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Intraplate extension of the Indochina plate deduced from 26 to 24 Ma A-type granites and tectonic implications

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, abundant Cenozoic potassic magmatic rocks from eastern Tibet and the Indochina Block have been studied extensively; however, until now, knowledge of Cenozoic A-type granites from the interior of the Indochina Block has been limited. U–Pb zircon ages for six samples of the Salei granite pluton within the Indochina Block range from 26 to 24 Ma. \textit{In situ} Lu–Hf and Sr–Nd isotope data indicate that the Salei pluton was sourced mostly from Mesoproterozoic basement rocks of the Indochina Block, mixed with a small volume of juvenile crust derived from the underplated mantle. Whole-rock major element geochemistry indicates that the six samples are peraluminous high-K calc-alkaline granites. The trace and rare earth element patterns are typical of within-plate A-type granites. In combination with previous research, the present results suggest that the late Oligocene Salei granite formed from the convective removal of thickened lower continental lithospheric mantle. Moreover, the presence of 26–24 Ma A-type granites in the Indochina Block indicates within-plate extension in the interior of the block during the late Oligocene.

1. Introduction

Cenozoic (ca. 50–0 Ma) potassic to ultrapotassic mafic volcanic and potassic felsic intrusive magmatic suites are common throughout the eastern Indo-Asia collision zone. This zone extends for over 2000 km along the Jinshajiang–Ailaoshan–Red River tectonic belt and across eastern Tibet, the Lanping–Simao area, and the Indochina block (Chung et al. 1998; Deng et al. 2014). This region is characterized by high topographic relief and is bounded by a series of north- and northwest-striking Cenozoic faults: to the west by the Gaoligong and Batang–Lijiang strike-slip systems; to the east by the Longmen Shan Thrust Belt and the Xiaojiang Fault; and to the south by the Red River Fault (Wang et al. 1997; Figure 1). South of the Red River Fault, the Indochina Block is strongly deformed in the north but behaves more like a rigid block in the south. In eastern Tibet, both Cenozoic igneous rocks and a series of early-middle Cenozoic basins are located along a 100 km-wide narrow belt following the Nangqian Thrust Belt, the Batang-Lijiang fault system, and the Red River shear zone (Figure 1). In contrast, Cenozoic igneous rocks are widespread distributed in the 500-km-wide Indochina block (Figure 1).

In recent years, these Cenozoic potassic magmatic rocks have been studied extensively, and their geochronology, petrogenesis and tectonic evolution are debated. These rocks become progressively younger from north to south (Figure 1; Table 1), being 41–33 Ma in eastern Tibet (Chung et al. 1998; Wang et al. 2001, 2002), 36–33 Ma in the Lanping-Simao area (Zhu et al. 2009; Lu et al. 2012), 27–24 Ma in northern Laos (Nagy et al. 2000) and 16–0 Ma in southern Vietnam (Lee et al. 1998; An et al. 2017). In addition, these rocks can be sub-divided into an early phase from ca. 40 to 30 Ma (e.g. Chung et al. 1998; Wang et al. 2001, 2002; Lu et al. 2012) and a late phase from ca. 24 to 0 Ma (e.g. Akciz et al. 2008; Turner et al. 1993, 1996; Chung et al. 1998; Nagy et al. 2000; Song et al. 2010).

The mechanism of magma generation for these rocks is also debated, and the following models have been proposed: (1) eastward continental under-thrusting of India, leading to fluid infiltration into the overlying mantle wedge and subsequent melting (Wang et al. 2001); (2) movement along the Ailaoshan–Red River Shear Zone and resultant tectonic decompression (Leloup et al. 1995, 1999; Nagy et al. 2000; Liang et al. 2006, 2007).
and (3) convective removal of thickened lower continental lithospheric mantle (Chung et al. 1998; Lu et al. 2013).

