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A record of plume-induced plate rotation triggering subduction initiation

van Hinsbergen, Douwe; Steinberger, Bernhard; Guilmette, Carl; Maffione, Marco; Gürer, Derya; Peters, Kalijn; Plunder, Alexis; McPhee, Peter J.; Gaina, Carmen; Advokaat, Eldert; Vissers, Reinoud L.M.; Spakman, Wim

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1	A record of plume-induced plate rotation triggering seafloor spreading and
2	subduction initiation
3	
4	Authors: Douwe J.J. van Hinsbergen ^{1*} , Bernhard Steinberger ^{2,3} , Carl Guilmette ⁴ , Marco
5	Maffione ^{1,5} , Derya Gürer ^{1,6} , Kalijn Peters ¹ , Alexis Plunder ^{1,7} , Peter J. McPhee ¹ , Carmen Gaina ³ ,
6	Eldert L. Advokaat ^{1,5} , Reinoud L.M. Vissers ¹ , and Wim Spakman ¹
7	Affiliations:
8	¹ Department of Earth Sciences, Utrecht University, Princetonlaan 8A, 3584 CB Utrecht,
9	Netherlands
10	² GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences, Potsdam, Germany
11	³ Centre of Earth Evolution and Dynamics (CEED), University of Oslo, Norway
12	⁴ Département de Géologie et de Génie Géologique, Université Laval, Québec, QC G1K 7P4,
13	Canada
14	⁵ School of Geography, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Birmingham, B15 2TT,
15	UK
16	⁶ School of Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Queensland, St Lucia, Queensland
17	4072, Australia
18	⁷ BRGM, F-45060, Orléans, France
19	
20	*Correspondence to: Douwe J.J. van Hinsbergen (<u>d.j.j.vanhinsbergen@uu.nl</u>)
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The formation of a global network of plate boundaries surrounding a mosaic of 23 lithospheric fragments was a key step in the emergence of Earth's plate tectonics. So far, 24 propositions for plate boundary formation are regional in nature but how plate boundaries 25 26 are being created over 1000s of km in short periods of geological time remains elusive. Here, we show from geological observations that a >12,000 km long plate boundary formed 27 between the Indian and African plates around 105 Ma with subduction segments from the 28 29 eastern Mediterranean region to a newly established India-Africa rotation pole in the west-30 Indian ocean where it transitioned into a ridge between India and Madagascar. We find no plate tectonics-related potential triggers of this plate rotation and identify coeval mantle 31 plume rise below Madagascar-India as the only viable driver. For this, we provide a proof 32 of concept by torque balance modeling revealing that the Indian and African cratonic keels 33 were important in determining plate rotation and subduction initiation in response to the 34 35 spreading plume head. Our results show that plumes may provide a non-plate-tectonic mechanism for large plate rotation initiating divergent and convergent plate boundaries 36 37 far away from the plume head that may even be an underlying cause of the emergence of modern plate tectonics. 38

39 The early establishment of plate tectonics on Earth was likely a gradual process that evolved as the cooling planet's lithosphere broke into a mosaic of major fragments, separated by 40 a network of plate boundaries: seafloor spreading ridges, transform faults, and subduction 41 zones¹. The formation of spreading ridges and connecting transform faults is regarded as a 42 passive process, occasionally associated with rising mantle plumes². The formation of 43 subduction zones is less well understood. Explanations for subduction initiation often infer 44 spontaneous gravitational collapse of aging oceanic lithosphere², or relocations of subduction 45 zones due to intraplate stress changes in response to continental collisions with other continents, 46 oceanic plateaus, or arcs³. Mantle plumes have also been suggested as drivers for regional 47 subduction initiation, primarily based on numerical modeling⁴⁻⁶. But while such processes may 48 explain how plate tectonics evolves on a regional scale, they do not provide insight into the 49 geodynamic cause(s) for the geologically sudden (<10 My) creation of often long (>1000 km) 50 plate boundaries including new subduction zones⁷. Demonstrating the causes of plate boundary 51 formation involving subduction initiation using the geological record is challenging and requires 52 (i) establishing whether subduction initiation was spontaneous or induced; (ii) if induced, 53

54 constraining the timing and direction of incipient plate convergence; (iii) reconstructing the

55 entire plate boundary from triple junction to triple junction, as well as the boundaries of

⁵⁶ neighboring plates, to identify collisions, subduction terminations, or mantle plume arrival that

57 may have caused stress changes driving subduction initiation. In this paper, we provide such an

analysis for an intra-oceanic subduction zone that formed within the Neotethys ocean around 105

