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Abstract: The occurrence of thrust-sense tectonometamorphic discontinuities within the exhumed Himalayan metamorphic core can be explained as part of the Main Central thrust system. This imbricate thrust structure, which significantly thickened the orogenic midcrustal core, comprises a series of thrust-sense faults that all merge into a single detachment. The existence of these various structures, and their potential for complex overprinting along the main detachment, may help explain the contention surrounding the definition, mapping, and interpretation of the Main Central thrust. The unique evolution of specific segments of the Main Central thrust system along the orogen is interpreted to be a reflection of the inherent basement structure and ramp position, and structural level of exposure of the mid-crust. This helps explain the variation in the timing and structural position of tectonometamorphic discontinuities along the length of the mountain belt.

1	RECONCILING HIMALAYAN MIDCRUSTAL DISCONTINUITIES: THE
2	MAIN CENTRAL THRUST SYSTEM
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13	
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27 **1. Introduction**

28 Investigation of the role the middle and lower crust plays during the development of 29 orogenic belts has led to a better understanding of internal convergence accommodation 30 processes. In the Himalaya, this type of investigation has recently demonstrated that the exhumed mid-crust, or Greater Himalayan sequence (GHS), which was previously 31 32 thought to be relatively homogeneous and characterized by diffuse pervasive strain (e.g. 33 Grujic et al., 1996; Jamieson et al., 1996; Searle et al., 2006; Larson et al., 2010), is 34 actually cut internally by a number of cryptic, thrust-sense shear zones commonly 35 referred to in the literature as tectonometamorphic discontinuities (e.g. Montomoli et al., 36 2014; Cottle et al. 2015). The GHS is characterized by amphibolite to granulite, and 37 locally eclogite, facies metamorphism (Kohn, 2014), often with an inverted metamorphic 38 sequence at its base (e.g. Mallett, 1875; Bordet, 1961; Gansser, 1964; Hashimoto et al., 39 1973; Arita, 1983). These rocks are thought to represent the metamorphosed and 40 deformed equivalents of the former sedimentary wedge that was built upon the northern 41 passive margin of India prior to collision with Asia and the closure of the Tethys ocean 42 (Parrish and Hodges, 1996; Searle et al., 1997; Myrow et al., 2003; Murphy, 2007). 43 Discontinuities within the GHS have been identified in various locations along the length 44 of the orogen (Figure 1; Table 1), recognized mainly through abrupt breaks in pressure 45 and temperature estimates and/or pressure-temperature-time \pm deformation (P-T-t(-D)) 46 paths (e.g. Carosi et al., 2010; Corrie and Kohn, 2011; Larson et al., 2013; Montomoli et 47 al., 2013; Rubatto et al., 2013; Warren et al., 2014; Ambrose et al., 2015). 48 The discovery of these cryptic structures within the Himalaya has led to a

49 transition away from geologic models that have either not accounted for deformation

50 within the high-grade core (e.g. DeCelles et al., 2001; Robinson et al., 2006; Webb et al., 51 2007; Robinson, 2008), or implicitly assumed that deformation was diffuse and pervasive 52 throughout its history (e.g. Searle and Szulc, 2005; Larson and Godin, 2009; Larson et 53 al., 2010). The widespread recognition of thrust-sense faults within the GHS implies that 54 deformation was localized on discrete structures for at least the later part of the finite 55 strain history recorded by these rocks (Cottle et al., 2015). Moreover, it also indicates that 56 the GHS has been significantly thickened (Montomoli et al., 2013; Larson and Cottle, 57 2014; Ambrose et al. 2015) and that shortening estimates made based on structural 58 restorations (e.g. DeCelles et al., 2001; McQuarrie et al., 2008; 2014; Long et al., 2011a; 59 Khanal and Robinson, 2013; Webb, 2013), which are acknowledged as minimums, may 60 actually severely underestimate real shortening values. 61 As interpreted, these discontinuities have typically been classified into one of two 62 end-member types: early (late Oligocene to earliest Miocene) in-sequence thrust 63 structures (e.g. Carosi et al., 2010; Corrie and Kohn, 2011; Kohn et al., 2005; Larson et 64 al., 2013; Montomoli et al., 2014; 2013) or late (middle Miocene) out-of-sequence thrust 65 structures (e.g. Grujic et al., 2011; Warren et al., 2011a; 2014; Kellett and Grujic, 2012; 66 Larson and Cottle, 2014). Attempts to reconcile the data characterizing the various 67 tectonometamorphic discontinuities mapped along the Himalaya into a coherent 68 kinematic model have been focused on, and informed primarily by, data from the early 69 in-sequence structures (e.g. Montomoli et al., 2014). The majority of these types of 70 structures have been identified near the middle of the exhumed midcrustal core in west-71 central Nepal (Carosi et al., 2010; Corrie and Kohn, 2011; Kohn et al., 2005; Montomoli 72 et al., 2013), whereas discontinuities farther east are typically younger in age and occur