Previous studies have provided critical information on the tectonic evolution of the eastern Tibet Plateau, as well as Lanping-Simao area; however, there is a limited understanding of the late Oligocene to early Miocene igneous rocks of the Lanping-Simao area and the Indochina Block. Although the ages of these rocks have been studied in detail (Akciz et al. 2008; Nagy et al. 2000; Song et al. 2010; Cao et al. 2011; Tang et al. 2013a, 2013b), their petrogenesis and magmatic evolution remain uncertain because of a lack of geochemical data.
Table 1. Summary of sample localities, lithology, and ages of theLate Oligocene to Early Miocene potassic magmatism in Eastern Tibet and Indochina block.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Lithology</th>
<th>Age (Ma) ± 2σ</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lanping-Simao area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98JL18.4</td>
<td>NW of Lanping</td>
<td>Leucogranite</td>
<td>25.53 ± 0.08</td>
<td>Monazite-U-Pb</td>
<td>Akciz et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98JU27.1</td>
<td>SW of Lanping</td>
<td>Leucogranite</td>
<td>24.92 ± 0.1</td>
<td>Monazite-U-Pb</td>
<td>Akciz et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC0822-1</td>
<td>NW of Midu</td>
<td>Granite</td>
<td>26.95 ± 0.34</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>CAO et al. (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC0835-1</td>
<td>NW of Midu</td>
<td>Granite</td>
<td>25.31 ± 0.18</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>CAO et al. (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC08-2-1</td>
<td>NW of Midu</td>
<td>Granitic Pegmatite</td>
<td>25.49 ± 0.41</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>CAO et al. (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC08-8-5</td>
<td>NW of Midu</td>
<td>Granitic Pegmatite</td>
<td>22.91 ± 0.19</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>CAO et al. (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC0810-2</td>
<td>NW of Midu</td>
<td>Granitic Pegmatite</td>
<td>20.27 ± 0.23</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>CAO et al. (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NJ66</td>
<td>SE of Gongshan</td>
<td>Leucogranite</td>
<td>22.7 ± 0.8</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>Song et al. (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST122</td>
<td>SE of Gongshan</td>
<td>Tourmaline granite</td>
<td>24.4 ± 0.7</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>Song et al. (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NU74</td>
<td>SE of Gongshan</td>
<td>Tourmaline granite</td>
<td>25.4 ± 0.5</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>Song et al. (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL0841-8</td>
<td>SE of Honghe</td>
<td>Biotite plagioclase granitoids</td>
<td>21.8 ± 1.0</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>TANG et al. (2013a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL0814-2</td>
<td>SE of Honghe</td>
<td>Granitic rocks</td>
<td>25.9 ± 1.6</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>TANG et al. (2013a)</td>
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<tr>
<td>10GLG01-2</td>
<td>West of Yongping</td>
<td>Tourmaline granite</td>
<td>21.7 ± 0.3</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>TANG et al. (2013b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10GLG05-1</td>
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<td>Tourmaline granite</td>
<td>22.7 ± 0.3</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>TANG et al. (2013b)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The potassic granitoids in Indochina blocks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Lithology</th>
<th>Age (Ma) ± 2σ</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LS3</td>
<td>Xiengkhounag Plateau (Northern Laos)</td>
<td>Syenogranite</td>
<td>24 ± 0.6</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>This study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LS4</td>
<td>Xiengkhounag Plateau</td>
<td>Syenogranite</td>
<td>26 ± 0.7</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>This study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LS5</td>
<td>Xiengkhounag Plateau</td>
<td>Syenogranite</td>
<td>27 ± 0.3</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>This study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LS6</td>
<td>Xiengkhounag Plateau</td>
<td>Syenogranite</td>
<td>29 ± 0.4</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>This study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LS8</td>
<td>Xiengkhounag Plateau</td>
<td>Syenogranite</td>
<td>25 ± 0.6</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>This study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LS9</td>
<td>Xiengkhounag Plateau</td>
<td>Syenogranite</td>
<td>27 ± 0.4</td>
<td>Zircon-U-Pb</td>
<td>This study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VGS-32</td>
<td>The northern Bu Khang (Central Vietnam)</td>
<td>Ganonite</td>
<td>20 ± 0.2</td>
<td>LA-ICPMS</td>
<td>Nagy et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VGS-33</td>
<td>The northern Bu Khang</td>
<td>Granite</td>
<td>23.7 ± 0.8</td>
<td>LA-ICPMS</td>
<td>Nagy et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This contribution presents new geochronological, geochemical, and Sr–Nd–Hf isotopic data from A-type granites in Laos, with the aims of (1) understanding the magma source regions of the late Oligocene granitoids and their petrogenesis; (2) constraining the emplacement ages of the granites; and (3) gaining insights into the mechanism that led to their generation.

