

# Detrital zircon provenance of Neoproterozoic to Cenozoic deposits in Iran: Implications for chronostratigraphy and collisional tectonics

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## Abstract

Ion-microprobe U–Pb analyses of 589 detrital zircon grains from 14 sandstones of the Alborz mountains, Zagros mountains, and central Iranian plateau provide an initial framework for understanding the Neoproterozoic to Cenozoic provenance history of Iran. The results place improved chronological constraints on the age of earliest sediment accumulation during Neoproterozoic–Cambrian time, the timing of the Mesozoic Iran–Eurasia collision and Cenozoic Arabia–Eurasia collision, and the contribution of various sediment sources of Gondwanan and Eurasian affinity during opening and closure of the Paleotethys and Neotethys oceans. The zircon age populations suggest that deposition of the extensive ~1 km-thick clastic sequence at the base of the cover succession commenced in latest Neoproterozoic and terminated by Middle Cambrian time. Comparison of the geochronological data with detrital zircon ages for northern Gondwana reveals that sediment principally derived from the East African orogen covered a vast region encompassing northern Africa and the Middle East. Although most previous studies propose a simple passive-margin setting for Paleozoic Iran, detrital zircon age spectra indicate Late Devonian–Early Permian and Cambrian–Ordovician magmatism. These data suggest that Iran was affiliated with Eurasian magmatic arcs or that rift-related magmatic activity during opening of Paleotethys and Neotethys was more pronounced than thought along the northern Gondwanan passive-margin. For a Triassic–Jurassic clastic overlap assemblage (Shemshak Formation) in the Alborz mountains, U–Pb zircon ages provide chronostratigraphic age control requiring collision of Iran with Eurasia by late Carnian–early Norian time (220–210 Ma). Finally, Cenozoic strata yield abundant zircons of Eocene age, consistent with derivation from arc magmatic rocks related to late-stage subduction and/or breakoff of the Neotethys slab. Together with the timing of foreland basin sedimentation in the Zagros, these detrital zircon ages help bracket the onset of the Arabia–Eurasia collision in Iran between middle Eocene and late Oligocene time.

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## 1. Introduction

Iran constitutes one of the largest tectonic provinces in the Middle East (Fig. 1) and occupies a poorly understood region

connecting the Alpine and Himalayan orogenic systems (e.g., Gansser, 1955; Seber et al., 1997). In addition to the Cenozoic Arabia–Eurasia collision (Neotethys closure), Iran was involved in early Mesozoic collision of various Gondwanan terranes with Eurasia (Paleotethys closure) and in exhumation of the Neoproterozoic East African orogen (Berberian and King, 1981; Sengör, 1987). Given this diverse plate tectonic history and the limited number of geochronological studies, it is not

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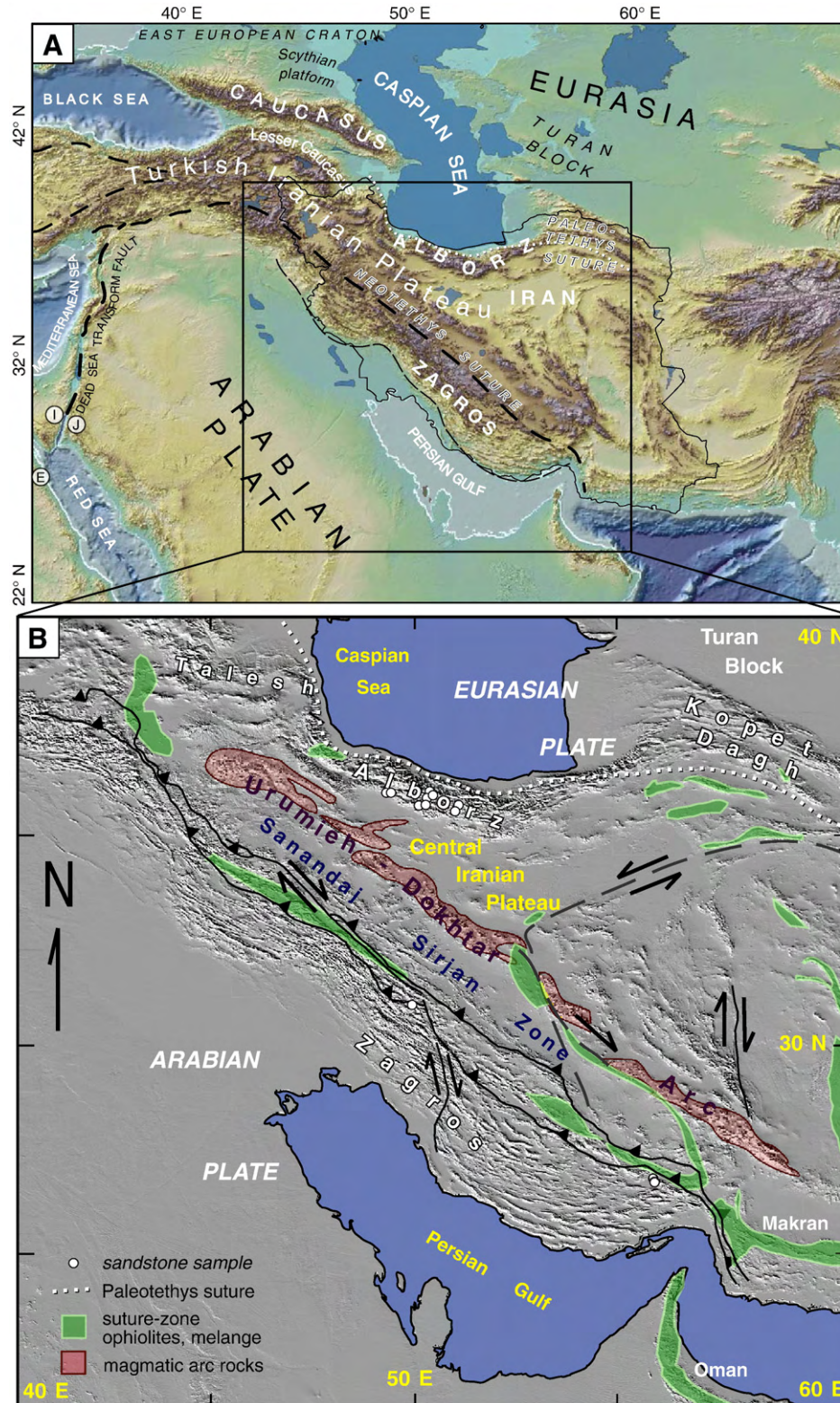


Fig. 1. (A) Regional map depicting topography, mountain belts, and tectonic features of the Middle East and south-central Eurasia (from Guest et al., 2006a). Locations of previous detrital zircon studies: I—Israel; J—Jordan; E—Egypt. (B) Geologic map of Iran and surrounding regions showing mountain belts, suture-zone ophiolites (green shading), the Urumieh–Dokhtar magmatic arc (red shading), and tectonomorphic provinces such as the Zagros fold-thrust belt, Sanandaj–Sirjan zone, and central Iranian plateau (after Guest et al., 2006b). White circles indicate sandstone sample locations.

surprising that fundamental questions persist on the timing of collisional events, nature of crystalline basement, and identity and past positions of individual terranes.

Iran has been considered part of Gondwana and commonly placed adjacent to Arabia in plate reconstructions for late Neoproterozoic–early Paleozoic time, largely on the basis of

similar sandstone units and less-extensive evaporites (Stöcklin, 1968). However, because sandstones of this age are distributed over a wide region from northern Africa to the Himalayas (Burke and Krauss, 2000; Avigad et al., 2003), their similarity does not demonstrate close proximity. Following presumed passive-margin conditions, an early Mesozoic collision is verified by the Paleotethys suture along the Alborz and Kopet Dag mountains of northern Iran. It is unclear whether collision occurred with a consolidated Eurasia or an isolated Turan block (Fig. 1) later accreted to Eurasia (Stöcklin, 1974; Zonenshain et al., 1990; Lemaire et al., 1997; Besse et al., 1998). Equally uncertain is the timing of the Arabia–Eurasia collision recorded in the Zagros mountains of southern Iran, for which estimates range from Late Cretaceous to late Miocene time (Dewey et al., 1973; Hempton, 1987; Alavi, 1994; McQuarrie et al., 2003; Mohajjel et al., 2003; Alavi, 2004).

