite (U-Th)/He.

Figure 3.3. Field photographs of the STDS footwall shear zones at Ra Chu (3.3A and B) and Dzakar Chu (3.3C and D). The Ra Chu section exposes ~30m of calc-silicate and the tourmaline leucogranites. To the west is the spectacular ~1000 m exposure of the STDS zone at Dzakar Chu, consisting of biotite gneisses and leucogranitic sills and dykes of all sizes.

Figure 3.4. Forward and inversion 2-D thermal-kinematic modeling set-up. DEM (ASTER Global Digital Elevation Model V002) of the Everest region (86.6°E, 28.4°N; 87.4°E, 27.9°N) with the top layer indicating changes in elevation. The depth of the model is 35 km and the basal temperature was initially set to 650°C for the forward models, though was allowed to vary during the inversion. White circles indicate Rongbuk sampling localities of Schultz et al. (2017). The orange circle shows the locality of sample RC01 and the green circles to the west are the sample sites at Dzakar Chu.

Figure 3.5. $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ results for biotite sample RC01 and muscovite sample DC01. The release spectra for DC01 and RC01 reveal plateau ages (all uncertainties quoted at 2σ) and the inverse-isochron for RC01 provides a $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratio within statistical uncertainty of atmosphere and a low MSWD.

Figure 3.6. Plot of all measured and modeled cooling ages. Measured ages for MsAr, BtAr, ZrnHe and ApHe are represented by colored symbols (MsAr, hexagon; BtAr, square; ZrnHe, triangle; ApHe, circle) and error bars showing their 2σ uncertainties. Colored cross symbols represent the modeled cooling age resulting from forward modeling using the 1D parameters.

Figure 3.7. Results of the Neighborhood Algorithm (NA) inversion as scatter diagrams of the misfit between observations and predictions. Each symbol corresponds to a forward model run (1000 runs total). The position of the symbol is determined by the value of the model parameters (see Table 3.2). The symbol shape is proportional to the value of the misfit. Circles: misfits less than 3; Triangles: misfits between 3 and 20; Squares: misfits between 20 and 100; Diamonds: misfits greater than 100. The best-fit models are indicated by the stars.

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TABLE 3.1: THERMOCHRONOLOGIC DATA FOR THE RONGBUK VALLEY, RA CHU, AND DZAKAR CHU

Sample	Location	Elevation m	Rock Type	MsAr (Ma)*	BtAr (Ma)*	ZrnHe (Ma)**	ApHe (Ma)**
RONGBUK [‡]							
R01	28.14056 N 86.85194 E	5157	Leucogranite	15.37 ± 0.16 (98.8)	-	11.4 ± 2.4 (4)	9.3 ± 2.8 (6)
R02	28.17328 N 86.84003 E	5114	Mylonitized leucogranite	15.000 ± 0.060 (100)	-	13.0 ± 1.5 (4)	7.76 ± 0.52 (2)
R03	28.17300 N 86.84297 E	5089	Mylonitized leucogranite	15.25 ± 0.11 (99)	-	12.9 ± 1.7 (2)	-
R04	28.18148 N 86.83585 E	5025	Mylonitized leucogranite	15.420 ± 0.050 (99.8)	-	14.32 ± 0.21 (4)	-
R05	28.19000 N 86.83243 E	5019	Leucogranite	15.400 ± 0.060 (100)	-	13.1 ± 1.7 (4)	-
R06	28.20502 N 86.82913 E	5128	Mylonitized leucogranite	14.400 ± 0.070 (100)	-	11.0 ± 1.1 (4)	-
R07	28.20610 N 86.82580 E	4997	Leucogranite	14.770 ± 0.070 (99.9)	-	12.9 ± 1.9 (7)	-
R08	28.21285 N 86.82395 E	4961	Leucogranite	14.450 ± 0.080 (99)	-	13.66 ± 0.17 (5)	-
RA CHU							
RC01	28.35530 N 86.67233 E	3942	Calc-silicate and Amphibolite	-	13.39 ± 0.38 (68.1)	11.9 ± 1.3 (5)	
DZAKAR CHU							
DC01	28.34593 N 87.22805 E	3907	Mylonitic leucogranite	13.963 ± 0.092 (89)	-	10.05 ± 0.74 (4)	-
DC02	28.33858 N 87.25626 E	3885	Biotite Gneiss	-	-	8.67 ± 0.54 (7)	-
DC03	28.33664 N 87.27357 E	4380	Leucogranite and Biotite Gneiss	-	-	12.16 ± 0.35 (7)	10.2 ± 2.6 (5)

All uncertainties are quoted at 2σ

[‡]Rongbuk valley samples can be found in *Schultz et al. (2017)*

* Numbers in parentheses indicate the total %³⁹Ar making up the plateau Ar-Ar age.

** Numbers in parentheses designate number of analyses contributing to the mean.

TABLE 3.2: NA INVERSION 2D MODELING INPUT PARAMETERS

PARAMETER	VALUE
FIXED PARAMETERS	
Model dimensions	45 km N-S 80 km E-W
DEM node spacing (x, y, z directions)	50 m
Thermal diffusivity ^a	29 km Myr ⁻¹
Moho depth ^b	35 km
Surface temperature ^b	5°C
Atmospheric lapse rate	6.69°C km ⁻¹
PRIOR PARAMETERS	
<i>Thermal</i>	
Basal T temperatures	600 - 1000°C
Radiogenic heat production	0.4 to 3 μW/m ³
<i>Fault</i>	
T2 span of brittle slip	15.5 to 9 Ma
T1 (ca. 20 to 15.6 Ma) slip rates	5 to 50 km Ma ⁻¹
T2 (ca. 15.5 to 9 Ma) slip rates	5 to 50 km Ma ⁻¹

^aFrom Ray et al. (2007); Whipp et al. (2007)

^bFrom Thiede and Ehlers (2013)

TABLE 3.3: OBSERVED VERSUS EXPECTED THERMOCRONOLOGIC COOLING AGES FOR THE RONGBUK VALLEY, RA CHU, AND DZAKAR CHU FROM FORWARD MODELING

Sample	Valley	Location	Elevation (m) (Observed)	MsAr ± 2σ (Observed)	MsAr (Predicted)	BtAr ± 2σ (Observed)	BtAr (Predicted)	ZmHe ± 2σ (Observed)	ZmHe (Predicted)	ApHe ± 2σ (Observed)	ApHe (Predicted)
R01	Rongbuk	28.14056 N 86.85194 E	5157	15.37 ± 0.16	15.61	-	-	11.4 ± 2.4	13.8	9.3 ± 2.8	10.5
R02	Rongbuk	28.17328 N 86.84003 E	5114	15.000 ± 0.060	15.550	-	-	13.0 ± 1.5	13.9	7.76 ± 0.52	10.20
R03	Rongbuk	28.17300 N 86.84297 E	5089	15.25 ± 0.11	15.65	-	-	12.9 ± 1.7	13.8	-	-
R04	Rongbuk	28.18148 N 86.83585 E	5025	15.420 ± 0.050	15.758	-	-	14.32 ± 0.21	14.24	-	-
R05	Rongbuk	28.19000 N 86.83243 E	5019	14.400 ± 0.060	15.051	-	-	13.1 ± 1.7	13.7	-	-
R06	Rongbuk	28.20502 N 86.82913 E	5128	14.770 ± 0.070	15.044	-	-	11.0 ± 1.1	13.7	-	-
R07	Rongbuk	28.20610 N 86.82580 E	4997	14.450 ± 0.070	14.933	-	-	12.9 ± 1.9	13.8	-	-
R08	Rongbuk	28.21285 N 86.82395 E	4961	14.930 ± 0.080	15.075	-	-	13.66 ± 0.17	13.98	-	-
RC01	Ra Chu	28.35530 N 86.67233 E	3952	-	-	13.39 ± 0.38	13.98	11.9 ± 1.3	13.9	-	-
DC01	Dzakaa Chu	28.34593 N 87.22805 E	3907	13.693 ± 0.092	14.241	-	-	10.05 ± 0.74	24.62	-	-
DC02	Dzakaa Chu	28.33858 N 87.25626 E	3885	-	-	-	-	8.67 ± 0.54	11.80	-	-
DC03	Dzakaa Chu	28.33664 N 87.27357 E	4380	-	-	-	-	12.16 ± 0.35	24.62	10.2 ± 2.6	9.5

TABLE 3.4: COMPARISON OF 1D AND 2D THERMAL-KINEMATIC MODELING PARAMETERS AND RESULTS

PARAMETER	1D MODEL ^a	2D MODEL
Basal Temperature	650°C	700 - 1000°C
Heat Production	23°C/Ma	<i>ca.</i> 17 to 30°C/Ma
DUCTILE DISPLACEMENT ca. 20 to 15.6 Ma	<i>ca.</i> 25 to 170 km ^b	<i>ca.</i> 84 to 219 km
BRITTLE DISPLACEMENT ca. 15.5 to 13 Ma	<i>ca.</i> 36 to 119 km	<i>ca.</i> 83 to 119 km
TOTAL STDS DISPLACEMENT	<i>ca.</i> 61 to 289 km	<i>ca.</i> 167 to 338 km

^a1D modeling parameters and results are from Schultz et al. (2017)

^bDuctile displacement estimate from Law et al. (2011)

FIGURE 3.1

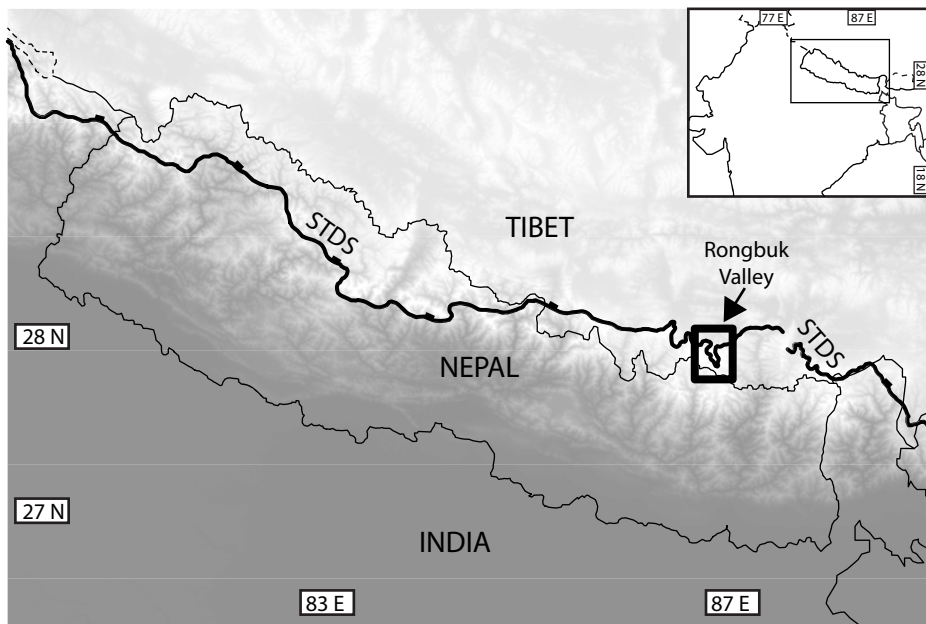


FIGURE 3.2

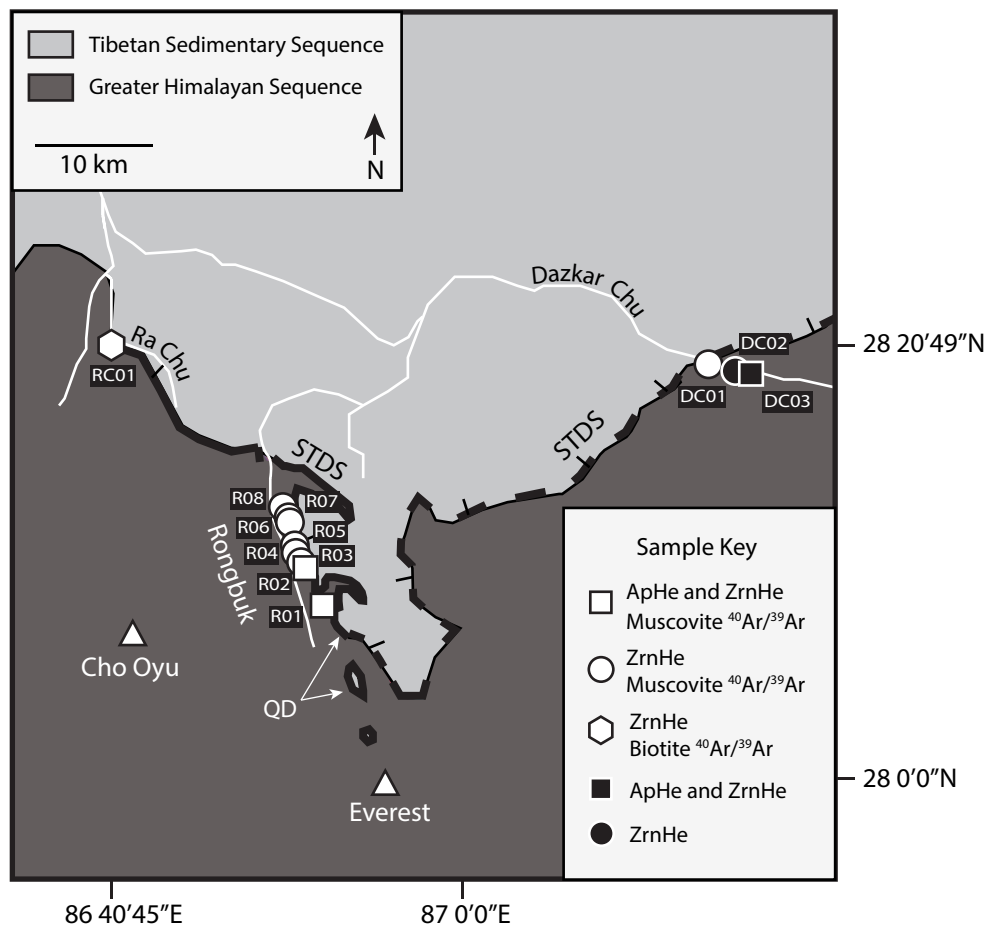


FIGURE 3.3

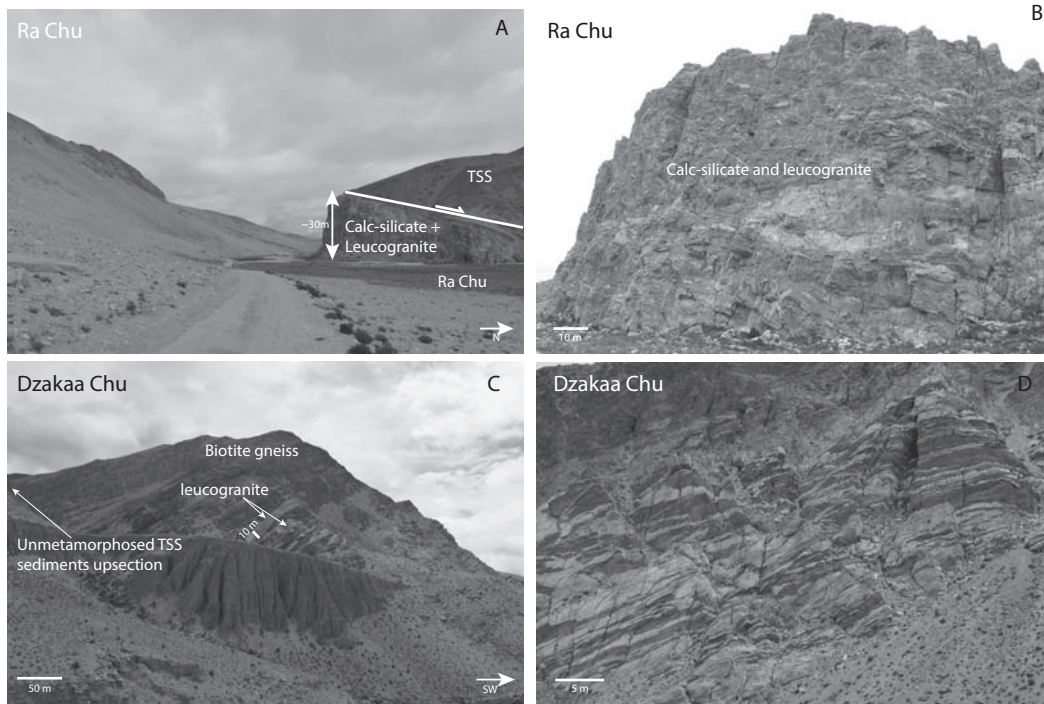


FIGURE 3.4

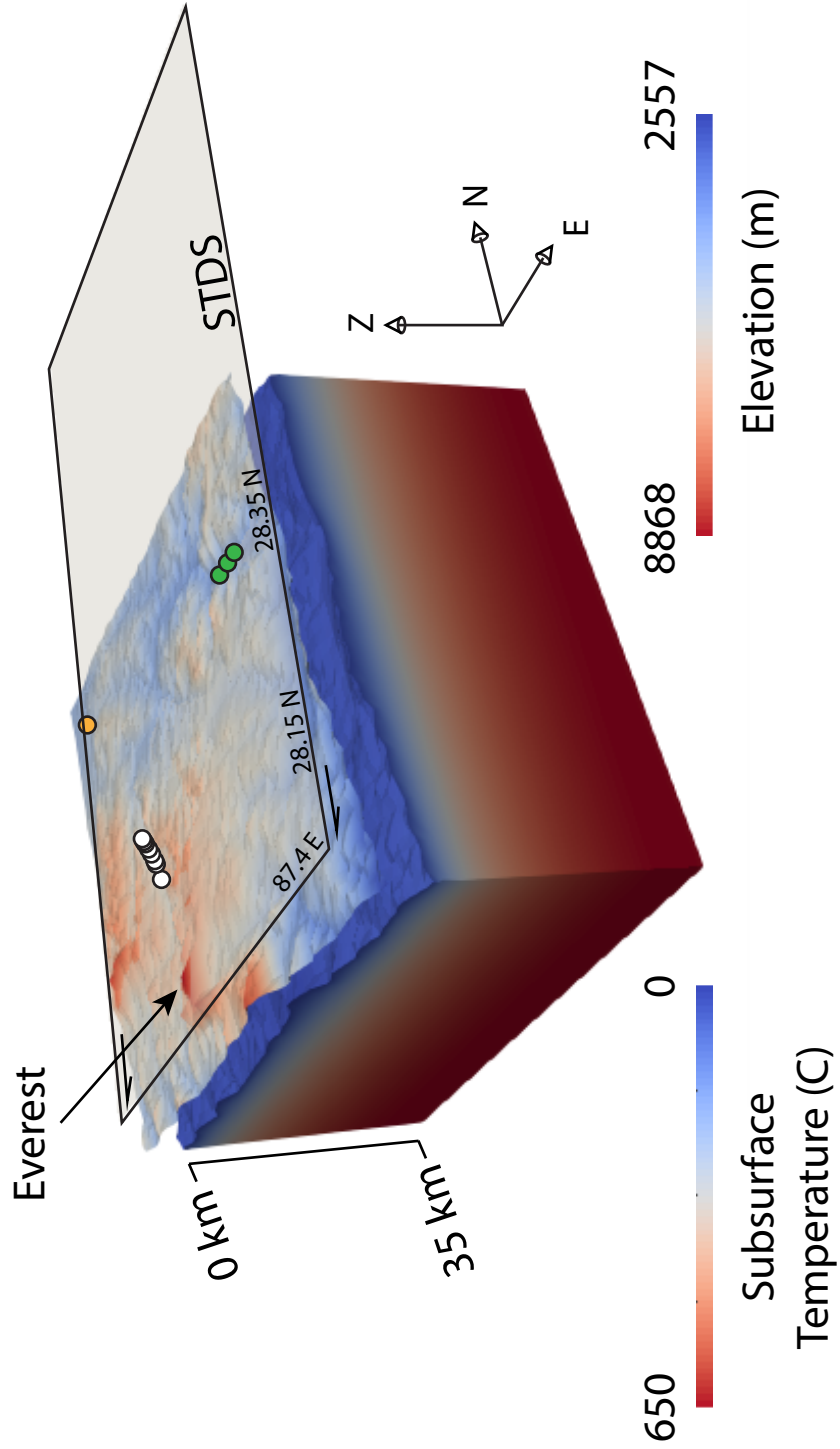


FIGURE 3.5

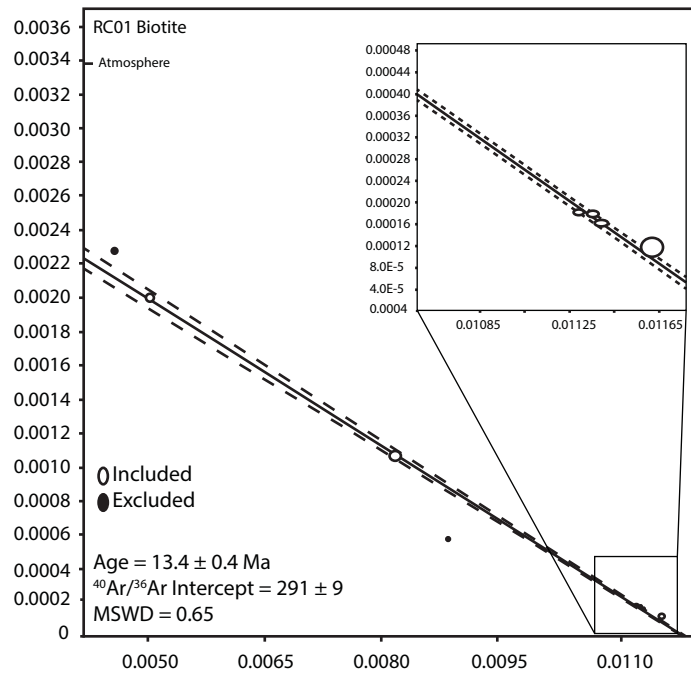
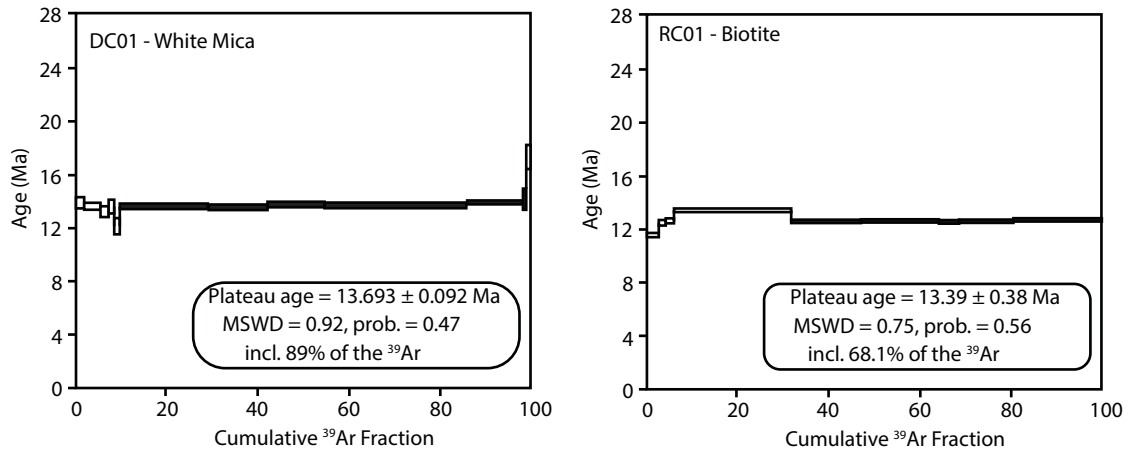