2. Geological setting and sampling

Samples were collected from the Salei granite pluton, which is located at the northeastern edge of the Xiengkhounag Plateau, at an average elevation of 2000 m a.s.l. (Figure 2). The Salei pluton is located ~100 km northwest of the Bu Khang Dome, which was active from 32 to 22 Ma (JOLIVET et al. 1999; NAGY et al. 2000; Figure 2), and is situated within the Truong Son Belt of the Song Ma Suture Zone. The Song Ma Suture Zone (Figure 1) consists of the Song Ca volcanic arc, the Truong Son Belt (Truong Son arc granitoids) and the Song Ma tectonic mélangé, from west to east. The Song Ca volcanic arc is composed mainly of calc-alkaline volcanics, with ages of 270 to 248 Ma obtained by 40Ar/39Ar dating (LAN et al. 2003). The Truong Son Belt consists of widespread late Paleozoic to early Mesozoic metamorphic rocks of the Nam Co Complex, marine carbonates, mafic to ultramafic volcanic rocks and continental facies sediments of the Song Da Rift Zone, Mesozoic continental sediments of the Tu Le Basin, and the Song Chay Suture Zone, which was cut by the Ailaoshan-Red River shear zone in the Cenozoic.

The Salei granite pluton intruded Triassic purple sandstone and silt that are monoclinal and dip to the northeast. Samples LS-3, –4, –5, –6, –8 and –9 were collected from different parts of the Salei pluton. The contact between these strata and the Salei pluton is hidden by soil and vegetation.

3. Analytical method

Six granite samples were prepared for zircon U-Pb LA-ICP-MS dating. Zircons were separated using conventional heavy-liquid and magnetic techniques. Pure zircon
grains were selected using a binocular microscope. Representative grains were placed into an epoxy resin, along with several standard transmission electron microscopy (TEM) samples, and ground down by about half to expose the zircon interior, before performing U–Pb dating. Before and after the dating, the transmitted and reflected light were analysed, using a microscope and backscattering images together with cathode luminescence images, to determine the crystal shape, inner structure and dating position.

U–Pb dating on zircons was conducted using a New Wave UP193FX Excimer laser coupled with an Agilent 7500a ICP-MS at the Key Laboratory of Continental Collision and Plateau Uplift, Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing. The diameter of the laser beam was 35 μm, and the duration of ablation was 45 s. The standard zircon 91,500 was used as an external standard to correct the isotopic ratios, the TEM zircon was used as a monitor and the concentrations of the elements were calculated using NIST612 glass as the external standard and ²⁹Si as the internal standard. The age data were processed using Glitter 4.4 software (details can be found in Jackson et al. (2004)), and the diagrams were produced using the Isoplot 3.0 Toolkit (Ludwig 2003).

In-situ Hf isotope analysis was done on zircon grains using LA-ICP-MS with a beam size of 60 μm and laser pulse frequency of 8 Hz. Details of instrument conditions and data acquisition were given in Wu et al. (2006) and Xie et al. (2008). During the analysis, ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratios of the zircon standard (91,500) were 0.282286 ± 12 (2σ, n = 21). The εHf(t) values (parts in 10⁴ deviation of initial Hf isotope ratios between the zircon sample and the chondritic reservoir) and TDM₂ (zircon Hf isotope crustal model ages) based on a depleted-mantle source and an assumption that the protolith of the zircon’s host magma has the average continental (crustal ¹⁷⁶Lu/¹⁷⁷Hf ratio of 0.015) were calculated following Griffin et al. (2002), using the ¹⁷⁶Lu decay constant given in Blichert-Toft and Albarède (1997). About six granite samples were chosen for whole-rock major, rare earth and trace elements analysis. Samples for elemental analysis were powdered to < 20 μm using an agate mill. Major elements analyses were conducted at the Institute of Geology and Geophysics, CAS. Major element abundances (wt.%) were determined on whole-rock samples by a Phillips PW X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (XRF-2400) and yielded analytical uncertainty < 5% (± 1σ). Rare earth and other trace elements were analysed using ICP-MS techniques at the Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, CAS. The detailed operating conditions for the laser ablation system, the ICP-MS instrument and data reduction were the same as those described by Liu et al. (2008), with the uncertainties for all elements less than 5%.