The goal of this paper is to use U–Pb detrital zircon geochronology to evaluate the provenance of Neoproterozoic to Cenozoic sedimentary rocks of the Alborz mountains, Zagros mountains, and central Iranian plateau. Detrital zircon provenance studies in other orogenic systems have clarified the collisional records of many continental blocks and accreted terranes (e.g., Gehrels et al., 1990; Thomas et al., 2004; Barbeau et al., 2005; Weislogel et al., 2006). Our preliminary findings, although limited in geographic extent and stratigraphic detail, are among the first detrital zircon ages reported for Iran and provide an initial chronological framework that refines the plate tectonic configuration, collisional timing, and sediment provenance history of Iran. In some cases, the zircon age spectra support previous paleogeographic reconstructions, but in other cases the results raise new questions that pose significant challenges to existing models. We anticipate that additional studies employing detrital zircon geochronology will shed further light on the varied tectonic and stratigraphic problems in Iran and surrounding regions.

## 2. Geological background and unresolved problems

### 2.1. Plate tectonic setting

Iran is regarded as a fragment of Gondwana and assumed to share a Neoproterozoic granitic basement analogous to the Arabian basement formed during and shortly after the 900–600 Ma Pan-African orogeny (Stöcklin, 1968; Becker et al., 1973; Berberian and King, 1981; Sengör, 1987; Davoudzadeh, 1997). With few exceptions (e.g., Ramezani and Tucker, 2003; Hassanzadeh et al., 2008-this volume), most crystalline basement in Iran has not been reliably dated. Broad lithostratigraphic similarities in the cover succession suggest a comparable history of Neoproterozoic to Cenozoic deposition for the Alborz, Zagros, and central Iranian plateau (Fig. 1). On the basis of proposed reconstructions (Stampfli and Borel, 2002; Golonka, 2004), this succession recorded initial rifting from Gondwana, subsequent collision with Eurasia, and final collision with Arabia. For simplicity in this paper, Eurasia generally refers to the southern and central parts of the present Eurasian plate, recognizing that these regions once constituted parts of

Laurussia, Laurasia, and Pangea at different times during the Paleozoic and Mesozoic (Stampfli and Borel, 2002). The Iran plate refers to a collection of smaller blocks, of probable Gondwanan or peri-Gondwanan affinity, that made up part of the larger Cimmerian continent during evolution of the Paleotethys and Neotethys oceans (Sengör, 1987). In these discussions, continental collision is regarded as the elimination of oceanic lithosphere between two continents (e.g., Rowley, 1996).

Phases of plate separation and collision along the northern and southern margins of Iran are defined by potential passive-margin sequences, obducted ophiolites, and detrital overlap assemblages. Although initial rifting of various terranes from Gondwana may have occurred as early as late Neoproterozoic time, Iran lacks a thick miogeoclinal prism of early to middle Paleozoic age (Stöcklin, 1968). A late Paleozoic age is commonly favored for the main phase of rifting of Iran away from Gondwana and resulting growth of Neotethys (e.g., Berberian and King, 1981; Talbot and Alavi, 1996; Stampfli and Borel, 2002). Two suture zones delimit the principal collisional boundaries (Stöcklin, 1974; Haynes and McQuillan, 1974): the Paleotethys (north Iranian or Mashad) suture along the Alborz and Kopet Dag mountains, and the Neotethys (south Iranian or Zagros) suture bordering the hinterland of the Zagros fold-thrust belt (Fig. 1). Although the existence and precise locations of these sutures are debated, most reconstructions indicate that closure of Paleotethys and collision along the northern margin occurred in Triassic or Jurassic time, whereas Neotethys was consumed between Arabia and Iran during the Late Cretaceous or Cenozoic.

### 2.2. Depositional history

#### 2.2.1. Late Neoproterozoic–Cambrian

The oldest strata in Iran consist of sandstones with minor carbonates and volcanic rocks unconformably overlying granitic basement. On the basis of fossils and regional correlations, this ~1-km-thick, primarily clastic basal sequence (including, among others, the Kahar, Bayandor, Soltanieh, Barut, and Lalun formations; Fig. 2) is commonly assigned a late Neoproterozoic or Lower Cambrian age (Stöcklin, 1968, 1974; Berberian and King, 1981; Hamdi et al., 1989; Samani et al., 1994; Alavi, 1996).

The conventional model proposes Neoproterozoic granitic magmatism followed by minor to moderate rifting and strike–slip deformation that generated a post-magmatic Paleozoic passive-margin (Husseini, 1989; Kröner et al., 1992; Stern, 1985; Alsharhan and Kendall, 1986; Stern, 1994; Talbot and Alavi, 1996; Veevers, 2004). An alternative model suggests that newly dated latest Neoproterozoic–Cambrian calc–alkaline magmatism (Ramezani and Tucker, 2003; Hassanzadeh et al., 2008-this volume) may be part of a broader early Paleozoic active margin and contractional orogen potentially linked to a similar early Paleozoic system in the Himalayas (Stöcklin, 1980; DeCelles et al., 2000; Gehrels et al., 2003, 2006a,b; Cawood et al., 2007).

Constraining the provenance of the basal clastic sequence should place further limits on the northward extent of the East African (Pan-African) orogen and its associated clastic wedge