FIGURE 3.6

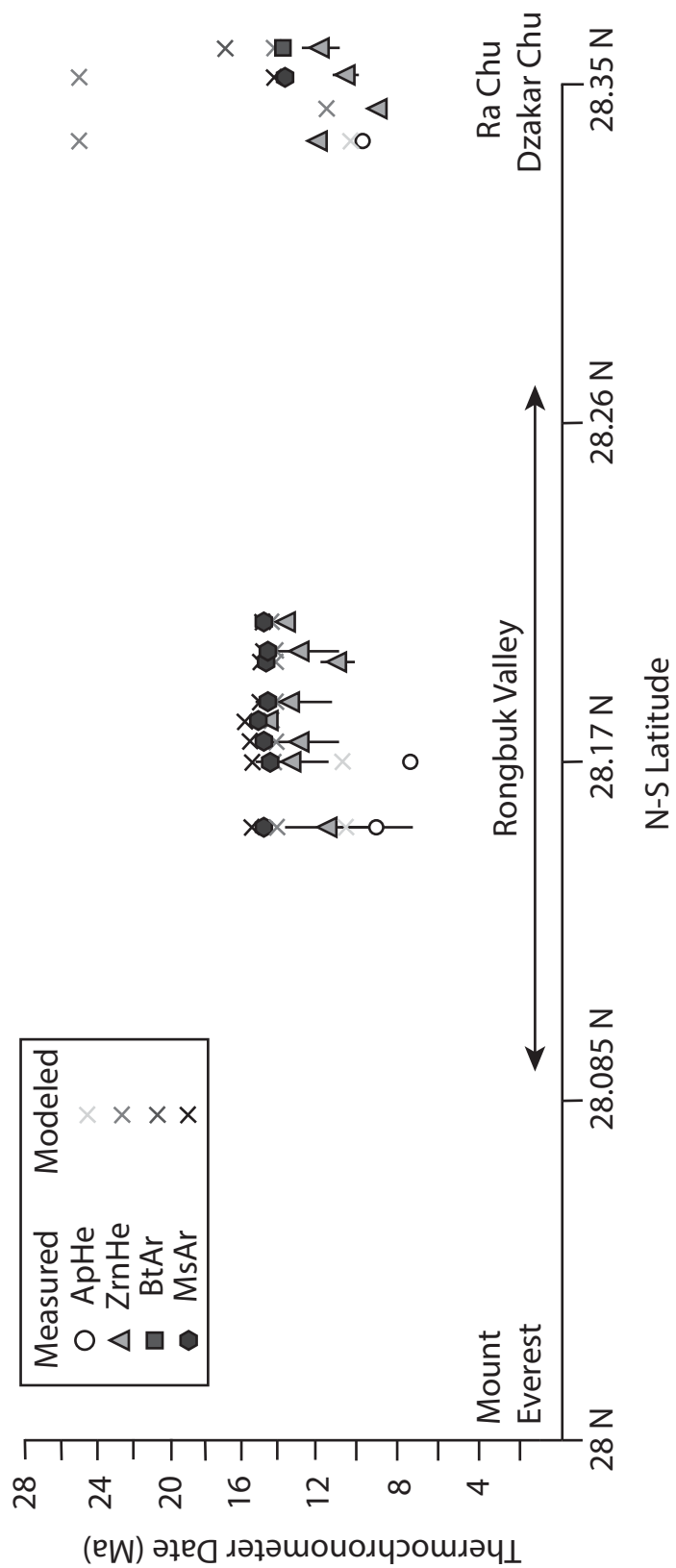
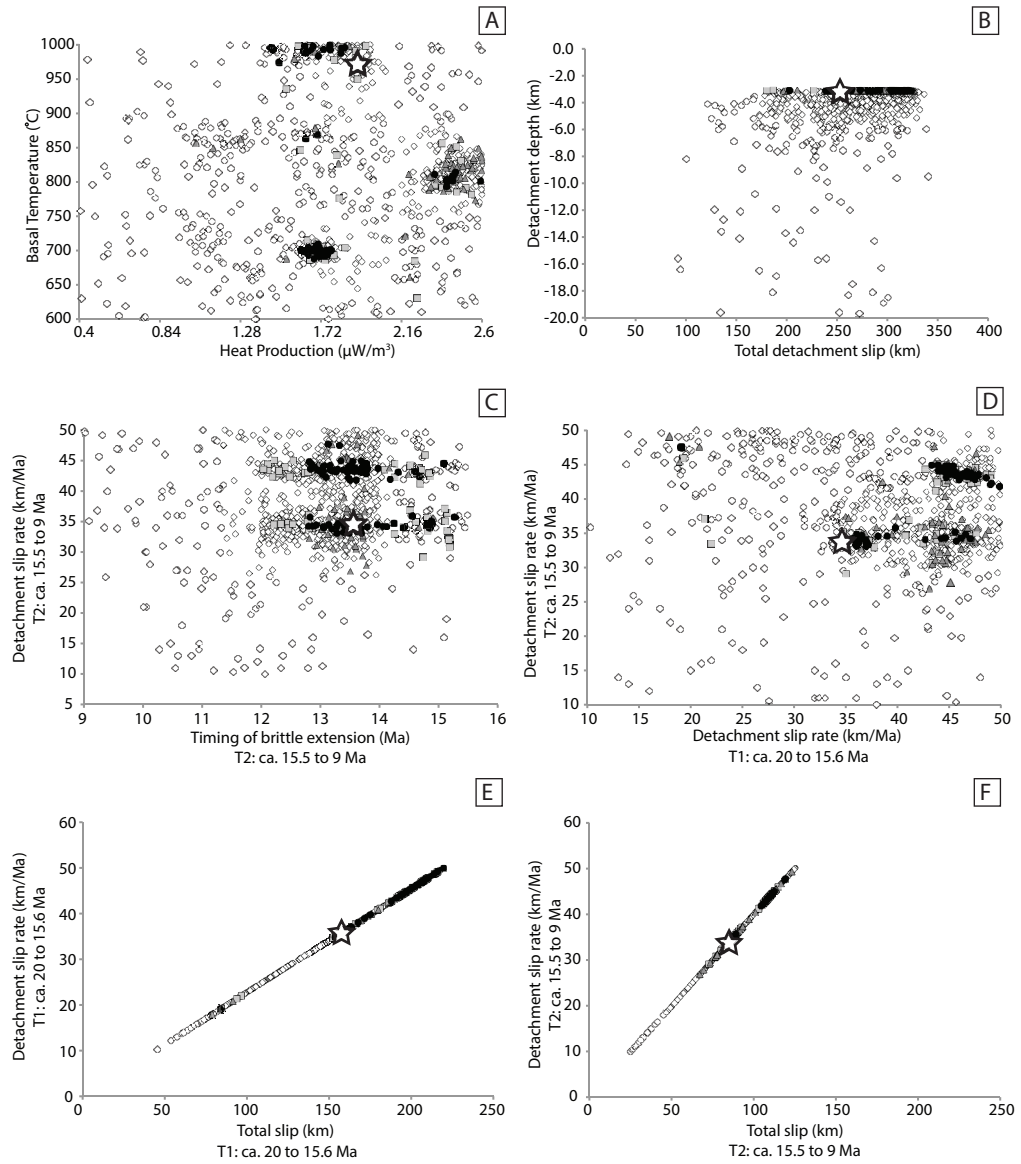


FIGURE 3.7



Misfit values: $\diamond 100 < \Phi$ $\square 20 < \Phi < 100$ $\blacktriangle 3 < \Phi < 20$ $\bullet \Phi < 3$
 Best-fit model: \star

CHAPTER 4

CONSTRAINING LONG-TERM EXHUMATION HISTORIES NORTH AND SOUTH OF THE HIMALAYAN RAIN SHADOW

1. Abstract

The Himalayan ranges of South Asia form one of the world's most impressive rain shadows. Data from the NASA – Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency Tropical Rainfall Measurement Mission (TRMM) suggest that precipitation in the central Himalaya drops from more than four meters per year along the southern flanks of the Higher Himalaya to about half a meter per year north of the range crest on the southern Tibetan Plateau. How long this rain shadow has existed remains poorly understood. In order to establish whether or not the million-year timescale signature of exhumation mimics the modern precipitation pattern, we present comparative thermochronologic datasets collected along a transect that crosses the precipitation transition in the Everest area of southern Tibet and Nepal. Zircon and apatite (U-Th)/He dates for Greater Himalayan Sequence (GHS) bedrock samples from the southern flank are about ten million years younger than ages for samples to the north of the transition. Modeled exhumation rates for samples north of the range crest were high (≥ 3.5 mm/a) from ≥ 20 Ma until *ca.* 13 Ma, when they decreased rapidly. In sharp contrast, modeled exhumation rates for samples south of a major knickpoint in the Dudh Kosi river profile were low (*ca.* 0.5 to 1 mm/a) until *ca.* 4 Ma, when rates increased rapidly to *ca.* 4 mm/a until *ca.* 2 Ma. These results are consistent with the initiation of the Himalayan rain shadow in roughly its current configuration backward to at least Pliocene time.

2. Introduction

Mountain landscapes are shaped by the complex interactions between climate and plate tectonics, yet the precise nature of this relationship, particularly on million-year timescales, remains ambiguous. The Himalayan Mountains are among the best localities on Earth to investigate such interactions because they construct one of the world's starkest rain shadows (Figure 4.1). The oceans surrounding India and the elevated Tibetan Plateau produce a temperature and pressure gradient that results in the annual Indian summer monsoon (ISM), which is generally active from June until September (Bookhagen and Burbank, 2006). Data from NASA/Japan Aerospace Agency's joint Tropical Rainfall Measurement Mission (TRMM) for the period 1998 – 2005 reveal a drastic rainfall disparity across the Himalaya (Figure 4.1). Regions of the central Himalaya directly south of the range front may receive a mean of four meters of rainfall per year, while southern Tibet north of the range crest receives less than half a meter of rainfall annually (Bookhagen and Burbank, 2006). It is widely inferred that a modern-day feedback exists between precipitation and bedrock erosion in the Himalaya, with higher rates of erosion in regions that experience the annual ISM (Bookhagen et al., 2005a; Bookhagen et al., 2005b; Gabet et al., 2008; Wulf et al., 2010). The geomorphology of the central Himalaya provides compelling support for such feedback, with the strongest evidence residing in the topographic and river profiles across the width of the range. Precipitation-erosion feedback invites one approach to evaluating the longevity of the Himalayan rain shadow: if it persisted far back into deep time, we should see evidence for differential erosion north and south of the range preserved in thermochronologic datasets. This notion has inspired a variety of previous studies with discrepant

conclusions (Burbank et al., 2003; Thiede et al., 2004, 2009; Blythe et al., 2007). We regard the differences as largely reflecting the fact that studies were conducted along ‘Transhimalayan’ rivers that breach the rain shadow and may affect local precipitation patterns (Barros et al., 2006). In this contribution, we present new data and exhumation rate models for a transect that is not along a Transhimalayan river but still crosses the steep ISM precipitation gradient in the Everest region of southern Tibet and Nepal (Figure 4.1), with the aim of reducing interpretive ambiguity.

3. Physiography, monsoon rainfall, and bedrock geology in the study transect

Figure 4.2 illustrates a topographic profile, at the approximate longitude of Mount Everest, from the Himalayan range front to the south to the Tibetan Plateau to the north. The physiographic edge of the plateau – referred to as PT_1 by Hodges et al. (2001) – roughly corresponds to the Himalayan range crest in such transects, but more useful markers of its position are prominent knickpoints in the Transhimalayan rivers, where lower stream gradients on the plateau abruptly give way to very steep stream gradients on the southern flank of the Himalaya (Figure 4.1). In the area of the transect shown, there is no Transhimalayan drainage, so a practical edge of the plateau is less easily defined. An argument could be made that it corresponds to the range crest, but an alternative interpretation is that it might pass through a major knickpoint on the Dudh Kosi river, which – while not Transhimalayan – has its source just south of the highest peaks in the transect (Figures 4.2 and 4.3).

However PT_1 is defined, the regions immediately to its south include the steepest river and stream gradients in the Himalaya, which are widely regarded to correspond with

the regions having the most aggressive, ISM-driven, fluvial erosion along the southern flank of the range (Hodges et al., 2001; Wobus et al., 2006). This inference is supported by the N-S distribution of rainfall as measured by the TRMM data (Figure 4.1). In detail, maps of calibrated 1998 – 2005 data show two rainfall maxima. A minor maximum occurs in the Himalayan foothills, but the highest rainfall by far occurs at the approximate position of the Dudh Kosi knickpoint and tapers off abruptly to the north (Figure 4.2). Samples collected on either side of this abrupt transition in the Everest region are the focus of the current study (Figure 4.3). Thermochronologic data from these samples – combined with a previously published dataset (Schultz et al., 2017) for samples collected north of Mount Everest and clearly on the plateau – help constrain how long-term exhumation rates correlate with modern rainfall and erosion patterns. Stable isotope paleoaltimetry suggests that the Miocene elevation of Mount Everest was >5000 m (Gébelin et al., 2013), and thus it seems likely that at least the broad physiography of this region was not substantively different since that time than it is today.

The samples used in this study and that of Schultz et al. (2017) were collected from the Greater Himalayan sequence (GHS) of Hodges (2000): predominantly metapelitic and metaigneous rocks that represent the metamorphic core of the range and reached their highest upper amphibolite to granulite facies metamorphic conditions during the Miocene. Two samples in this study as well as all of the samples used in Schultz et al. (2017) were collected from small leucogranitic sills and dikes that intrude the GHS country rocks. Extensive (U-Th)/Pb geochronology of the leucogranites in the Everest area suggest they range in age from *ca.* 25 to *ca.* 15 Ma (Copeland et al., 1988; Hodges et al., 1992, 1998; Murphy and Harrison, 1999; Cottle et al., 2007, 2015). The

upper boundary of the GHS is a low-angle fault system with normal-sense kinematics: the north-dipping South Tibetan detachment system (STDS) of Burchfiel et al. (1992). In the Everest area, the structurally highest fault in the STDS has been named the Qomolangma detachment, which crops out at the base of a klippe high on the Everest summit pyramid, dipping a few degrees northward (Figure 4.3). The main trace of the detachment is exposed several tens of kilometers to the north near the floor of the Rongbuk valley in southern Tibet, where the samples studied by Schultz et al. (2017) were collected, in the proximal footwall of the Qomolangma detachment.

4. Previous thermochronologic work in the Mount Everest region

Streule et al. (2012) reported fission-track apatite and zircon dates for samples collected above and below the STDS in the Khumbu region of Nepal. Their results include extremely young apatite fission (ApFT) track cooling ages for GHS samples, ranging between *ca.* 3.1 Ma and *ca.* 0.9 Ma. Their fission-track zircon (ZrnFT) data set shows much greater variability. Samples collected closer to the crest of the range yielded dates much older (*ca.* 16 Ma) than those for samples collected 10 – 20 km to the south (*ca.* 3 Ma). The very young ApFT and ZrnFT dates reported by Streule et al. (2012) are consistent with previous results for samples collected at similar structural levels elsewhere in the Himalaya (Blythe et al., 2007; Thiede and Ehlers, 2013). Streule et al. (2012) interpreted their very young dates as a response to rapid erosion by glaciation in the Pliocene.

More recently, Orme et al. (2015) and Carrapa et al. (2016) published zircon (U-Th)/He (ZrnHe) and ApFT dates for samples collected in the Rongbuk valley. The

weighted mean ZrnHe dates of Orme et al., (2015) ranged from *ca.* 12 to 10 Ma; however, those dates were considered by the authors to be “too young” due to high concentrations of parent isotopes [U+Th] in the rims of the zircon crystals, which resulted in incorrect alpha ejection corrections of raw (U-Th)/He dates (cf., Hourigan et al., 2005). They reported “corrected” ages of *ca.* 17 to 14 Ma. The ApFT dates of Carrapa et al. (2016), ranging from *ca.* 15.6 Ma to 12.7 Ma, are much older than those of Streule et al. (2012). Comparing the two datasets, Carrapa et al. (2016) interpreted them as collectively implying a difference in million-year timescale exhumation rates on either side of the central Himalayan range crest. While our data support and better quantify this basic interpretation, we disagree with Carrapa and co-workers with regard to where the transition takes place and its root cause, as we discuss in detail below.

Schultz et al. (2017) presented a dataset including muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ laser step heating (MsAr) and zircon and apatite (U-Th)/He from the Rongbuk valley. MsAr laser step heating resulted in plateau ages ranging from *ca.* 15.42 to *ca.* 14.4 Ma. ZrnHe dates were younger than the MsAr plateau ages and ranged from *ca.* 14.32 to *ca.* 11.0 Ma. ApHe dates from two samples were younger still, ranging from *ca.* 9.3 to *ca.* 7.76 Ma. The range of reported ZrnHe dates of Schultz et al. (2017) are older than the uncorrected dates of Orme et al. (2015) but significantly younger than their corrected dates. Noting that the correction approach used by Orme et al. (2015) is often imperfect due to the common geometric complexity of zircon zoning, and that many of their corrected helium dates are older than reported crystallization ages of zircons in the Rongbuk valley leucogranites (Cottle et al., 2015), Schultz et al. (2017), suggested that the Orme et al. (2015) corrected dates are likely too old due to over-correction.

5. New thermochronologic results

Here we report new MsAr, biotite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ (BtAr), ZrnHe, and ApHe cooling ages for bedrock samples collected south of the Everest massif (see Table 4.1 and Appendix Tables C1, C2, and C3 for the complete thermochronologic dataset). All work was done in the Group 18 Laboratories at Arizona State University, using methods described in the Supplementary Materials.

5.1 MsAr and BtAr

Muscovite and biotite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ laser step heating data were generated for single mica crystals for six biotite gneiss and leucogranite samples (Tables 4.1 and C1). Only two of our samples contained muscovite: leucogranites K07 and K08. Both yielded incremental release spectra (Figure 4.4) with statistically defined plateaus (Fleck, 1977) indicative of similar middle Miocene closure ages of 16.413 ± 0.074 Ma (K07) and 16.77 ± 0.16 Ma (K08). Of the six analyzed biotites, only two yielded plateaus: K01 (12.80 ± 0.19 Ma) and K07 (16.461 ± 0.059 Ma). Both BtAr plateaus are illustrated in Figure 4.4. The remaining four biotite spectra each were relatively flat but did not yield statistically defined plateaus (Figure C1). In general, such behavior may reflect contamination by excess ^{40}Ar (Kelley, 2002), and corrected ages sometimes can be deduced for contaminated biotites by analyzing the data using so-called “inverse isochron” plots (Roddick et al., 1980). For biotites K02, K03, K04, and K08, however, such analysis did not yield statistically acceptable linear arrays, so it is impossible to reliably estimate the contaminated, non-radiogenic $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ necessary for robust corrections. In Table 4.1 we

simply report the “total gas” apparent ages for these grains, each of which represents the inverse variance- and percent ^{39}Ar -weighted mean for all incremental heating steps. While noting that excess ^{40}Ar is a relatively common issue in studies of Himalayan biotites (e.g., Hubbard and Harrison, 1989; Viskupic et al., 2005; Adams et al., 2015; Stübner et al., 2017), we regard these total gas dates as the best available estimates for the $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ closure ages of our more problematic biotites. In general, the BtAr cooling dates decrease gradually from north to south: 17.18 ± 0.56 Ma for K08 to 12.80 ± 0.19 Ma for K01 (Figure 4.3).

5.2 *ApHe and ZrnHe*

Apatites lacking inclusions, of sufficient size, and with sufficiently good crystal morphology for single-crystal (U-Th)/He dating were found in samples K01, K02, K03, K04, and K08. The number of good candidates for ApHe dating limited in these samples, and we were only able to analyze between 1 and 5 grains from each of the samples (Table 4.2). The single crystal analyzed for K03 yielded an ApHe date of 1.33 ± 0.13 Ma. For samples K01 and K04, multiple crystals from each sample yielded statistically indistinguishable ApHe dates and we report the inverse-variance weighted mean date (with its analytically derived 2σ uncertainty) for these samples as the best estimates for ApHe closure. For the other samples containing acceptable apatite, several analyses were “over-dispersed”, meaning that analytical imprecision alone cannot explain the dispersion. Unfortunately, none of the over-dispersed dates for a single sample was a statistically identifiable outlier. For each over-dispersed set of dates for a single sample, we report the inverse variance-weighted mean along with the analytically derived

multiplied by the square-root of the mean square weighted deviation (MSWD) of the data from that mean. These are interpreted as the best available estimates of the ApHe closure ages of the analyzed samples. The ApHe inverse-variance weighted mean dates (and single date for K03) range from 8.1 ± 3.4 Ma to 1.33 ± 0.13 Ma, but only sample K08 – collected north of the Dudh Kosi knickpoint (Figure 4.3) – is older than *ca.* 3.4 Ma.

Our ZrnHe dates – for samples K02 through K08 – show a similar pattern. We were able to separate and date between 3 and 8 zircon crystals from each sample. For any given sample, the ZrnHe dates were over-dispersed with no obvious outliers. As we did for the samples with over-dispersed ApHe dates, we report in Table 4.1 the inverse variance-weighted mean dates, with uncertainties magnified by the square-root of the MSWD, as the best estimates of the timing of ZrnHe closure for samples K02 through K08. These dates decrease steadily south of the Dudh Kosi knickpoint (Figure 4.3) from 4.14 ± 0.77 to 2.43 ± 0.23 Ma, but samples K07 and K08 to north yield much older ZrnHe mean dates of 12.1 ± 1.4 Ma and 13.5 ± 0.93 Ma respectively.

6. Thermal-kinematic modeling

$^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ mica data for the Khumbu samples collectively indicate that the entire region south of the Himalayan range crest cooled through the elevated closure temperature intervals for the MsAr and BtAr chronometers in middle Miocene time, but the lower-temperature ZrnHe and ApHe chronometers yield markedly different dates north and south of the Dudh Kosi knickpoint. A general similarity between the $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and (U-Th)/He datasets for samples collected to the north of the knickpoint (but south of the range crest) and samples studied by Schultz et al. (2017), which were collected north

of the range crest. imply that bedrock exhumation histories for the Rongbuk and uppermost Dudh Kosi drainages were similar. The data from south of the knickpoint strongly argue that bedrock exhumation histories on million-year timescales were much different south of the knickpoint. Below we present the results of thermal-kinematic modeling of samples K02, K03, K04, K07, and K08 and compare them with the modeling results we published previously for the Rongbuk valley samples (Schultz et al., 2017). With the exception of K07, these samples were chosen for modeling because they yielded ApHe, ZrnHe, and either MsAr or BtAr dates and thus produced the best-constrained models over the entire time interval of interest. Although we do not have ApHe data for it, we also modeled K07 to better refine the geographic position a major thermochronologic transition identified using K02, K03, K04, and K08.

6.1 Methods

Two- and three-dimensional thermal-kinematic models are powerful tools to evaluate plausible tectonic scenarios that might explain the patterns of mineral cooling ages in orogenic systems, and the widespread availability of software packages such as *Pecube* (Braun, 2003; Braun et al., 2012) have encouraged many such efforts in recent years. Multidimensional models are especially useful when the broad topographic and structural configuration of a study area is well-established, and the constraints sought are principally structural in nature (e.g., the ages and magnitudes of fault slip events, etc.). Computationally simpler one-dimensional models can be more enlightening when structural information is not the principal goal. For our purposes, we want to know how sample-to-sample variations in thermochronologic results for samples collect across a

landscape might reflect geographic variations in exhumation rate. One-dimensional models are very well suited to such studies, and their simplicity offers valued opportunities to explore a broad range of plausible exhumation histories before settling on the most probable range of histories (Thiede and Ehlers, 2013; Adams et al., 2015; Schultz et al., 2017).

The thermal-kinematic modeling approach we used for the Dudh Kosi samples was introduced by Thiede and Ehlers (2013). Based on a modified, one-dimensional version of the *Pecube* software package, it employs a smart-search Monte Carlo method to determine the range of exhumation models that could reasonably reproduce the thermochronometric dataset obtained for each sample given an assumed set of thermo-physical properties and boundary conditions. (See Supplementary Materials for details on specific assumptions made in this study.) For each sample, we conducted 500,000 forward modeling runs of thermal histories over the past 20 Ma using an initial temperature increments of 3 million years between 20 and 17 Ma, one million year increments between 17 and 3 Ma, and a last increment between 3 Ma and the present. During each increment, the software allowed exhumation rates to vary randomly between 0.01 and 4.00 mm/a and computed the times of cooling through the nominal closure temperatures of all chronometers applied to the sample (based on values from Hodges (2014)). A specific modeling run was deemed acceptable if it matched all thermochronologic results within appropriate uncertainty bounds. All acceptable runs from among the 500,000 tries were then used to determine a best-fit exhumation rate and its 2σ uncertainty range for each time increment.

6.2 Modeling Results

Our modeling results for the Dudh Kosi samples are shown in Figure 4.5 along with that for the southernmost of samples from the Rongbuk valley studied by Schultz et al. (2017): R01. Comparing their thermochronologic results from the Rongbuk valley with those of other workers from the southern flank of the Himalaya, Carrapa et al. (2016) concluded that the Himalayan range crest in the Everest region marked a major transition in thermochronologic ages that corresponded with a major transition in exhumation history. In detail, our data are inconsistent with this conclusion. All thermal-kinematic models for samples we collected in the Rongbuk valley north of Everest – as illustrated by the R01 model reproduced in Figure 4.5 – feature a dramatic drop in exhumation rate at *ca.* 13 Ma and very low exhumation rates after *ca.* 8 Ma (Schultz et al., 2017). The models for samples K08 and K07– collected south of the Himalayan crest (Figure 4.2) – are similar in many ways to models of the Rongbuk valley samples; they show a steeply declining exhumation rate from *ca.* 17 to *ca.* 12 Ma, and exhumation rates remain very low (*ca.* 0.75 km/Ma or less) between *ca.* 12 Ma and the present. These results indicate that essentially the same pattern of Miocene-Recent exhumation rate evolution persists roughly 12 km south of the Himalayan range crest. However, a dramatic transition in exhumation rate evolution occurs farther south in the Dudh Kosi valley. Models for samples K04, K03, and K02 display a late, post-5 Ma acceleration in exhumation rate up to values of 3.5-4.0 km/Ma (Figure 4.5).

7. Alternative interpretations

Comparison of the patterns of modern precipitation, thermochronologic data, and derived exhumation rate models demonstrate that exhumation rates at the million-year timescale in the Dudh Kosi valley correlate spatially with modern precipitation rates (Figure 4.3). The latitudes over which the transition in exhumation rate history occur appear constrained by our modeling exercise to be between 27.95° N and 27.87° N, a map distance of roughly 8.3 km. Although the paucity of datable micas or apatite in samples K06 and K05 preclude better location through thermal-kinematic modeling, a major determining factor of the topology of the models we did produce was the ZrnHe date. Samples that indicated accelerated Pliocene and younger exhumation (K04, K03, and K02) yielded Plio-Pleistocene ZrnHe dates, whereas the ZrnHe dates in K08 and K07 were much older (middle Miocene; Table 4.1). The fact that K06 and K05 zircons yielded Pliocene (U-Th)/He dates suggests strongly that the break in million-year timescale exhumation rate patterns likely occurs between the latitudes of the K07 and K06 collection sites, over a distance of no more than 2.5 km

This distance interval includes the major knickpoint in the Dudh Kosi river (the likely local PT₁) discussed in Section 2 above. It also includes the steepest precipitation gradient along the valley based on the 1998-2005 TRMM dataset: south of the K07-K06 transition, the TRMM-estimated annual rainfall is ≥ 3 m/a, but annual rainfall is ≤ 0.5 m/a north of the K07 locality. Given these correlations, at least four interpretations are possible for the observed spatial variations in million-year timescale exhumation rates across the range.

7.1 Progressive Northward Migration of the Tibetan Plateau Margin

Carrapa et al. (2016) suggested that a “protoplateau” once extended much farther south than the modern southern edge of the Tibetan Plateau in the Everest region, and that very young exhumation rates on the southern flank of the Himalaya reflect erosionally driven northward retreat of the plateau over the last *ca.* 5 Ma. This idea, which can be traced back through similar inferences regarding Himalayan thermochronometric data (e.g., Wang et al., 2010), has its origins in models designed to explain topographic evolution of the Tibetan and Andean plateaus (e.g., Masek et al., 1994). While there is no doubt that northward retreat of the Tibetan Plateau could have produced a northward-propagating signal of very young exhumation, there must be a lag between the time the edge of the plateau passes a certain point on an antecedent drainage and the time that this signal is recorded by thermochronometers (McDermott et al., 2013). At any given time during retreat, the edge of the plateau should be marked by a distinctive knickpoint; we infer that the knickpoint we identified on the Dudh Kosi marks the edge of the plateau today. While the differential precipitation across such a knickpoint is large, there is effectively no difference in the total erosion immediately to either side of the knickpoint. It is only after the knickpoint migrates upstream that the higher precipitation downstream has time to result in significant erosional exhumation. The result of this is a very gradual change in thermochronometric cooling ages. To illustrate this point, we used the approach of Whipple et al. (2016) to model the 1D evolution of a bedrock channel over a period of two million years and have considered the implications of the results in light of our 1D thermal-kinematic modeling of the

exhumation rate history for sample K07, the southernmost of our samples lying north of the modern knickpoint.