73 as out-of-sequence thrusts structurally higher in the exhumed metamorphic core (Daniel 74 et al., 2003; Grujic et al., 2011; Warren et al., 2011a; 2014). The existing kinematic 75 models for the evolution of these structures are not compatible with the variability in the 76 type of structure that occurs along the orogen (i.e. in or out-of-sequence), the differences 77 in timing, or why the structures occur at different structural levels in different locations. 78 This study attempts to elucidate the development of these discontinuities and their 79 variability along and across the orogen as part of an integrated imbricate thrust system 80 model.

81

82 2. Previous Interpretations

83 The current model proposed to explain the development of major thrust-sense 84 tectonometamorphic discontinuities within the migmatitic rocks of the GHS suggest all 85 such structures along the orogen are part of one feature, 'the High Himalayan 86 Discontinuity' (Montomoli et al., 2014). In this model, the rocks in the hanging wall of 87 the structure were initially metamorphosed deep in the hinterland and then thrust towards 88 the foreland (Carosi et al., 2010; Corrie and Kohn, 2011; Montomoli et al., 2013). As 89 hanging wall rocks were translated southward, metamorphism occurred in the overridden 90 footwall (e.g. Pêcher, 1989; Harrison et al., 1997; Hubbard, 1996; Long et al., 2011b). 91 Therefore, metamorphism in the footwall and hanging wall is expected to be diachronous 92 with earlier, typically higher temperature metamorphism in the hanging wall and later, 93 higher pressure metamorphism in the footwall (Figure 2; Montomoli et al., 2014). As 94 interpreted, the development of the High Himalayan Discontinuity is thought to have 95 occurred in the late Oligocene or earliest Miocene (Montomoli et al., 2014), at least

96 partially coeval with motion along the South Tibetan detachment system, a top-to-the97 north-sense structure marking the top of the GHS (Figure 2). After movement along the
98 High Himalayan Discontinuity ceased, deformation migrated towards the foreland and
99 down structural section initiating activation of the Main Central thrust (Figure 2;
100 Montomoli et al., 2013).

101 This High Himalayan Discontinuity model was largely developed for structures 102 observed in west-central Nepal. There, along the Himalayan front, the GHS can be very 103 thin - only a few kilometers in structural thickness (e.g. locations 3 and 4 in Figure 1). 104 This contrasts sharply with the GHS exposed in eastern Nepal and neighbouring regions 105 where it is in excess of 30 km thick (e.g. locations 12-16 in Figure 1). In the High 106 Himalayan Discontinuity model of Montomoli et al. (2014), a single structural break is 107 interpreted to occur along the length of the orogen that connects recognized 108 discontinuities. There are, however, incompatibilities between the various recognized 109 structures in their timing of displacement and the structural level at which they occur. In 110 Bhutan and adjacent NE India, for example, the Kahktang thrust and equivalents (Laya 111 and Zimithang thrusts) were active near the top of the GHS in the mid-Miocene (Daniel 112 et al., 2003; Grujic et al., 2011; Warren et al., 2011a; 2014), not near the middle of the 113 GHS during the late Oligocene as the High Himalayan Discontinuity is interpreted to be 114 in areas farther west (Carosi et al., 2010; Montomoli et al., 2013). Moreover, in contrast 115 to the High Himalayan Discontinuity in the model of Montomoli et al. (2014), structures 116 in the eastern Himalaya are interpreted as out-of-sequence thrust faults that post-date 117 metamorphism in the footwall (e.g. Grujic et al. 2011; Warren et al. 2014). Similar 118 interpretations have been made for an unnamed and undated structure in northern Sikkim, 119 which has been tentatively correlated to the Lava thrust in nearby Bhutan (Rubatto et al., 120 2013). The only structure identified in the eastern Himalaya with apparently similar 121 characteristics as the High Himalayan Discontinuity is the High Himal thrust (Goscombe 122 et al., 2006; Imayama et al., 2012). The data used to infer timing of displacement on that 123 structure, however, are entirely from the footwall of the fault and as such do not constrain 124 metamorphism in the hanging wall or movement across it. Based on monazite 125 petrochronology from both sides of the High Himal thrust in the Kanchenjunga region, 126 Ambrose et al. (2015) reinterpreted the structure as an out-of-sequence thrust that was 127 active between ca. 20 and 18 Ma and that the data Imayama et al. (2012) used to infer 128 movement on the High Himal thrust actually mark a distinct, structurally lower, 129 discontinuity. The Ambrose et al. (2015) study actually outline no less than five 130 tectonometamorphic discontinuities in the Kanchenjunga region, which demonstrates the 131 potential complexity of deformation within the GHS and calls further into question the 132 interpretation of recognized discontinuities across the orogen as a single structure. 133 134 **3.** Development of the Main Central thrust system 135 The variability in timing, structural position, and number of discontinuities 136 observed along the orogen requires the development of a new kinematic model. Recent 137 studies have interpreted the development of thrust-sense structures in the GHS as part of 138 a larger system (Larson and Cottle, 2014; He et al. 2015; Ambrose et al. 2015). The 139 interpreted processes are similar to underplating thermal-kinematic models (e.g. Avouac, 140 2003; Bollinger et al. 2006; Herman et al. 2010) and inferred crustal thickening via