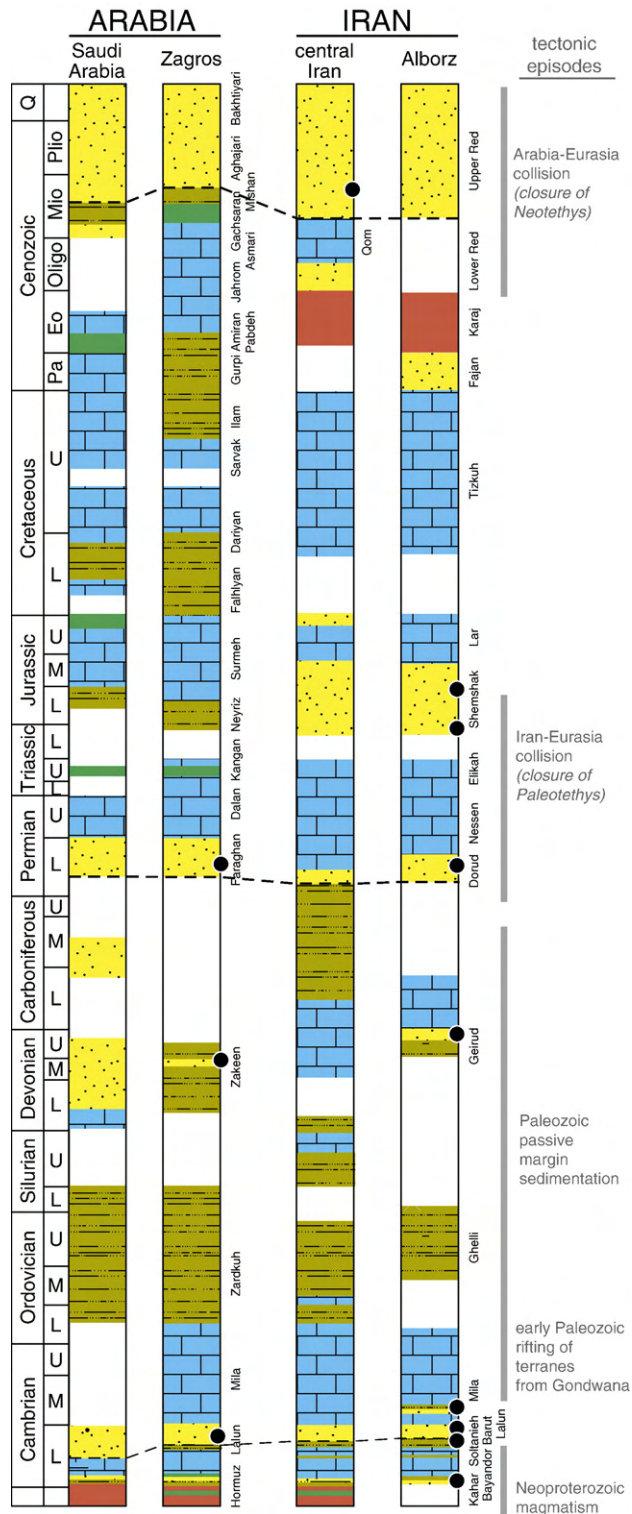


Fig. 2. Upper Neoproterozoic–Cenozoic stratigraphy of the Middle East. Individual columns are depicted for Arabia, southern Iran (Zagros mountains), central Iran, and northern Iran (Alborz mountains). Lithologic patterns include sandstone (yellow stipple), siltstone (brown dashed pattern), carbonate (blue block pattern), evaporite (green), volcanic rocks (orange), and sandstone sample locations (black circles). Stratigraphic gaps are shown by blank (white) intervals. Conventional interpretations and age assignments for tectonic episodes are depicted at the right (after Berberian and King, 1981).

(Jacobs and Thomas, 2004). Cambrian sandstones across northern Africa and western Arabia show derivation from this orogen (Burke and Krauss, 2000; Wilde and Youssef, 2002; Avigad et al., 2003; Kolodner et al., 2006). In addition, greater age control will improve plate reconstructions, placement of the Precambrian–Paleozoic boundary, and studies evaluating possible Neoproterozoic Snowball Earth conditions in the Middle East (e.g., Kimura et al., 1997; Brasier et al., 2000; Leather et al., 2002; Stern et al., 2006).

### 2.2.2. Paleozoic

The upper Neoproterozoic–Cambrian section is overlain conformably by an incomplete, relatively thin (<3 km) Paleozoic succession consisting of carbonate and clastic rocks (Stöcklin, 1968). Deposition is attributed to a platform setting in a poorly developed passive-margin characterized by limited, uneven subsidence. An incomplete and spatially variable Silurian–Carboniferous section across Iran (Fig. 2) suggests periods of nondeposition and erosion (e.g., Ghavidel-Syooki, 1995; Wendt et al., 2005; Ghavidel-Syooki, 2006). Of importance for this study are several units of regional extent. For northern and central Iran, these include the Geirud (Upper Devonian–Lower Carboniferous) and Dorud (Lower Permian) formations (Wendt et al., 2005). In the Zagros of southern Iran, clastic units include the Zakeen (Devonian) and Faraghan (Lower Permian) formations (Ghavidel-Syooki, 2003). Although southern Iran shares lithostratigraphic similarities with central and northern Iran, the proximity of these regions during Paleozoic sedimentation remains unclear. Nevertheless, with few exceptions (e.g., Sengör, 1990), most studies consider Paleozoic Iran to represent shallow-marine passive-margin sedimentation with no significant magmatism or deformation (James and Wynd, 1965; Stöcklin, 1968; Berberian and King, 1981; Berberian and Berberian, 1981; Alsharhan and Kendall, 1986).

### 2.2.3. Mesozoic

The Mesozoic succession contains basal carbonates capped by the extensive Shemshak Formation (Assereto, 1966). The up to 4-km-thick Shemshak (Fig. 2) represents a shift to primarily nonmarine conditions and is deemed the earliest signature of collision between Iran and the Turan block of southern Eurasia (Fig. 2) (Dercourt et al., 1986; Sengör, 1987). Shemshak sandstone, mudstone, and coal lithofacies were deposited across the Paleotethys suture (Stöcklin, 1974; Stampfli, 1978; Alavi, 1991, 1996), with distal facies in central to northern Iran and proximal synorogenic facies in the Turan block to the north. The age of Shemshak deposition, and therefore timing of syn- to post-collisional deformation, has been attributed to Late Triassic to Middle Jurassic time (Seyed-Emami et al., 2006). Capping the Shemshak is ~5 km of Middle Jurassic to Eocene carbonates (Fig. 2) representing a marine shelf across most of the Middle East (Koop and Stoneley, 1982; Alsharhan and Kendall, 1986; Stoneley, 1990; Haq and Al-Qahtani, 2005).

### 2.2.4. Cenozoic

Cenozoic strata record a transition from marine carbonate deposition to nonmarine clastic sedimentation (Fig. 2) related to

collision of Arabia with Iran along the southern margin of Eurasia. The timing of the Arabia–Eurasia collision is debated. In one model, collision is linked to southward ophiolite obduction onto the Arabian margin (including Oman) and coeval deposition of an Upper Cretaceous–lower Eocene clastic wedge (Gurpi–Amiran–Pabdeh succession) shed southward into a marine foreland basin (Glennie et al., 1973; Koop and Stoneley, 1982; Beydoun et al., 1992; Alavi, 1994, 2004; Sepehr and Cosgrove, 2004). In other models, collision is considered to occur significantly later during Eocene–Oligocene (Hempton, 1987; Yilmaz, 1993), early Miocene (Allen et al., 2004; Robertson et al., 2006), or late Miocene time (Axen et al., 2001; McQuarrie et al., 2003). Many studies attribute the coarse-grained Bakhtiyari Formation to collision-related uplift, but age estimates vary from the Pliocene (James and Wynd, 1965; Falcon, 1974; Homke et al., 2004) to late Oligocene–early Miocene (Fakhari et al., 2008–this volume). In the central Iranian plateau (Fig. 1), Oligocene to Pliocene strata of the Lower Red, Qom, and Upper Red formations contain erosional products from the Alborz to the north and the Urumieh–Dokhtar belt and Sanandaj–Sirjan zone to the south (Tillman et al., 1981; Amini, 1997; Guest et al., 2007). In addition to the detrital record, intense magmatism followed by a cessation of igneous activity in the Urumieh–Dokhtar belt of central Iran (Fig. 1) could provide a measure of final arc magmatism related to northward subduction and/or breakoff of the Neotethys slab (Berberian and Berberian, 1981; McQuarrie et al., 2003; Ghasemi and Talbot, 2006).

### 3. U–Pb geochronology

#### 3.1. Methods

Detrital zircons were analyzed from 14 Neoproterozoic to Miocene medium-grained sandstones of the Alborz, Zagros, and central Iranian plateau (Table 1). U–Pb analyses were carried out using the Cameca IMS 1270 ion microprobe at the University of California, Los Angeles following procedures outlined by Schmitt et al. (2003a,b) and Quidelleur et al. (1997).

Zircon grains were separated by standard heavy liquid and magnetic techniques, randomly selected, mounted in epoxy, and polished. Grain mounts were ultrasonically washed in 2 mol HCl for 2 min, rinsed with deionized water, then coated with  $\sim 100$  Å of gold. Operating conditions involved a primary  $O^-$  ion beam focused to a spot of  $\sim 30$   $\mu\text{m}$  diameter, a secondary ion beam yielding a mass resolving power of 5000 with an energy window of 50 eV, and an analysis duration of 8–10 cycles with primary beam presputtering for 120–180 s. To enhance secondary ionization of  $Pb^+$ , the sample chamber was flooded with oxygen at  $\sim 3 \times 10^{-5}$  Torr. Zircon standard AS-3 ( $1099 \pm 0.5$  Ma; Paces and Miller, 1993) was used to determine Pb/U relative sensitivity. Corrections for common Pb were made using measured  $^{204}\text{Pb}$  (Stacey and Kramers, 1975) and  $^{208}\text{Pb}$ , after correction for  $^{232}\text{Th}$ -derived  $^{208}\text{Pb}$  (Compston et al., 1984), as a proxy for common  $^{206}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{207}\text{Pb}$ . The corrections employed anthropogenic Pb compositions appropriate for the Los Angeles basin (Sanudo-Wilhelmy and Flegel, 1994).