Sr and Nd isotopic measurements were performed on a Nu Plasma II multi-collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS) at LCPU (Laboratory of Continental Collision and Plateau Uplift), ITP CAS (Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences). All measured Sr and Nd ratios are fractionation corrected to ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr = 0.1194 and ¹⁴⁶Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd = 0.7219, respectively. The ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of the NBS987 Sr standard was 0.710248 ± 4 (2σ), and the ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd ratios of the JNDI-1 Nd standard solutions were 0.512113 ± 0.014. The calculation of I_Sm and Nd model ages, the following parameters were used: λRb = 1.42 × 10⁻¹¹ year⁻¹ (Steiger and Jäger 1977); λSm = 6.54 × 10⁻¹² year⁻¹ (Lugmair and Marti 1978); (¹⁴⁷Sm/¹⁴⁴Nd)CHUR = 0.1967, (¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd)CHUR = 0.512638 (Jacobsen and Wasserburg 1980); (¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd)DM = 0.513151, (¹⁴⁷Sm/¹⁴⁴Nd)DM = 0.2136 (Liew and Hofmann 1988).

4. Analytical results

4.1. U–Pb zircon geochronology and in situ Lu–Hf isotopic analysis of the Salei pluton

Six granite samples were prepared for U–Pb zircon dating by LA–ICP–MS; the analytical methods are outlined in Section 3, with results provided in Figure 2 and

Figure 2. Geological map of the Salei pluton (modified after DGMV 2005). Yellow star indicates the location of the Salei granite pluton. The age of Proterozoic metamorphic rocks is from Nagy et al. (2000).
Supplementary Table 1 (errors are all at 1σ). Zircons from samples LS-3, -4, -5, -6, -8 and -9 are light yellow to transparent, euhedral and prismatic. Cathodoluminescence images (CL) show that these zircons generally have luminescent (low-U) cores that show euhedral fine-scale oscillatory igneous zoning. They generally range from 120 to 200 μm in length and 50 to 80 μm in width. We selected 25–35 representative zircons from samples LS-3, -4, -5, -6, -8 and -9 for U–Pb dating (Supplementary Table 1). The mean Th/U ratios are 0.43, 0.39, 0.56, 0.58, 0.46 and 0.52, respectively, indicating a magmatic origin. The analyses generally group together and yield weighted mean $^{206}$Pb/$^{238}$U ages of 24 ± 0.6 Ma for LS-3 (MSWD = 1.0, 1σ), 26 ± 0.3 Ma for LS-4 (MSWD = 1.8, 1σ), 26 ± 0.4 Ma for LS-5 (MSWD = 1.6, 1σ), 26 ± 0.4 Ma for LS-6 (MSWD = 0.8, 1σ), 26 ± 0.3 Ma for LS-8 (MSWD = 1.5, 1σ) and 26 ± 0.4 Ma for LS-9 (MSWD = 1.1, 1σ) (Figure 3). We interpret these ages to represent the timing of crystallization of these samples and the Salei pluton as a whole.

We selected samples LS-3, -4, -8 and -9 for in situ Lu–Hf isotopic analyses on zircon, based on the results of the U–Pb dating. Around 20 spots were analysed from each sample; the analytical methods are defined in Section 3, and results are provided in Figure 4 and Supplementary Table 2 (errors are all at 1σ). All zircons from samples LS-3, -4, -8 and -9 are of magmatic origin. The samples lack inherited zircons and U–Pb ages ranging from 26 to 24 Ma. These four samples have $^{176}$Hf/$^{177}$Hf ratios of 0.282198–0.282764, 0.282576–0.282750, 0.282602–0.282841 and 0.282509–0.282731, respectively. The majority of spot analyses yielded negative εHf(t) values; however, some are positive. The mean εHf(t) values for these four samples are −4.3, −3.2, −1.9 and −2.8, respectively. The mean crustal Hf two-stage model ages ($T_{DM2}$) are 1.38, 1.31, 1.23 and 1.29 Ga, respectively (Figure 4).

4.2. Whole-rock major, trace and rare earth element geochemistry

Major, trace and rare earth element geochemical data for the six granitic rocks sampled from the Salei pluton are listed in Supplementary Table 3, and the analytical methods are described in Section 3. The LS series granitic samples yield a narrow range of compositions, with SiO$_2$ of 74.6 to 77.5 wt.% and Na$_2$O + K$_2$O of 8.1 to 8.4 wt.%. The K$_2$O contents are much higher than Na$_2$O contents in these rocks, with K$_2$O/Na$_2$O ranging from 1.2 to 1.4. On the Q–A–P diagram (Figure 5(a)), all samples plot within the syenogranite field. On the SiO$_2$–K$_2$O diagram (Peccerillo and Taylor 1976) shows that all the granitic rocks are high-K calc-alkaline (Figure 5(c)). Their Al$_2$O$_3$ contents range from

Figure 3. Cathodoluminescence (CL) images of representative zircon grains and zircon age concordia diagrams of the Salei granites in northern Laos.
12.5 to 12.8 wt.%, aluminium saturation index (A/CNK) values range from 1.00 to 1.04, and Litam index values range from 1.9 to 2.0 (<3.3); thus, the samples are peraluminous high-K calc-alkaline granites.