59 Ma, to evaluate the driver of subduction initiation and plate boundary formation.

60

61 Induced subduction initiation across the Neotethys Ocean

62 Determining spontaneous versus induced subduction initiation is a particular complexity in this analysis and requires geological records of both the upper and lower plates: in both cases, 63 64 subduction initiation corresponds with initial lower plate burial, whereas coeval or delayed extension in the upper plate are contrasting diagnostics of spontaneous or forced subduction 65 initiation, respectively⁸. Initiation of lower plate burial can be dated through prograde mineral 66 growth in rocks of the incipient subduction plate contact, in so-called metamorphic soles⁸. The 67 timing of extension is inferred from spreading records in so-called supra-subduction zone (SSZ) 68 ophiolites^{8-10,11}. Such SSZ ophiolites have a chemical stratigraphy widely interpreted as having 69 formed at spreading ridges above a nascent subduction zones. Metamorphic sole protoliths 70 typically reveal that also the initial downgoing plate was of oceanic composition^{2,9}, and so 71 ophiolite belts with metamorphic soles demarcate fossil juvenile intra-oceanic subduction plate 72 boundaries. 73

Several SSZ ophiolite belts exist in the Alpine-Himalayan mountain belt, which formed 74 during the closure of the Neotethys Ocean^{12,13} (Fig. 1A). One of these ophiolite belts formed in 75 Cretaceous time and runs from the eastern Mediterranean region to Pakistan, across northern 76 Arabia. The timing of lower plate burial as well as upper plate extension have been constrained 77 in this ophiolite belt through detailed geochronological, petrological, and geochemical work. 78 Incipient lower plate burial has been dated through Lu/Hf prograde garnet growth ages of ~104 79 Ma in Oman as well as in the eastern Mediterranean region^{8,14}. Upper plate extension and SSZ 80 ophiolite spreading has been dated using magmatic zircon U/Pb ages and synchronous 81 metamorphic sole ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar cooling ages and occurred at 96-95 Ma (Pakistan, Oman)^{15,16} to 92-82 90 Ma (Iran, eastern Mediterranean region)¹⁷. The 8-14 Myr time delay between initial lower 83

plate burial and upper plate extension demonstrates that initiation of this subduction zone was
 not spontaneous, but induced by far-field forcing⁸.

An initial ~E-W convergence direction at this subduction zone was constrained through 86 paleomagnetic analysis and detailed kinematic reconstruction of post-subduction initiation 87 deformation of the eastern Mediterranean region, Oman, and Pakistan, and was accommodated at 88 ~N-S striking trench segments^{13,18-20}. This is surprising: for hundreds of Ma, throughout the 89 Tethyan realm rifts and ridges formed breaking fragments off northern Gondwana in the south, 90 which accreted at subduction zones to the southern Eurasian margin in the north^{21,22}. The ~E-W 91 convergence that triggered ~105 Ma subduction initiation across the Neotethys ocean was thus 92 near orthogonal to the long-standing plate motions. To find this trigger we developed the first 93 comprehensive reconstruction of the entire $\sim 12,000$ km long plate boundary that formed at ~ 105 94 95 Ma and placed this in context of reconstructions of collisions and mantle plumes of the 96 Neotethyan realm.

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Geological reconstruction of plate boundary formation across the Neotethys

99 The Cretaceous SSZ ophiolites that formed at the Cretaceous intra-Neotethyan 100 subduction zone in its juvenile stages are now found as klippen on intensely deformed orogenic 101 belts (Fig. 1A). These belts formed during subduction zone migration and collisions with the 102 continents of Greater Adria, Arabia, and India. We reconstructed these orogenic belts (Fig. 1) 103 and restored the Cretaceous ophiolites into their original configuration (Fig. 1C) (see Methods).

The westernmost geological record of the Cretaceous intra-Neotethyan subduction zone 104 is found in eastern Greece and western Turkey, where it ended in a trench-trench-trench triple 105 junction with subduction zones along the southern Eurasian margin¹⁸. From there, east-dipping 106 (in the west) and west-dipping (in the east) subduction segments followed the saw-toothed shape 107 of the Greater Adriatic and Arabian continental margins (Fig. 1C) and initiated close to it: rocks 108 109 of these margins already underthrusted the ophiolites within 5-15 My after SSZ ophiolite spreading^{14,23,24}, and continent-derived zircons have been found in metamorphic sole rocks²⁵. 110 Subduction segments that likely nucleated along ancient N-S and NE-SW trending fracture 111 zones, linked through highly oblique, north-dipping subduction zones that trended parallel to and 112 likely reactivated the pre-existing (hyper)extended passive margins (Fig. 1B, C)^{20,23}. Subducted 113

remnants of the Cretaceous intra-Neotethyan subduction are well-resolved in the present-day
 mantle as slabs below the southeastern Mediterranean Sea, central Arabia and the west Indian
 Ocean²⁶.