A total of 589 concordant and discordant ages are presented, with age uncertainties reported at the  $1\sigma$  level (Table 2). About 70% of analyses yielded concordant ages; the remaining ages exhibited  $>20\%$  discordance. Systematic reverse discordance for some analyses is expressed as geologically unreasonable  $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$  ages, typically much younger than the range of plausible depositional ages. This problem reflects the diminished signal of  $^{207}\text{Pb}$  during in-situ analyses of Neoproterozoic–Phanerozoic zircons; for clarity, the most unreasonable  $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$  ages are not reported. Less than 5% of the analyses were excluded due to measured UO/U and/or  $U/^{94}\text{Zr}_2\text{O}$  ratios beyond the range observed in analyses of standard AS-3. The preferred ages generally represent  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$  ages for  $<1000$  Ma grains and  $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$  ages for  $>1000$  Ma grains (Table 2). All reported ages are plotted on relative age probability diagrams, with results for each sample normalized to yield equal areas beneath probability curves. For one case (PC5, Table 1), due to limited analyses, we combine the age results of three samples (from the Lalun, Barut, and Mila formations). Although the individual results for these three samples are not drastically different, particular caution must be exercised in interpretation of composite

Table 1  
Sample information

ID	Sample	N lat. (°)	E long. (°)	Formation (reported age)	Stratigraphic level
PC1	03AKHe3 (JH)	36.105	50.851	Kahar (1)	$\sim 150$ m below top
PC2	05BY1 (JH)	36.568	48.403	Bayandor (1)	$\sim 30$ m above base
PC3	BG5-19 (BG)	36.315	51.000	Lalun (1)	$\sim 100$ m above base
PC4	LJ-13-10-6 (YG)	31.782	50.793	Lalun (1)	$\sim 150$ m above base
PC5	KJ007 (DS)	36.061	51.310	Lalun (1)	$\sim 5$ m above base
PC5	KJ008 (DS)	36.050	51.314	Barut (1)	$\sim 3$ m above base
PC5	SH5-5 (BG)	36.348	50.942	Mila (2)	$\sim 80$ m above base
PZ1	05MO1 (JH)	35.998	51.480	Geirud (4)	$\sim 100$ m above base
PZ2	05DO1 (JH)	36.018	51.474	Dorud (5)	$\sim 100$ m above base
PZ3	MZA-92 (MZ)	28.087	55.947	Zakeen (3)	$\sim 92$ m above base
PZ4	MZA-217 (MZ)	28.090	55.940	Faraghan (5)	$\sim 60$ m above base
MZ1	KJ006 (DS)	36.083	51.318	Shemshak (6)	$\sim 120$ m above base
MZ2	ZJ004 (DS)	36.529	48.371	Shemshak (6)	$\sim 150$ m above base
CZ1	20-35-2 (GA)	36.226	50.981	Upper Red equivalent (7)	$\sim 500$ m above base

Stratigraphic ages (in parentheses): (1) Neoproterozoic–Lower Cambrian; (2) Middle Cambrian; (3) Devonian; (4) Upper Devonian–Lower Carboniferous; (5) Lower Permian; (6) Upper Triassic–Middle Jurassic; (7) Miocene.























sample PC5. A more general consideration for this dataset pertains to the number of grains analyzed per sample. An attempt was made to obtain acceptable ages for 50 zircons per sample. However, provided 50 single-grain analyses, there remains a possibility that potentially significant age components within the sample were not identified (e.g., Dodson et al., 1988; Fedo et al., 2003).

To address the depositional age of sampled stratigraphic levels, a mean U–Pb age was calculated for the youngest zircon age population observed in each sample. In all but one case, the five youngest grains identified in each sample yield a unimodal age probability distribution, suggesting a single robust population. For the exception (sample MZ2), the five youngest grains define two separate populations. In all cases, the calculated mean age is considered to represent the maximum depositional age of the sampled horizon. Therefore, although the age of deposition can be no older than the calculated mean age (and reported  $2\sigma$  error), it could be considerably younger. Nevertheless, as discussed below, the calculated mean ages likely approximate the true depositional age in several cases where the mean ages correspond to previously assigned stratigraphic ages and/or sampled units were deposited during synchronous magmatic activity (e.g., Fildani et al., 2003; DeCelles et al., 2007). The discussion of reported ages uses the timescale of Gradstein et al. (2004).

### 3.2. Late Neoproterozoic–Cambrian

Similar detrital zircon ages for the oldest stratigraphic units in Iran are suggestive of a common sediment source during late Neoproterozoic–Cambrian sedimentation. Four Alborz sandstones (PC1–PC3 and PC5) and one Zagros sandstone (PC4) from the Kahar, Bayandor, Barut, Lalun, and Mila formations yield primary age probability peaks at 600 Ma with a concentration of ages from 950 to 550 Ma (Fig. 3), including peaks at 780 and 860 Ma. Secondary age peaks occur (in order of decreasing magnitude) at 2500, 1880, and 1020 Ma. Several upsection trends are observed: (1) the 780 and 2500 Ma peaks become emergent from lower to upper levels; and (2) whereas the two lower samples both reveal a unimodal age distribution with a 600 Ma peak, the three upper samples show a more cosmopolitan distribution (Fig. 3; Table 2). These trends are attributed to unroofing of regions that contributed a progressively greater variety of zircons from older provinces.

The maximum depositional ages are represented by the mean U–Pb ages of the five youngest zircons in samples PC1–PC5:  $537 \pm 29$  Ma,  $559 \pm 28$  Ma,  $544 \pm 38$  Ma,  $573 \pm 22$  Ma, and  $559 \pm 36$  Ma. Because these mean ages are younger than previously reported stratigraphic ages and coincide with syndepositional

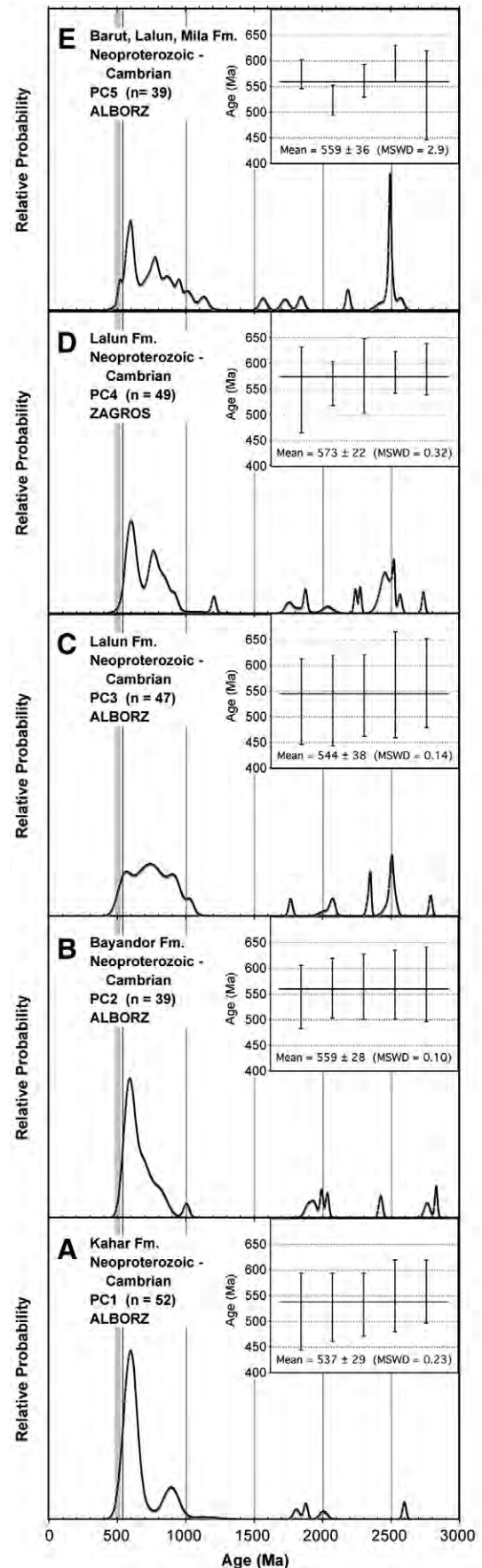


Fig. 3. Relative age probability diagrams displaying the U–Pb detrital zircon age distributions for upper Neoproterozoic–Cambrian sandstone samples PC1–PC5. Diagrams are arranged in chronostratigraphic order (older strata at the base), with vertical gray bands indicating previously assigned depositional ages. Inset plots depict individual U–Pb ages of the five youngest zircons for each sample. (A) Kahar Formation (Alborz). (B) Bayandor Formation (Alborz). (C) Lalun Formation (Alborz). (D) Lalun Formation (Zagros). (E) Barut–Lalun–Mila formations (Alborz).