141 duplexing (Murphy, 2007; Grandin et al. 2012; Cannon and Murphy, 2014) for material

structurally below the GHS in the footwall of the Main Central thrust. In an imbricate

thrust system model, differences in the kinematic evolution between spatially distinct
areas may reflect changes in regional geology such as crustal ramp geometries and/or the
initial thickness of the GHS protoliths. It also has important implications for the evolution
of the Main Central thrust.

147 The definition, position, and kinematic significance of the Main Central thrust, a 148 crustal scale, orogen-wide fault/shear zone, have been the subject of much debate (e.g. 149 Upreti, 1999; Yin, 2006; Searle et al., 2008; Mottram et al., 2014) leading to various 150 studies re-interpreting and potentially misinterpreting previously published data based on 151 different definitions of the structure. A wireframe construction of the kinematic model 152 presented herein (Figure 3) potentially sheds some light on why interpretations of the 153 Main Central thrust have been so varied in its definition and mapped location (e.g. 154 Upreti, 1999; Searle et al. 2008).

155 In the proposed kinematic model, the thickening and southward translation of the 156 GHS is accomplished through the development of an imbricate thrust system with the 157 sequential addition of material to the hanging wall (Figure 3A, B). The active fault in the 158 area of subcretion, effectively the Main Central thrust, changes with each slice of 159 material that is added. Once the former sole thrust is no longer active it becomes part of 160 the over-riding plate, whereas the newly active structure becomes the sole thrust. The 161 thrusts merge both up-dip and down-dip from the ramp. This results in the progressive 162 overprinting of the various deformation histories along a single structure (the Main 163 Central thrust) both towards the foreland and the hinterland (Figure 3C, D). This type of 164 evolution for the Main Central thrust could result in significantly different geologic histories recorded in a region, depending on the structural level of exposure and other 165

166 factors (see below) that may control kinematic history and potential thrust system167 development in that area.

The South Tibetan detachment system may allow early lateral ductile flow of the mid-crust (e.g. Jamieson et al. 2006) or wedging (e.g. Webb et al. 2007) of the mid-crust southward (Figure 3A). In the first case, the South Tibetan detachment system would accommodate channel flow before or during imbricate thrust stacking (Larson and Cottle, 2014); in the second possibility the South Tibetan detachment system would develop as a roof back-thrust of the imbricate system (He et al., 2015). In either case, movement along the structure ceases as the thrust system evolves.

175

176 4. Integrated Kinematic Model

177 Initial development of tectonometamorphic discontinuities within the GHS 178 occurred at similar times across (at least) Nepal with the High Himalayan Discontinuity 179 (Montomoli et al., 2014) initiating in the Dolpo region of west –central Nepal at ca. 26-27 180 Ma (Carosi et al., 2010; Montomoli et al., 2013) and the earliest structure initiating in the 181 Kanchenjunga region between 31 and 26 Ma (Ambrose et al., 2015). In both areas, 182 geochronology and P-T data indicate that over-thrusting of the hanging wall resulted in 183 prograde metamorphism in the footwall (Montomoli et al., 2014; Ambrose et al., 2015). 184 Following this early, shared history, the spatially distinct differential development of the 185 Himalayan mid-crust may be related to regional geologic changes such as crustal ramp 186 geometries, structural level of exposure, or the location of the brittle-ductile transition 187 (e.g. Bollinger et al., 2006; Cannon and Murphy, 2014).