East of Arabia, we trace the intra-oceanic plate boundary to a NE-SW striking, NW-117 dipping subduction zone between the Kabul Block and the west Indian passive margin. The 96 118 Ma Waziristan ophiolites of Pakistan formed above this subduction zone and were thrust 119 eastward onto the Indian continental margin^{13,16} (Fig. 1B, C). This part of the plate boundary 120 may have inverted a spreading ridge that formed between the Kabul Block and India in the Early 121 Cretaceous¹³. The Cretaceous intra-Neotethyan plate boundary may have been convergent to as 122 far south as the Amirante Ridge in the west Indian Ocean¹³, but there is no record of 123 contemporaneous subduction beyond there. Instead, the plate boundary became extensional and 124 developed a rift, and later a mid-oceanic ridge in the Mascarene Basin that accommodated 125 separation of India from Madagascar^{13,27,28} (Fig. 1B). The plate boundary ended in a ridge-ridge-126 ridge triple junction with ridges bordering the Antarctic plate in the south Indian Ocean^{13,28} (Fig. 127 1B). 128

129 The newly formed Cretaceous plate boundary essentially temporarily merged a large part of Neotethyan oceanic lithosphere between Arabia and Eurasia to the Indian plate. This plate was 130 >12,000 km long from triple junction to triple junction, and reached from 45°S to 45°N, with 131 4500 km of rift/ridge in the southeast and 7500 km of subduction zone in the northwest and with 132 a transition between the convergent and divergent segments, representing the India-Africa Euler 133 pole¹³, in the west Indian Ocean (Fig. 1B). Marine geophysical constraints show a $\sim 4^{\circ}$ 134 counterclockwise rotation of India relative to Africa about the west Indian Ocean Euler pole 135 during rifting preceding the \sim 83 Ma onset of oceanic spreading in the Mascarene Basin²⁷⁻²⁹. 136 associated with up to hundreds of km of ~E-W convergence across the Neotethys (Fig. 1D). 137

The neighboring plates of the intra-Neotethyan subduction zone at 105 Ma were thus Africa and India. The African plate was mostly surrounded by ridges and had a complex subduction plate boundary in the Mediterranean region³⁰. The Indian plate was surrounded by ridge-transform systems in the south and east and by subduction in the north, and may have contained rifts and ridges between the Indian continent and Eurasia^{13,28}. The Neotethys lithosphere between Arabia-Greater Adria and Eurasia continued unbroken to the north-dipping

subduction zone that had already existed along the southern Eurasian margin since the
Jurassic^{31,32}: the spreading ridges that existed during Neotethys Ocean opening in the PermianTriassic (north of Arabia)³³, and Triassic-Jurassic (eastern Mediterranean region)²³ had already
subducted below Eurasia by 105 Ma^{19,33} (Fig. 1B, C).

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Identifying potential drivers of plate boundary formation

150 Collisions, subduction relocations, or mantle plume arrivals around or within the Indian or African plates are all candidate processes to explain plate boundary formation at 105 Ma. At 151 152 the northern boundary of between these plates and southern Eurasia, many collisions of microcontinents and arcs occurred since the Paleozoic, but none started or ended around 105 153 Ma^{13,21-23,33-35}. Continental subduction and collision was ongoing in the central Mediterranean 154 region²³, but it is not evident how this or any other changes in subduction dynamics along the E-155 156 W trending southern Eurasian margin would lead to E-W convergence in the Neotethys Ocean. In the eastern Neotethys, a mid-Cretaceous collision of the intra-oceanic Woyla Arc with the 157 Sundaland continental margin led to a subduction polarity reversal initiating eastward subduction 158 below Sundaland³⁶, which is recorded in ophiolites on the Andaman Islands. There, metamorphic 159 sole rocks with ${}^{40}\text{Ar}/{}^{39}\text{Ar}$ hornblende cooling ages of 105-106 Ma, and likely coeval SSZ 160 ophiolite spreading ages³⁷ reveal that this subduction zone may have developed slab pull around 161 the same time as the Indian Ocean-western Neotethys plate boundary formed (Fig 1C). However, 162 eastward slab pull below Sundaland cannot drive E-W convergence in the Neotethys to the west, 163 and Andaman SSZ extension may well be an expression rather than the trigger of Indian plate 164 rotation. Hence, we find no viable plate tectonics-related driver of the ~105 Ma plate boundary 165 formation that we reconstructed here. 166

A key role, however, is possible for the only remaining geodynamic, non-plate-tectonic, plate-motion driver in the region: a mantle plume. India-Madagascar continental breakup is widely viewed^{13,27,37} as related to the ~94 Ma and younger formation of the Morondava Large Igneous Province (LIP) on Madagascar³⁸ and southwest India³⁹. This LIP, however, started forming ~10 Ma after initial plate boundary formation. To understand whether the plume may be responsible for both LIP emplacement and plate boundary formation, we conduct explorative torque-balance simulations of plume-lithosphere interaction.