volcanism (Stöcklin, 1968, 1974; Berberian and King, 1981; Samani et al., 1994), we regard them as approximations of true depositional ages. Although an upsection age progression is not observed, the mean ages all overlap within error, suggesting accumulation of the entire sampled interval during the very latest Neoproterozoic and Early Cambrian. Considering the relatively large age errors, we tentatively suggest that earliest sediment accumulation commenced in the latest Neoproterozoic prior to the Precambrian–Cambrian boundary (542 Ma). Deposition of the basal clastic sequence was complete by the end of Early Cambrian time (513 Ma), in agreement with the Middle to Late Cambrian age assigned for overlying fossiliferous carbonates (Ghavidel-Syooki, 2006). However, given the overlapping ages, we cannot rule out deposition of the entire basal clastic sequence over a shorter interval in the latest Proterozoic–Early Cambrian. The lack of an exposed basal contact for the lowermost unit (Kahar Formation) of the basal clastic sequence further precludes definitive statements regarding the precise onset of sediment accumulation in the region. Nevertheless, the data are in agreement with a depositional age constrained between 627 Ma and 533 Ma for the Tashk Formation in central Iran, a lateral equivalent of the Kahar Formation (Ramezani and Tucker, 2003).

U–Pb ages for PC1–PC5 approximately match detrital zircon results for upper Neoproterozoic–Cambrian sandstones of Israel, Jordan, and possibly Egypt (Fig. 4) (Kröner et al., 1990; Wilde and Youssef, 2002; Avigad et al., 2003; Kolodner et al., 2006). Cumulative age probability distributions for Iran and the Elat region of Israel (Fig. 4D) highlight their similarity in terms of age probabilities in the 950 to 550 Ma range and concentrations at 600 Ma and 2500 Ma. The observed age populations for Iran (PC1–PC5), Israel, Jordan, and Egypt correspond to the Arabian–Nubian shield of the western Arabian peninsula and northeastern Africa (Fig. 1A). Basement rocks of this shield exhibit a preponderance of 900–600 Ma ages (Johnson and Woldehaimanot, 2003), consistent with crustal growth during and after the main (Pan-African) phase of construction of the East African orogen (Stern, 1994; Jacobs and Thomas, 2004). Although less prevalent, a concentration of 2600–2400 Ma ages revealed by isotopic and geochronologic evidence from the Arabian–Nubian shield (Windley et al., 1996; Collins and Pisarevsky, 2005; Hargrove et al., 2006; Stoesser and Frost, 2006) is further compatible with a secondary peak observed in our samples.

The similarity of Iranian detrital zircon ages reported here to age-equivalent deposits presently >2000 km to the west and south (Fig. 1A) suggests several possibilities. First, sediment may have been provided by multiple local sediment sources in Iran that share a basement similar to the Arabian–Nubian shield. However, emerging U–Pb data for the Alborz and central Iran suggest a relatively uniform basement limited to latest Neoproterozoic–Early Cambrian age, from roughly 600 to 520 Ma (Lam, 2002; Ramezani and Tucker, 2003; Hassanzadeh et al., 2008–this volume). The lack of a significant population of older, pre-600 Ma ages and the uniform regional stratigraphy for the Neoproterozoic–Cambrian section (Stöcklin, 1968; Berberian and King, 1981) is inconsistent with many localized sources areas. Therefore, we favor an alternative explanation in which

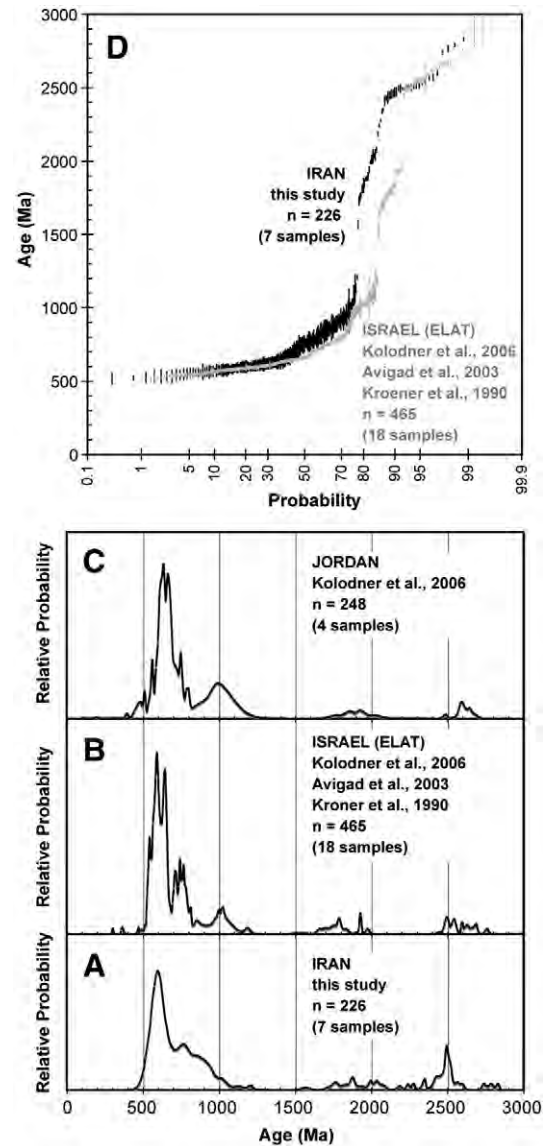


Fig. 4. (A–D) Relative age probability diagrams displaying U–Pb detrital zircon age distributions for Neoproterozoic–Cambrian sandstones from (A) Iran (samples PC1–PC5), (B) Elat region of Israel, and (C) Jordan. (D) Cumulative age probability distributions of U–Pb ages for Iran (this study) and the Elat region of Israel, depicting the same data plotted in (A) and (B).

late Neoproterozoic–Cambrian unroofing of the Arabian–Nubian shield and other parts of the East African orogen influenced a vast area across northern Africa and the Middle East. Such source regions contain significant quantities of not only latest Neoproterozoic–Cambrian but also pre-600 Ma igneous rocks (Stern, 1994; Johnson and Woldehaimanot, 2003). Because the age of earliest sedimentation is older in northern Africa (e.g., Shalaby et al., 2006), this interpretation suggests northward and eastward expansion of clastic depositional systems from the East African orogen toward Iran.