188	In west-central Nepal, where the exposed GHS along the Himalayan front is as
189	thin as 3 km (Le Fort et al., 1987; Carosi et al., 2007; 2010), deformation migrated
190	structurally lower from the High Himalayan Discontinuity with the addition of the
191	metamorphosed and deformed High Himalayan Discontinuity footwall (Figure 4; Carosi
192	et al., 2010; Montomoli et al., 2013). Movement along the base of that imbricate, mapped
193	as the Main Central thrust, occurred between ~19 and 13 Ma (Montomoli et al., 2013),
194	post-dating local movement on the South Tibetan detachment system (Carosi et al.,
195	2013). In eastern Nepal, where the exposed GHS is typically >30 km thick (e.g.
196	Schelling, 1992), the development of the GHS was significantly different. Multiple
197	imbricates were added to the Main Central thrust system between 24 and 20 Ma (Figure
198	4; Ambrose et al., 2015). The difference observed between the regions may reflect: 1)
199	progressively deeper erosion levels (with respect to the crystalline core) from west to east
200	across the orogeny (Webb et al. 2011), or 2) a more pronounced ramp structure in eastern
201	Nepal that increased the volume of material accreted from the footwall. In the
202	Kanchenjunga region, movement of the thrust sheets toward the foreland appears to have
203	slowed by ~ 20 Ma. This may reflect encroachment of a significant change in footwall
204	lithology leading to a change in fault geometry. Deformation then stepped out-of-
205	sequence, towards the hinterland, cutting the previously imbricated GHS and driving
206	deformation back towards the foreland $(20 - 18 \text{ Ma})$. The location of the out-of-sequence
207	thrust may be related to the position of the GHS above the main crustal ramp (e.g. Kellett
208	et al., 2009; Warren et al., 2011a).
209	A similar history, with distinct timing, is postulated for the GHS of Bhutan and

210 NE India. There, out-of-sequence thrusting occurs both significantly later (14-11 Ma) and

211	farther toward the hinterland (Grujic et al., 2011; Warren et al., 2011a; 2014). This may
212	reflect a similar lithologic change in the footwall encountered farther towards the
213	foreland (Figure 4); the GHS moving along the basal detachment would take longer to
214	encounter the effects of the forced change in fault geometry, thereby impeding its
215	movement later than that in the Kanchenjunga region. Moreover, the GHS would have
216	translated farther south by the time deformation slowed and out-of-sequence thrusting
217	began. The resulting out-of-sequence thrust, located above the dominant crustal ramp
218	(e.g. Kellett et al., 2009; Warren et al., 2011a), would have cut through the GHS later and
219	higher up in the structural section (Figure 4).
220	Subsequent to the development of the Main Central thrust system in west-central
221	Nepal, and the out-of-sequence thrust faults that cut the imbricate stack farther east, the
222	GHS in all areas appear to have been largely exhumed through the development of the
223	Lesser Himalayan duplex and concomitant erosion (e.g. DeCelles et al., 1998; McQuarrie
224	et al., 2014; 2008; Robinson et al., 2001). The development of that duplex structure
225	occurred at different times along the orogen corresponding to the time at which
226	deformation was focused on different units in the down-going plate. In west-central
227	Nepal, cooling of the GHS occurred between ca. 15 and 8 Ma; dominated by the earlier
228	ages (Martin et al., 2014; Vannay and Hodges, 1996). Whereas exhumation and
229	associated development of the Lesser Himalayan duplex in western Bhutan is much
230	younger, with exhumation interpreted to have occurred between 9 Ma and the present day
231	(McQuarrie et al., 2014).
232	A thrust imbricate model for the kinematic evolution of the GHS does not

233 invalidate models of lateral midcrustal flow. 'Channel'-type flow could occur during

234 coeval movement along the Main Central thrust and South Tibetan detachment system,

235 however, it would be relatively short-lived phenomena, with thrust imbrication being the

236 dominant convergence accommodation process. Some published thermo-mechanical

237 models (e.g. HT111; Jamieson et al. 2006) actually demonstrate vertical juxtaposition of

238 formerly laterally adjacent rock units within the mid-crust during lateral transport,

resulting in a similar final geometry to that presented herein. As modeled, however, the

timing of juxtaposition and exhumation are not compatible with existing data.