Samples LS-3, −4, −5, −6, −8 and −9 show similar patterns on chondrite-normalized (Boynton 1984) and N-MORB-normalized (N-MORB = Normal Mid-Ocean ridge basalt; Sun and McDonough 1989) rare earth and trace element plots. The rocks show light rare earth element (LREE) enrichment and flat heavy rare earth element (HREE) patterns on a chondrite-normalized rare earth element (REE) diagram (Figure 6(a)). The value of LREE/HREE ranges from 3.4 to 7.4, and LaN/YbN ranges from 3.2 to 6.6. A negative Eu anomaly is observed with a mean δEu value of ~0.18. The rocks show variable enrichments in Rb, Th and U, and depletions in Ba, Sr, Ti and Nb (Figure 6(b)).

4.3. Sr–Nd isotopes

Sr and Nd isotopic compositions of the Salei pluton are listed in Supplementary Table 4. Six samples of the pluton
were selected for Sr–Nd isotopic analysis. They exhibit high $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (0.741734–0.746650) and consistent $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratios (0.512035–0.512062) (Supplementary Table 4). Initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios vary from 0.734291 to 0.741200, and $\varepsilon_{\text{ND}}(t)$ values range from -11.6 to -11.1. The samples yield a narrow range of $T_{\text{DM2}}(\text{Nd})$ model ages (1737–1764 Ma), slightly higher than their $T_{\text{DM2}}(\text{Hf})$ model ages (1.29–1.38 Ga) (Supplementary Table 2).

5. Discussion

5.1. Tectonic setting

Granitoids have traditionally been grouped into I-, S-, M-, and A-types (Chappell and White 1974; Loiselle and Wones 1979). Accordingly, they provide petrogenetic ‘Windows’ into the evolution of deeper crustal sources. Moreover, different granitoids usually represent different tectonic settings during the evolution of orogeny, including subduction, syn- to post-collisional and post-orogenic extensional settings (e.g. Chappell and White 1974, 1992; Brown 1994; Barbarin 1999; Bonin 2007). For example, many peralkaline and alkaline granites are associated with post-tectonic within-plate extension (e.g. Bonin 2007), whereas subduction-related granites tend to be metaluminous, although some metaluminous granites are collision-related (e.g. Martin 1987; Wedepohl 1991). In addition, granites related to continent–continent collision tend to be peraluminous (Wedepohl 1991; Chappell and White 1992). However, several studies have demonstrated that the majority of collision-related, strongly peraluminous granites were emplaced in post-collisional settings after the peak of crustal thickening (Sylvestre 1998). The original definition of the term A-type focused on anhydrous granites with low oxygen fugacity originating from alkali basaltic magmas, and the other form of A-type granite is derived from melting of the dehydrated lower crust (Loiselle and Wones 1979). During subsequent studies (Collins et al. 1982; Whalen et al. 1987; Eby 1990, 1992; Creaser et al. 1991; Frost and Frost 1997; Bonin 2007), the term has been applied to a much broader spectrum of granites. The geochemical characteristics of these granites include relatively high SiO$_2$, K$_2$O, total alkalis (Na$_2$O + K$_2$O), (Na$_2$O + K$_2$O)/CaO, FeO$^{T}$/MgO, Ga/Al, and high field strength elements (HFSE; Zr, Y, Nb, Ce), low Al$_2$O$_3$ and CaO contents, and low concentrations of those trace elements compatible in mafic silicates (Cr, Ni, Co, and Sc) and feldspars (Ba, Sr, and Eu). The samples of the present study display most of the geochemical characteristics of A-type granites, including high SiO$_2$ (74.57–76.05 wt.%), K$_2$O + Na$_2$O (8.06–8.37 wt.%), FeO$^{T}$/MgO (0.93–0.97), Nb (20–37 ppm), and 10,000 × Ga/Al (1.41–1.56). Discrimination diagrams have been widely applied to distinguish A-type granites from the other granite types (Whalen et al. 1987; Eby 1990, 1992). On the K$_2$O/MgO and FeO$^{T}$/MgO vs. 10,000 × Ga/Al diagrams (Figure 7(a, b)), the studied granites plot within the A-type granite fields. The high FeO$^*/$(FeO$^*$ + MgO) ratio (0.93–0.97) is chemically similar to the ferroan granitoids proposed by Frost et al. (2001) (Figure 7(c)). On the (Na$_2$O + K$_2$O – CaO) vs. SiO$_2$ diagram (Figure 7(d)), the studied granites are alkali-calcic, plotting into the overlapping field between A- and S-type granites. Moreover, the REE patterns and trace elements are similar to the Ca. 26 Ma A-type granite in Bu Khang Dome (Figure 6 (a, b)).