The Whipple et al. (2016) finite-element method employs the popular detachment-limited stream power river incision model (Howard, 1994; Whipple and Tucker, 1999):

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = U - KA^m S^n \quad (4.1)$$

to examine how a stream profile evolves over time. In Equation 4.1, $\frac{dz}{dt}$ is the rate of change of channel elevation, K is the erosion coefficient (set by climate and rock properties), A is the drainage area, U is rock uplift rate defined relative to erosional base level, K is an erodability coefficient, and S is the channel gradient. For our purposes, we assumed the parameters $K = 5\text{E-}10 \text{ yr}^{-1}$, $m/n = 1/2$, and $n = 2$. For our initial condition, we modeled an initial proto-plateau margin uplifting (U) at a rate of *ca.* 1.3 km/Myr, the average exhumation rate for the past *ca.* 2 Ma south of the knickpoint. To determine the amount of knickpoint retreat and the predicted position of a *ca.* 4 Ma (the ZrnHe date of K06), we ran the model for another 2 Ma and decreased the uplift rate to zero. The resulting progressive change in stream profile – as well as the progressive erosion of rock south of the northward-migrating knickpoint – is illustrated in Figure 4.6. Using the chosen parameters, the model predicts roughly 25 km of northward retreat of the knickpoint over the past two million years. We wish to add that if we ran the channel model since the onset of rapid incision (i.e. for *ca.* 5), the position of the proto-plateau would have to be much farther to the south (close the modern range front) in order for the

model to yield the right amount of migration so that the position of the knickpoint resembles that of the present-day.

Since ZrnHe closure at 12.1 Ma, the average exhumation rate for sample K07 has been 0.34 km/Ma. We take this as a reasonable estimate of the exhumation rate on the southern margin of the plateau at any time during plateau retreat. Noting that sample K06, collected <7 km south of the knickpoint, has a much younger ZrnHe cooling age of 4.14 Ma, we conducted simple thought experiment: can how deep below the present-day collection elevation of K07 would a sample need to be to yield a 4.14 Ma cooling age? Using the average exhumation rate for K07, we can estimate the depth at *ca.* 2.7 km. The projection of that horizon southward to the modern topographic profile shown in Figure 4.6 indicates the predicted locality for a sample collected today with a 4.14 Ma ZrnHe date: roughly 9.3 km south of the modern knickpoint, much farther south than the K06 collection locality. This discrepancy provides strong evidence that plateau margin retreat alone cannot explain the observed thermochronologic data. It also should be stressed that the distance estimate of *ca.* 9.3 km is an absolute minimum estimate as we did not factor in the relaxation of the ZrnHe isotherm below the plateau following the cessation of activity on the STDS into our calculations. ZrnHe isotherm relaxation after the *ca.* 12 Ma ZrnHe closure of sample K07 only makes the projected depth of a 4.14 Ma ZrnHe cooling age deeper and thus, farther to the south of the knickpoint.

7.2 Progressive Northward Growth of a Duplex System at Depth

A second possibility is suggested by previous tectonic studies and thermal-kinematic modeling of the Himalayan orogenic wedge (e.g., Cattin and Avouac, 2000;

Decelles et al., 2001; Lavé and Avouac, 2001; Bollinger et al., 2004; Bollinger et al., 2006; Herman et al., 2010; Robinson and Pearson, 2013). Many researchers have suggested the existence of a late Cenozoic structural duplex in the Lesser Himalayan tectonostratigraphic zone structurally beneath the Greater Himalayan gneisses and related to a northward-dipping ramp in the basal thrust of the wedge (Main Himalayan Thrust, or Himalayan Sole Thrust). Kinematic and thermal-kinematic models predict patterns of the cooling ages from low-temperature thermochronometers characterized by: 1) an abrupt decrease in cooling age for a specific thermochronometer (like Zr/He) from south to north above the top of the ramp (on the south side of the duplex); 2) a broad zone of young cooling ages above the duplex; and 3) an abrupt increase in cooling age from south to north above the base of the ramp on the north side of the duplex (Herman et al., 2010). The sort of abrupt south-to-north increase in cooling age predicted by such models was observed by Adams et al. (2013) in the Bhutan Himalaya, roughly coincident with the physiographic transition that occurs where the high-relief Higher Himalaya meet the more subdued Lower Himalayan ranges (Hodges et al., 2001). Noting that this disruption in cooling age pattern coincided with a steeply northward dipping structure they referred to as the Lhuntse fault, Adams et al. (2013), suggested that the fault is a normal-sense structure localized by the back of the duplex. However, this position for the back of the duplex lies far south of PT₁ in the Bhutan Himalaya, and most published interpretations of tectonic architecture of the orogenic wedge place the Lesser Himalayan duplex too far south to explain an abrupt transition in cooling ages near PT₁ such as that observed in our Khumbu transect (e.g., Lavé and Avouac, 2001). A notable exception is the geometry inferred by Herman et al. (2010) for the base of the ramp in the Himalayan Sole Thrust,

although the viability of that geometry has been questioned on the basis of recent analyses of the geodetic signature of the 2015 Gorkha earthquake in central Nepal (Whipple et al., 2016).

7.3 Young Normal Faulting at the Position of the Dudh Kosi Knickpoint

Recent work elsewhere in the central Himalaya has provided evidence for the existence of Pliocene-Pleistocene low-angle (north-dipping) normal faults (detachments) – with geometries similar to faults of the Miocene South Tibetan detachment system – at the position of major PT₁ knickpoints on Transhimalayan rivers. For example, McDermott et al. (2013, 2015) documented both field and thermochronologic evidence for such structures in the Nyalam area of southern Tibet (in the Bhote Kosi drainage) and the Annapurna-Dhaulagiri regions of central Nepal (in the Kali Gandaki and Myagdi Khola drainages). As articulated by McDermott et al. (2013), sustained activity on such a detachment would cause rock uplift rates to be higher in the footwall, leading to a sharp knickpoint in the river profile. High rates of tectonic denudation would also result in a sharp break in the pattern of dates from low-temperature thermochronometers, with much younger cooling ages south of the fault trace at the knickpoint. Similarity of the relationships between thermochronometric patterns and major knickpoints in the Bhote Kosi, Kali Gandaki, and Myagdi Khola drainages to the relationship observed in the Dudh Kosi drainage suggest that a similar structure could exist in our study area between the collection sites of K07 and K06. However, although we did not undertake detailed geologic mapping in the vicinity of the Dudh Kosi knickpoint, we saw no field evidence to support the existence of a detachment of appropriate geometry there, and study of

landforms in the area using Google Earth imagery revealed no obvious geomorphic expression of a detachment. Nevertheless, our past experience suggests that such evidence is often subtle, and thus more detailed fieldwork would be needed to test further the hypothesis that the observed thermochronometric pattern is related to young normal faulting.

7.4 Differential Erosion Due to Precipitation Patterns Persistent on Million-Year Timescales

Finally, the discrepant cooling age patterns and implied bedrock exhumation histories could be explained simply by a geographically sharp drop in monsoon rainfall on million-year timescales that mimics the current sharp drop in monsoon rainfall as constrained by TRMM satellite data (Bookhagen and Burbank, 2006). As noted in Section 1, such an inference is consistent with some previous studies of relationships between thermochronologic data and precipitation patterns elsewhere in the Himalaya and inconsistent with others (Burbank et al., 2003; Thiede et al., 2004, 2009; Blythe et al., 2007). We suggest that the discrepancies may reflect local precipitation pattern anomalies related to the channeling of monsoon storms up Transhimalayan drainages. Our study, designed to compare thermochronometric results across the Himalayan rain shadow outside a Transhimalayan drainage, avoids the possibility of ambiguity. ZrnHe and ApHe cooling age patterns and a major change in bedrock exhumation histories correspond closely to the modern-day rainfall transition (Figures 4.2 and 4.3). All of our bedrock samples collected immediately south of the rainfall transition, where mean annual rainfall amounts are typically higher than 4 m/yr, yield Plio-Pleistocene ZrnHe

and ApHe dates. These young dates persist southward along the transect even though the annual rainfall amounts decrease. We suggest this is due to the large amount of rain falling upstream, which contributes to the total flow of the Dudh Kosi downstream; erosional efficiency would be just as high in these southernmost areas as farther north where there is more annual rainfall.

The precipitous north-to-south drop in ZrnHe dates is easily explained if only the position of the Dudh Kosi knickpoint has remained geographically fixed since the Pliocene and did not retreat northward as modeled in Figure 4.6. Understanding why this might be true is challenging. Such a steady-state condition would likely require a balance of rock uplift south of the knickpoint with accelerated erosion south of the knickpoint so as to prevent upstream knickpoint migration. Such uplift might reflect accelerating growth of a ramp-related duplex, or southward extrusion of the Greater Himalayan infrastructure today beneath detachments such as those mapped by McDermott et al. (2013, 2015) in a manner similar to models southward channel flow of the Himalayan infrastructure beneath the South Tibetan detachment system (Nelson et al., 1996; Beaumont et al., 2001; Hodges et al., 2001; Grujic et al., 2002).

8. Conclusions

Contrasting modeled exhumation histories and cooling ages of GHS bedrock samples across a major erosional knickpoint in the Dudh Kosi river profile, well to the south of the range crest, suggest a strong correlation with central Himalayan rainfall patterns on million-year timescales, which is perhaps acting in concert with Pliocene extensional faulting and/or duplex growth in the Himalayan orogenic wedge. Exhumation

histories well to the north of the knickpoint in the Rongbuk valley indicate high erosion rates (*ca.* 3 mm/a) in the early Miocene from at least *ca.* 20 Ma to *ca.* 13 Ma during slip on the overlying Qomolangma detachment, after which exhumation rates drop drastically (Schultz et al., 2017). Samples K07 and K08, collected north of the knickpoint but south of the range crest, display similar exhumation histories to Rongbuk valley samples, with high exhumation rates early ~ 2 mm/a from *ca.* 20 to 13 Ma and low rates (<0.5 mm/a) from 13 Ma to the present. Modeled exhumation histories for GHS bedrock samples collected south of the knickpoint were similar prior to *ca.* 4 Ma, but different thereafter. At *ca.* 4 Ma, exhumation rates for these lower-elevation samples increased to *ca.* 4 mm/a until the Pleistocene when ZrHe closure, and only a million years later, ApHe closure, occur.

A retreating plateau margin (Carrapa et al., 2016) is not an efficient mechanism to explain the sharply contrasting exhumation histories. Though it is likely that increased erosion rates from the newly initiated monsoonal pattern beginning in the middle Miocene removed a large cover of material from the southern flank of the range, plateau incision alone would not result in a sharp transition in cooling ages as we observe, but rather a much broader decrease in cooling ages with increasing downstream distance from the modern-day location of the knickpoint. The likeliest explanations involve persistence of the current Himalayan rainfall effect backward in time until at least the Pliocene, plausibly accompanied by accelerated rock uplift related to underplating at the base of the orogenic wedge and/or southward extrusion of rocks beneath a detachment at the Dudh Kosi knickpoint.

9. Acknowledgments

This work was supported by National Science Foundation Tectonics Program grant EAR1346360 to K.V.H. The fieldwork in Nepal would not have been possible without the logistical assistance of Bhim Chand (Earth's Paradise Treks and Expeditions, Kathmandu) and Bir Tamang (Earth's Paradise Treks and Expeditions, Kathmandu). M.H.S. would like to thank Alexandra Horne (Arizona State University) for her great assistance in the field. Many thanks to Willi Kappler and Byron Adams (Department of Geosciences, Universität Tübingen) for their assistance with running the Monte Carlo version of *Pecube* used in this study. Thanks also to Adam Forte (Arizona State University) for help with the topography tools in *Matlab*.

10. Figure captions

Figure 4.1. Shaded relief map of the central Himalaya with TRMM rainfall data overlay. The range crest is shown as are hexagons revealing the locations of major knickpoints of Transhimalayan rivers as described by McDermott et al. (2013, 2015). The inset shows our study area (Figure 4.3). Major peaks (>8000 m) are indicated by triangles (DH = Dhaulagiri; A = Annapurna I, and EV = Everest).

Figure 4.2. Topographic and TRMM swath profiles at the longitude of Mount Everest. Light grey shading indicates topography (scale on left of diagram) and dark grey shading is the TRMM profile (scale on right of diagram). The bedrock sampling locations of Schultz et al. (2017) are indicated by the black circles and the white circles show the bedrock sampling localities of this study. The major knickpoint in the Dudh Kosi river

profile is indicated by the hexagon. Note the extreme vertical exaggeration of this figure.

Figure 4.3. Map of the Mount Everest region with an overlay of TRMM rainfall data showing all GHS bedrock sampling localities (circles). Schultz et al. (2017) collected samples R01 through R08 and samples K01 through K08 were collected for this study. Lighter shading indicates higher amounts annual rainfall, whereas low annual rainfall amounts are shown with darker shading. The hexagon indicates a major knickpoint in the Dudh Kosi profile.

Figure 4.4. A and B) Muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ release spectra for samples K07 and K08. Both samples yielded relatively uncomplicated plateau ages. Age information can be found in Table 4.1 and C1) Biotite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ release spectra samples K01 and K07. These are the only two biotite samples that yielded plateau ages. Age information found in Table 4.1 and C1. The biotite release spectra for samples K02, K03, K04, and K08 can be found in Appendix Figure C1.

Figure 4.5. Exhumation rate histories from thermal-kinematic modeling using a 1D version of *Pecube*. The modeled exhumation rates for sample R01 (with MsAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe constraints) are from Schultz et al. (2017). The 1D modeling results for samples K08 (MsAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe), K07 (BtAr and ZrnHe), K04, K03, and K02 (BtAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe) are from this study. The bold black lines indicate the mean exhumation rate history and the horizontal grey boxes indicate two standard deviations from the mean. The input chronometer data (along with their 2σ uncertainties) are

presented at the top of each figure pane. The number of acceptable fits to the data are noted. See Figure 4.3 for sample locality information.

Figure 4.6. Output of a simple 1D channel evolution model (e.g. Whipple et al., 2016) showing a retreating knickpoint. The solid black profile shows the channel's present-day location. The dashed profile indicates the location of the channel at 2 Ma. The dashed line is the approximate position of where a ZrnHe date of *ca.* 4.14 Ma would be based on the modeled exhumation rates of sample K07 (see Section 7.1 for explanation). Model results indicate that at least 2.7 km of material had to be removed to produce sample K04's ZrnHe date of *ca.* 4.14 Ma. If plateau incision was the sole mechanism at work, a ZrnHe date this young would not be observed until reaching a location of *ca.* 9.3 km downstream from the modern-day position of the knickpoint.

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TABLE 4.1. THERMOCHRONOLOGIC DATA FOR GREATER HIMALAYAN SEQUENCE SAMPLES, KHUMBU REGION, NEPAL

Sample number	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (m)	Rock Type	MsAr Date (Ma)	BtAr Date (Ma)	ZrnHe Date (Ma) ^c	ApHe Date (Ma) ^c
K01	27.69531°N	86.72565°E	2766	Biotite Gneiss	-	12.80 ± 0.19 (61) ^a	-	2.03 ± 0.25 (3)
K02	27.790297°N	86.718155°E	2901	Biotite Gneiss	-	13.813 ± 0.089 ^b	2.43 ± 0.23 (6)	3.4 ± 1.3 (5)
K03	27.84623°N	86.74149°E	3663	Biotite Gneiss	-	13.00 ± 0.13 ^b	2.57 ± 0.39 (7)	1.33 ± 0.13 (1)
K04	27.87391°N	86.73954°E	3999	Biotite Gneiss	-	16.85 ± 0.12 ^b	3.33 ± 0.25 (6)	2.32 ± 0.11 (2)
K05	27.89237°N	86.71404°E	4396	Biotite Gneiss	-	-	3.39 ± 0.29 (8)	-
K06	27.92701°N	86.70844°E	4596	Biotite Gneiss	-	-	4.14 ± 0.77 (4)	-
K07	27.94913°N	86.69547°E	4766	Leucogranite	16.413 ± 0.074 (90) ^a	16.461 ± 0.059 (69) ^a	12.1 ± 1.4 (6)	-
K08	27.99920°N	86.84812°E	5295	Leucogranite	16.77 ± 0.16 (76) ^a	17.18 ± 0.56 ^b	13.50 ± 0.93 (4)	8.1 ± 3.4 (3)

^aPlateau dates, quoted at two standard deviations of the ³⁹Ar and inverse variance-weighted mean for all steps. Numbers in parentheses indicates the cumulative %³⁹Ar for all steps on each plateau.

^bTotal-gas dates, quoted at two standard deviations of the ³⁹Ar- and inverse variance-weighted means multiplied by MSWD^{0.5} (to account for over-dispersion)

^cInverse-variance weighted mean dates, quoted at two standard deviations of the weighted means and multiplied by MSWD^{0.5} when necessary to account for over-dispersion. Numbers in parentheses indicate number of crystal dates averaged for the weighted mean.

FIGURE 4.1

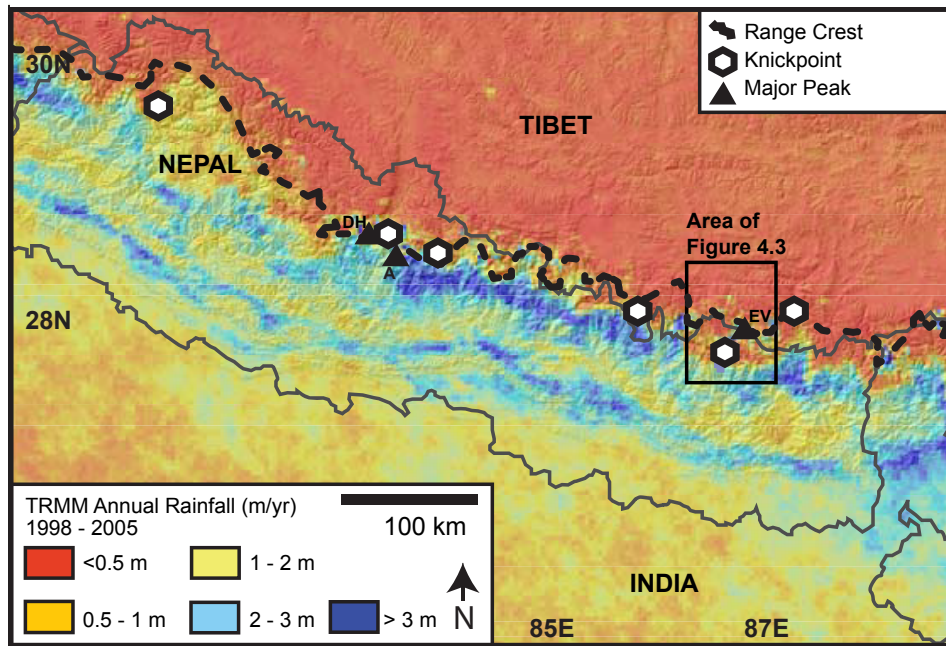


FIGURE 4.2

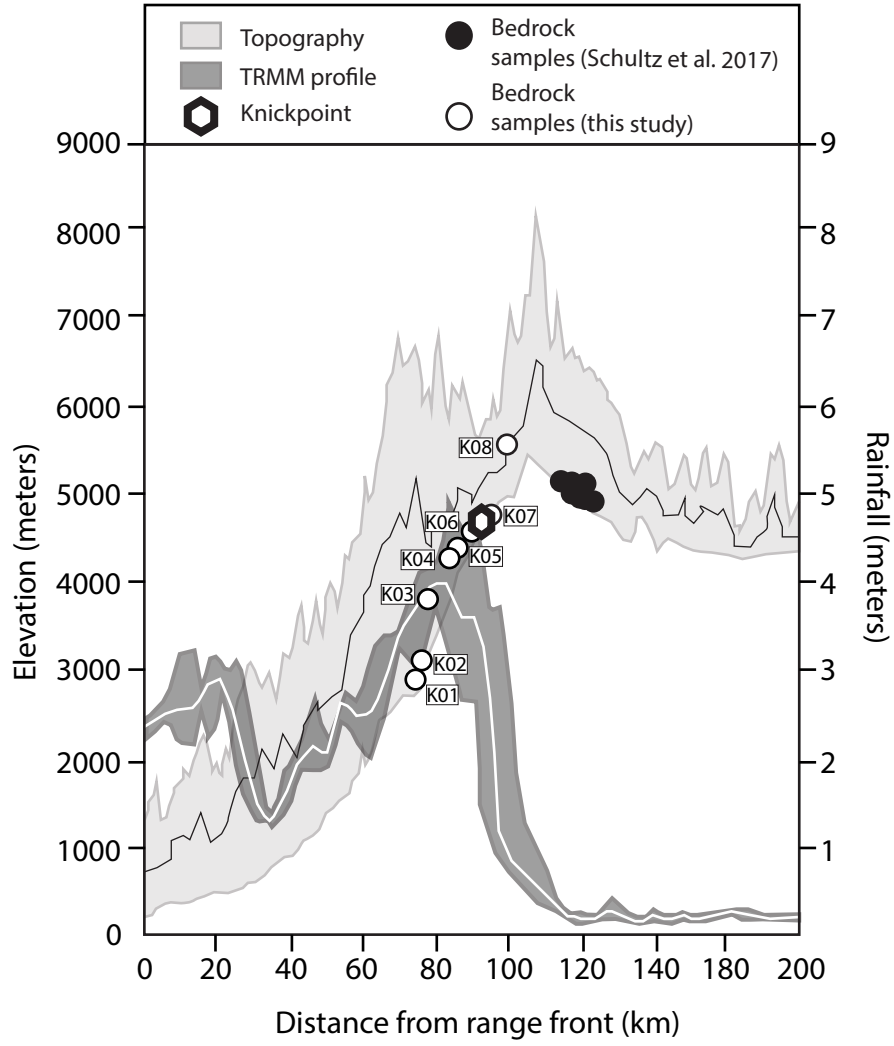


FIGURE 4.3

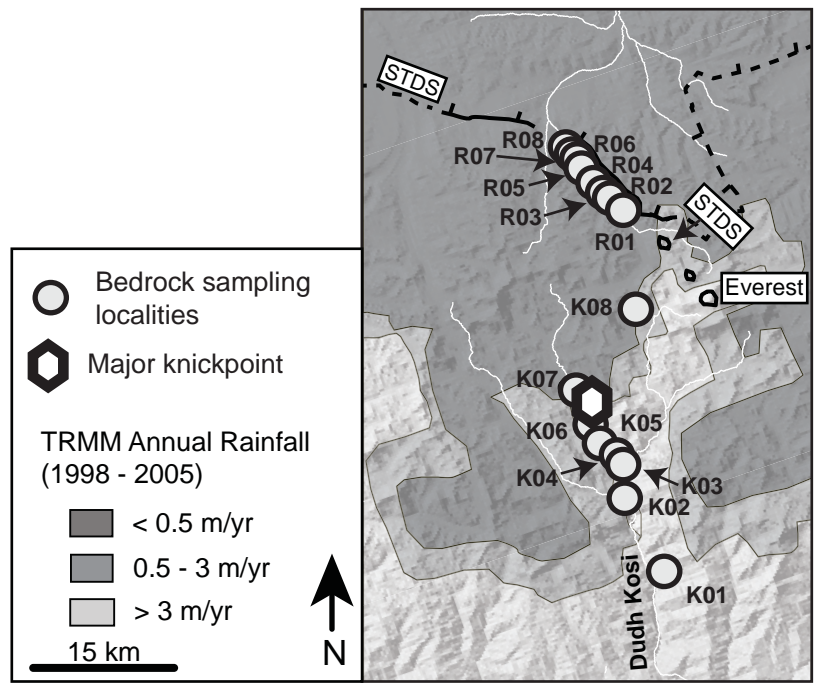


FIGURE 4.4

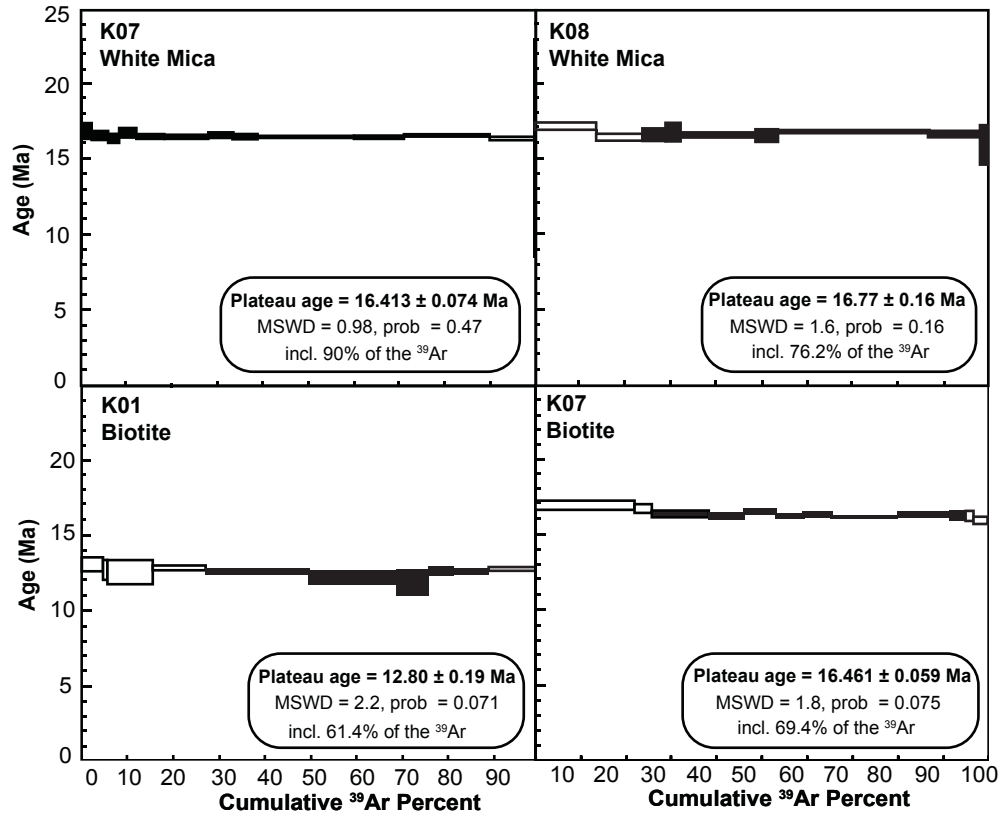


FIGURE 4.5

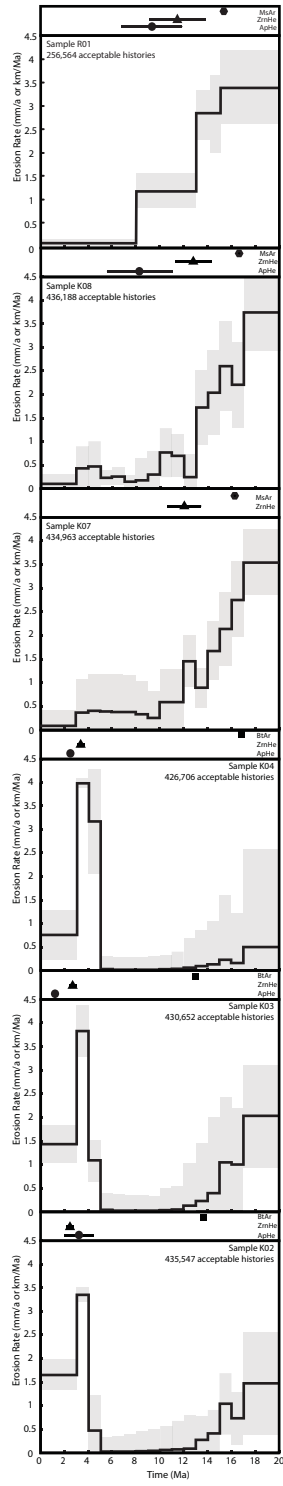
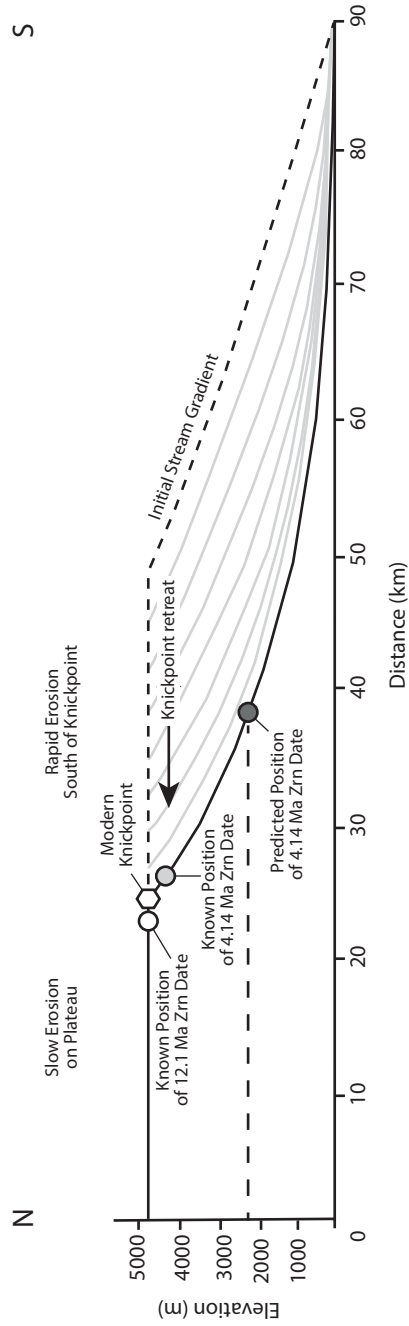