241 **5.** Summary

242 The variation in the timing and structural position of tectonometamorphic 243 discontinuities identified along the Himalaya is interpreted to reflect fundamental 244 differences in the development of the Main Central thrust system. As described herein, 245 these differences are interpreted reflect variations in the underlying basement/ramp 246 structure of the basal detachment and perhaps structural level of exposure with respect to 247 the mid-crust. This model is consistent with available along and across-strike geologic 248 controls in the Himalaya and provides an integrated solution to help explain the 249 occurrence and development of cryptic structures within an evolving orogenic midcrustal 250 core.

251

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259

260 7. Figure Captions:

- Figure 1 Simplified geologic map (after He et al., 2015) showing the spatial
- 262 distributions of mapped tectonometamorphic discontinuities within the exhumed

263 Himalayan mid-crust. See Table 1 for references corresponding to locations.

264

Figure 2 – Summary diagram of activity on the High Himalaya Discontinuity (HHD) and

subsequently the Main Central Thrust (MCT) based on Montomoli et al. (2014).

267 Movement of different particles demonstrates relative movement across the structures.

268 Timing constraints are from western Nepal (Montomoli et al. 2013). STDS – South

269 Tibetan detachment system.

270

271 Figure 3 – Evolution of the Main Central Thrust (MCT) system. The structure evolves 272 such that the current floor thrust at any given time later becomes inactive as new material 273 is incorporated into the thrust system. Motion along active structures is accommodated 274 away from the site of addition along pre-existing faults potentially resulting in complex 275 over-printing and/or protracted motion. Final exposure of the exhumed Himalayan 276 metamorphic core above the Lesser Himalayan (LH) Duplex results in the surface 277 exposure of a number the faults that comprise the Main Central Thrust system. Colors 278 identify different discontinuities that in (D) merge up and down-dip into a single structure

- 279 (black) in present-day geometry. Throughout Himalayan development each would have
- 280 been the Himalayan sole thrust. STDS South Tibetan Detachment System.

281

- Figure 4 Conceptual development of the Main Central Thrust system at different points
- along the length of the orogen. See text for detailed discussion.
- 284

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Highlights

- Variable development of discontinuities is related to along strike changes
- The Main Central thrust system significantly thickened the mid-crust
- Complex overprinting during activity along the Main Central thrust is expected