The A-type granites are generally considered to be derived from relatively anhydrous, high-temperature magmas (Clemens et al. 1986). Based on the absence of older inherited zircons, it is inferred that the Salei granites had a high initial magmatic temperature. Zircon saturation temperatures have been calculated for the most felsic, fractionated rocks to help understand their...
petrogenesis (Watson 1979; Watson and Harrison 1983). The calculated temperatures are between 770°C and 785°C (Supplementary Table 3, the M values are range from 1.34 to 1.41), lower than the average temperature of A-type granites. As granites undergo fractional crystallization, Zr contents generally decrease. This occurs because the melt becomes more felsic and the temperature falls, resulting in decreased Zr solubility and precipitation, and the overall removal of zircon (Watson 1979). Therefore, the relatively low zircon saturation temperatures and high SiO$_2$ contents of these samples are consistent with the hypothesis that zircon was precipitating and being removed from the evolving melts.

Previous studies have sub-divided the A-type granites into peralkaline A-type and aluminous A-type, there should be a pronounced difference in the geochemical compositions of these two A-types. The aluminous A-type granites typically have higher Al$_2$O$_3$ contents (> 12%) and A/CNK values (> 0.95) than peralkaline A-type granites (Qiu et al. 2000). The Salei granites have relatively high Al$_2$O$_3$ contents (12.5–12.8 wt. %) and A/CNK values (1.00–1.04), indicating that they are typical aluminous A-type granites.

Although A-type granites can be found in various continental and oceanic environments, in terms of tectonics they form mainly in extensional within-plate settings (e.g. continental rifts and oceanic islands) and post-collisional orogenic zones (Bonin 2007). According to Eby’s (1990, 1992) statistical study on A-type granites worldwide, there is no clear boundary between within-plate A1-type and post-collisional A2-type granites, which exist along a continuous spectrum termed ‘anorogenic granites’. Despite this, A-type granites, including post-collisional A2-type, within-plate A1-type, and anorogenic granites that correspond to neither A1- or A2-type, always represent continent–continent post-collisional orogenic processes, and their occurrence implies either an anorogenic or non-compressive setting at the end of an orogenic cycle (Dargahi et al. 2010). On the Nb–Y–3Ga and Ce/Nb versus Y/Nb discrimination diagrams (Figure 8(a, b)), data for the Salei granites are plotted in the A2-type field. In addition, data for these granites plot in the post-collisional and within-plate granite fields on the tectonic discrimination diagrams of Pearce et al. (1984) (Figure 9(a, b)), indicating a post-collisional or within-plate setting during their formation.

Whole-rock major elements show that the samples are peraluminous high-K calc-alkaline granite, and the rare earth and trace element patterns are typical of A-type within-plate granites. The geochemical characteristics of the Salei pluton are similar to the A-type

Figure 7. Discrimination diagrams for A-, I-, and S-type granites showing data of the Salei granites. (a) K$_2$O/MgO vs. 10,000Ga/Al diagram; (b) FeO$^\text{f}$(FeO$^\text{f}$ + MgO) vs. SiO$_2$ diagram; and (d) (Na$_2$O + K$_2$O − CaO) vs. SiO$_2$ diagram. (a) and (b) are after Whalen et al. (1987); (c) and (d) are after Frost et al. (2001).
granite of the Bu Khang Dome (26–24 Ma; Nagy et al. 2000), located 100 km southeast of the Salei pluton also within the Truong Son Belt. The A-type granites of the Bu Khang Dome also indicate that the Indochina Block has experienced intraplate extension since 26 Ma (Figure 9(a, b)).