FIGURE 4.6



CHAPTER 5

QUANTIFYING EROSION AND SEDIMENT MIXING OF THE RONGBUK GLACIAL CATCHMENT IN SOUTH-CENTRAL TIBET BY LASER ABLATION U/Pb and (U-Th)/He DOUBLE DATING

1. Abstract

The world's most recognizable mountain peaks and impressive valleys have been carved by the strong erosive power of glaciers. The central Himalayan Mountains of south-central Asia, containing many of the world's highest summits, have been heavily glaciated for the past *ca.* 2 Ma. Although much work has been done in recent years exploring the properties of modern-day glaciers in the High Himalaya as well as determining the timing of various major glacial retreats and advances, no study has yet examined the long-term spatial and temporal variation of erosion in a glaciated Himalayan catchment. Here we address this issue, applying the recently developed laser ablation U/Pb and (U-Th)/He double dating (LADD) technique to detrital zircons from mid-Holocene glacial moraine and outwash sediments from the modern-day glacier to help constrain how various glacial erosive processes shaped the Rongbuk glacial valley in the Everest region of south-central Tibet. Geologic mapping of the Rongbuk catchment has demonstrated that possible sources of these sediments include carbonate and siliciclastic rocks of the weakly metamorphosed and unmetamorphosed Tibetan Sedimentary sequence and high-grade metasedimentary and metaigneous rocks of the Greater Himalayan sequence and associated leucogranites. Many U/Pb detrital zircon dates from the *ca.* 8 to 2 ka Samdupo glacial moraine and modern outwash sediments are

consistent with derivation from the Greater Himalayan sequence and leucogranites due to the significant overlap of the previously reported distribution of detrital zircons from nearby bedrock exposures. In particular, (U-Th)/He dates for the moraine samples are similar to previously published helium dates for metamorphic and igneous bedrock samples from intermediate elevations of the valley near the mid-Holocene equilibrium line altitude for the Samdupo stage of the Rongbuk glacial system. In contrast, many zircons from the Dzakar Chu outwash detritus yielded significantly older Tertiary (U-Th)/He dates, implying that the outwash carries a much higher percentage of material eroded from upper elevations in the catchment than the Rongbuk glacial system did in the relatively recent past.

2. Introduction

The Himalayan orogenic wedge, constructed by the collision of Greater India with Eurasia at ca. 50 Ma (van Hinsbergen et al., 2012), continues to be shaped by the extreme erosional capacity of both its glaciers and extensive fluvial systems. Though recent thermochronologic contributions using conventional bedrock techniques have greatly increased our understanding of the exhumation history throughout the High Himalaya, (Burbank et al., 2003; Blythe et al., 2007; Whipp et al., 2007; Streule et al., 2012; Carrapa et al., 2016; Schultz et al., 2017), datasets continue to be scarce, mostly due to the paucity of accessible outcrop at very high elevations and in very rugged terrain. The advent of new and improved techniques for detrital thermochronology, coupled with more established bedrock methods, have provided effective tools for understanding sediment mixing as well as the uplift and erosion of entire catchments, some of which are up to several hundred square kilometers in area (Brewer et al., 2003; Ruhl and Hodges, 2005; Reiners et al., 2007; Whipp et al., 2009). Although detrital thermochronology has primarily been used thus far to explore spatial erosion in fluvial catchments, several investigations in western North America and the Alps have shown the usefulness of applying detrital thermochronology techniques to glacial moraine and outwash sediments (Stock et al., 2006; Tranel et al., 2011; Ehlers et al., 2015; Enkelmann and Ehlers, 2015; Wangenheim and Glotzbach, 2015). Despite the fact that the closure temperatures of most thermochronometric systems are too high to be sensitive to topographic fluctuations in the landscape during glacial-interglacial cycles, thermochronometric analyses of older glacial moraine sediments have the useful ability to show temporal changes in erosion over longer timescales (Enkelmann and Ehlers, 2015). These applications also revealed

that the distributions of thermochronologic cooling ages from grains in moraine sediments may expose cooling age populations not evident from sampling non-glaciated bedrock localities alone and, importantly, that the non-uniformity of erosion in glacial catchments may lead to very different spatial patterns of erosion as opposed to fluvial catchments, most of which are assumed to erode comparatively uniformly (Ruhl and Hodges, 2005).

Efficient, high-resolution dating of detrital sediments has been made possible by the recent creation and subsequent development of the laser ablation (U-Th)/He and U/Pb double dating (LADD) technique (Evans et al., 2015; Horne et al., 2016). The LADD method is powerful as it can determine both a mineral's crystallization age as well as its cooling history during exhumation.

In this study, we present new detrital zircon laser ablation $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ and (U-Th)/He datasets of outwash and glacial moraine sediments in the Rongbuk valley, a moderately-sized glacial catchment in the Everest region of south-central Tibet, to determine the spatial and temporal evolution of erosion and sediment mixing in a Himalayan glacial catchment as well as to better understand how distinct glacial processes of erosion may compare and contrast in the High Himalaya. We compare our detrital datasets to previously published bedrock (U-Th)/He zircon mean ages of the Greater Himalayan Sequence (GHS) from the Rongbuk valley (Schultz et al., 2017) to test the reliability of cooling and exhumation histories determined from bedrock data alone and we also expand on the advantages and caveats of the LADD technique.

3. Geographic and Geologic Setting

The Rongbuk valley in south-central Tibet (28.063159°N 86.865197°E to 28.273212°N 86.805560°E) is a glaciofluvial catchment with an area of *ca.* 430 km² that extends northward from the base of Mount Everest for about 35 km (Figures 5.1 and 5.2a). The West and East Rongbuk glaciers and other unnamed tributary glaciers are found in the upper reaches of the valley, and they merge to the north as the Rongbuk glacier. The northern, lower elevations of the valley are drained by the Dzakar Chu, which emanates from beneath the Rongbuk glacier. (The word “chu” in Tibetan is equivalent to “small river” in English.) The end of the valley corresponds to the confluence of the Dzakar Chu and the Gyachung Chu merging from the southwest.

Bedrock in the Rongbuk valley walls includes three basic units. High on the ridges surrounding the valley are Cambrian-Ordovician clastic and carbonate sedimentary – and, in some places, metasedimentary – rocks of the Tibetan sedimentary sequence (TSS; Myrow et al., 2009). Structurally beneath them lie Precambrian high-grade metasedimentary rocks of the Greater Himalayan sequence (GHS; Burchfiel et al., 1992; Searle et al., 2003). GHS units in the valley are intruded by abundant, locally derived dikes and sills of leucogranite, ranging in dimension up to several tens of meters (Searle, 1999). In the Rongbuk valley, both high-grade metamorphism and the anatectic melting responsible for the leucogranites are of predominantly middle Miocene age (e.g., Hodges et al., 1998; Murphy and Harrison, 1999; Cottle et al., 2015). Separating the TSS from the GHS and the leucogranites within it are low-angle faults with normal-sense displacement, which represent the South Tibetan detachment system in the Everest area (Burchfiel et al., 1992); Figure 5.1 depicts the trace of the structurally highest of these

faults – the Qomolangma detachment.

3.1 Glacial Geology

The Rongbuk valley is semi-arid and cold, with the extreme elevations of the Everest massif sheltering the valley from the heavy precipitation that falls during the Indian summer monsoon on the southern flank of the range. The glaciers in this region are polythermal with isolated areas of basal melting (Huang, 1990; Mann et al., 1996; Owen et al., 2009) and the modern ice terminus is situated ~10 km north of the base of Everest. Owen et al. (2009) identified six major glacial advances during the Quaternary in the Rongbuk valley through optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) and ^{10}Be terrestrial cosmogenic nuclide (TCN) dating techniques. The oldest dated moraine, the Tingri moraine, located near the north end of the valley, dates to before 330 ka, while the youngest Xarlungnama moraine that is situated less than a kilometer north of the modern ice terminus, was determined to be ca. 1.6 ka (Owen et al., 2009).

Perhaps the most prominent moraines in the Rongbuk valley are the hummocky Samdupo moraines that are found near the mouth of Hermit's Gorge (Figures 5.1 and 5.3). Owen et al. (2009) ascertained the dates of the Samdupo moraines to be mid-Holocene, between ca. 8 and 2 Ma, with two separate glacial advances occurring over that interval. Owen et al. (2009) estimated the equilibrium line-altitude (ELA), or the altitude at which there is a mass balance between accumulation and abrasion, during the Samdupo glacial advance to be ca. 6140 m, only slightly lower than the modern-day estimated ELA on Everest of ca. 6200 m. These authors also pointed out that, though the vertical change in the ELA is on the order of tens of meters, the length of glacial retreat

up-valley is on the kilometer scale, highlighting both the low gradient of the lower Rongbuk valley as well as the extremity in elevation at the southernmost regions of the catchment.

4. Previous Work

4.1 Geochronology and low-temperature thermochronology

Many previous geochronologic and thermochronologic studies have been conducted on the leucogranites and gneisses of the GHS in the Rongbuk valley due to the uniquely impressive exposure of the STDS in the valley as well as the relative ease of access compared to other regions of the Himalaya. Protolith ages for the GHS are lowermost Paleozoic-Neoproterozoic with Indian provenance, as determined from detrital samples collected in Nepal (Parrish and Hodges, 1996; DeCelles, 2000). The GHS underwent intense amphibolite to granulite facies metamorphism during the Oligocene and Miocene, resulting in anatectic melting at the highest structural levels (Simpson et al., 2000; Searle et al., 2003). Although (U-Th)/Pb systematics of the GHS accessory minerals are complex, formation ages of the leucogranites range between ca. 20 and 15 Ma with a dominant cluster of ages surrounding ca. 16.5 Ma (Hodges et al., 1998; Murphy and Harrison, 1999; Cottle et al., 2015).

The Mt. Qomolangma Formation TSS carbonates have Indian provenance and U/Pb zircon crystallization ages are Cambrian and younger (Myrow et al., 2009). The Cretaceous U/Pb dates are thought to reflect zircons that were deposited during the rifting of the northern margin of India from Gondwana (Myrow et al., 2009).

Bedrock thermochronologic datasets collected from GHS and leucogranite

samples the middle reaches of the Rongbuk valley at *ca.* 5000 m elevations have been published by Hodges et al. (1992), Orme et al. (2015), Carrapa et al. (2016), and Schultz et al. (2017). Collectively, these data suggest that the bedrock at these elevations cooled from peak metamorphic and igneous temperatures relatively rapidly to the *ca.* 400-600°C temperatures recorded by medium-temperature isotopic thermochronometers (U/Pb titanite, $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ hornblende, $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ muscovite) between *ca.* 20.0 and 14.5 Ma, then cooled very rapidly through the nominal *ca.* 180°C (U-Th)/He zircon closure temperature zone between 14.3 and 11 Ma. Much of this cooling is thought to be related to tectonic denudation through slip on the immediately overlying Qomolangma detachment (Cottle et al., 2015; Schultz et al., 2017).

The only previously published detrital thermochronology work in this region was that of Carrapa et al. (2016). They reported $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dates for detrital muscovites from modern sediment collected on the banks of the Dzakar Chu, near the sampling locality of the outwash sediment data we report below. (Note that Carrapa et al. (2016) referred to the Dzakar Chu as the “Rongbuk river”.) Their muscovite dates are narrowly dispersed over *ca.* 3 million years, with a primary mode at *ca.* 16 Ma. Some are within the range of $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ muscovite dates from bedrock samples collected at roughly the same elevation in the valley walls (Schultz et al., 2017), but *ca.* 82% are older, suggesting transport of the detritus from significantly higher elevations further upstream. Carrapa and co-workers found that fission-track analyses for detrital apatites from this sample were more widely dispersed than bedrock apatite fission-track dates from the same area, with many dates considerably older than those from the bedrock samples. They also reported detrital apatite dates from a modern sediment sample from the Gyachung Chu collected just

above its confluence with the Dzakar Chu (Figure 5.1); the results, less widely dispersed than those from the Dzakar Chu, were slightly younger for the most part. The bedrock geology of the Gyachung catchment has been mapped in far less detail than that of the Rongbuk catchment, but one possible interpretation of the younger fission track date population from the Carrapa et al. (2016) Gyachung Chu sample is that most of the Gyachung catchment is likely underlain by apatite-poor Tibetan sedimentary sequence units.

5. Methods

Detrital sediments were collected from near the headwaters of the modern Dzakar Chu (M05) and from four locations spread *ca.* 100 m apart, near the lowermost lateral moraine of the mid-Holocene Samdupo system (M01-M04). We chose to sample this moraine because it has been dated and is old enough to potentially uncover spatial and temporal variations in erosion, following the methods of Enkelmann and Ehlers (2015). All five detrital samples were collected proximal to the bedrock sampling transect of Schultz et al. (2017). Each included ~5 to 10 kg of fine-to-pebble-sized sediment (Figures 5.2b and 5.3).

5.1 Laser ablation zircon U/Pb geochronology and (U-Th)/He thermochronometry

All analyses reported below were obtained using a relatively new method of U/Pb and (U-Th)/He dating of zircon that employs focused ultraviolet lasers to extract material for parent and daughter isotopic analysis. A natural extension of laser ablation U/Pb and (U-Th)/He dating techniques developed earlier (Feng et al., 1993; Kosler et al., 2002;

Boyce et al., 2006; Gehrels, 2012; Tripathy-Lang et al., 2013), the “laser ablation double dating” (LADD) technique was recently described in two papers to which the reader is directed for more extensive descriptions of methodologies (Evans et al., 2015; Horne et al., 2016). All analyses were performed in the Group 18 Laboratories at Arizona State University.

We followed the general LADD protocols outlined in Horne et al. (2016) with some modifications designed to improve analytical precision. The Samdupo moraine and Dzakar Chu outwash samples were prepared for zircon extraction using conventional magnetic and heavy liquid techniques. Zircon grains were picked under a microscope without bias concerning shape and inclusions because our laser microprobe analyses would target domains within grain interiors. Precise targeting allowed us to avoid crystal margins and thus the need for alpha ejection corrections of raw (U-Th)/He dates (Farley et al., 1996; Hourigan et al., 2005), and to avoid inclusions that might compromise dating results (Tripathy-Lang et al., 2013). One source of sampling bias, however, may be the size of zircons picked for analysis: only crystals larger than ca. 60 μm were picked due to the need to have sufficient zircon for relatively high-precision dating. Picked zircons, along with natural and synthetic zircon standards, were mounted in low vapor-pressure epoxy (*Torr seal*) and polished prior to isotopic analysis. For LADD of zircon, both composition and isotopic standards are necessary. For the former, we used an in-house ‘SynZircon’ ($^{238}\text{U} = 426 \pm 14 \text{ ppm}$; $^{232}\text{Th} = 206 \pm 19 \text{ ppm}$; Monteleone et al., 2009). For the latter, we used Fish Canyon Tuff for samples M01, M03, and M06 ($28.3 \pm 3.1 \text{ Ma}$; Dobson et al., 2008) and in-house Sri Lankan zircon for samples M02 and M04 ($555 \pm 11 \text{ Ma}$; Nasdala et al., 2004).

Isotopic analyses were done in two stages, the first designed to enable the measurement of ^4He concentrations and the second to enable U and Th concentrations and the necessary isotopic ratios for U/Pb geochronology. The first stage involved *in vacuo* ablation of material destined for helium analysis using a Photon Machines (now Teledyne CETAC) *Analyte G2* ArF (193 nm) excimer laser microprobe. Although we used a 25 μm diameter spot size for most helium extractions, a few of the grains required a smaller, 15 μm spot size instead. During the extractions, we applied 5 mJ of laser energy at 50% output power and a pulse frequency of 5 Hz for a total of 80 shots. This resulted in typical ablation depths for each analysis comparable to its spot diameter. After gas purification using reactive metal getters and a cryogenic trap, ^4He abundance for the ablated material was determined with a Thermo Scientific *Helix SFT* (split flight tube) magnetic mass spectrometer based on predetermined sensitivity for the ion counting detector employed for the measurement. Following the helium analyses, the pucks were extracted from the system and the volume of the ^4He ablation pits were measured using an ADE PhaseShift *MicroXAM* interferometric microscope. The best-fit volumes are then calculated using an in-house *Matlab* script. Assuming a nominal density, this information and the ^4He abundances determined by mass spectrometry were used to calculate ^4He concentrations.

The second analytical stage involved mounting the puck in a Photon Machines (now Teledyne CETAC) *HelEx Active*, two-volume ablation cell for U, Th, Sm, and Pb analysis by laser ablation, inductively coupled plasma-source mass spectrometry (LA-ICPMS). For each zircon with a 25 μm -diameter ablation pit for Step 1 ^4He determination, a second 65 μm -diameter pit, centered on the first, was ablated for the Step 2 analysis.

(For the zircons with 15 μm -diameter ablation pits, the Step 2 pit diameters were reduced to 50 μm .) During the extractions, we applied 5 mJ of laser energy at 100% output power and a pulse frequency of 5 Hz for a total of 565 seconds. This resulted in typical ablation depths for each analysis ≥ 20 μm deeper than the Step 1 ablation pits so that the analyzed U and Th would be more representative of the volume of zircon that may have contributed to the ^4He measured during Step 1. The Step 2 ablated material was streamed into a Thermo Scientific *iCap Q* quadrupole mass spectrometer for abundance measurements based on predetermined detector sensitivity. Afterwards, the puck was returned to the interferometric microscope for measurement of the Step 2 ablation pits, and the results could be used with the LA-ICPMS results to determine U and Th concentrations.

Step 1 and Step 2 concentration data were combined to calculate (U-Th)/He dates. Zircon $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates were calculated from the Step 2 data using the *Iolite* software package (Hellstrom et al., 2008) that runs using the Wavemetrics *Igor Pro* data analysis environment. We used the *U-Pb Geochronology* data reduction scheme (DRS) included in *Iolite* (Paton et al., 2010). We did not apply a common Pb correction to Phanerozoic zircon because of its low fractional common Pb; common Pb corrections would not change the apparent $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates beyond the reported precision limits. All uncertainties in our zircon $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ (ZrnPb) and (U-Th)/He (ZrnHe) dates quoted at the 2σ confidence level.

6. Results

Based on the yield of zircon crystals from bedrock samples in the Rongbuk

valley, we anticipated each of the moraine samples as well as the modern outwash sediment sample to contain abundant zircons. Each of the samples, however, yielded only ~60 to 70 crystals, and a significant number of those were too small to be dated effectively using the LADD method given the young (U-Th)/He dates we anticipated based on our experience with nearby bedrock samples. Moraine sample M02 contained the largest number of datable grains at 34, with samples M01 and M03 having 25 each, and M04 having 26. Only 22 zircons from the Dzakar Chu sample could be dated.

6.1 Dzakar Chu Outwash Sand (M05)

Zircons from the Dzakar Chu sample yielded ZrnPb dates ranging from 842 ± 41 Ma to 324.1 ± 5.3 Ma, and ZrnHe dates ranging from 53.8 ± 1.9 Ma to 10.31 ± 0.52 Ma (Table 5.1). Given the sizes of the Stage 2 ablation pits used to acquire the $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates and the documented complexity of zircon U-Pb systematics in at least the Miocene leucogranite zircons from the Rongbuk valley (Hodges et al., 1998; Orme et al., 2015), it is likely that each of the Dzakar Chu detrital ZrnPb dates represent mixtures of an inherited Precambrian-Paleozoic core with a Tertiary igneous or metamorphic zircon rim. (The sizes of these zircons precluded higher spatial resolution dating by LA-ICPMS using the Thermo Scientific *iCap Q* instrument.) Despite the large dispersion of ZrnPb dates in this sample, there is a preponderance of ca. 500 Ma dates as shown in Figure 5.4a, a plot of the summed probability distribution functions (SPDF) for each date assuming normal (Gaussian) uncertainties. Orthogneisses of this approximate age have been documented in the GHS in many parts of the Himalaya (Le Fort, 1975; Parrish and Hodges, 1996; Cawood et al., 2007), but are also found in the TSS (Gehrels et al., 2011).

Figure 5.5, which compares SPDFs from this study with the SPDFs for GHS and TSS units throughout the Himalaya and southern Tibet (Gehrels et al., 2011), illustrates that the Dzakar Chu detrital ZrnPb dates do not clearly distinguish between the two potential zircon sources in the Rongbuk catchment.

Figure 5.6a shows the SPDF for the Dzakar Chu detrital ZrnHe dates. They are also widely dispersed, but the youngest overlap with substantially with nearby bedrock ZrnHe dates reported by Schultz et al. (2017). We suspect that these zircons are locally derived from the GHS and Miocene leucogranites. However, a high percentage of the dates are significantly older than the local bedrock dates, ranging up to early Eocene. The significance of these older ZrnHe dates with regard to detrital provenance is unclear, but many could be derived from the GHS and Miocene leucogranites at higher elevations in the catchment, while others are likely from higher-elevation exposures of the TSS.

The distribution of GHS and Miocene leucogranites in the catchment (Figure 5.1) is such that they are together exposed over 3000 m of relief. One way to predict the possible range of GHS + leucogranite ZrnHe dates that might be encountered in a detrital sample like M05 is to model ZrnHe dates as a function of elevation based on the range of dates obtained in local outcrops at *ca.* 5000 m and exhumation rates from the thermal-kinematic models for those samples as presented by Schultz et al. (2017). For this exercise, we used the average exhumation rate modeled for each bedrock sample between 22 Ma and 10 Ma and predicted the range of dates at various higher elevations from the range of single-crystal ZrnHe dates acquired for each sample: a total of 34 dates from 8 samples. (A maximum age of 22 Ma was assumed based on existing constraints on the ages of prograde metamorphism and leucogranite magmatism; see Schultz et al. (2017)

for a review.) The shaded region shown in Figure 5.7 indicates the total range of plausibly anticipated GHS + leucogranite ZrnHe dates from 5000 m to 8500 m elevations, presuming that the modeled exhumation rates from the Schultz et al. (2017) over the 22 - 10 Ma interval hold for the entire catchment. (The trace of the Qomolangma detachment on the Everest summit pyramid, at ca. 8500 m, marks the highest possible elevation from which a GHS zircon could be derived (Sakai et al., 2005)). This exercise predicts that virtually any detrital zircon from M05 that yields a ZrnHe date between ca. 10 and 21 Ma plausibly could have come from GHS + leucogranite exposed in the catchment above the detrital sample collection locality. Sixteen of the twenty-two crystals fall into that category, and all but the three youngest would have had to be derived from GHS + leucogranite presently exposed at 5500 m or higher.

The remaining six ZrnHe dates seem implausibly old to be derived from the Greater Himalayan sequence or the leucogranites based on our present knowledge of the bedrock cooling history in the area. Detrital zircons are known to occur in some bedrock units of the TSS. Given that the dominant Miocene cooling of the high-grade metamorphic GHS rocks and leucogranites in the Rongbuk valley was a consequence of tectonic denudation by slip on the Qomolangma detachment (Cottle et al., 2015; Carrapa et al., 2016; Schultz et al., 2017), we might reasonably expect that TSS rocks – restricted to the detachment hanging wall – would yield older cooling ages. Although we know of no ZrnHe dates for the TSS in this area, Bergman et al. (1993) and Streule et al. (2012) report Paleogene apatite fission-track dates for samples collected above the Qomolangma detachment on Everest. Since the nominal closure temperature of the apatite fission-track chronometer is substantially lower than that of the zircon (U-Th)/He chronometer (e.g.,

Hodges, 2014), we would expect even older ZrnHe dates from TSS samples. Thus, we tentatively suggest that the pre-21 Ma ZrnHe dates in the modern sediment sample derive from TSS units in the Rongbuk catchment.