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Mantle plumes driving plate boundary formation and subduction initiation

Numerical simulations of plume-lithosphere interaction have already identified that
plume head spreading below the lithosphere leads to horizontal asthenospheric flow that exerts a
'plume push' force on the base of the lithosphere, particularly in the presence of a cratonic
keel^{5,40,41}. Plume push may accelerate plates by several cm/yr⁴¹ and has been proposed as a
potential driver of subduction initiation⁵.

In many cases, including in the case of the Morondava LIP, LIP eruption and 181 182 emplacement shortly preceded continental breakup, but pre-break up rifting preceded LIP emplacement by 10-15 Myr²⁷. This early rifting typically is interpreted to indicate that the plume 183 184 migrated along the base of the lithosphere into a pre-existing rift that formed independently of plume rise²⁷. However, in numerical simulations dynamic uplift⁴² and plume push⁴¹ already start 185 to accelerate plates 10-15 Myr before the plume head reaches the base of the lithosphere and 186 emplaces the LIP. Numerical simulations thus predict the observed delay between plume push, 187 as a driver for early rifting and subduction initiation, and LIP eruption and emplacement. 188

Here, we add to these plume-lithosphere coupling experiments by conducting proof-ofconcept torque-balance simulations particularly exploring why the observed India-Africa Euler pole is so close to the plume head such that the associated plate rotation between Africa and India caused E-W convergence in the Neotethys. We performed semi-analytical computations, including both the Indian and African plates at ~105 Ma, and assess the influence of cratonic keels on the position of the India-Africa Euler pole (Fig. 2, see Methods).

In our computations without cratonic keels, plume push under Madagascar/India caused counterclockwise rotation of India versus Africa, but about an Euler pole situated far north of Arabia, (Fig. 2A) without inducing significant E-W convergence within the Neotethys. However, in experiments that include keels of the Indian and African cratonic lithosphere, which are strongly coupled to the sub-asthenospheric mantle, the computed Euler pole location is shifted southward towards the Indian continent, inducing E-W convergence along a larger part of the plate boundary within the Neotethys Ocean (Fig. 2B).

202 Convergence of up to several hundreds of km, sufficient to induce self-sustaining subduction²⁷, is obtained if plume material is fed into – and induced flow is confined to – a 200 203 204 km thick weak asthenospheric layer. The thinner this layer is, the further the plume head spreads, and pushes the plate. The modern Indian cratonic root used in our computations has likely eroded 205 considerably during interaction with the \sim 70-65 Ma Deccan plume⁴³. India may have had a 206 thicker and/or laterally more extensive cratonic root at ~105 Ma than modeled here which would 207 further enhance coupling of the lithosphere and the sub-asthenospheric mantle. Furthermore, an 208 Euler pole close to India and a long convergent boundary to the north requires much weaker 209 coupling in the northern (oceanic) part of the India plate (Fig. 2). In this case, results remain 210 similar as long as the plume impinges near the southern part of the western boundary of 211 continental India. 212

An order of magnitude estimate of the maximum plume-induced stresses, assuming no 213 frictional resistance at other plate boundaries, is obtained from the rising force of $\sim 1.5 \cdot 10^{20}$ N of 214 a plume head with 1000 km diameter and density contrast 30 kg/m³. If half of this force acts on 215 the India plate and with a lever arm of 4000 km, this corresponds to a torque of $3 \cdot 10^{26}$ Nm. Once, 216 at the onset of rifting, ridge push is established as an additional force in the vicinity of the plume, 217 we estimate that this number may increase by up to a few tens of per cent. This torque can be 218 balanced at the convergent boundary (length ~5000 km, plate thickness ~100 km) involving 219 stresses of ~240 MPa, much larger than estimates of frictional resistance between subducting and 220 overriding plates that are only of the order of tens of MPa⁴⁴. For this estimate, we neglect any 221 frictional resistance at the base of the plate and at any other plate boundary – essentially 222 considering the plate as freely rotating above a pinning point. This is another endmember 223 scenario, as opposed to our above convergence estimate, where we had considered friction at the 224 plate base but neglected it at all plate boundaries. Therefore, the estimate of 240 MPa may be 225 considered as an upper bound but being compressive and oriented in the right direction it shows 226 227 the possibility of subduction initiation as has occurred in reality along the likely weakened passive margin region of Arabia and Greater Adria. Moreover, the plume-induced compressive 228 stresses may have added to pre-existing compressive stresses, in particular due to ridge-push 229 around the African and Indian plates. Such additional compressive stresses may contribute to 230 shifting the Euler pole further south, closer to the position reconstructed in Fig. 1. 231