### 5.2. Petrogenesis of the granites

As mentioned above, the Salei granites show typical A-type granite affinities. Several petrogenetic models have been proposed for the origin of A-type granites, including: (1) the partial melting or direct fractionation of mantle-derived basaltic magma (Eby 1990, 1992; Kerr and Fryer 1993; Frost and Frost 1997); (2) partial melting of felsic crust (e.g. Clemens et al. 1986; Creaser et al. 1991; Patiño Douce and Beard 1995; King et al. 1997; Patiño Douce 1997); and (3) a combination of crust-derived felsic magma and mantle-derived mafic magma (e.g. Foland and Allen 1991; Frost and Frost 1997; Mingram et al. 2000).

The Salei granites have high SiO₂ and low MgO contents, which according to Taylor and McLennan (1995) cannot be produced directly by partial melting of mantle-derived material, as this would generate mafic and/or intermediate magmas (Hofmann 1988; Barker et al. 1995). The extensive fractionation of mantle-derived melts is also an unlikely scenario, as A-type granites produced in this way would be closely associated with large volumes of coeval mafic and/or intermediate igneous rocks (Turner et al. 1992; Litvinovsky et al. 2002), which is not the case for the Salei granites. In addition, the estimated temperatures for the magma are less than 850°C, which contradicts the involvement of a mantle-derived high-temperature magma during the generation of the Salei granites.

Previous studies have proposed that the dehydration melting of calc-alkaline granitoids (granodiorite) at low pressures (4 kbar) and high temperatures (950°C) in the...
shallow crust (depths ≤ 15 km, such as in the middle to lower crust) is a likely source of A-type granites (Skjerlie and Johnston 1993; Patiño Douce 1997). Prominent negative Sr anomalies, coupled with high LREE and flat HREE patterns \((\text{Gd/Yb})_N = 0.8–1.0\) for the Salei granites (Figure 6(b)) indicate that plagioclase was present and garnet was absent in the source, arguing against the generation of these magmas in the lower crust (Patiño Douce and Beard 1995; Watkins et al. 2007). Considering the old basement of the Indochina Block, a purely crustal origin is also untenable for the A-type Salei granites, regardless of the nature of the middle to upper crust in the study area. The Salei granites have much younger \(T_{DM2}(Hf) \approx 1.4–1.2\) Ga and \(T_{DM2}(Nd) \approx 1.7\) Ga model ages than those of the Precambrian metaigneous basement rocks (Lan et al. 2003). As such, the Proterozoic basement rocks of the Indochina Block cannot be the sole candidates for the source.

Based on the Sm–Nd isotope composition of basement rocks of the Indochina Block, there may have been a two-stage crust-forming event in the Indochina Block (Lan et al. 2003; Figure 10), with the first stage occurring during 2.4–1.8 Ga (Figure 10(a), solid lines) and the second during 2.1–1.2 Ga (Figure 10(a), dotted lines) (av. = 1.5 Ga, mainly 1.45–1.35 Ga; Lan et al. 2003). The \(T_{DM2}(Nd)\) model ages for the Salei granites are all \(\approx 1.7\) Ga (Supplementary Table 4), while the \(T_{DM2}(Hf)\) model ages are between 1.4 and 1.2 Ga. Clearly, the protolith of the Salei granites belongs to basement rocks corresponding to the second crust-forming stage of the Indochina Block. However, on the \((^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr})_i\) versus \(\varepsilon_{Nd}(t)\) diagram (Figure 10(b)), data for the Salei granites plot outside the field defined by basement rocks from the Indochina Block, indicating the addition of mantle material into the magma source of the Salei pluton. Generally, mantle material is added to a granitic magma in two ways: direct mixing between mantle-derived mafic magma and crust-derived felsic magma, or a mixed magma source derived from partial melting of both juvenile crust from an underplated mantle and ancient crust. Dark mafic enclaves are not present in the Salei pluton, and this observation, combined with the extremely low MgO contents (0.06–0.15 wt.%), indicates that the direct mixing between mantle-derived mafic magma and crust-derived felsic magma could be ruled out in the petrogenesis of these granites. Therefore, the magma source for the Salei granites was mainly the Mesoproterozoic basement rocks of the Indochina Block, mixed with a small proportion of mantle-derived juvenile crust. This view is consistent with the intrusion of mantle material into the crust during the Cenozoic (Lan et al. 2000).