One important advantage of LADD data is each crystal provides paired ZrnPb and ZrnHe dates. Figure 5.8 illustrates these relationships for both the Dzakar Chu and Samdupo datasets. For the outwash sample, there is no simple correlation between ZrnPb and ZrnHe dates from sample to sample; for example, zircons with ca. 500 Ma ZrnPb dates have the entire observed range of ZrnHe dates in the dataset. This implies that the source rocks for the dominant 500 Ma zircon component are broadly distributed at many elevations in the Rongbuk catchment, which reinforces the notion that our outwash sample – despite the relatively small number of dated zircons – received detritus from over much of the catchment.

6.2 Samdupo Moraine Sand (M01-M04)

Inter-sample comparisons of the dates obtained from each of our four Samdupo samples (M01-M04) suggest no significant differences in ZrnHe populations, and only limited differences in the ZrnPb populations (Table 5.2). Sample M01 yielded two very old zircons – with $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates of 2267 ± 25 Ma and 2152 ± 20 Ma – while sample M01 and M02 yielded the youngest zircons (26.67 ± 0.24 Ma, 22.01 ± 0.20 Ma, and 21.80 ± 0.75 Ma). Overall, however, the distributions were quite similar for all samples, which leads us to conclude that each of the different sand samples are relatively well mixed and largely representative of the detrital zircon ZrnPb and ZrnHe dates found in at least this part of the Samdupo lateral moraine. Hereafter, we simply discuss all of the

Samdupo results collectively.

Overall, the Samdupo zircons yield a much broader range of $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates than the Dzakar Chu zircons (Figure 5.4b). Although the moraine samples also include a large number of ca. 500 Ma dates, some are as old as Paleoproterozoic and some are as young as Miocene. The youngest dates reflect zircon growth in GHS and leucogranite source rocks during main-stage Himalayan orogenesis. As was the case for the Dzakar Chu zircons, we suspect that many of our Samdupo ZrnPb dates represent mixtures of varying proportions of very old cores and young overgrowth, making it difficult to assign them unambiguous geologic significance. Comparison of the Samdupo ZrnPb distribution with regional composites of the GHS and TSS suggest that both may have contributed zircons to M01-M04, but only the Miocene zircons clearly indicate GHS and/or leucogranite sources for at least some of the detritus.

Compared to the Dzakar Chu zircons, the Samdupo zircons yield a much more restricted range of ZrnHe dates (19.02 ± 0.69 Ma to 4.02 ± 0.17 Ma; Figure 5.6b). Forty-six percent of these dates lie within the range those obtained by Schultz et al. (2017) for bedrock samples from essentially the same elevation range as the collection sites of M01-M04, suggesting local derivation. Nearly 32% of the ZrnHe dates are sufficiently old to require derivation from higher-elevation sources ranging to at least as high as 6500 m and perhaps somewhat higher (Figure 5.7) if we assume, as is likely, derivation from GHS + leucogranite sources.

The most surprising Samdupo ZrnHe dates – accounting for almost 22% of the dataset – are those that are younger than any of the nearby bedrock ZrnHe dates reported by Schultz et al. (2017). One possible interpretation is that the young dates reflect up-

valley excavation of deeper structural levels than presently exposed in the middle reaches of the Rongbuk valley by the glacier(s) responsible for the Samdupo moraine. However, some of the very young ZrnHe dates would likely require exceptionally deep glacial excavation. A second possibility is that the young ZrnHe dates are unreliable. Orme et al. (2015) documented that some zircons in the bedrock near our Samdupo sampling locality are characterized by internally complex U-Th zoning, and that thin, high U-Th zircon rims are relatively common. As those authors noted, conventional single-crystal ZrnHe dates for such crystals can be erroneously young because the typical correction factor for alpha ejection applied to ZrnHe dates presumes no significant parent element zoning (Farley et al., 1996). While the laser ablation ZrnHe method does not require alpha ejection corrections and generally accounts for the effects of intra-crystalline U-Th zoning, extremely complex zoning can be problematic. For example, it is possible that very different parent element concentrations in the part of a zircon that is polished away after mounting for LADD work could result in erroneously young (or old) laser ablation dates. Detailed, three-dimensional mapping of U-Th zoning in the young Samdupo zircons and appropriate correction schemes for its effects of apparent age calculations (Hourigan et al., 2005; Bargnesi et al., 2016) would be required to test this possibility further.

7. Spatial and Temporal Variations of Erosion in Rongbuk Catchment

The distinctive ZrnPb vs. ZrnHe patterns of detrital zircons from the modern Dzakar Chu outwash sand and mid-Holocene Samdupo moraine sands (Figure 5.8) suggest that the Samdupo glacier transported zircon grains from different regions of the

catchment than the modern glacial outwash system. We hypothesize that the glacier(s) responsible for the Samdupo moraine glacier primarily eroded material from GHS rocks and Miocene leucogranites from the middle elevations of the catchment, close to the estimated ELA of ~6140 m during the Samdupo glacial advance in the mid-Holocene (Owen et al., 2009). This result makes sense, as glacial sliding velocities may be higher near the ELA, resulting in more localized erosion at these elevations (Anderson et al., 2006). This finding is also consistent with similar results presented by Ehlers et al. (2015) in their detrital apatite (U-Th)/He distribution study of the outwash of a modern glacier in British Columbia.

The older ZrnHe dates for many Dzakar Chu outwash zircons implies derivation of a significant fraction of the sediment from higher elevations within the catchment, including GHS, TSS, and Miocene leucogranitic sources. This result may be somewhat puzzling, as sediments from the highest elevations in glacial systems tend to get trapped in cirques and overdeepened areas, although that tends to be much more of a problem where glaciers have retreated upstream from those overdeepenings, which is not the case here. One possibility to explain why the modern outwash system is preferentially sampling sediment from higher elevations is that previous glaciers in the valley from the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) could have left behind earlier lateral moraines that insulate the lower zones of the modern glacier from hillslope and other supraglacial processes as has been observed in the Nepal Himalaya (Heimsath and McGlynn, 2008). In the Rongbuk valley, the LGM is manifested by the Jilong advance at *ca.* 27 to 24 ka and reveals an estimated ELA of *ca.* 6050 m (Owen et al., 2009). Assuming that the maximum elevation of the lateral moraines of the Jilong advance were close to the *ca.*

6050 m LGM ELA, then the sediment of the modern glacier would be preferentially sourced from elevations above *ca.* 6050 m. These high elevations comprise of TSS sediments at the location of Hermit's Gorge near the sample collection site mid-valley and consist of uppermost GHS rocks and Miocene leucogranites in the southern valley in addition to the TSS units.

A second possibility is that intense folding and deformation of moraine sediment – something that has been documented in glacier systems that persist over several glacial-interglacial cycles – was intense enough to provide the outwash river with extremely well-mixed sediment over time (Hambrey et al., 2009; Hambrey and Glasser, 2012).

8. Conclusions

New detrital zircon laser ablation (U-Th)/He and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ datasets for the *ca.* 8 to 2 ka Samdupo moraine and modern outwash sand from the Rongbuk valley in the Everest region of south-central Tibet yield evidence for different erosional focusing by valley glaciers and the modern upper Dzakar Chu outwash system. Although both datasets contain detrital zircons that are likely derived from Greater Himalayan sequence rocks and Miocene leucogranites in the middle elevations of the catchment, the Dzakar Chu outwash dataset from the modern glacier also contains many zircons apparently sourced from the Greater Himalayan sequence rocks, Miocene leucogranites, and Tibetan Sedimentary sequence rocks at much higher elevations. Some zircons from the Samdupo sediment yield ZrnHe dates that are anomalously young and not easily explained. It is possible that these dates reflect: 1) extremely aggressive downcutting by the Samdupo glacier(s); 2) an unusually high degree of parent element zoning that was not properly

accounted for by the laser ablation double dating protocol; or 3) a combination of the two.

9. Acknowledgments

This work was supported by National Science Foundation Tectonics Program grants EAR1007929 and EAR1346360 to K.V.H. Many thanks to Ding Lin (Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences), Paul Kapp (University of Arizona) and Ross Waldrip (University of Arizona) for their excellent logistical assistance during fieldwork in Tibet. Many thanks to Cameron Mercer (Arizona State University) for providing the in-house *Matlab* code for calculating the ablation pit volumes. Thanks to Alexandra Horne (Arizona State University) for insightful discussions regarding the LADD technique and to Michelle Aigner, Anna Brunner, and Alyssa Anderson (Arizona State University) who assisted with the analyses. Arjun Heimsath and Kelin Whipple provided invaluable insights regarding glacial erosional processes that helped sharpen our interpretations.

10. Figure Captions

Figure 5.1. Regional map of the Rongbuk catchment in the Everest region of Tibet. Geologic units are mapped after Searle et al. (2003). Blue circles indicate the GHS bedrock sampling localities of Schultz et al. (2017). The red hexagon is the detrital sampling collection site for the Samdupo moraine and Dzakar Chu modern outwash sediment samples for this study. The white dashed lines outline moraines of various ages in the valley and are from oldest to youngest: T – Tingri (>300 ka), S – Samdupo (ca. 8 to

2 ka), X – Xarlungnama (ca. 1.6 ka), and M – Modern glacier terminus. Moraine names and dates are from Owen et al. (2009). The main strand of the STDS in the Rongbuk valley, the Qomolangma detachment, is indicated by a thick black line.

Figure 5.2. A) Depiction of the Rongbuk catchment looking up-valley to the south. GHS bedrock sampling localities of Schultz et al. (2017) are indicated by black circles. The moraine detrital sampling localities, M01 through M04, are shown with a grey circle and a white circle indicates the Dzakar Chu outwash detrital sample collection site, M05. B) A close-up view of the central Rongbuk catchment, showing the general geology as well as the Samdupo moraine (M01 through M04) and Dzakar Chu (M05) detrital sampling localities.

Figure 5.3. Field photographs of the Rongbuk catchment and the Samdupo moraines. A) A view above the modern outwash looking to the north down-valley. B) Rocks of the GHS, seen in the background, make up the majority of the elevations in the catchment with sediments deposited by the Samdupo glacial advance and retreat shown in the foreground. C) A wider view of the hummocky Samdupo moraines.

Figure 5.4. Summed probability density functions (SPDFs) of detrital zircon U/Pb dates by the LADD method are outlined with black. A) The SPDF of ZrnPb dates from the Dzakar Chu outwash sample (n = 22). B) the SPDF distribution of ZrnPb dates from the Samdupo moraine sediment (n = 110). Note that there are two >2.1 Ga zircon U/Pb dates from the moraine sample that are far older than the majority of the analyses and are off-

scale for this figure. Also note the prominent mode of zircon U/Pb dates in the moraine distribution at ca. 25 to 20 Ma.

Figure 5.5. The Samdupo moraine zircon U/Pb SPDFs of this study compared with zircon U/Pb composite distributions of primary units of the Himalaya (GHS and TSS) presented in Gehrels et al. (2011). The SPDF of the Dzakar Chu ZrnPb dates is shown in light blue and the SPDF of the Samdupo moraine ZrnPb dates is shown in red. The SPDF for TSS ZrnHe dates is in green and the GHS distribution (including the ZrnPb GHS pluton dates of Cawood et al. (2007)) is in dark blue.

Figure 5.6. SPDFs of detrital zircon (U-Th)/He dates shown in black. The SPDF for the ZrnHe bedrock dates of Schultz et al. (2017) are indicated by grey shading and are displayed in each panel for comparison. A) The SPDF of ZrnHe dates from the Dzakar Chu sand (n = 22). B) The SPDF of ZrnHe dates from the Samdupo moraine sediment.

Figure 5.7. Relationships between LADD ZrnPb and ZrnHe dates for Dzakar Chu outwash and Samdupo moraine zircons. Uncertainties are shown at the 2σ level. Note that the ZrnPb scale is logarithmic, whereas the ZrnHe scale is linear.

Figure 5.8. Modeled field (gray shading) for anticipated Greater Himalayan sequence (GHS) dates as a function of elevation in the Rongbuk catchment. The range of ZrnHe dates along the y-axis (at an elevation of 5000 m) represents the range of reported bedrock ZrnHe dates at that elevation in the valley by Schultz et al. (2017). Note that the

Dzakar Chu outwash and Samdupo moraine samples were collected at approximately this elevation as well. The gray field shows the range of dates that might be anticipated at a specific elevation higher in the catchment based on an assumption of uniform bedrock exhumation at rates calculated by Schultz et al. (2017) for the bedrock samples over the 22 to 10 Ma interval.

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TABLE 5. 1: MODERN DZAKAR CHU FLUVIAL SYSTEM DETRITAL ZIRCON LASER ABLATION (U-Th)/He and U/Pb DATA TABLE

Sample	Grain	⁴ He _{int} volume (uL)	Error (2σ)	³ He (mmole/g)	Error (2σ)	U-Th-Pb pit volume (μL)	Error (2σ)	²³⁸ U (ppm)	Error (2σ)	²³² Th (ppm)	Error (2σ)	eU (ppm)	²³² Th/ ²³⁸ U	(U-Th)/He Date (Ma)	Error (2σ)	²⁰⁶ Pb/ ²³⁸ U	Error (2σ)	²⁰⁶ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb Date (Ma)	Error (2σ)
M05	z01	1298.3	2.8	33.3	1.2	40325	33	322	11	275	23	389	0.8784	15.88	0.00054	489.8	3.2		
M05	z02	1317.5	3.9	62.6	1.3	44763	23	325	12	82.4	7.3	347	0.2598	33.4	0.0922	569	13		
M05	z03	1136.8	2.4	45.9	1.2	44462	31	438	15	130	11	471	0.3049	18.05	0.0021	460	13		
M05	z04	1416.4	1.7	29.35	0.87	44731	33	273.1	9.2	99.8	8.8	298	0.3750	18.22	0.0041	490.2	2.4		
M05	z05	1470.6	3.3	37.28	0.99	47314	29	316	11	62.8	5.5	333	0.2036	20.71	0.07902	517.7	8.3		
M05	z06	1477.4	3.2	36.56	0.94	42176	38	599	20	139	12	636	0.2387	10.66	0.0086	324.1	5.3		
M05	z07	1236.7	1.9	144.8	2.0	44232	57	423	14	302	26	497	0.7319	53.8	0.0779	483.6	2.4		
M05	z08	1374.8	1.5	102.5	1.5	43853	47	584	20	68.2	6.0	604	0.1198	31.4	0.07	0.0024	456	14	
M05	z09	1282.0	2.6	92.3	1.6	45598	33	756	26	275	22	826	0.3725	20.70	0.0569	356	16		
M05	z10	1392.3	1.7	77.9	1.5	45595	44	574	20	249	22	637	0.4444	22.66	0.07894	489.8	4.9		
M05	z11	1278.7	2.5	37.00	0.94	45293	48	330	11	146	13	366	0.4533	18.70	0.11921	0.00081	726	5.7	
M05	z12	1239.6	3.7	75.7	1.5	46085	37	41	10	160	14	307	0.6149	45.6	0.1152	0.00099	702.8	5.7	
M05	z13	1281.55	0.59	35.30	0.91	46540	36	362	12	126	11	394	0.3381	16.59	0.14	0.0073	842	4.1	
M05	z14	1304.8	3.2	32.32	0.84	44321	34	299	10	92.7	8.1	323	0.3182	18.56	0.08085	499.9	4.9		
M05	z15	1315.3	2.7	24.60	0.83	44217	36	245.7	8.2	92.0	9.0	269	0.4252	16.91	0.079	0.0017	490.2	4.9	
M05	z16	1323.2	2.3	19.28	0.84	44866	46	329.4	9.4	381	26	378	1.7068	10.38	0.08378	0.00081	518.6	4.8	
M05	z17	1323.2	3.4	19.01	0.83	44866	46	329.4	9.4	381	26	378	1.7068	10.38	0.08378	0.00081	518.6	4.8	
M05	z18	1300.6	3.4	15.20	0.71	45109	39	138.7	4.7	88.8	7.8	152	0.6568	17.53	0.12015	0.00077	731.4	4.5	
M05	z19	1310.0	2.4	33.64	0.93	45387	48	320	11	107.6	9.5	338	0.3488	16.77	0.07986	0.00055	495.3	3.3	
M05	z20	1362.7	1.6	58.1	1.0	45387	32	611	21	114	10	642	0.1913	15.28	0.1273	0.0042	771	24	
M05	z21	1212.162	0.020	46.3	1.1	47056	35	531	18	115	10	562	0.2222	15.28	0.1273	0.0042	771	24	
M05	z22	1386.5	2.1	29.58	0.95	45533	33	177.5	6.0	81.3	7.1	198	0.4699	27.7	0.08041	0.00065	499.1	3.8	

FIGURE 5.1

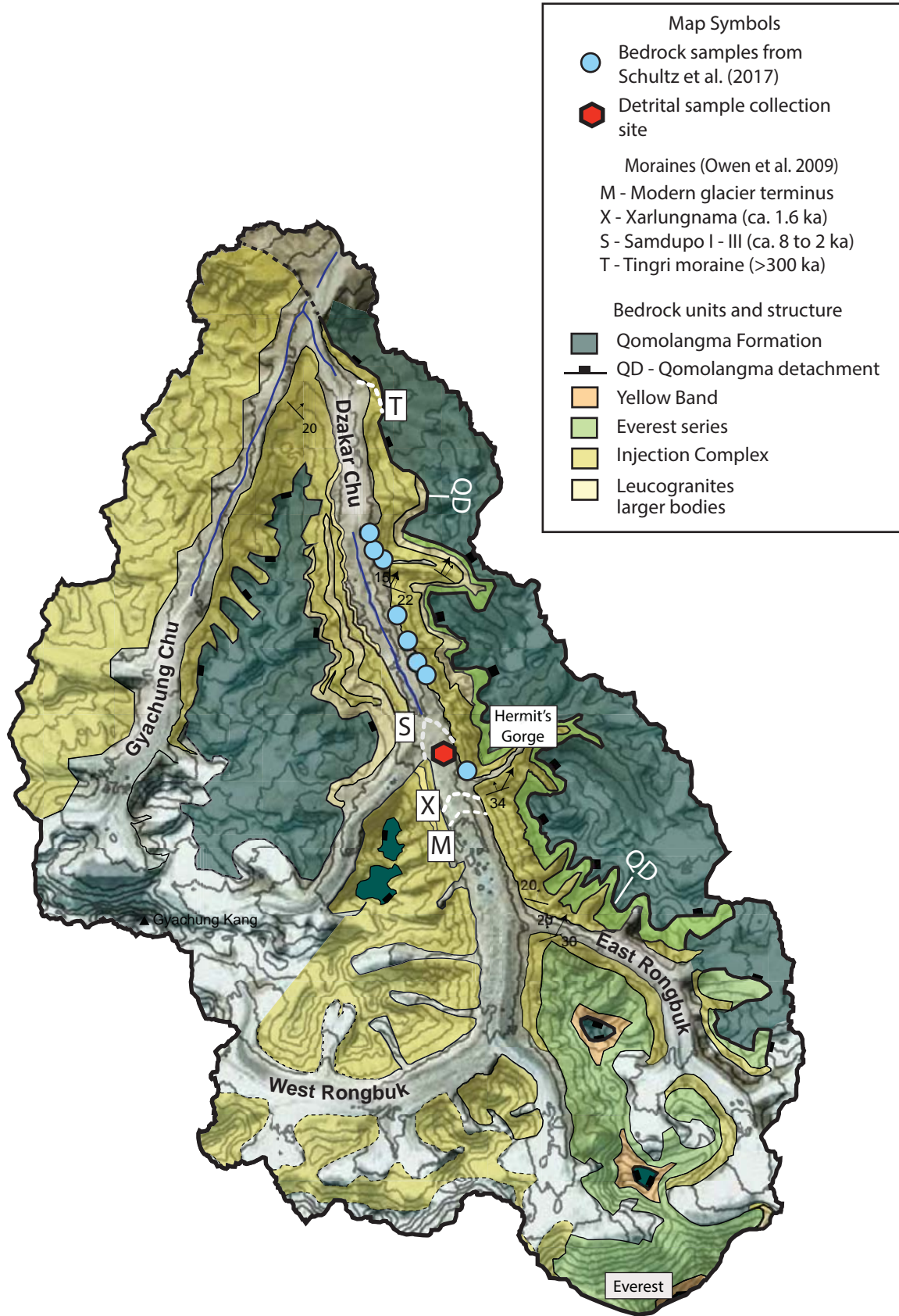


FIGURE 5.2

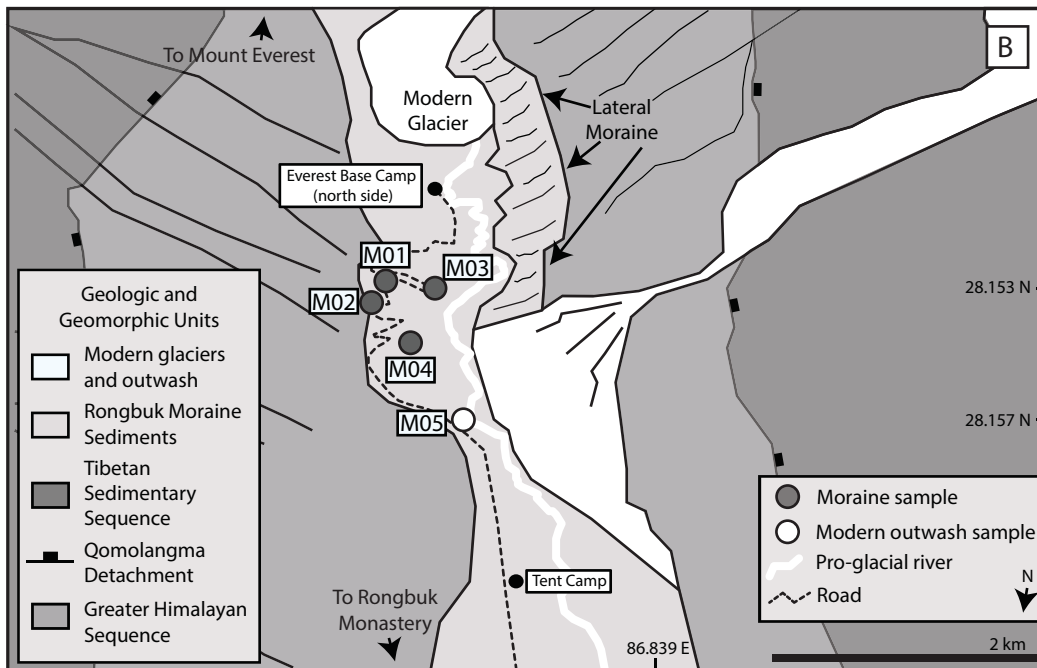
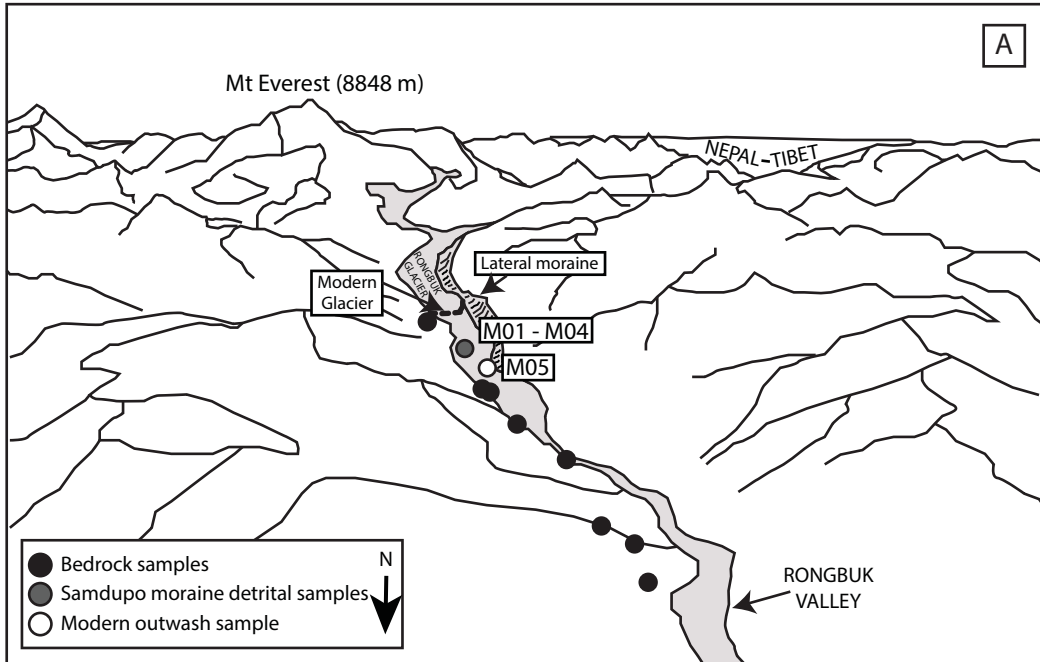