232 Subduction became self-sustained ~8-12 Ma after its initiation, as marked by the 96-92 Ma age of SSZ spreading^{15,17}: inception of this spreading shows that subduction rates exceeded 233 convergence rates, and reconstructed SSZ spreading rates were an order of magnitude higher¹⁵ 234 than Africa-Arabia or Indian absolute plate motions^{41,45} signaling slab roll-back, i.e. self-235 sustained subduction^{20,46}. Numerical models suggest that self-sustained subduction may start 236 after \sim 50-100 km of induced convergence⁷, corresponding to \sim 1° of India-Africa rotation 237 between ~105 and ~96-92 Ma. Subsequent east and west-dipping subduction segments (Fig. 1) 238 may have contributed to and accelerated the India-Africa/Arabia rotation, driving the 239 propagation of the Euler pole farther to the south (compare Fig. 2A, C). 240

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Mantle plumes as an initiator of plate tectonics?

Previously, numerical modeling has shown that mantle plumes may trigger circular 243 subduction initiation around a plume head⁴, where local plume-related convection may drive 244 subduction of thermally weakened lithosphere. This subduction would propagate through slab 245 roll-back and may have started the first subduction features on Earth⁴. 3D convective models do 246 produce a global network of plate boundaries^{47,48} but the role of plumes in initiating new 247 subduction zones within this network is unclear. Here, we have provided the first evidence that 248 plume rise formed a >12,000 km long plate boundary composed of both convergent and 249 divergent segments. Our documented example is Cretaceous in age but geological observations 250 showing a general temporal overlap between LIP emplacement and formation of SSZ ophiolite 251 belts over more than a billion years⁴⁹ suggest that plume rise is a key driving factor in the 252 formation of subduction plate boundaries. Because mantle plumes are thought to be also 253 common features on planets without plate tectonics, such as Mars and Venus⁵⁰, they may have 254 played a vital role in the emergence of modern style plate tectonics on Earth. That plumes may 255 have been key for the evolution of plate tectonics on Earth, as we suggest, but apparently 256 257 insufficient on Mars and Venus, provides a new outlook on understanding the different planetary evolutions. 258

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274	PJmcP, CGa, ELA and RLMV developed the kinematic reconstruction; BS performed
275	modelling; DJJvH, BS, CGu, WS wrote the paper, all authors made corrections and edits.
276	
277	Competing interests: All authors declare no competing interests.
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Fig. 1. Plate kinematic reconstructions of the Neotethys Ocean and surrounding continents at A) 280 the present-day; B) 70 Ma, corresponding to the time that most of the Neotethyan intra-oceanic 281 subduction zone had terminated due to arrival of the India, Africa-Arabia, and the Greater Adria 282 margin in the trench; C) 105 Ma, corresponding to the timing of intra-Neotethyan subduction 283 initiation and D) 110 Ma, just before intra-Neotethyan subduction initiation. An Euler pole 284 situated in the Indian Ocean north of Madagascar (yellow star) indicates the division between the 285 compressional plate boundary segment (the intra-Neotethys trench) and the extensional segment 286 287 (the incipient Mascarene rift connected to the mid-ocean ridge between Africa and Antarctica). Rotation around this pole, and the related intra-Neotethyan subduction initiation, are interpreted 288 here to result from the rise and push of the Morondava mantle plume. See text for further 289 explanation, and Methods for the plate reconstruction approach and sources of detailed 290 291 restorations. Dark grey areas outline modern continents; light-grey area indicate thinned continental margins and microcontinents. Grey arrows indicate approximate rotational motion in 292 a mantle reference frame⁴⁵ around the Amirante Euler pole. AR = Amirante Ridge; Emed =293 Eastern Mediterranean Region; Ir = Iran; LIP = Large Igneous Province; Mad = Madagascar; 294 Mas = Mascarene Basin; Pak = Pakistan, Tur = Turkey; Waz = Waziristan Ophiolite. 295

Fig. 2. The computed total displacement, induced by the Morondava plume (pink circle) for the 297 restored ~105 Ma plate configuration (Fig. 1C) for plates without (A, B) and with (C, D) African 298 and Indian cratonic keels, in an Africa-fixed (A, C), or mantle reference frame⁴⁵ (B, D) (see 299 Methods). It is assumed that, compared to a case with no lateral variations, the drag force due to 300 the plate moving over the mantle is increased by a factor of ten wherever reconstructed 301 lithosphere thickness exceeds 100 km (brown areas) and reduced to one tenth of the drag force 302 303 wherever it is less than 100 km thick. The India craton hence nearly "pins" the India plate, such that its northern part moves in the opposite direction to the plume-induced push. Computation 304 305 assumes torque balance between plume push and shearing over asthenosphere; frictional resistance at plate boundaries is neglected and computed convergence of several hundred km at 306 307 the northern end of the plate boundary is a maximum estimate. Ten degree grid spacing; locations of plates, lithosphere thickness and the plume are reconstructed in a slab-fitted mantle 308 reference frame⁴⁵. 309