### 3.3. Middle to Late Paleozoic

Detrital zircon analyses of four Devonian to Lower Permian samples (PZ1–PZ4) reveal evidence of Paleozoic magmatism in

Iran. Two Alborz sandstones from the Upper Devonian–Lower Carboniferous Geirud Formation (PZ1) and Lower Permian Dorud Formation (PZ2) reveal unimodal U–Pb age spectra in which the largest population of grains is defined by zircons slightly older or indistinguishable from the assigned depositional age of the host unit. Specifically, the Geirud and Dorud formations yield unimodal age probability peaks of 370 and 325 Ma, and mean U–Pb ages for the five youngest zircons of  $348 \pm 19$  Ma and  $294 \pm 18$  Ma, respectively (Fig. 5A and B). We attribute these age patterns to derivation from youthful igneous sources during Late Devonian to Early Permian time. The lateral extent of these mature quartzose sandstone units throughout the Alborz and the dominance of youthful sources suggest that detrital zircons were first-cycle grains derived from an igneous source of regional importance. Most previous reports of igneous rocks in the Alborz are limited to basaltic lava flows in the Devonian to Carboniferous section (Wensink et al., 1978; Wendt et al., 2005) and clasts of granite and andesite in conglomerates intercalated within the Silurian Soltan Meydan basalt flows (Jenny, 1977; Stampfli, 1978; Delaloye et al., 1981). East of the Alborz, local occurrences of Silurian–Devonian igneous rocks have been reported north of the Paleotethys suture in the Kopet Dagh mountains (Fig. 1) (Lyberis et al., 1998). West of the Alborz, Devonian metamorphic rocks are known in the Talesh Mountains (Berberian and King, 1981; Sengör, 1990). Additional, but much smaller, peaks in the zircon age spectra occur at 580, 800, 1010, and 1820 Ma (Fig. 5A and B).

In the Zagros, Devonian and Lower Permian sandstones (PZ3, PZ4) yield consistent zircon age spectra suggestive of Neoproterozoic sources and a previously undocumented igneous source of early Paleozoic age. Both samples yield age spectra with peaks at 595, 760, 870, 950, and 2460 Ma (Fig. 5C and D), corresponding to the principally Neoproterozoic ages reported above for uppermost Neoproterozoic–Cambrian rocks (Fig. 3). However, a presence of Paleozoic zircons is defined by the mean ages of the five youngest zircons for the Devonian Zakeen (PZ3) and Lower Permian Faraghan (PZ4) formations:  $486 \pm 26$  Ma and  $500 \pm 30$  Ma, respectively. These ages are attributed to Cambrian and possibly Ordovician magmatism in the source area(s). To our knowledge, no reliable evidence for significant Paleozoic magmatism after 550 Ma has been presented for the Zagros or Arabian margin (e.g., Berberian and Berberian, 1981; Sengör, 1990). We tentatively suggest derivation from magmatic sources of limited extent in the Zagros, other parts of Arabia, or possibly northeast Africa where Ordovician anorogenic intrusions are observed (Guiraud et al., 2005).

#### 3.4. Mesozoic

U–Pb detrital zircon ages for lower Mesozoic strata of the Alborz reveal an important shift in provenance. Two samples of the Triassic–Jurassic Shemshak Formation (MZ1, MZ2) display notable age peaks, including Carboniferous–Early Triassic (320–220 Ma) and late Paleoproterozoic (1900–1800 Ma) ages

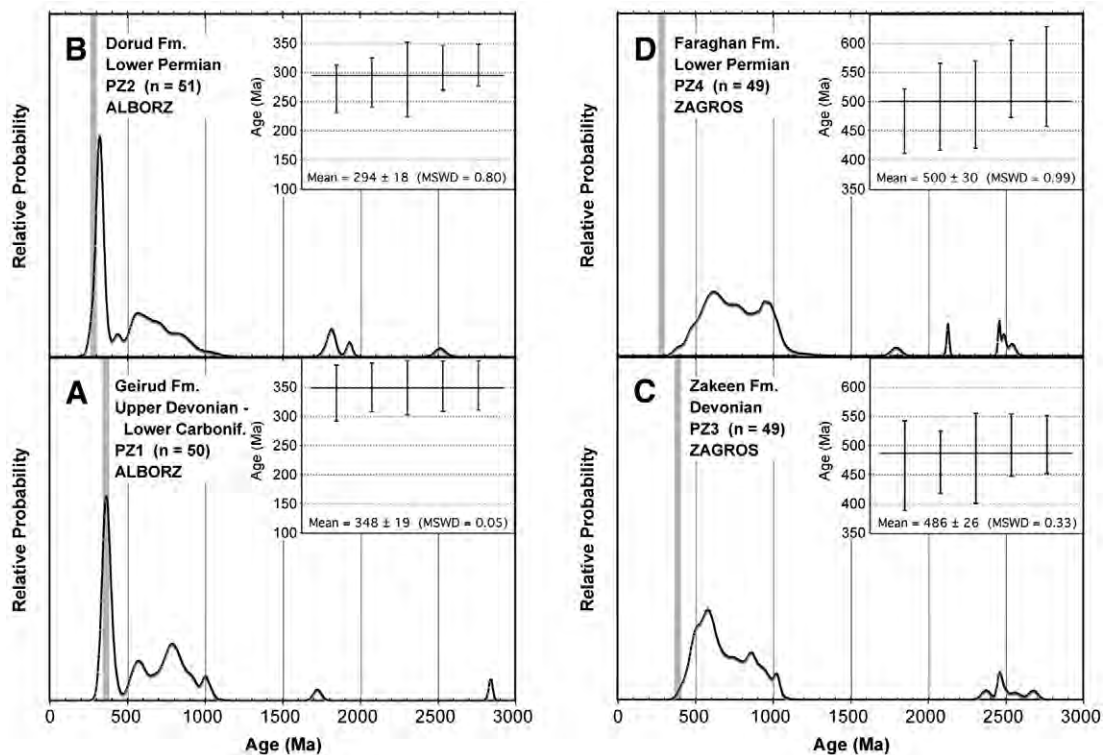


Fig. 5. Relative age probability diagrams displaying the U–Pb detrital zircon age distributions for Devonian to Permian sandstone samples PZ1–PZ4. Diagrams are arranged in chronostratigraphic order (older strata at the base), with vertical gray bands indicating previously assigned depositional ages. Inset plots depict individual U–Pb ages of the five youngest zircons for each sample. (A) Geirud Formation (Alborz). (B) Dorud Formation (Alborz). (C) Zakeen Formation (Zagros). (D) Faraghan Formation (Zagros).

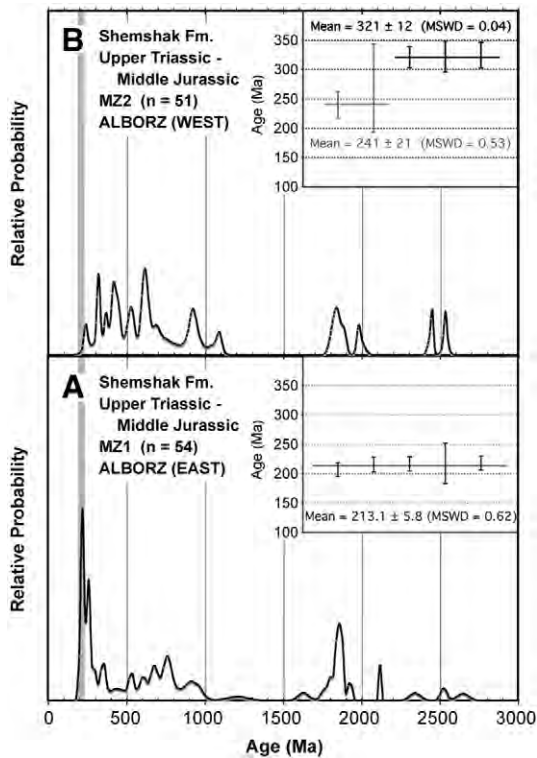


Fig. 6. Relative age probability diagrams displaying the U–Pb detrital zircon age distributions for Mesozoic sandstone samples MZ1 and MZ2. Diagrams are arranged in chronostratigraphic order (older strata at the base), with vertical gray bands indicating previously assigned depositional ages. Inset plots depict individual U–Pb ages of the five youngest zircons for each sample. (A) Shemshak Formation (eastern Alborz). (B) Shemshak Formation (western Alborz).