Larson et al., Fig. 2



Larson et al., Fig. 3



Larson et al., Fig. 4

Location	(<i>Name),</i> Location	Footwall			Hanging Wall			PT	Shear	
(Figure 1)		P (GPa)	T (°C)	Age (Ma)	P (GPa)	T (°C)	Age (Ma)	Method	Zone Age (Ma)	References
1	¹ Garhwal, NW India	0.7-1.2↑	~550	-	1.4-0.8↓	~750	-	ER+TE	-	Spencer et al., 2012
2	Karnali, NW Nepal	0.8-1.1↑	600-630	-	1.0-0.5↓	650-720	-	AvPT	-	Yakymchuk and Godin, 2012
3	<i>Mangri Shear Zone</i> , Mugu Karnali, W Nepal	0.9-1.1	665-700	21-17	0.7-0.8	690-700	25-18	ER	(21-17)	Montomoli et al., 2013
4	<i>Toijem Shear Zone</i> , Lower Dolpo, W Nepal	0.7-0.9↑	640-675	43-33	0.63	620-640	29-17	ER	(26-17)	Carosi et al., 2010
5	<i>Kalopani Shear Zone</i> , Annapurna, central Nepal	0.7	450-650	35	1.0	650-750	<u>34-35</u>	ER	(<u>23-15</u>)	Vannay and Hodges, 1996; Godin et al., 2001
6	<i>Bhanuwa Thrust</i> , Modi Khola, central Nepal	1.0-1.2	550-700	33-24, 22-17	1.1-1.4↓	700-775	26-24, 23-21	ER+TE	(23-19) or (16-	Martin et al., 2010; Corrie and Kohn, 2011; Martin et al., 2014
	<i>Sinuwa Thrust</i> , Modi Khola, central Nepal	1.1-1.4↓	700-775	26-24, 23-21	1.1-1.4↑	730-800	32-27, 22-19	ER+TE	(27-19)	Martin et al., 2010; Corrie and Kohn, 2011; Martin et al., 2014
7	¹ Manaslu-Himal Chuli, central Nepal	0.6-1.3↑	525-650↑	21.5, 15-12	1.1-0.30↓	640-675	26-15	ER	~21	Larson et al., 2010, 2011; Kohn et al., 2001
8	<i>Langtang Thrust</i> , Langtang, Nepal	0.75-1.0	680-800	36-16, 15-13	0.6-0.95	750-850	31-21,19-16	ER	(20-16)	Reddy et al., 1993; Fraser et al., 2000; Kohn et al., 2005; Kohn, 2008
9	<i>Nylam Thrust</i> , Bhote Kosi, Nepal	0.3-1.3↓	600-700	-	0.3-0.9↓	700-800	<u>48-30, 19-14</u>	ER	(30-19)	Wang et al., 2013
	¹ Main Central Thrust, Bhote Kosi, Nepal	0.8-1.0	620-650	-	0.9-1.5	660-720	-	PE	-	Wang et al., 2015
10	¹ <i>"Lower Discontinuity"</i> , Tama Kosi Region, Nepal	0.64-0.7	610-640	10-8	1.0-0.7↓	700-750	23-19, 19-14	PE	(14-8)	Larson et al., 2013; Larson and Cottle, 2014
	<i>"Upper Discontinuity"</i> , Tama Kosi Region, Nepal	1.0-0.7↓	700-750	23-19, 19-14	-	-	24-21, 19-16	PE	(22-19)	Larson and Cottle, 2014
11	Likhu Khola, Nepal	0.9-1.3↑	725-900	-	0.3-1.0↓	750-900	27-23, 22-15	AvPT	(22-15)	From et al., 2014
12	<i>Khumbu Thrust</i> , Everest Region, Nepal	0.4-0.6	600-700	32-21	-	-	24	AvPT, ER	-	Searle et al., 1999, 2003; Simpson et al. 2000; Jessup et al., 2008
13	<i>"Lower Discontinuity"</i> , Arun Region, Nepal	0.6-07	550	-	0.8-1.0↑	600-650↑	- <u>-</u>	PE	-	Groppo et al., 2009
	" <i>Upper Discontinuity</i> ", Arun Region, Nepal	0.8-1.0↑	600-650↑	· _	0.7-1.0↑	650-800↑	-	PE	-	Groppo et al., 2009
14	<i>High Himalayan Thrust</i> ,Tamor/Ghunsa, Kanchenjunga, Nepal	0.5-1.2↓	700-800	<u>30-28, 27-18</u>	0.6-0.4	700-850	-	AvPT, PE	~ 20	Goscombe et al., 2006; Imayama et al., 2010, 2012; Ambrose et al., 2015
	Kanchenjunga Duplex, Nepal			multip	le disconti	nuities/stru	uctures			Ambrose et al., 2015
15	<i>"Age Discontinuity"</i> , Northern Sikkim	0.8	750-850	31-28, 28- 25, <25	0.9	750-850	26-23, 23- 20, 20-17	PE	-	Rubatto et al., 2013
16	<i>Laya-Kakhtang Thrust</i> , Bhutan	0.3-0.6	~650	22-17	0.8-1.0↑	750-800	15-13	ER	(<i>13</i> -10)	Swapp & Hollister 1991; Davidson et al., 1997; Grujic et al., 1996, 2002, 2011; Daniel et al., 2003: Warren et al., 2011a, b
17	Zimithang Thrust, NE India	0.8-09	535-715↓	, 27-16	-	535-630↑	17-12	ER, TB	(<i>12-</i> 7)	Warren et al., 2014

Table 1: Metamorphic and Geochronologic Contstraints Defining Interpreted Tectonometamorphic Discontinuities

¹Indicates interpreted structure is equivalent to the 'MCT' of Jamieson et al. (2004). \uparrow indicates an increase up structural section, \downarrow indicates decreasing values up structural section. Where multiple age ranges are present, the first indicates prograde-path metamorphism, the second indicates retrograde-path/decrompression metamorphism. In the one case were three ranges are given, the third range indicates late stage isobaric cooling. Parentheses indicate the ages are interpreted to bracket movement. Ages in italics are from monazite; underlined ages are from zircon, grey ages are from thermochronologic constraints. ER = 'traditional' exchange reaction and net transfer reaction thermobarometry; TE = thermodynamic equilibrium - based thermobarometry; AvPT = THERMOCALC-based thermobarometry; PE = Phase equilibria modelling-based thermobarometry; TB - titanium in biotite thermometry.