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Methods: Kinematic reconstruction - The kinematic restoration of Neotethyan intra-311 oceanic subduction was made in GPlates plate reconstruction software (www.gplates.org)⁵¹. 312 First, we systematically restored stable plates using marine geophysical data from the Atlantic 313 and Indian Ocean, and then restored continental margin deformation that occurred following the 314 arrival of continental lithosphere below the oceanic lithosphere preserved as ophiolites. These 315 restorations are based on a systematic reconstruction protocol, based on magnetic anomalies and 316 fracture zones of present-day sea floor and geophysical constraints on pre-drift extension in 317 adjacent passive continental margins²³, followed by kinematic restoration of post-obduction 318 orogenic deformation using structural geological constraints on continental extension, strike-slip 319 deformation, and shortening, and paleomagnetic constraints on vertical axis rotations. We then 320 restored pre-emplacement vertical axis microplate rotations^{52,53}, as well as paleo-orientations of 321 the SSZ spreading ridges at which the ophiolitic crust formed¹⁸⁻²⁰. The reconstruction shown in 322 Fig. 1B compiles kinematic restorations for the eastern Mediterranean region²³, Iran⁵⁴, Oman²⁰, 323 Pakistan¹³, and the Himalaya³⁴. Ophiolites interpreted to be part of the Cretaceous subduction 324 system include the 96-90 Ma, Cretaceous ophiolites exposed in SE Greece, Anatolia, Cyprus, 325

326 Syria, and Iraq, the Neyriz ophiolite of Iran, the Semail ophiolite in Oman, and the Waziristan-Khost ophiolite in Pakistan and Afghanistan^{15-17,55}. The Jurassic ophiolite belts of northern 327 Turkey and Armenia⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸ and the late Cretaceous (<80 Ma) Kermanshah ophiolite of Iran⁵⁹ are 328 not included and are instead interpreted to have formed along the southern Eurasian margin 23 . 329 The Masirah Ophiolite of East Oman⁶⁰ and the uppermost Cretaceous Bela, Muslim Bagh, and 330 Kabul-Altimur ophiolites of Pakistan and Afghanistan^{61,62} are interpreted to reflect oblique latest 331 Cretaceous to Paleogene India-Arabia convergence¹³ and are also unrelated to the event studied 332 here. Restoration of intra-oceanic subduction prior to the arrival of the continental margins used 333 paleomagnetic data from the ophiolites of Oman, Syria, Cyprus, and Turkey that constrain 334 vertical axis rotations, as well as the orientation of sheeted dyke following cooling after 335 intrusion^{18-20,52,53} as proxy for original ridge and intra-oceanic trench orientations. These 336 paleomagnetic data systematically revealed N-S to NW-SE primary sheeted dyke orientations¹⁸⁻ 337 ^{20,52,53}. Because the ages of the SSZ ophiolites in the Neotethyan belt do not laterally progress, 338 spreading must have occurred near-orthogonal to the associated trench, which must thus also 339 have been striking N-S to NE-SW, as shown in the reconstruction of Fig. 1. 340

How far the Indian plate continued northwards around 105 Ma is subject to ongoing 341 debate. On the one hand, the northern Indian continental margin has been proposed to have rifted 342 off India sometime in the Cretaceous^{34,63}, but recent paleomagnetic data suggest that this process 343 occurred in the late Cretaceous, well after 100 Ma⁶⁴. Others inferred that the north Indian 344 continent had a passive margin contiguous with oceanic Neotethyan lithosphere since the middle 345 Jurassic or before and continued to a subduction zone below the SSZ ophiolites found in the 346 Himalayan suture zone and the Kohistan arc^{35,65,66}. Sedimentary and paleomagnetic data 347 demonstrate that these ophiolites formed adjacent to the Eurasian margin in the Early 348 Cretaceous⁶⁷, although they may have migrated southward during slab roll-back in the Late 349 Cretaceous³⁵. Recent paleomagnetic data have shown that a subduction zone may have existed 350 within the Neotethys to the west of the Andaman Islands, above which the West Burma Block 351 would have been located (Figure 1) 68 . Our reconstruction of the eastern Neotethys may thus be 352 oversimplified. However, the geological record of the West Burma Block shows that this 353 subduction zone already existed as early as 130 Ma, and E-W trending until well into the 354 Cenozoic⁶⁸, and we see no reason to infer that changes in the eastern Neotethys contributed to 355 the plate boundary formation discussed here. Some have speculated that the West Burma 356

subduction zone would have been connected to a long-lived, equatorial subduction zone within the Neotethys all along the Indian segment that would already have existed in the Early Cretaceous⁶⁹: this scenario remains unconstrained by paleomagnetic data, and is inconsistent with sediment provenance data from the Himalaya and overlying ophiolites³⁵. In summary, the Indian plate around 105 Ma continued far into the Neotethyan realm, and the India-Africa rotation is a likely driver of E-W convergence sparking subduction initiation close to the northern Gondwana margin purported in Figure 1.