(Fig. 6). These ages are rarely observed in adjacent regions of Gondwana, but are consistent with magmatism in the Caucasus mountains and parts of the East European craton (including the Scythian platform; Fig. 1A) of south-central Eurasia (Nikishin et al., 1996). Such evidence supports collision of Iran with Eurasia by the time of Shemshak deposition. Whereas the eastern Shemshak sample (MZ1) exhibits prominent age peaks at 220, 260, and 1860 Ma, the western sample (MZ2) has age peaks at 320, 610, 425, 525, and 1840 Ma (Fig. 6). Furthermore, whereas MZ1 yields a mean U–Pb age of  $213 \pm 5.8$  Ma (early Late Triassic) for the five youngest zircons, MZ2 yields two young populations of Carboniferous and Early Triassic age (Fig. 6). These spatial variations in Shemshak provenance are attributed to two northern sediment sources in Eurasia (Fig. 1): (1) a probable northeastern source composed of principally Triassic magmatic arc rocks in the Turan block north of the Kopet Dagh mountains (Rastsvetaev, 1997; Thomas et al., 1999; Garzanti and Gaetani, 2002); and (2) a probable northwestern source involving prolonged middle to late Paleozoic magmatic arcs near the Caucasus mountains along the border of the Scythian platform (Khain and Koronovsky, 1997; Allen et al., 2006). These results are consistent with facies trends suggesting generally southward transport of Shemshak sediment (Assereto, 1966; Dercourt et al., 1986; Alavi, 1996). The data, however, do not rule out additional contributions from

local sediment sources such as Late Triassic plutons reported in east-central Iran (Ramezani and Tucker, 2003).

For sample MZ1, the youngest age peak of 220 Ma and a mean age for the five youngest zircons of  $213 \pm 5.8$  Ma (Fig. 6A) are indistinguishable from the oldest reported depositional age of late Carnian–early Norian (early Late Triassic) for the lower Shemshak Formation (Assereto, 1966; Stöcklin, 1974; Stampfli, 1978). We therefore consider these young zircon ages to accurately represent the timing of early Shemshak deposition, thus providing a minimum estimate for the age of the Iran–Eurasia collision.

### 3.5. Cenozoic

A single Cenozoic sample from north-central Iran helps define the exhumation record of the Alborz and/or Urumieh–Dokhtar belt during regional uplift driven by the Arabia collision. The Miocene sandstone (CZ1) is from the Taleghan basin of the southernmost Alborz (Table 1), which shared a depositional history similar to the Upper Red Formation of the central Iranian plateau (Guest et al., 2007). Detrital zircons from this sandstone reveal a single substantial age probability peak of 50 Ma (Fig. 7). The calculated mean U–Pb age of the five youngest zircons is  $46.1 \pm 4.2$  Ma, including a single-grain age of  $33.3 \pm 7.1$  Ma (Table 2). These data are consistent with a major contribution of zircon from well-known Eocene volcanic rocks of the Alborz mountains to the north and/or the Urumieh–Dokhtar belt to the south (Fig. 1). This volcanism may be attributed to late-stage northward subduction and/or breakoff of the Neotethys or related slab (Hassanzadeh et al., 2002; McQuarrie et al., 2003; Hassanzadeh et al., 2004; Ghasemi and Talbot, 2006). The pronounced shortage of Oligocene–Miocene zircon populations within the Miocene sandstone is consistent with roughly late Eocene termination of major volcanism due to the Arabia collision.

A secondary peak at 450 Ma (Fig. 7) is in agreement with evidence presented above for Ordovician zircon crystallization expressed in Paleozoic sandstones of the Zagros. During the Cenozoic, however, these Ordovician zircons may also have

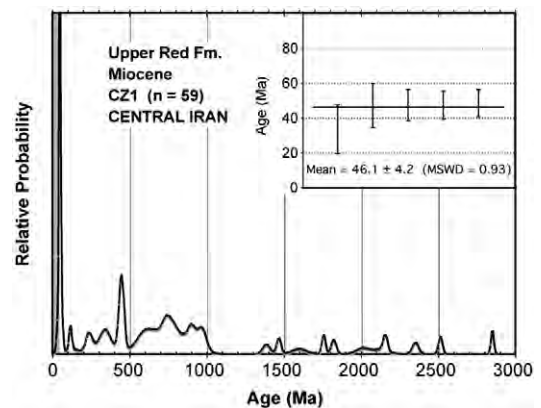


Fig. 7. Relative age probability diagram displaying the U–Pb detrital zircon age distribution for Cenozoic sandstone sample CZ1 from north-central Iran. Vertical gray band indicates previously assigned depositional age. Inset plot depicts individual U–Pb ages of the five youngest zircons.

originated from a non-Gondwanan sediment source such as the Paleozoic arc rocks of the Eurasian plate to the north. A suite of minor peaks include the following ages (in order of decreasing magnitude): 750, 905, 970, 120, 345, and 240 Ma. The large range of Late Archean to Cretaceous ages in this sample probably reflects recycling of older strata to the north in the Alborz or to the south in the Urumieh–Dokhtar belt or Sanandaj–Sirjan zone (Fig. 1). Although sediment sources exist to both the north and south, clast compositions and paleocurrent data suggest that the sampled interval was derived from uplifted parts of the Alborz (Amini, 1997; Guest et al., 2007).

#### 4. Discussion

##### 4.1. Pan-African signatures in Iran

Some plate reconstructions propose late Neoproterozoic–Cambrian extension with possible rifting of peri-Gondwanan terranes away from Arabia and/or Iran (Fig. 8A) (Stöcklin, 1968; Falcon, 1974; Berberian and King, 1981; Husseini, 1989; Talbot and Alavi, 1996). However, the U–Pb detrital zircon ages reported here for upper Neoproterozoic–Cambrian sandstones of Iran are comparable to zircon age spectra from age-equivalent units presently >2000 km to the west and south in Israel (Elat region), Jordan, and Egypt (Fig. 4). All of these units are dominated by Pan-African (900–600 Ma) sources with similar pre-Neoproterozoic signatures. One possibility is that Iran shares a Pan-African basement similar to these other regions and exposed basement sources within Iran supplied sediment to localized Neoproterozoic–Cambrian basins. The available basement ages for Iran (Ramezani and Tucker, 2003; Hassanzadeh et al., 2008-this volume), however, lack the significant pre-600 Ma signatures observed in the detrital age populations. Therefore, although Iranian basement may have contributed some sediment, the main sources were likely located in basement provinces of Arabia and Africa, particularly the Arabian–Nubian shield. In this scenario, Iran, Arabia, and northern Africa were all part of an extensive clastic wedge sharing source regions of similar age. The ultimate sources consisted of basement provinces of the East African orogen uplifted during Neoproterozoic collision of East and West Gondwana during the Pan-African orogeny (Stern, 1994; Jacobs and Thomas, 2004; Cox et al., 2004; Fitzsimons and Hulscher, 2005). The new U–Pb geochronological data indicate that Iran was near Arabia and constituted part of Gondwana during the early Paleozoic. Although in conflict with some reconstructions, little or no separation of Iran from Gondwana during late Neoproterozoic to Permian time (Fig. 8A) is consistent with the principally shallow-marine facies and limited thickness of the Paleozoic succession of the Alborz, Zagros, and central Iranian plateau (Stöcklin, 1968).

Although the broad extent of Pan-African magmatism and subsequent shelf deposition may suggest a passive-margin setting, a lack of evidence for substantial rifting or continuous subsidence in latest Precambrian to early Paleozoic Iran is considered more compatible with recent models suggesting a subduction zone boundary and contractional orogenic belt along the Gondwanan margin from Iran (Fig. 8B) (e.g., Ramezani and Tucker, 2003; Hassanzadeh et al., 2008-this volume) to the Himalayas (Stöcklin, 1980; DeCelles et al., 2000; Gehrels et al., 2003, 2006a,b; Cawood et al., 2007). Furthermore, such an active margin may explain emerging evidence for early Paleozoic igneous activity, including the proportion of <550 Ma detrital zircons identified in this study.