FIGURE 5.3

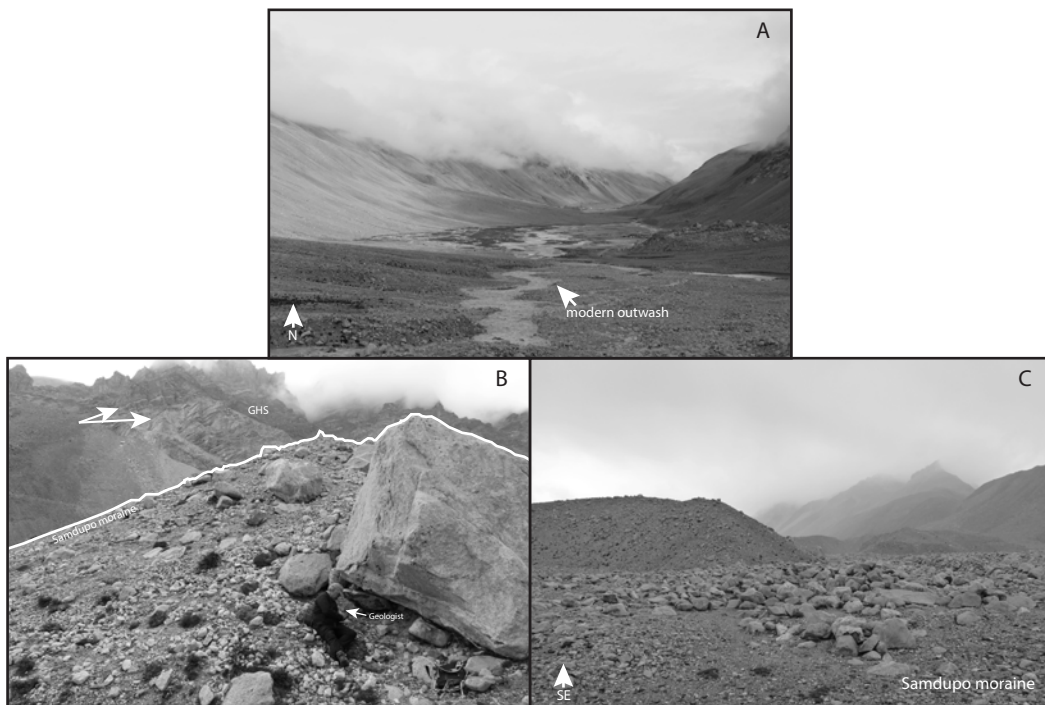


FIGURE 5.4

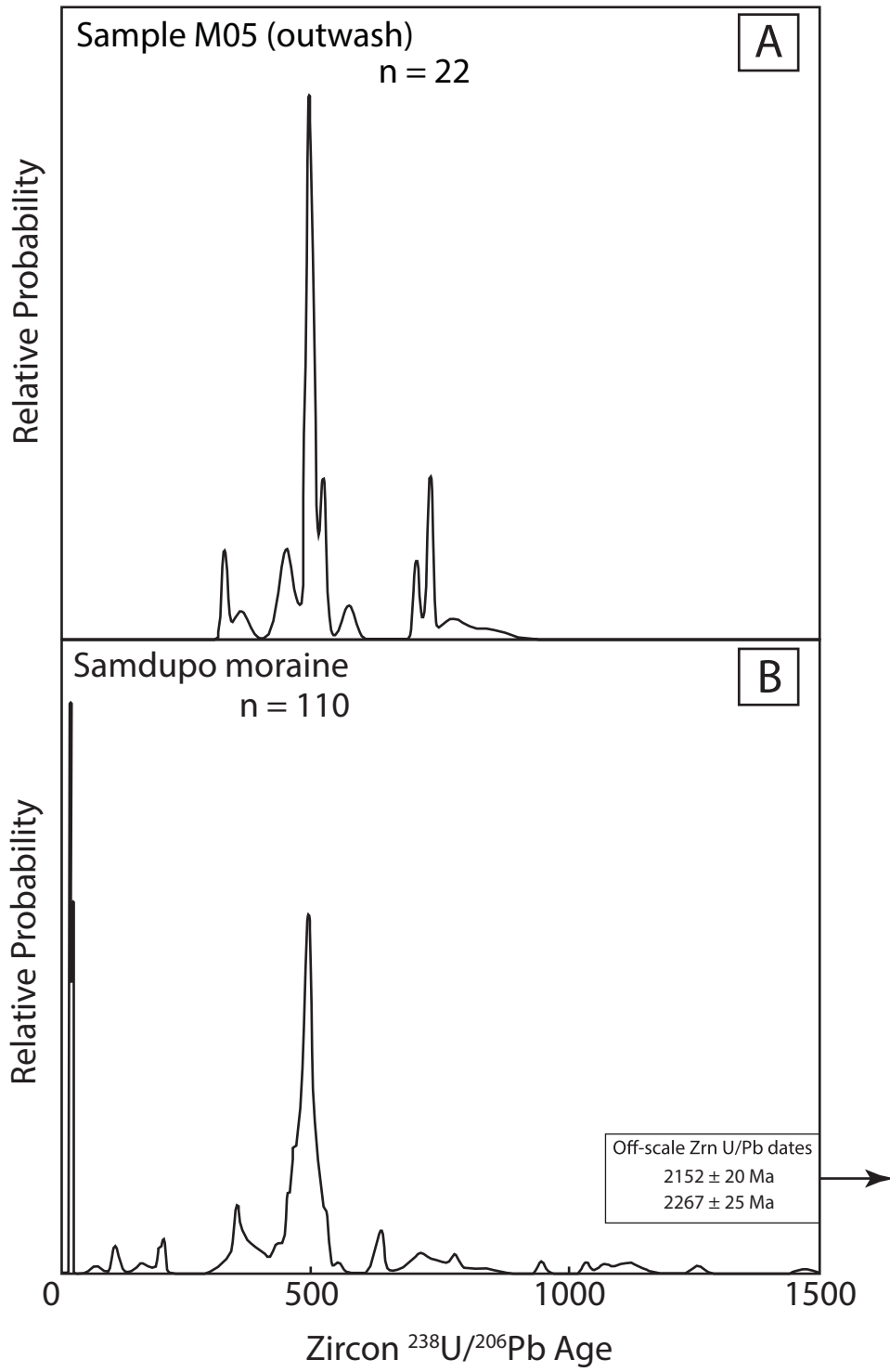


FIGURE 5.5

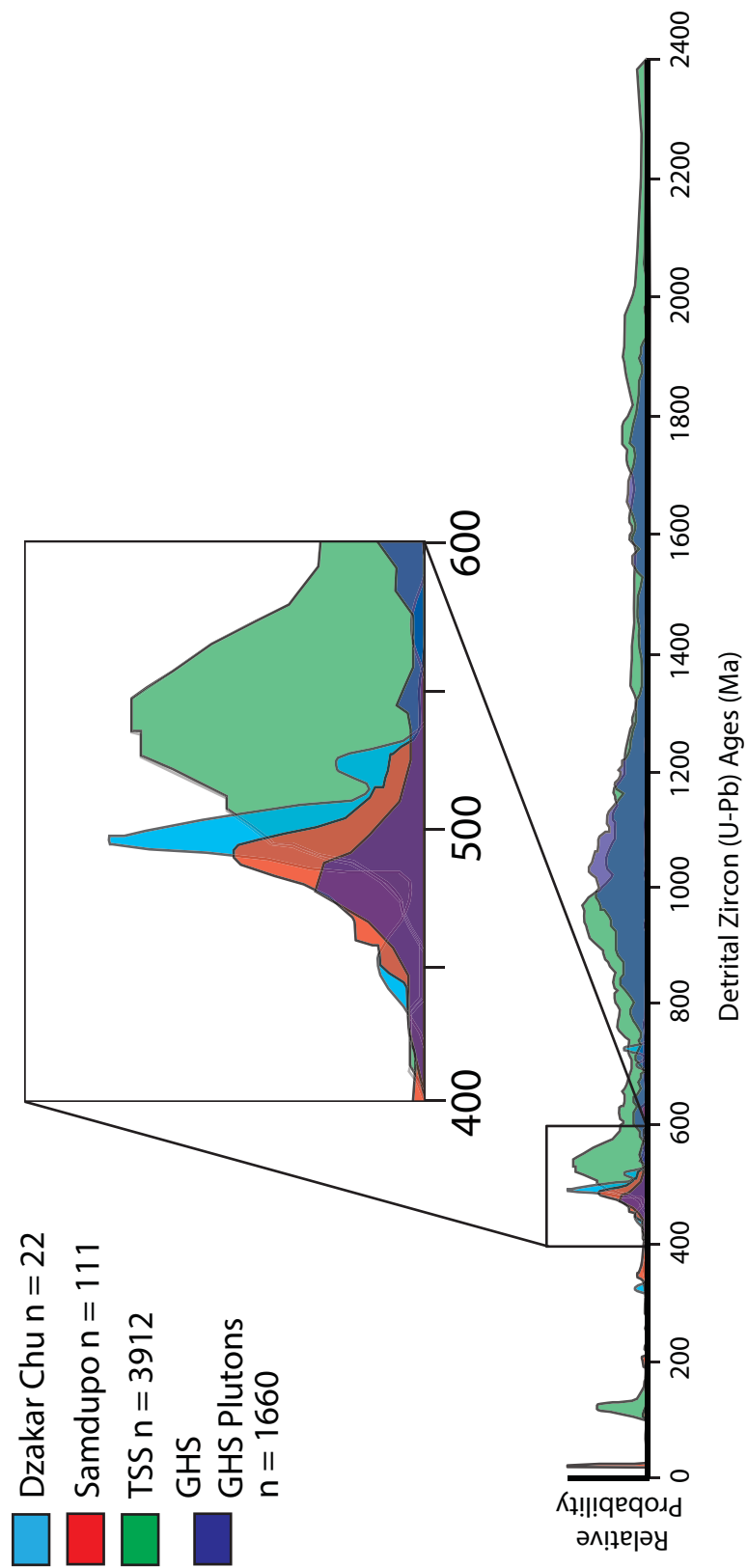


FIGURE 5.6

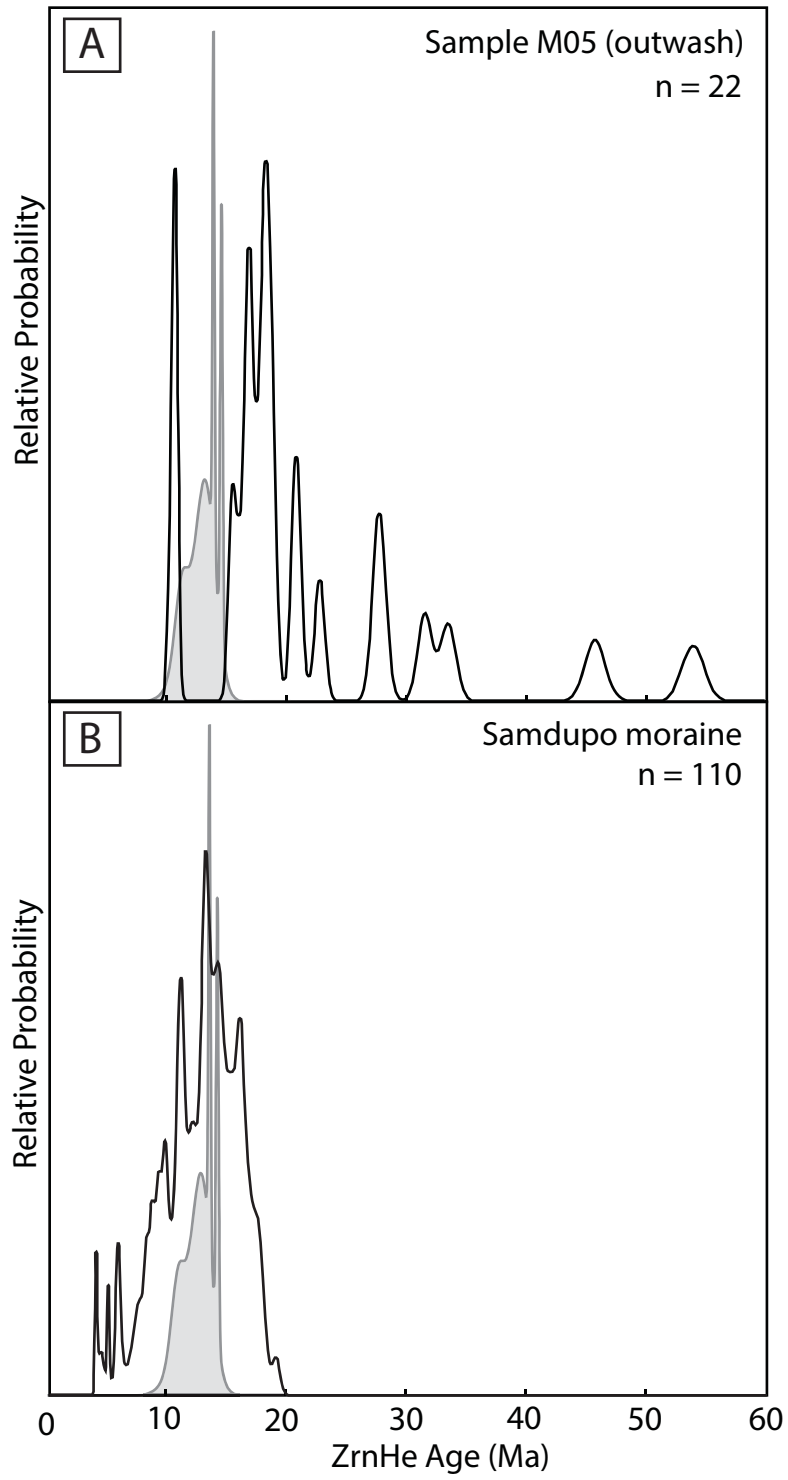


FIGURE 5.7

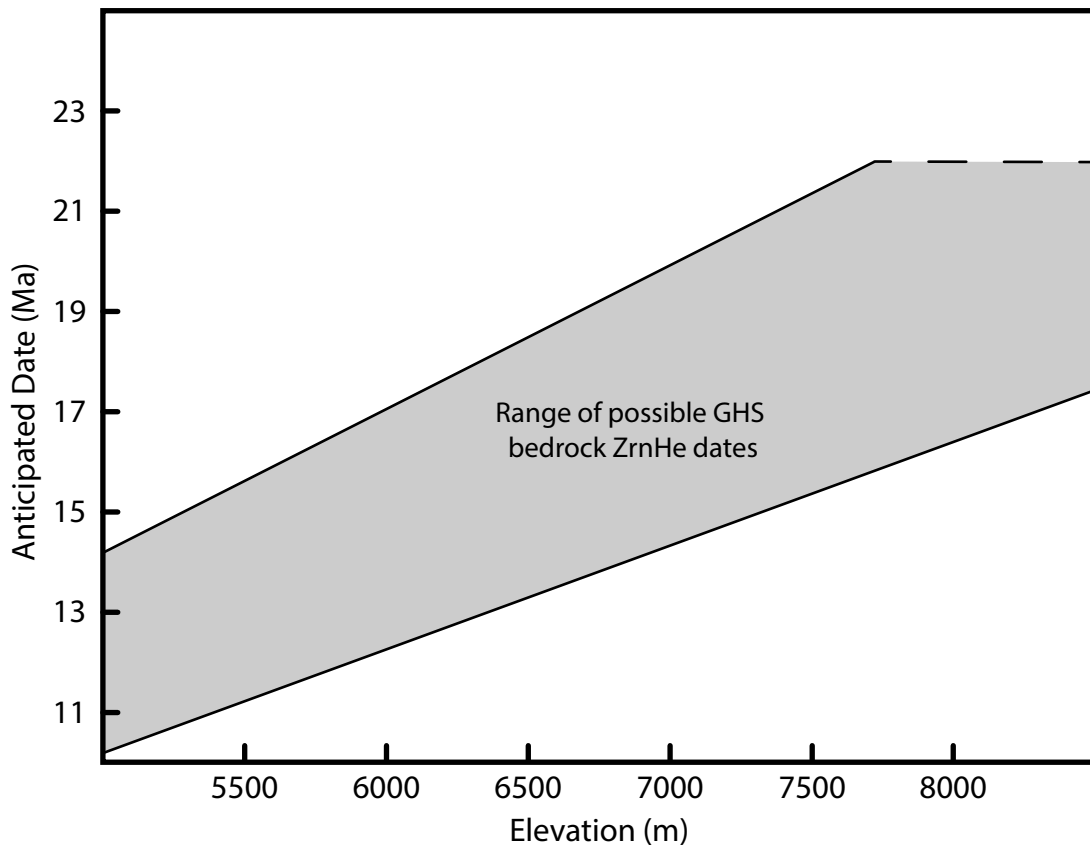
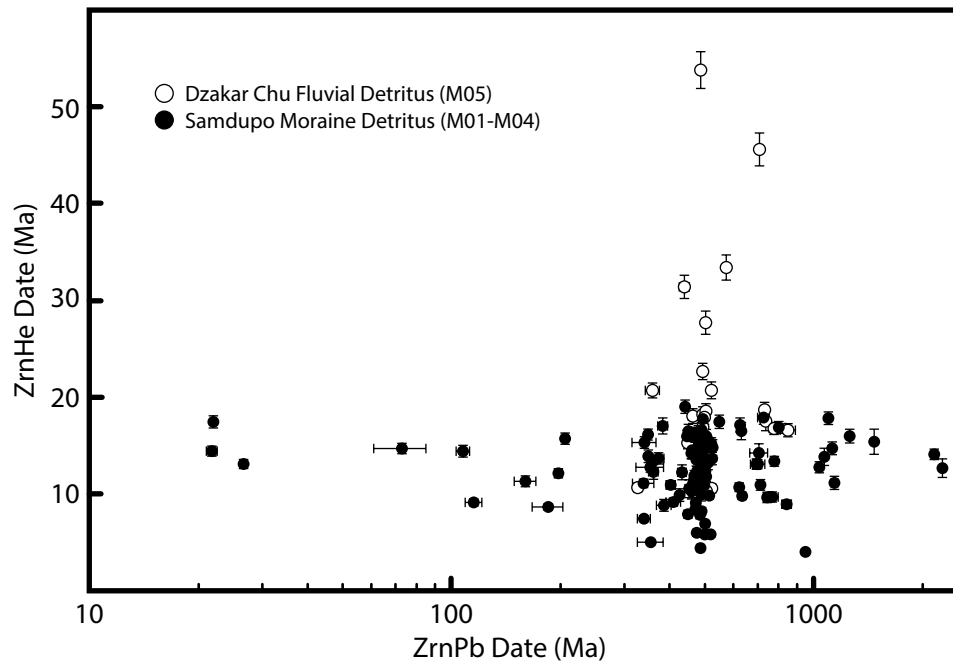


FIGURE 5.8



CHAPTER 6

SYNTHESIS

The chapters above explored the Late Cenozoic climatic and tectonic evolution of the Everest region in the central Himalaya using a variety of approaches and techniques. In this final chapter, I summarize the major contributions of this work and the opportunities for further research.

1. The tectonic significance of the South Tibetan detachment system

The magnitude of displacement on the STDS and continues to be a topic of great debate in Himalayan tectonics. In Chapters 2 and 3, we presented new low-temperature thermochronologic datasets, including muscovite and biotite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ step heating and zircon and apatite (U-Th)/He analyses, of Greater Himalayan Sequence rocks of the STDS footwall in the Rongbuk valley and two exposures of the STDS about 15 km down dip: on the Ra Chu and Dzakar Chu. We explored the implications of these data for detachment evolution using 1D and preliminary 2D thermal-kinematic models. Our results suggest that total slip on the STDS was ca. 61 to 289 km between at least ca. 20 and 13 Ma, with ca. 36 to 119 km of the displacement occurring in the brittle realm. Our findings imply that the STDS acted as the upper bound of a thick southward extruding channel of rocks of the GHS (Nelson et al., 1996; Beaumont et al., 2001; Hodges et al., 2001; Grujic et al., 2002) and are inconsistent with models that state the STDS played a minor role in Himalayan tectonic evolution (Yin, 2006; Webb et al., 2007; Webb, 2013).

2. Constraining Exhumation Rates North and South of the Himalayan Rain Shadow

Chapter 4 focused on exploring the variations of Late Cenozoic exhumation histories across the Himalayan rain shadow using TRMM data, muscovite and biotite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and zircon and apatite (U-Th)/He thermochronometry, and 1D thermal-kinematic modeling. Unlike the uniformly young cooling ages that were revealed for sampling transects along major Transhimalayan rivers (Burbank et al., 2003; Blythe et al., 2007; McDermott, 2012), our results from Chapter 4 show sharp transitions in both cooling ages and modeled exhumation rates that also correspond to the rainfall transition, suggesting that rainfall and bedrock erosion are correlated on million-year timescales.

3. Spatial and Temporal Variations in Sediment Mixing in the Rongbuk Glacial Catchment

In Chapter 5, we used the recently developed laser ablation U/Pb and (U-Th)/He double dating (LADD) technique on detrital zircon crystals from modern outwash sediment of the Dzakar Chu and from sediment of a Holocene glacial moraine to examine how different glacial processes of erosion have acted on the Rongbuk valley. Our results reveal that erosion from older glacial advances affects different areas of the catchment than those of the outwash system of the modern glacier. The source regions of the modern-day Dzakar Chu inferred from our detrital zircon LADD dates are much higher in elevation than the source regions for the Holocene glacial moraine.

4. Future Research Opportunities

4.1 Structural mapping of the Everest transect

Chapter 4 presented the very first comprehensive thermochronologic dataset across a non-Transhimalayan drainage, which revealed a very sharp transition in both cooling ages and exhumation histories. McDermott et al. (2013, 2015) presented evidence of very young, low-angle normal detachments to the east in the Nyalam and Dhaulagiri regions of southern Tibet and central Nepal, respectively and as stated in Chapter 4, our own data may be explained by the existence of such a detachment. Though we did not find evidence for a structural control along the Everest transect, detailed structural mapping of the catchment may prove otherwise. If not, then we must assume that a steady-state precipitation profile exists, perhaps aided by downstream uplift via duplexing to inhibit knickpoint migration.

4.2 Additional sampling of the Dzakar Chu modern fluvial outwash system

Chapter 5 presented (U-Th)/He and U/Pb detrital datasets from Holocene glacial moraine and modern glacial outwash sediment samples. Somewhat unexpectedly, the data from the outwash sample revealed sediment source regions that are much higher in elevation than for the moraine sample. Although there are geomorphic scenarios that could explain this outcome, the number of zircon crystals analyzed from the modern outwash sample was much lower than from the moraine sample, potentially hiding younger ZrnHe populations (in other words, those that point to sourcing from lower elevations). Future work should include the collection of a higher volume of the outwash

detritus that results in a larger number of dated zircons to see if additional ZrnHe date populations are revealed.

5. References

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APPENDIX A

CHAPTER 2 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

1. Analytical methods – $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ thermochronology

Crushing and standard gravimetric and magnetic procedures were used to prepare rough grain concentrates prior to the final purification of mineral separates for thermochronology. In the case of muscovite for $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dating, this involved hand-picking of single muscovite grains and their cleaning in acetone, methanol, and deionized water. Samples were then individually wrapped in aluminum foil packets and loaded into small aluminum disks, which were stacked and secured together to make up package for neutron irradiation production of ^{39}Ar . Grains of biotite standard HD-B1 (24.18 ± 0.09 Ma, uncertainty at 1σ , Schwarz et al., 2007) were regularly interspersed in the aluminum disks with the samples to monitor the overall neutron flux, and synthetic and natural K and Ca salts were added to determine interfering nuclear production ratios. Rongbuk muscovites were irradiated in two different, Cd-shielded packages: one at the McMaster University Row 8 position (samples R01, R02, R04, and R05) and the other at the Oregon State University CLICIT facility for 1.7 hours (samples R06, R07, and R08).

After irradiation, the unknowns, monitors, and standards were loaded into an ultrahigh-vacuum line for argon isotopic analysis. The analytical experiments involved incremental heating of individual crystals using a 60W IPG Photonics infrared (970 nm) diode laser operated at successively high power levels ranging from 4 to 15 W. No attempt was made to monitor sample temperatures during the experiment. Released gasses were purified by passing them over hot and cold SAES NP10 metal alloy ‘getters’ prior to Ar isotopic analysis with a Nu Instruments *Noblesse* magnetic sector mass spectrometer. For most release steps, signals were measured using an ETP ion counting detector, but a few ^{40}Ar signals were so large that a Faraday detector (fitted with a 10^{11}

Ohm resistor) was used. The fully automated laser heating, automated valves operation, and data acquisition was computer controlled using Alan Deino's *MassSpec* software program.

Total system blanks for our experiments are estimated to have been 2.2E-18, 2.6E-20, 2.7E-21, 5.2E-20, 1.2E-20 moles STP (standard temperature and pressure) for ^{40}Ar , ^{39}Ar , ^{38}Ar , ^{37}Ar and ^{36}Ar , respectively. Unknown analyses were corrected for mass spectrometer discrimination and nuclear interference reactions (see Table A1). Air pipette shots were analyzed regularly to intercalibrate the Faraday and ion counting detector, using the ^{40}Ar peak, and intercalibrations were done using the 'isotopic reference ratio intercalibration' method of Turrin et al. (2010). Apparent ages were calculated using the ^{40}Ar decay constants and branching ratios of Steiger and Jäger (1977). To account for potential gradients in the reactor neutron flux in the irradiation package, J values and errors were calculated for the unknown samples (Table A1) by spatially interpolating J values obtained from age standard minerals (i.e., HD-B1 biotite) evenly distributed within the seven-hole Al irradiation planchettes.

All muscovite laser incremental heating analyses resulted in plateau ages, defined as three or more steps comprising 50% or more of the total ^{39}Ar in a sample, with individual calculated ages that overlap at the 2σ level without propagation of the *J*-value uncertainty (Fleck et al., 1977). The reported plateau dates and their 2σ uncertainties (inclusive of the *J*-value uncertainties) represent the ^{39}Ar -weighted means of the ages of all the steps defining each plateau.

2. Analytical methods – (U-Th)/He thermochronology

Using a binocular microscope, individual crystals of clear, euhedral, and apparently inclusion-free zircon and apatite were picked for (U-Th)/He dating from rough concentrates. We report dates for between 3 and 7 individual crystals of apatite and zircon per sample. Each crystal was measured to establish the necessary parameters for the alpha ejection corrections of the resulting dates using the approach of Farley et al. (1996) for apatite and Hourigan et al. (2005) for zircon. For both minerals, we assumed a homogeneous distribution of U and Th for determining correction factors; potential problems with this assumption are discussed in the main text of the paper. The grains were then loaded into small niobium tubes prior to analysis. All helium measurements were made with an Australian Scientific Instruments (ASI) *Alphachron* system, which features a 45 Watt, infrared (980 nm) diode laser for gas extraction and a Balzers *Prisma QMS 200* quadrupole mass spectrometer for isotopic measurements. Gasses including helium were released from apatite by laser heating for five minutes at 9 A, and from zircon by laser heating for ten minutes at 20 A. The released gasses were mixed with a known quantity of ^3He spike in preparation for isotope-dilution analysis, after which the mixture was purified of reactive gasses using a combination of hot and cold metal alloy getters. Along with sample unknowns, we also analyzed aliquots of Fish Canyon zircon and Durango fluorapatite to monitor system performance, and empty Nb tubes to allow for blank correction of the resulting data.

After ^4He analysis, each sample packet was unloaded from the laser chamber and dissolved for U and Th analysis. Apatites were dissolved using 25 μl of 50% nitric (HNO_3) acid that contains a mixed spike of ~ 5 ng of ^{230}Th and ~ 15 ng of ^{235}U . In contrast,

zircons were digested at elevated temperatures and pressures in Parr vessels using concentrated hydrofluoric (HF), nitric (HNO₃), and hydrochloric (HCl) acids mixed with the U+Th spike. After dissolution, samples, together with specially prepared batches of spiked standard solutions, were analyzed for U and Th using a Thermo Scientific *ICAP-Q* inductively coupled, plasma source mass spectrometer.

The He, U, and Th data were used to calculate raw ages using an iterative approach to the (U-Th)/He age equation. Within this calculation, the concentration of ²³⁵U is derived from the measured ²³⁸U concentration using the known ratio of these isotopes in nature. The raw ages are then corrected for alpha ejection as described above. All uncertainties for ApHe and ZrnHe dates reflect the full propagation of analytical errors, but no errors were assigned to the alpha ejection correction calculations or propagated into the reported uncertainties.