364 *Torque balance modeling* – Forces considered here include (i) the push due to plumeinduced flow in the asthenosphere and (ii) the drag due to shear flow between the moving plate 365 and a deeper mantle at rest (Fig. S1). In the first case, we disregard any lateral variations. Plume-366 induced flow is treated as Poiseuille flow, i.e. with parabolic flow profile, in an asthenospheric 367 channel of thickness h_c , radially away from the plume stem. Since at greater distance plume-368 induced flow will eventually not remain confined to the asthenosphere, we only consider it to a 369 distance 2400 km, in accord with numerical results⁴¹, and consistent with the finding that there is 370 a transition from dominantly pressure-driven Poiseuille flow at shorter wavelengths to 371 dominantly shear-driven Couette flow at length scales approximately exceeding mantle 372 depth^{70,71}. With v_0 the velocity in the center of the channel at a distance d from the plume stem 373 the total volume flux rate is $2/3 \cdot v_0 \cdot 2\pi d \cdot h_c$ (here neglecting the curvature of the Earth surface 374 for simplicity). Its time integral is equal to the volume of the plume head with radius estimated⁷² 375 to be about $r_p=500$ km, with considerable uncertainty. That is, integration is done over a time 376 interval until the entire plume head volume has flown into the asthenospheric channel. Hence the 377 378 corresponding displacement vector in the center of the channel is

$$\mathbf{x}_{plu} = \int_{\Delta t} v_0 dt \cdot \mathbf{e}_r = \frac{r_p^3}{d \cdot h_c} \cdot \mathbf{e}_r$$

379

where e_r is the unit vector radially away from the plume (red arrows in Extended Data Fig. 1). Because of the parabolic flow profile, the vertical displacement gradient at the top of the channel is

$$2 \cdot \frac{\mathbf{x}_{plu}}{0.5 \cdot h_c} = 2 \cdot \int_{\Delta t} v_0 dt \cdot \frac{1}{0.5 \cdot h_c} \cdot \mathbf{e}_r = \frac{4r_p^3}{d \cdot h_c^2} \cdot \mathbf{e}_r$$

Viscosity is defined such that the force per area is equal to viscosity times the radial gradient of horizontal velocity. Hence the time integral of torque on the plate is

$$\mathbf{T}_{plu} = \frac{4\eta_0}{h_c} \int\limits_A \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{x}_{plu} dA = \frac{4\eta_0 r_p^3}{d \cdot h_c^2} \int\limits_A \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{e}_r dA$$

386

where η_0 is viscosity in the channel and **r** is the position vector. **T**_{*plu*} is balanced by the timeintegrated torque **T**_{*pla*} of the plate rotating an angle **\omega** over the underlying mantle. With plate displacement vectors **x**_{*pla*} = **\omega** x **r** (black arrows in Fig. S1) we obtain

$$\mathbf{T}_{pla} = -\frac{\eta_0}{h_s} \int\limits_A \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{x}_{pla} dA = -\frac{\eta_0}{h_s} \int\limits_A \mathbf{r} \times (\omega \times \mathbf{r}) dA$$

390

Here h_s is an effective thickness of the layer over which shearing occurs, which is calculated below for a stratified viscosity structure, i.e. laterally homogeneous coupling of plate and mantle and which we will set equal to h_c for simplicity. Specifically, with \mathbf{T}_x being the time-integrated torque acting on a plate rotating an angle ω_0 around the x-axis

$$\mathbf{T}_x = -\frac{\omega_0 \eta_0}{h_s} \int\limits_A \mathbf{r} \times (\mathbf{e}_x \times \mathbf{r}) dA,$$

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397

and \mathbf{T}_{y} and \mathbf{T}_{z} defined in analogy, the torque balance equation can be written

$$\mathbf{T}_{plu} = rac{\omega_x}{\omega_0} \cdot \mathbf{T}_x + rac{\omega_y}{\omega_0} \cdot \mathbf{T}_y + rac{\omega_z}{\omega_0} \cdot \mathbf{T}_z$$

398 ω_0 cancels out when T_x, T_y and T_z are inserted. Integrals used to compute these torques only 399 depend on plate geometry, η_0 cancels out in the torque balance, and we can solve for the rotation 400 angle vector $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ simply by a 3 x 3 matrix inversion. In the more general case, where we do not set 401 h_s and h_c equal, $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ is scaled by a factor h_s/h_c .