### 5.3. Geodynamic implications

The Cenozoic potassic magmatic rocks from eastern Tibet and the Indochina Block can be sub-divided into an early phase from ca. 40 to 24 Ma (Chung et al. 1998; Wang et al. 2001, 2002; Lu et al. 2012) and a later phase from ca. 20 to 0 Ma (Turner et al. 1993, 1996; Chung et al. 1998; Nagy et al. 2000; Wang et al. 2001, 2002).

The mechanism of magma generation for the early Cenozoic potassic and ultrapotassic magmatic rocks in eastern Tibet and the Indochina Block is debated, and the following geodynamic models have been proposed: (1) Eastward continental under-thrusting of India, leading to fluid infiltration into the overlying mantle wedge and subsequent melting (Wang et al. 2001). (2) Movement along the Ailaoshan–Red River Shear Zone

![Figure 10](image-url)

The eastward subduction of the Neotethyan slab under the Yangtze Craton and Indochina Block is poorly understood because of a lack of convincing geological evidence (Deng et al. 2013). As a result, the geodynamic model proposing the eastward continental under-thrusting of India, leading to fluid infiltration into the overlying mantle wedge, can be a high degree of uncertainty. In addition, recent extensive geochronological studies constraining the timing of ductile shearing and the emplacement of potassic–ultrapotassic rocks have shown that ductile shearing post-dates the magmatism (Lu et al. 2012). Therefore, it is unlikely that this shearing and continental under-thrusting generated the potassic–ultrapotassic magmatism.

The formation of widespread late Eocene to early Oligocene potassic felsic intrusions in northwestern Yunnan is ascribed to lithospheric thinning and the following asthenospheric upwelling (Lu et al. 2013). The dominant TDM2(Hf) values of these felsic intrusions are between 1.4 and 1.0 Ga, similar to those of the A-type Salei granites (Figure 4), indicating that they may share a similar petrogenetic history. Therefore, we prefer the removal of lower lithospheric mantle as the trigger for the onset of early phase (ca. 40–24 Ma) Cenozoic potassic magmatism in eastern Tibet and the Indochina Block.

The peak TDM2(Hf) model ages of granites from the Indochina Block are consistent with those of the northern Qiangtang and Changdu–Simao blocks (Wang et al. 2016; this study). Combined with previous work (Sengör 1979; Li et al. 1995, 2006; Wang et al. 2016, 2018), our study further confirms the concept of a single Changdu–Simao–Indochina Block. While the 26–24 Ma potassic granitoids in the Indochina block belong to the early phase (40–24) of the potassic magmatism along the eastern Tibetan plateau. However, the 26–24 Ma A-type granite indicating the extension tectonic setting in the inner section of Indochina block, contrast to the transpressional tectonics implied by the contemporaneous potassic magmatism along the eastern Tibetan plateau (Wang et al. 2000; Wang et al. 2001). In this respect, it is suggesting that the plastic deformation occurred in the inner section of the united Changdu–Simao–Indochina Block during the Late Oligocene to Early Miocene.

During the Cenozoic, the Indochina Block has been subjected to huge compressional stresses resulting from the collision between India and Eurasia, leading to thickening of the lithospheric mantle. Gravitational equilibrium then resulted in the delamination of this thickened lithospheric mantle. Asthenospheric upwelling following this delamination served as an efficient trigger mechanism for the partial melting of both juvenile and ancient crust (Figure 11). This mixed melt was then emplaced in the shallow crust and formed the A-type Salei granite.

6. Conclusions

This study has allowed us to reach the following conclusions.

(1) The 26–24 Ma Salei granites in northern Laos are A-type granites and can be further classified as A2-type.

(2) Geochemical and isotopic data suggest that the A-type Salei granites were derived mainly from the partial melting of Mesoproterozoic basement rocks from the Indochina Block, along with small volumes of mantle-derived juvenile crust.

(3) The generation of the late Oligocene Salei granites is attributed to the convective removal of thickened lower continental lithospheric mantle.

(4) Formation of the A-type Salei granites in the Indochina Block corresponds to Cenozoic extension in the interior of this block.

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Highlights

(1) The 26-24 Ma Salei granites in the north Laos belong to the A2 sub-type of within-plate granites.
(2) The generation of the Late Oligocene Salei granites is attributed to the convective removal of thickened lower continental lithospheric mantle.
(3) The Salei A-type granites were emplaced during Cenozoic extension of the inner section of the Indochina block.

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