As is frequently the case for (U-Th)/He data, the dispersion of zircon or apatite dates from a single sample from Rongbuk was often greater than would be anticipated from propagated analytical errors alone. The most probable causes of this overdispersion are unquantified, crystal-specific errors in the alpha ejection correction (often due to parent element zoning; Hourigan et al., 2005) or variable amounts of radiation damage that can affect the closure behavior of the zircon or apatite (Flowers et al., 2009; Guenther et al., 2013). For this study, our approach to handling dispersion was as follows. First, we attempted to identify outliers in the measured zircon or apatite dates for each sample using the Hampel identifier method (e.g., Pearson, 2011), assuming that any date more than four median average deviations from the median could be reasonably discarded from further analysis. After removing any outliers present, we recalculated the

inverse variance-weighted mean of each ensemble of ApHe or ZrnHe dates, as well as: 1) the standard deviation of the weighted mean; 2) the mean squared weighted deviation (MSWD) of the distribution with outliers removed; and 3) the expected ca. 95% confidence range of MSWD for the ensemble based on the number of analyses in the weighted mean (Wendt and Carl, 1991; Mahon, 1996). In cases where the calculated MSWD was within the ca. 95% confidence range of its predicted value of 1.0, we report twice the standard deviation of the inverse-variance weighted mean as a realistic uncertainty for the calculated weighted mean ApHe or ZrnHe date. If the calculated MSWD was higher than this range, then we instead report two standard deviations of the population of dates as a realistic ca. 95% confidence-level estimate of the uncertainty in the inverse-variance weighted mean for that sample.

3. 1D Pecube thermal-kinematic modeling input parameters

Our approach to 1D thermal-kinematic modeling and choice of thermal physical properties and boundary conditions follows that used by previous work in neighboring regions of the Himalaya (e.g., Thiede and Ehlers, 2013; Adams et al., 2015). More specifically, we assumed a layer thickness – 30 km; a basal temperature of 650°C; a surface temperature of 5°C; a heat capacity of 800 J kg⁻¹K⁻¹; a crustal density of 2750 kg m³; a thermal conductivity of 2.5 Wm⁻¹K⁻¹; and a heat production rate of 2 μWm⁻³. With these assumptions, we conducted 300,000 forward models of thermal histories over the past 20 Ma predicted by randomly selected denudation rates between 0.01 and 4.0 mm/a. These rates were held constant for time steps of up to a few million years but were allowed to change between time steps. The ensemble of thermal histories produced

by this Monte Carlo scheme were then used to predict MsAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe closure ages (assuming diffusion parameters as described in the text), and these were compared with the actual dates for a sample using the misfit criteria as described in Thiede and Ehlers (2013). If a simulation reproduced all of a sample's closure ages within one standard deviation based on their analytical precisions, it was deemed acceptable. The ensemble of acceptable simulation was then used to calculate ca. 95% confidence ranges for modeled exhumation histories.

Based on the $QTQt$ modeling results, we anticipated that the exhumation rates returned by thermo-kinematic modeling would decrease precipitously with time, but an important goal of this aspect of our modeling was to refine our understanding of when the steep decrease began and when it might have ended. To achieve this, the thermo-kinematic modeling began assuming relatively coarse time intervals of a few million years and we subsequently inserted increasingly shorter elements to improve our resolution of the variation in exhumation rates with time. Our intention in taking this approach was not to over-interpret the data – very small increments might suggest changes in exhumation rates that are modeling artefacts – but to establish the coarsest set of models that would still illuminate the most important exhumation rate transitions. The modeling results all are based on modeling increments of 20.0-15.0 Ma, 15.0-14.0 Ma, 14.0-13.0 Ma, 13.0-8.0 Ma, and 8.0 Ma to the present.

4. Supplementary Materials Figure Captions

Figure A1. Muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ release spectra for samples R03, R04, R06, and R07. All eight samples have well-defined plateau ages. See Table 2.1 for the rest of the plateau ages and Appendix A for the individual heating steps.

Figure A2. Time-temperature histories output from the 1D thermal model *QTQt* for samples R03, R04, R06, and R07. The bold black line is the “Expected Model,” which is the weighted mean of all acceptable thermal histories (Gallagher, 2012). Grey shading indicates the 95% credible confidence intervals. Dots mark the input thermochronometric system and vertical bars indicate uncertainty on the calculated closure temperatures. The input chronometer data (along with their 2σ uncertainties) are presented at the top of each figure pane.

Figure A3. Exhumation rate histories from thermal-kinematic modeling using a 1D version of *Pecube* for samples R03, R04, R06, and R07. Bold black line indicates the mean exhumation rate history. Horizontal grey bars indicate two standard deviations from the mean. Input chronometer data (along with their 2σ uncertainties) are presented at the top of each figure pane. The number of acceptable fits to the data is noted. See Figures 2.1 and 2.2 for sample locality information. A dashed vertical line at ~ 15.6 Ma indicates the transition from ductile shearing to ductile-brittle slip on the detachment.

5. References Cited in Supplementary Materials

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TABLE 1: BOMBABA VALLEY WHITE WINE CA, Mg, Mn, Fe RESULTS

N	Power (W)		σ_{P}		σ_{M}		σ_{Mn}		σ_{Fe}		σ_{Mg}		σ_{Ca}		σ_{Mn}		σ_{Mg}		σ_{Ca}											
	Mean	Stdev	Mean	Stdev	Mean	Stdev	Mean	Stdev	Mean	Stdev	Mean	Stdev	Mean	Stdev	Mean	Stdev	Mean	Stdev	Mean	Stdev										
62300A	4.5	9.23E-18	47841	71	937	11	374	2.3	-2596	1800	1171	3.3	4923	18.4	1.4	13.2	1.9	2.0	-5.14	1501.8	11222	32	122.7	48	11.0	1.2	206.5	57	58.0	2.0
62300C	4.5	4.58E-18	23899	65	669	8.7	12.5	1.9	-2776	1600	-534	3.0	45.0	18.07	1.4	7.7	-1.27	1501.8	10878	31	124.4	42	11.5	1.3	238.1	61	57.4	2.2		
62300E	4.5	1.98E-18	10911	50	339.0	8.6	7.6	1.8	-32	1900	113	2.6	55.7	15.97	0.32	13.3	1.4	2.8	-0.15	1501.8	10919	28	124.3	41	13.6	1.1	206.5	51	58.5	1.8
62300G	4.5	2.73E-17	183651	54	4321	19	993	3.4	-712	1200	2374	4.0	65.9	16.20	0.91	15.08	0.27	0.94	-0.17	1501.8	10900	27	127.0	36	14.3	1.0	206.3	50	59.5	1.8
62300H	4.5	2.73E-17	12312	106	6116	28	156	3.9	2064	1400	1041	3.8	80.1	16.66	0.94	15.26	0.18	0.38	0.92	1501.8	10907	30	119.8	31	15.5	1.2	232.1	53	60.9	2.2
62300I	4.5	4.06E-17	205153	113	80421	30	1334	4.1	2931	1900	1121	3.4	82.5	16.94	0.91	15.29	0.10	0.21	0.49	1501.8	10900	28	136.6	35	15.4	1.1	238.1	54	59.7	1.8
62300J	4.5	2.83E-16	1309004	62059	78308	71	9873	8.8	1491	1400	1883	5.1	92.3	16.82	0.95	15.82	0.09	0.15	0.94	1501.8	11190*	6097	180.1	40	14.2	1.2	206.6	60	58.3	1.9

Power Avg (exp. C, 1, 3, 7) = 0.36 Ma
 Standard (ID: H)

Age: 24.18 ± 0.09 Ma. Szwarc and Finkel (2007)

Explanations

Blank: Type: Ave = average; Stdev: linear regression var. cov. time

Blank: Type: Ave = average; Stdev: linear regression var. cov. time

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TABLE A3: RONGBUK VALLEY INDIVIDUAL APATITE (U-TH) HE RESULTS

Sample#	Elevation (m)	Latitude Longitude	Rock Type	[²³⁸ U]	Error ^b	[²³² Th]	Error ^b	[⁴ He]	Error ^b	Rd	L ^c	β ^d	a ^e	F ^h	Age _{conc.} ⁱ	Error ^b
				ppmole	1σ	ppmole	1σ	ppmole	1σ	μm	μm	1/μm	μm	Mean	Ma	2σ
R01	5157	28.14056°N 86.85194°E	Mylonitized leucogranite	0.8942	0.0071	0.5194	0.0099	0.01119	0.00015	61	263.2	0.046	65.93	0.776	10.99	0.34
R01 a001				0.5284	0.0045	0.0506	0.0080	0.005135	0.000072	62.8	265.2	0.044	67.72	0.784	9.36	0.32
R01 a004				0.1206	0.0014	0.025	0.0080	0.000799	0.000018	39	155	0.072	41.61	0.662	7.38	0.42
R01 a006				0.1847	0.0019	0.0094	0.0080	0.001241	0.000043	34	163	0.080	37.41	0.63	8.16	0.62
R01 a007				0.06950	0.00090	0.0024	0.0080	0.000871	0.000026	31.9	173.7	0.084	35.76	0.615	8.60	0.76
R01 a009				0.1798	0.0018	0.0026	0.0080	0.001353	0.000045	38.7	156.5	0.073	41.38	0.662	4.09	0.26
R01 a010				0.1505	0.0019	0.0184	0.0080	0.001188	0.000049	41.6	199.5	0.066	45.73	0.69	8.74	0.62
														Weighted Mean Age:	9.3	2.8^h
R02	5114	28.17328°N 86.84003°E	Mylonitized leucogranite	0.0669	0.0010	0.0085	0.0011	0.000423	0.000014	32.3	181.6	0.083	36.36	0.62	7.70	0.56
R02 a003				0.0581	0.0010	0.072	0.0013	0.000592	0.000013	25.5	124.6	0.11	28.12	0.515	11.96 ⁱ	0.62
R02 a004				0.02740	0.00090	0.1218	0.0018	0.000316	0.000028	28.7	122	0.10	30.99	0.538	8.20	1.5
R02 a006														Weighted Mean Age:	7.76	0.52^h

^a Absolute measured ⁴He, ²³⁸U, and ²³²Th concentrations are used to calculate the 'Raw Age' that is uncorrected for the effects of ⁴He loss due to alpha particle recoil.

^b Based on the propagation of analytical errors

^c The 'Raw Age' was calculated with an iterative approach to solving the age equation.

^d L describes the total length of the apatite.

^e β represents the surface area to volume ratio for the crystal.

^f a represents the equivalent spherical radius of the grain (Reiners and Brandon, 2006)

^g The mean F_c correction was calculated following procedures defined for apatite.

^h The F_c corrected age of the crystal. The FT correction was applied to the raw age following procedures defined by Farley et al., 1996

ⁱ Datum identified as an outlier using the Hempl identifier methods with an outlier limit of 4.0

^j Uncertainty reported as 2 inverse variance-weighted standard deviations of the dataset for this sample.

^k Uncertainty reported as 2 inverse variance-weighted standard deviations of the dataset for this sample. (MSWD indicated no overdispersion.)

FIGURE A1.

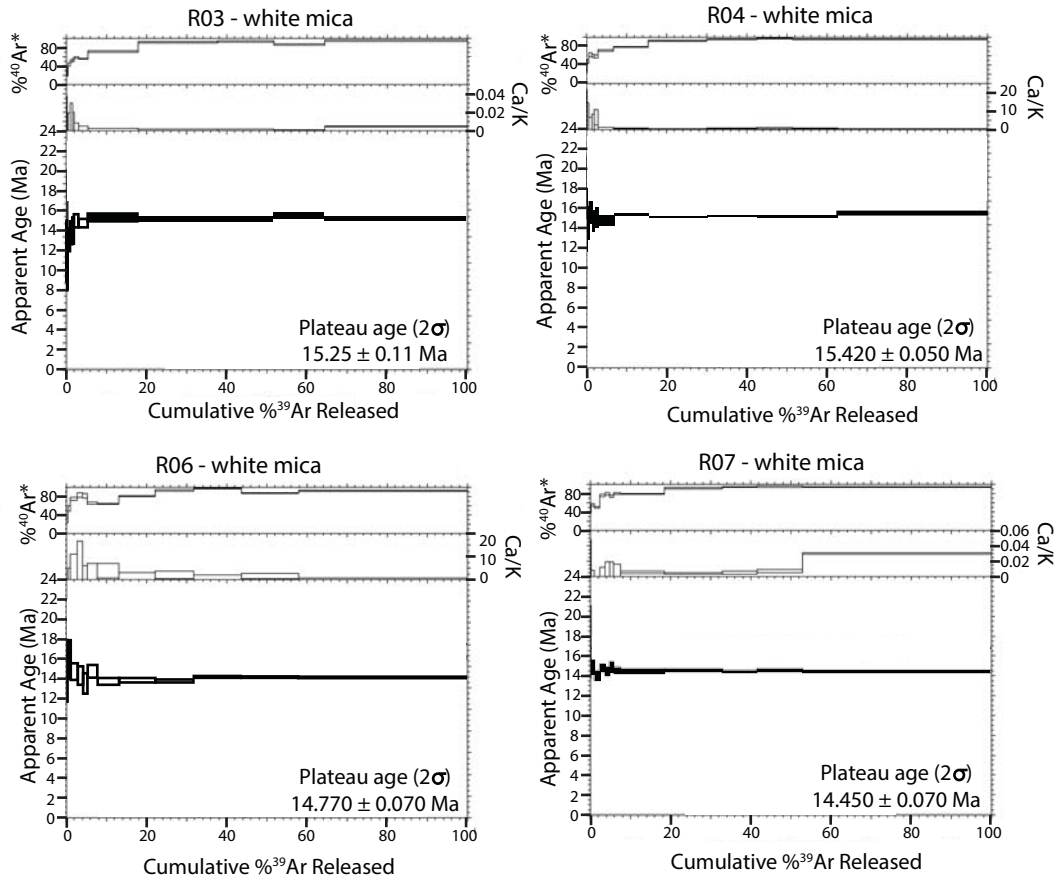


FIGURE A2.

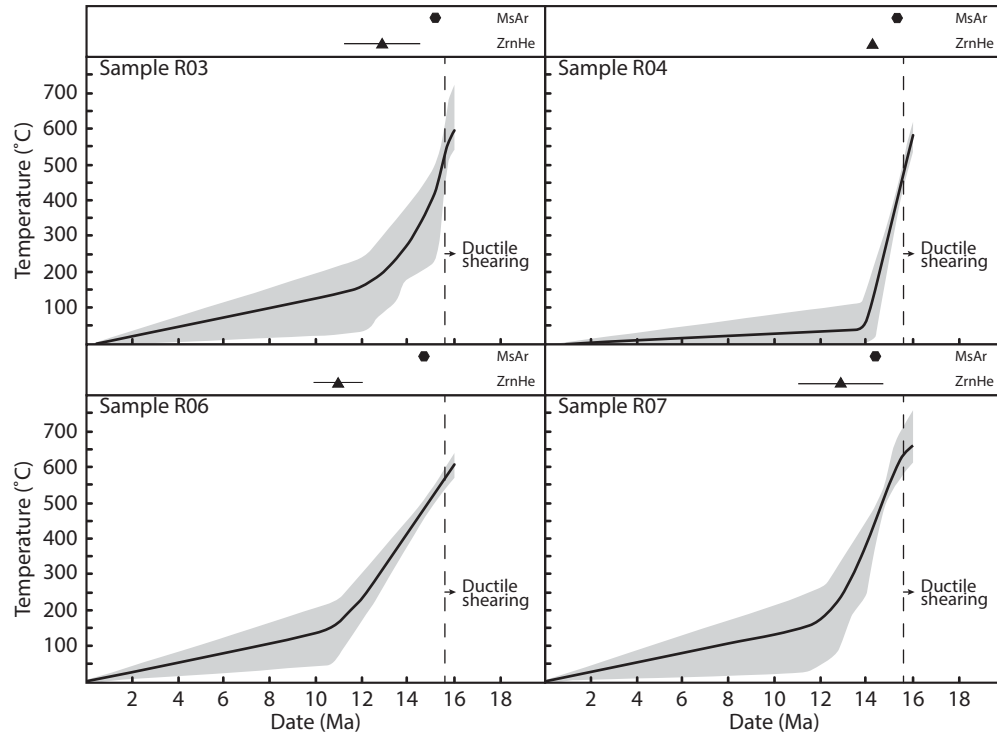
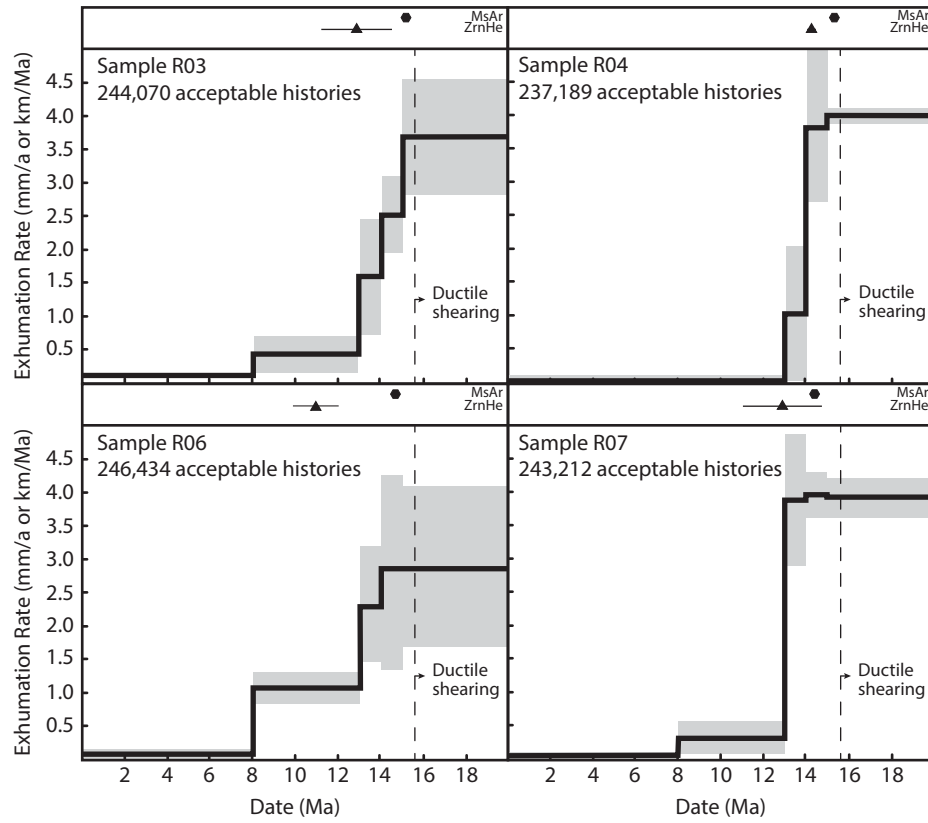


FIGURE A3.



APPENDIX B

CHAPTER 3 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

APPENDIX TABLE B1: WHITE MICHA AND BIOTITE ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar STEP-HEATING RESULTS FOR THE RACHU AND DZAKAR CHU, SOUTH-CENTRAL TIBET

Sample	DCU	Lab	Group	18	Laboratories	J	88E-05 ± 1.5E-06
Material: Biotite							
N	Power	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar
A	0.8	-14	10166	2.9	1.7	1.7	1.7
B	0.8	222808	220	17	502.6	3.6	0.99799
C	0.9	110697	190	17	219.5	2.9	0.99799
D	1.1	73888	603.6	4.9	21.7	1.9	1.8
E	1.1	47892.22	300	14	58.3	2.6	0.99799
F	1.7	532273	280	19	96.2	2.6	0.99799
G	1.7	132365	190	15.5	2.9	0.99799	96.55
H	1.9	36981	220	41.62	10	64.1	2.3
I	2.3	612323	290	68.80	13	111.6	2.5
J	3						
Plateau Age (Steps F - J): 13.39 ± 0.38 Ma							
Total Fission Age: 13.84 ± 0.43 Ma							

Sample	DCU	Lab	Group	18	Laboratories	J	901E-05 ± 1.3E-06
Material: White Mica							
N	Power	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar	³⁹ Ar
A	0.6	107339	193	4.9	47.4	2.0	63
B	0.7	73878	180	807.8	5.4	13.0	1.7
C	0.8	74219	190	409.5	5.2	28.1	1.7
D	1.1	21997	200	252.6	3.0	2.7	1.7
E	1.3	472574	270	4367	10	113.0	2.8
F	1.5	256512	210	2919.8	9.0	40.0	2.1
G	1.5	253522	210	2805.2	8.1	42.3	2.2
H	2	612329	290	6985	14	95.3	2.7
I	5	132329	200	279.7	8.8	32.6	2.2
J	8	53239	200	189.7	8.6	31.7	2.2
K	10	1949	190	181.2	5.2	1.6	1.9
L	10	1949	190	181.2	5.2	1.6	1.9
Plateau Age (Steps F - K): 13.693 ± 0.092 Ma							
Total Fission Age: 13.71 ± 0.43 Ma							

Standard: HE-Age: 24.18 ± 0.09 Swartz and Trindloff (2007)

Blank Type: LR = linear regression versus time
 * Analyzed on the Faraday
 Negative values indicate that analysis is indistinguishable from the background

Constants used

Atmospheric argon ratios
³⁶Ar/³⁹Ar: 295.5 ± 0.5 Nier (1950)
³⁸Ar/³⁹Ar: 1575 ± 2 Nier (1950)
 Interfering isotope production ratios
³⁶Ar/³⁹Ar: 0.00073 0.00099
³⁷Ar/³⁹Ar: 0.00215 0.00005
³⁸Ar/³⁹Ar: 0.00046 0.00006
³⁹Ar/³⁹Ar: 0.006645 9.00E-06
⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar: 0.0001936 8.00E-07
⁴¹Ar/³⁹Ar: 0.000265 2.20E-06
⁴²Ar/³⁹Ar: 263 2

Decay constants
³⁷Ar: (5.81E-11 ± 0.0001) Steiger and Jäger (1977)
³⁹Ar: (4.96E-10 ± 0.0001) Steiger and Jäger (1977)
⁴⁰Ar: (2.58 ± 0.03)E-03 Stoomeer et al. (1965)
⁴¹Ar: (0.019725 ± 0.0001) Stoomeer et al. (1965)
⁴²Ar: (2.35 ± 0.02)E-06 Endt (1998)

APPENDIX TABLE B3: DZAKAR CHU INDIVIDUAL APATITE (U-TH)/HE RESULTS

Sample#	Elevation (m)	Latitude Longitude	Rock Type	^{238}U †	Error ^b 1 σ	^{232}Th †	Error ^b 1 σ	^{230}Th †	Error ^b 1 σ	[He] [‡] pmole	Error ^b 1 σ	Rd	Error ^b 1 σ	Agew ^c Ma	F _r ^b Mean	Agg _{com} ⁱ Ma	Error ^b 2 σ
DC03	4380	28.33664 N 87.27357 E	Leucogranite and Biotite Gneiss														
DC03 #01				0.1702	0.0017	0.0645	0.0023	2.197	0.036	9.16	0.17	33.2	0.17	9.16	0.616	14.88	0.56
DC03 #02				0.1679	0.0019	0.0351	0.0022	1.824	0.035	7.96	0.18	47.1	0.18	7.96	0.722	11.03	0.49
DC03 #03				0.08503	0.00092	0.0963	0.0024	0.686	0.017	4.84	0.13	48.1	0.13	4.84	0.703	6.89	0.37
DC03 #04				0.2518	0.0021	0.0841	0.0024	2.642	0.049	7.49	0.15	53.9	0.15	7.49	0.740	10.11	0.41
DC03 #05				0.1183	0.0012	0.0258	0.0022	1.453	0.028	8.89	0.20	48.9	0.20	8.89	0.722	12.31	0.54
															Weighted Mean Age:	10.2	2.6

^aAbsolute measured ^{238}U , ^{232}Th , and ^{230}Th concentrations are used to calculate the 'Raw Age' that is uncorrected for the effects of ^{230}Th loss due to alpha particle recoil.

^bBased on the propagation of analytical errors

^cThe 'Raw Age' was calculated with an iterative approach to solving the age equation.

^dR_t describes the total length of the apatite.

^ef_v represents the surface area to volume ratio for the crystal.

^ff_s represents the equivalent spherical radius of the grain (Reiners and Brandon, 2006)

^gThe mean F_c correction was calculated following procedures defined for apatite.

^hThe F_c corrected age of the crystal. The F_c correction was applied to the raw age following procedures defined by Farley et al., 1996

ⁱDatum identified as an outlier using the Hampel identifier methods with an outlier limit of 4.0

^jUncertainty reported as 2 inverse variance-weighted standard deviations of the dataset for this sample.

^kUncertainty reported as 2 inverse variance-weighted standard deviations of the inverse variance-weighted mean. (MSWD indicated no overdispersion.)

APPENDIX C

CHAPTER 4 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Analytical methods - $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ thermochronology

Crushing and standard gravimetric and magnetic procedures were used to prepare rough grain concentrates prior to the final purification of mineral separates for thermochronology. In the case of muscovite and biotite for $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dating, this involved hand-picking of single muscovite and biotite grains and their cleaning in acetone, methanol, and deionized water. Samples were then individually wrapped in aluminum foil packets and loaded into small aluminum disks, which were stacked and secured together to make up the package for neutron irradiation production of ^{39}Ar . Grains of biotite standard HD-B1 (24.18 ± 0.09 Ma, uncertainty at 1σ , Schwarz *et al.*, 2007) were regularly interspersed in the aluminum disks with the samples to monitor the overall neutron flux, and synthetic and natural K and Ca salts were added to determine interfering nuclear production ratios. Khumbu biotites and muscovites were irradiated in a Cd-shielded package at the Oregon State University CLICIT facility for 0.33 hours.

After irradiation, the unknowns, monitors, and standards were loaded into an ultrahigh-vacuum line for argon isotopic analysis. The analytical experiments involved incremental heating of individual crystals using a Photon Machines/Atlex ArF 193 nm excimer laser operated at successively high power levels ranging from 0.8 to 6 W for samples K01, K02, and K08 and 5 to 10 W for the rest of the samples. No attempt was made to monitor sample temperatures during the experiment. Released gasses were purified by passing them over hot and cold SAES NP10 metal alloy 'getters' prior to Ar isotopic analysis with a Nu Instruments *Noblesse* magnetic sector mass spectrometer. For most release steps, signals were measured using an ETP ion counting detector, but a few ^{40}Ar signals were so large that a Faraday detector (fitted with a 10^{11} Ohm resistor) was

used. The fully automated laser heating, automated valves operation, and data acquisition was computer controlled using Alan Deino's *MassSpec* software program.