If a plate moves over a mantle where viscosity varies with depth, then the force per area *F/A* should be the same at all depths, and the radial gradient of horizontal velocity $dv/dz = F/A \cdot$ 1/ η (z). If we assume that the deep mantle is at rest (i.e. it moves slowly compared to plate motions), we further find that plate motion is

$$v_{0} = \int_{z_{0}}^{z(\eta_{\max})} \frac{dv}{dz} dt = \frac{F}{A} \int_{z_{0}}^{z(\eta_{\max})} \frac{1}{\eta(z)} dz =: \frac{F}{A} \frac{h_{s}}{\eta_{0}}$$
(1)

The integration is done from the base of the lithosphere z_0 to the depth where the approximation of the "mantle at rest" is probably the most closely matched, i.e. we choose the viscosity maximum. The last equality is according to the definition of the effective layer thickness, whereby η_0 is the viscosity just below the lithosphere. Solving this equation for h_s for the viscosity structure in Extended Data Fig. 2 and a 100 km thick lithosphere gives h_s =203.37 km.

The plume location at 27.1°E, 40.4° S, is obtained by rotating the center of the corresponding LIP at 46° E, 26° S and an age 87 Ma (adopted from Doubrovine et al.⁷³) in the slab-fitted mantle reference frame⁴⁵, in which also the plate geometries at 105 Ma are reconstructed.

Results for this case (Fig. 2A) show that a plume pushing one part of a plate may induce 416 a rotation of that plate, such that other parts of that plate may move in the opposite direction. A 417 418 simple analog is a sheet of paper pushed, near its bottom left corner, to the right: Then, near the top left corner, the sheet will move to the left. With two sheets (plates) on either side, local 419 420 divergence near the bottom (near the plume) may turn into convergence near the top (at the part of the plate boundary furthest away from the plume). The length of that part of the plate 421 422 boundary, where convergence is induced may increase, if one plate is nearly "pinned" at a hinge point slightly NE of the plume, perhaps due to much stronger coupling between plate and mantle. 423 At the times considered here ~105 My ago, the Indian continent, where coupling was presumably 424 stronger, was in the southern part of the Indian plate, whereas in its north, there was a large 425 426 oceanic part, with presumably weaker coupling. Hence the geometry was indeed such that convergence could be induced along a longer part of the plate boundary. 427

In the second case, we therefore consider lateral variations in the coupling between plate and mantle, corresponding to variations in lithosphere thickness and/or asthenosphere viscosity, by multiplying the drag force (from the first case) at each location with a resistance factor. This factor is a function of lithosphere thickness reconstructed at 105 Ma. On continents, thickness derived from tomography⁷⁴ with slabs removed⁷⁵ is simply backward-rotated. In the oceans, we use thickness [km] = $10 \cdot (age [Ma] - 105)^{0.5}$ with ages from present-day Earthbyte age grid

434 version 3.6, i.e. accounting for the younger age and reduced thickness at 105 Ma, besides backward-rotating. To determine the appropriate rotation, the lithosphere (in present-day 435 location) is divided up into India, Africa, Arabia, Somalia and Madagascar (paleo-)plates and 436 respective 105 Ma finite rotations from van der Meer et al.⁴⁵ are applied. For the parts of the 437 reconstructed plates where thickness could not be reconstructed in this way – often, because this 438 part of the plate has been subducted – we first extrapolate thickness up to a distance $\sim 2.3^{\circ}$, and 439 set the thickness to a default value of 80 km for the remaining part. Reconstructed thickness is 440 shown in Extended Data Fig. 4. For the resistance factor as a function of lithosphere thickness 441 we use two models: Firstly, we use a continuous curve (Extended Data Fig. 3) according to eq. 442 (1)443

$$\frac{F}{A} = \frac{v_0}{\sum\limits_{z_0}^{z(\eta_{\text{max}})} \frac{1}{\eta(z)} dz}.$$
(2)

444

with the mantle viscosity model in Extended Data Fig. 2 combined with variable lithosphere
thickness *z*₀. However, this causes only a minor change in the plate rotations (Extended Data Fig.
4 compared to Fig. 2B). Hence, we also use a stronger variation, further explained in the caption
of Fig 2 and with results shown in Fig. 2C and D.

449

450 Data availability

451 GPlates files with reconstructions used to draft Figure 1 are provided at

452 https://figshare.com/articles/dataset/van_Hinsbergen_NatureGeo_2021_GPlates_zip/13516727.

453

454 **Code availability**

- 455 All codes used in the geodynamic modeling in this study are available at
- 456 https://figshare.com/articles/software/van_Hinsbergen_etal_NatureGeo_2021_geodynamics_pac
- 457 kage/13635089.
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