Total system blanks for our experiments are estimated to have been 2.5E-18, 4.7E-20, 3.1E-21, 5.3E-20, 1.3E-20 moles STP (standard temperature and pressure) for ^{40}Ar , ^{39}Ar , ^{38}Ar , ^{37}Ar and ^{36}Ar , respectively. Unknown analyses were corrected for mass spectrometer discrimination and nuclear interference reactions (see Table A1). Air pipette shots were analyzed regularly to intercalibrate the Faraday and ion counting detector, using the ^{40}Ar peak, and intercalibrations were done using the 'isotopic reference ratio intercalibration' method of Turrin et al., (2010). Apparent ages were calculated using the ^{40}Ar decay constants and branching ratios of Steiger and Jäger (1977). To account for potential gradients in the reactor neutron flux in the irradiation package, J values and errors were calculated for the unknown samples (Table C1) by spatially interpolating J values obtained from age standard minerals (i.e., HD-B1 biotite) evenly distributed within the seven-hole Al irradiation planchettes.

All muscovite laser incremental heating analyses resulted in plateau ages, defined as three or more steps comprising 50% or more of the total ^{39}Ar in a sample, with individual calculated ages that overlap at the 2σ level without propagation of the *J*-value uncertainty Fleck et al., (1977). The reported plateau dates and their 2σ uncertainties (inclusive of the *J*-value uncertainties) represent the ^{39}Ar -weighted means of the ages of all the steps defining each plateau.

All biotite laser incremental heating analyses are reported as inverse-isochron ages as the $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratio for all samples is greater than the atmospheric ratio of 295.5, indicating the presence of excess argon, which is known to occur in Himalayan biotite

grains (Hubbard and Harrison, 1989; Grove and Harrison, 1996; Adams et al., 2015; Stübner et al., 2017).

Analytical methods - (U-Th)/He thermochronology

Using a binocular microscope, individual crystals of clear, euhedral, and apparently inclusion-free zircon and apatite were picked for (U-Th)/He dating from rough concentrates. We report dates for between one and five individual crystals of apatite and between four and eight zircon grains per sample. Each crystal was measured to establish the necessary parameters for the alpha ejection corrections of the resulting dates using the approach of Farley et al. (1996) for apatite and Hourigan et al. (2005) for zircon. For both minerals, we assumed a homogeneous distribution of U and Th for determining correction factors. The grains were then loaded into small niobium tubes prior to analysis. All helium measurements were made with an Australian Scientific Instruments (ASI) *Alphachron* system, which features a 45 Watt, infrared (980 nm) diode laser for gas extraction and a Balzers *Prisma QMS 200* quadrupole mass spectrometer for isotopic measurements. Gasses including helium were released from apatite by laser heating for five minutes at 9 A, and from zircon by laser heating for ten minutes at 20 A. The released gasses were mixed with a known quantity of ^3He spike in preparation for isotope-dilution analysis, after which the mixture was purified of reactive gasses using a combination of hot and cold metal alloy getters. Along with sample unknowns, we also analyzed aliquots of Fish Canyon zircon and Durango fluorapatite to monitor system performance, and empty Nb tubes to allow for blank correction of the resulting data.

After ^4He analysis, each sample packet was unloaded from the laser chamber and dissolved for U and Th analysis. Apatites were dissolved using 25 μl of 50% nitric (HNO_3) acid that contains a mixed spike of ~ 5 ng of ^{230}Th and ~ 15 ng of ^{235}U . In contrast, zircons were digested at elevated temperatures and pressures in Parr vessels using concentrated hydrofluoric (HF), nitric (HNO_3), and hydrochloric (HCl) acids mixed with the U+Th spike. After dissolution, samples, together with specially prepared batches of spiked standard solutions, were analyzed for U and Th using a Thermo Scientific *ICAP-Q* inductively coupled, plasma source mass spectrometer.

The He, U, and Th data were used to calculate raw ages using an iterative approach to the (U-Th)/He age equation. Within this calculation, the concentration of ^{235}U is derived from the measured ^{238}U concentration using the known ratio of these isotopes in nature. The raw ages are then corrected for alpha ejection as described above. All uncertainties for ApHe and ZrnHe dates reflect the full propagation of analytical errors, but no errors were assigned to the alpha ejection correction calculations or propagated into the reported uncertainties.

As is frequently the case for (U-Th)/He data, the dispersion of zircon or apatite dates from a single sample from Khumbu was often greater than would be anticipated from propagated analytical errors alone. The most probable causes of this overdispersion are unquantified, crystal-specific errors in the alpha ejection correction (often due to parent element zoning; Hourigan et al., 2005) or variable amounts of radiation damage that can affect the closure behavior of the zircon or apatite (Flowers et al., 2009; Guenther et al., 2013). For this study, our approach to handling dispersion was as follows. First, we attempted to identify outliers in the measured zircon or apatite dates for

each sample using the Hampel identifier method (e.g., Pearson, 2011), assuming that any date more than four median average deviations from the median could be reasonably discarded from further analysis. After removing any outliers present, we recalculated the inverse variance-weighted mean of each ensemble of ApHe or ZrnHe dates, as well as: 1) the standard deviation of the weighted mean; 2) the mean squared weighted deviation (MSWD) of the distribution with outliers removed; and 3) the expected ca. 95% confidence range of MSWD for the ensemble based on the number of analyses in the weighted mean (Wendt and Carl, 1991; Mahon, 1996). In cases where the calculated MSWD was within the ca. 95% confidence range of its predicted value of 1.0, we report twice the standard deviation of the inverse-variance weighted mean as a realistic uncertainty for the calculated weighted mean ApHe or ZrnHe date. If the calculated MSWD was higher than this range, then we instead report two standard deviations of the population of dates as a realistic ca. 95% confidence-level estimate of the uncertainty in the inverse-variance weighted mean for that sample.

1-D thermal-kinematic modeling methodology

Our approach to 1D thermal-kinematic modeling and choice of thermal physical properties and boundary conditions follows those used previously in the Everest region and other regions in the Himalaya (e.g., Thiede and Ehlers, 2013; Adams et al., 2015; Schultz et al., 2017). More specifically, we assumed a layer thickness – 30 km; a basal temperature of 650°C; a surface temperature of 5°C; a heat capacity of 800 J kg⁻¹K⁻¹; a crustal density of 2750 kg m³; a thermal conductivity of 2.5 Wm⁻¹K⁻¹; and a heat production rate of 2 μWm⁻³. With these assumptions, we conducted 500,000 forward

models of thermal histories over the past 20 Ma predicted by randomly selected denudation rates between 0.01 and 4.0 mm/a. The ensemble of thermal histories produced by this Monte Carlo scheme were then used to predict MsAr, BtAr, ZrnHe, and ApHe closure ages and these were compared with the actual dates for a sample using the misfit criteria as described in Thiede and Ehlers (2013). A simulation was deemed acceptable if a simulation reproduced all of a sample's closure ages within one standard deviation based on their analytical precisions. The acceptable simulations were then used to calculate ca. 95% confidence ranges for modeled exhumation histories.

The thermo-kinematic modeling began with assuming relatively coarse time intervals of a few million years and we subsequently inserted shorter elements to improve our understanding of how exhumation rates varied with time. Our intention in taking this approach was not to over-interpret the data, for instance small changes in exhumation rate that might actually be artifacts of the model, but to establish the coarsest set of models that would still illuminate the most important exhumation rate transitions. The modeling results all are based on modeling increments of 3 Ma between 20 and 17 Ma, 1 Ma between 17 and 3 Ma and one increment of 3 Ma from 3 Ma to the present day.

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APPENDIX TABLE C1: ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar THERMOCRONOLOGY

Sample K01		Lab. Group 181 Laboratories		J. R. 97E-05a1 12E-06		Material Biotope		N Power		Blank Corrections		Material Biotope		J. R. 97E-05a1 12E-06	
		³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar
		(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)
A	0.5	152205	410	992.8	5.4	51.8	2.4	34.0	23.9	21.2	2.9	0.9880	53.18	81.5	1.1
B	0.9	52071	210	167.2	3.8	9.6	2.0	45.0	19.5	18.3	2.3	0.9880	89.61	79.9	1.4
C	1.1	38292	200	2127.9	6.6	4.1	1.9	-1.6	20.4	5.7	2.2	0.9880	95.58	79.2	1.7
D	1.3	529547	260	2470.7	6.7	94.2	2.6	13.8	18.6	75.6	2.6	0.9880	95.78	80.83	0.21
E	1.5	196687	820	1000.0	7.1	10.5	3.5	10.5	10.5	10.5	2.5	0.9880	102.18	76.7	1.5
F	1.7	44318	220	4066.3	9.1	7.0	1.8	41.9	19.6	-3.3	2.3	0.9880	104.38	75.6	1.2
G	1.9	26493	210	1458.5	6.6	5.0	1.7	3.7	20.7	-3.9	2.3	0.9880	104.38	75.6	1.2
H	2.3	118729	200	1152.8	5.8	18.0	1.9	-20.5	21.2	8.9	2.4	0.9880	97.79	79.85	0.66
I	3	200859	220	1657.3	6.6	34.1	1.8	-4.8	19.4	18.5	2.4	0.9880	97.27	79.08	0.40
J	6	604194	340	2538.2	7.3	97.5	2.2	5.7	21.8	37.7	2.7	0.9880	98.16	80.48	0.20
K	6	12729	210	1913.1	7.3	-1.2	2.1	-28.5	22.9	0.1	2.4	0.9880	99.80	67.7	3.4
Fusion Age (Strip F-1): 12.80 ± 0.19 Ma															
Total Fusion Age: 12.99 ± 0.36 Ma															

APPENDIX TABLE C2: ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar THERMOCRONOLOGY

Sample K02		Lab. Group 181 Laboratories		J. R. 97E-05 ± 1.86E-07		Material Biotope		N Power		Blank Corrections		Material Biotope		J. R. 97E-05 ± 1.86E-07	
		³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar	³⁹ Ar	⁴⁰ Ar
		(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)
A	0.8	48896	1000	646.5	5.5	60.2	2.4	5.7	26	288.9	3.3	0.9973	36.42	75.6	1.7
B	0.9	29915	850	418.0	4.8	18.3	1.9	2	21	78.2	2.7	0.9973	56.42	71.6	2.2
C	1.1	26882	760	340.8	4.7	13.0	1.8	-24	24	30.1	2.4	0.9973	55.13	78.9	2.5
D	1.3	196687	820	2431.2	8.6	32.3	2.3	8	26	113.9	2.5	0.9973	97.95	80.90	0.44
E	1.5	196687	820	2431.2	8.6	32.3	2.3	8	26	113.9	2.5	0.9973	97.95	80.90	0.44
F	1.7	95999	810	1208.2	7.3	23.8	1.9	18	26	30.7	2.5	0.9973	91.38	79.46	0.82
G	1.9	56994	760	682.4	5.9	10.3	1.8	33	25	-4.4	2.4	0.9973	102.40	82.2	1.3
H	2.3	302983	840	3663	10	55.8	2.3	-22	24	45.1	2.6	0.9973	95.78	82.71	0.32
I	3	429025	840	5262	11	73.8	2.6	19	25	78.9	2.6	0.9973	94.97	81.53	0.24
J	6	12729	210	1913.1	7.3	-1.2	2.1	-28.5	22.9	0.1	2.4	0.9880	99.80	67.7	3.4
K	6	12729	210	1913.1	7.3	-1.2	2.1	-28.5	22.9	0.1	2.4	0.9880	99.80	67.7	3.4
Fusion Age (Strip F-1): 12.80 ± 0.19 Ma															
Total Fusion Age: 13.13 ± 0.089 Ma															

Sample K03			Lab: Group 18 Laboratories			J: 3.28E-04 1.1.54E-06			Blank Corrections																							
Material: Biotite																																
N	Power	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar					
(W)	(g)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)			
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	Total Fusion A: 13.00 ± 0.13 Ma																				
4	68726	500	233.4	23	329.3	25.5	109.6	14	318.5	25.5	288	180	6.5	1.5	0.9849	89.05	27.946	0.047	16.92	0.12	0.057	0.099	0.010	LR	127.91	65.3	12.98	0.36	116.3	2.0	65.30	0.82
4	248750	480	8785	14	109.6	13	340	180	6.5	1.5	0.9849	89.05	27.946	0.047	16.92	0.12	0.057	0.099	0.010	LR	169.42	36	74.5	1.1	12.57	0.35	117.3	1.9	61.90	0.82		
5.4	688234	820	24663	25	313.5	2.5	288	180	90.9	1.7	0.9849	98.24	27.905	0.044	16.90	0.12	0.053	0.021	0.014	LR	163.80	36	82.8	1.2	11.86	0.35	117.0	1.9	61.50	0.82		
5.5	316722	520	11431	15	149.7	1.5	461	180	48.0	1.5	0.9849	98.71	27.907	0.059	16.78	0.13	0.071	0.072	0.030	LR	161.70	38	82.2	1.1	11.55	0.36	115.7	1.9	60.33	0.82		
5.7	255993	480	8086	14	111.9	1.4	140	180	31.2	1.5	0.9849	98.89	27.688	0.072	16.77	0.14	0.087	0.029	0.040	LR	158.15	41	88.8	1.2	11.57	0.35	117.4	2.0	58.73	0.86		
5.9	454881	480	7198	12	89.4	1.2	496	180	32.3	1.5	0.9849	98.80	27.688	0.072	16.77	0.14	0.087	0.029	0.040	LR	158.15	41	88.8	1.2	11.57	0.35	117.4	2.0	58.73	0.86		
6.2	198304	480	7198	12	89.4	1.2	496	180	32.3	1.5	0.9849	98.80	27.688	0.072	16.77	0.14	0.087	0.029	0.040	LR	158.15	41	88.8	1.2	11.57	0.35	117.4	2.0	58.73	0.86		
7.75	514477	670	18550	22	234.1	2.0	227	190	59.9	1.7	0.9849	98.67	27.724	0.049	16.80	0.12	0.059	0.022	0.019	LR	155.94	39	91.3	1.2	12.22	0.40	123.2	2.0	57.88	0.80		
9	349055	540	12603	17	161.9	1.8	343	200	39.9	1.5	0.9849	98.73	27.697	0.057	16.77	0.13	0.069	0.048	0.029	LR	174.41	35	98.3	1.1	13.98	0.38	123.5	1.9	66.16	0.88		
9.1	69511	440	3145	9	39.6	1.1	516	200	11.2	1.5	0.9849	98.35	27.64	0.16	16.74	0.22	0.19	0.29	0.12	LR	169.34	38	109.8	1.1	13.22	0.36	120.4	2.1	63.30	0.82		
9.1	482489	440	3145	9	39.6	1.1	516	200	11.2	1.5	0.9849	98.35	27.64	0.16	16.74	0.22	0.19	0.29	0.12	LR	169.34	38	109.8	1.1	13.22	0.36	120.4	2.1	63.30	0.82		
15	482489	630	17535	20	220.9	0.9	350	190	45.4	1.5	0.9849	97.33	27.800	0.048	16.83	0.12	0.058	0.035	0.021	LR	162.52	36	116.7	1.1	13.36	0.36	123.1	2.0	62.70	0.84		
50	14135	1900	912	6	412.1	2.6	957	200	2128.3	5.0	0.9849	2.20	15.5	2.1	9.4	2.6	2.6	1.88	0.41	LR	164.03	40	113.4	1.1	13.86	0.36	123.0	2.0	62.83	0.88		

Sample K04			Lab: Group 18 Laboratories			J: 3.37E-04 1.1.06E-06			Blank Corrections																							
Material: Biotite																																
N	Power	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	^{39}Ar	
(W)	(g)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)	(cps)
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	Total Fusion A: 16.85 ± 0.12 Ma																				
4	68726	500	233.4	23	329.3	25.5	109.6	14	318.5	25.5	288	180	6.5	1.5	0.9849	89.05	27.946	0.047	16.92	0.12	0.057	0.099	0.010	LR	127.91	65.3	12.98	0.36	116.3	2.0	65.30	0.82
5.4	688234	820	24663	25	313.5	2.5	288	180	90.9	1.7	0.9849	98.24	27.905	0.044	16.90	0.12	0.053	0.021	0.014	LR	163.80	36	82.8	1.2	11.86	0.35	117.0	1.9	61.50	0.82		
5.5	316722	520	11431	15	149.7	1.5	461	180	48.0	1.5	0.9849	98.71	27.907	0.059	16.78	0.13	0.071	0.072	0.030	LR	161.70	38	82.2	1.1	11.55	0.36	115.7	1.9	60.33	0.82		
5.7	255993	480	8086	14	111.9	1.4	140	180	31.2	1.5	0.9849	98.89	27.688	0.072	16.77	0.14	0.087	0.029	0.040	LR	158.15	41	88.8	1.2	11.57	0.35	117.4	2.0	58.73	0.86		
5.9	454881	480	7198	12	89.4	1.2	496	180	32.3	1.5	0.9849	98.80	27.688	0.072	16.77	0.14	0.087	0.029	0.040	LR	158.15	41	88.8	1.2	11.57	0.35	117.4	2.0	58.73	0.86		
6.2	198304	480	7198	12	89.4	1.2	496	180	32.3	1.5	0.9849	98.80	27.688	0.072	16.77	0.14	0.087	0.029	0.040	LR	158.15	41	88.8	1.2	11.57	0.35	117.4	2.0	58.73	0.86		
7.75	514477	670	18550	22	234.1	2.0	227	190	59.9	1.7	0.9849	98.67	27.724	0.049	16.80	0.12	0.059	0.022	0.019	LR	155.94	39	91.3	1.2	12.22	0.40	123.2	2.0	57.88	0.80		
9	349055	540	12603	17	161.9	1.8	343	200	39.9	1.5	0.9849	98.73	27.697	0.057	16.77	0.13	0.069	0.048	0.029	LR	174.41	35	98.3	1.1	13.98	0.38	123.5	1.9	66.16	0.88		
9.1	69511	440	3145	9	39.6	1.1	516	200	11.2	1.5	0.9849	98.35	27.64	0.16	16.74	0.22	0.19	0.29	0.12	LR	169.34	38	109.8	1.1	13.22	0.36	120.4	2.1	63.30	0.82		
9.1	482489	440	3145	9	39.6	1.1	516	200	11.2	1.5	0.9849	98.35	27.64	0.16	16.74	0.22	0.19	0.29	0.12	LR	169.34	38	109.8	1.1	13.22	0.36	120.4	2.1	63.30	0.82		
15	482489	630	17535	20	220.9	0.9	350	190	45.4	1.5	0.9849	97.33	27.800	0.048	16.83	0.12	0.058	0.035	0.021	LR	162.52	36	116.7	1.1	13.36	0.36	123.1	2.0	62.70	0.84		
50	14135	1900	912	6	412.1	2.6	957	200	2128.3	5.0	0.9849	2.20	15.5	2.1	9.4	2.6	2.6	1.88	0.41	LR	164.03	40	113.4	1.1	13.86	0.36	123.0	2.0	62.83	0.88		

APPENDIX TABLE C3: KHUMBU HIMAL INDIVIDUAL APATITE (U-Th)/He RESULTS

Sample#	Elevation (m)	Latitude Longitude	Rock Type	^{238}U ^a pmole	Error ^b 1 σ	^{235}U ^a pmole	Error ^b 1 σ	^{232}Th ^a pmole	Error ^b 1 σ	[⁴ He] ^c pmole	Error ^b 1 σ	Rd μm	L' μm	β ^d 1/ μm	α ^e μm	F _T ^f Mean	Age _{conk} ^g Ma	Error ^h 2 σ
K01	2766	27.69531°N 86.7265°E	Biotite Gneiss	0.04990	0.00080	0.0051	0.0020	0.00068	0.00027	0.00068	0.00027	24.0	144.4	0.11	30.87	0.515	2.04	1.62
K01 a001				0.2169	0.0021	0.0035	0.0032	0.000391	0.00026	0.000391	0.00026	40.4	190.1	0.068	49.98	0.682	2.02	0.27
K01 a004				0.0455	0.0070	0.0053	0.0020	0.000068	0.00025	0.000068	0.00025	26.9	147.8	0.099	34.14	0.555	2.07	0.81
K01 a006															Weighted Mean Age: 2.03			
K02	2901	27.79027°N 86.71815°E	Biotite Gneiss	0.3387	0.0031	0.0084	0.0032	0.000740	0.00029	0.000740	0.00029	34.4	126.3	0.083	40.55	0.619	2.73	0.22
K02 a001				0.05644	0.00084	0.0024	0.0032	0.000173	0.00026	0.000173	0.00026	31.8	136.5	0.087	38.09	0.601	2.73	1.2
K02 a003				0.1395	0.004	0.0072	0.0032	0.00039	0.00029	0.00039	0.00029	37.8	188.6	0.07	50.32	0.664	2.34	0.10
K02 a005				0.4731	0.028	0.0203	0.00653	0.00052	0.00039	0.00052	0.00039	37.1	184.4	0.073	46.64	0.664	2.34	0.21
K02 a006				0.4731	0.0038	0.00232	0.00044	0.002064	0.00039	0.002064	0.00039	44.7	244.4	0.060	56.68	0.716	4.70	0.19
K03	3663	27.84023°N 86.74149°E	Biotite Gneiss	0.4825	0.0039	0.0080	0.00046	0.000533	0.00027	0.000533	0.00027	34.5	183.7	0.078	43.6	0.640	1.33	0.13
K03 a001																		
K04	3999	27.87391°N 86.73954°E	Biotite Gneiss	0.5385	0.0044	0.0196	0.0019	0.000114	0.00025	0.000114	0.00025	42.4	199.5	0.065	52.4	0.695	2.34	0.11
K04 a001				0.1079	0.0011	0.0046	0.0019	0.000017	0.00014	0.000017	0.00014	26.7	125.5	0.10	33.0	0.543	2.17	0.37
K04 a002															Weighted Mean Age: 2.32			
K08	5295	27.99920°N 86.84812°E	Leucogranite	0.3862	0.0035	0.0238	0.0030	0.004390	0.00063	0.004390	0.00063	46.0	155.8	0.063	55.3	0.701	12.36	0.42
K08 a001				0.6408	0.0057	0.0238	0.0031	0.004341	0.00064	0.004341	0.00064	54.5	149.3	0.056	59.9	0.733	7.75	0.25
K08 a003				0.0974	0.0010	0.0187	0.0030	0.00042	0.00017	0.00042	0.00017	38.2	178.9	0.072	47.2	0.664	5.00	0.41
K08 a004															Weighted Mean Age: 8.1			

^a Absolute measured ²³⁸U, ²³⁵U, and ²³²Th concentrations are used to calculate the 'Raw Age' that is uncorrected for the effects of ⁴He loss due to alpha particle recoil.

^b Error on the propagation of analytical errors.

^c The 'Raw Age' is calculated with an iterative approach to solving the age equation.

^d R_d describes the width of the apatite.

^e L' describes the total length of the apatite.

^f F_T represents the surface area to volume ratio for the crystal.

^g A represents the equivalent spherical radius of the grain (Reiners and Brandon, 2006)

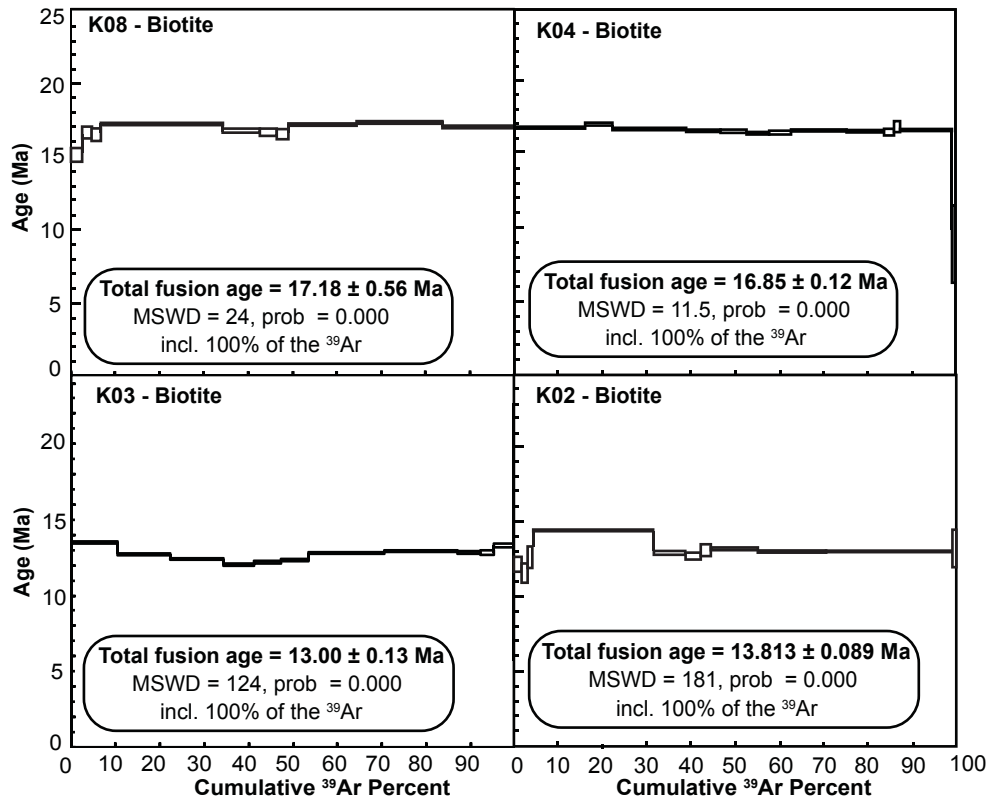
^h The F_T correction was calculated following procedures defined by Farley et al., 1996

ⁱ Datum identified as an outlier using the Hampel identifier methods with an outlier limit of 4.0

^j Uncertainty reported as 2 inverse variance-weighted standard deviations of the dataset for this sample.

^k Uncertainty reported as 2 inverse variance-weighted standard deviations of the inverse variance-weighted mean. (MSWD indicated no overdispersion)

FIGURE C1



APPENDIX D

STATEMENT OF PERMISSION FROM CO-AUTHORS

Chapters 2-5 were prepared independently for publication with help from Kip Hodges (Chapters 2-5), Matthijs van Soest (Chapters 2-5), Chris McDonald (Chapters 3,4), Todd Ehlers (Chapters 2,4), and Jo-Anne Wartho (Chapter 2). These co-authors have acknowledged and granted permission for the use of this work in the context of this dissertation.