##### 4.2. Sources of Paleozoic magmatic rocks

U–Pb detrital zircon ages for middle to late Paleozoic strata in the Alborz and Zagros mountains reveal an unexpected contribution from Paleozoic igneous sources (Fig. 5). Most notable is the dominance of zircon ages nearly indistinguishable from the Late Devonian to Early Permian depositional ages of the Geirud and Dorud formations in northern Iran. The unimodal age spectra indicate a significant supply of first-cycle igneous detritus ranging from roughly 390 to 280 Ma (Fig. 5A and B; Table 2). In the Zagros, sandstones of Late Devonian to Early Permian age exhibit a much smaller fraction of Paleozoic igneous grains which cluster around 500 Ma (Table 2). The collective results for the Alborz and Zagros conflict with conventional models in which Iran was dominated by an amagmatic passive margin throughout the Paleozoic (Fig. 8C).

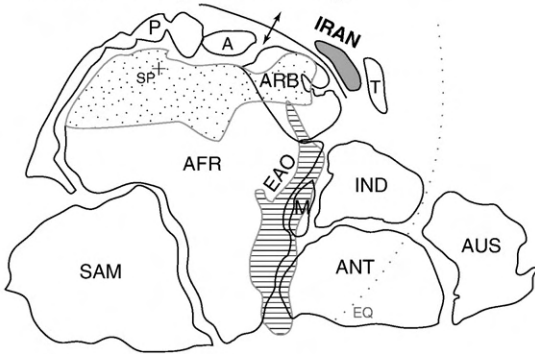
We envision three scenarios to explain the Alborz data. First, igneous grains may have been transported long distances from Paleozoic magmatic arcs in southern and eastern Gondwana (e.g., Sengör, 1987; Metcalfe, 1996). This model would require transport of primary arc detritus thousands of kilometers without significant dilution by other source areas, a prediction contrary to the sediment mixing behavior of large river systems (e.g., DeGraaff-Surpless et al., 2003; Mapes et al., 2005). Second, the igneous grains may have been derived from southern Eurasia, where the Caucasus mountains and Turan block contain remnants of middle to late Paleozoic magmatic arcs (Khain and Koronovsky, 1997; Thomas et al., 1999; Garzanti and Gaetani, 2002; Allen et al., 2006). This model would place the Alborz in close proximity to Eurasia by roughly 350 Ma, ~150 My earlier than assumed (Stampfli and Borel, 2002). In this case, the Alborz would be of Eurasian rather than Gondwanan affinity and the poorly located Paleotethys suture would lie along the southern rather than northern margin of the Alborz (compare Stöcklin, 1974 with Ruttner, 1993). Alternatively, a third possibility is that poorly identified Paleozoic magmatism affected the Alborz or

Fig. 8. Simplified plate reconstructions depicting conventional models (left column) and alternative models (right column) relevant to interpretation of detrital zircon ages for Iran. (A) Neoproterozoic rifting and Paleozoic passive-margin subsidence. (B) Neoproterozoic–early Paleozoic subduction along northern Gondwanan margin. (C) Paleozoic northward motion of Iran during amagmatic opening of Paleotethys. (D) Paleozoic magmatism related to Paleotethys rifting and/or poorly documented arc systems. (E) Late Triassic Iran–Eurasia collision and Paleotethys closure. (F) Eurasia collision in which northern Iran (Alborz) was attached to the Turan block (southern Eurasia) prior to collision with central Iran. (G) Arabia–Eurasia collision and Neotethys closure during late Miocene time. (H) Middle Eocene to Oligocene Arabia–Eurasia collision following intensified magmatism in the Urumieh–Dokhtar arc. Modified from Berberian and King (1981); Dercourt et al. (1986); Stern (1994); Stampfli and Borel (2002); Ramezani and Tucker (2003); Jacobs and Thomas (2004). See text for discussion.

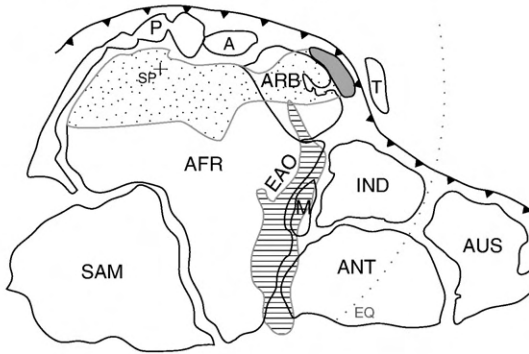
**CONVENTIONAL RECONSTRUCTIONS**

**ALTERNATIVE RECONSTRUCTIONS**

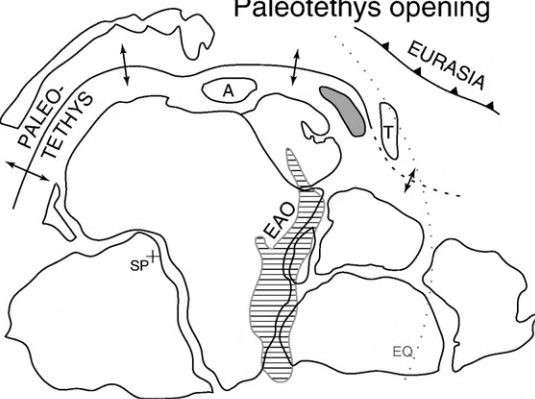
**A** 550 Ma: passive margin



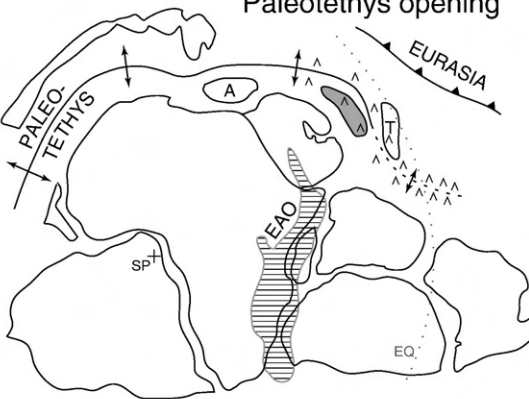
**B** 550 Ma: active margin



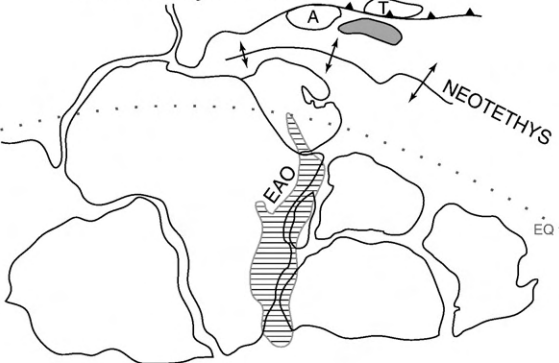
**C** 400 Ma: amagmatic rifting, Paleotethys opening



**D** 400 Ma: rifting with magmatism, Paleotethys opening



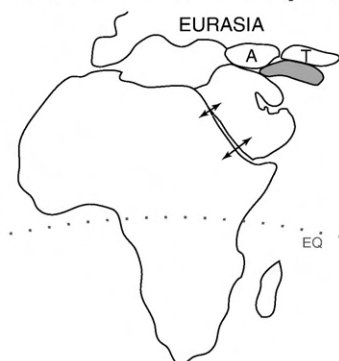
**E** 210 Ma: collision with Turan, Paleotethys closure



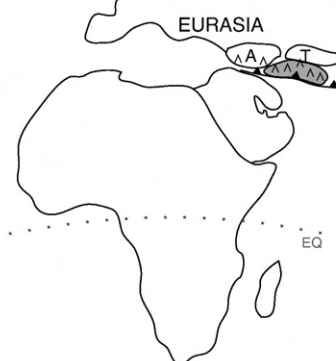
**F** 210 Ma: collision with N. Iran-Turan, Paleotethys closure



**G** 10 Ma: Red Sea rifting, Arabia collision, Neotethys closure



**H** 45-25 Ma: magmatic flareup, Arabia collision, Neotethys closure



**SMALL PLATES**

-  Iran plate
- T: Turan
- A: Anatolia
- M: Madagascar
- P: Peri-Gondwanan Europe blocks

**LARGE PLATES**

- SAM: South America
- AFR: Africa
- ARB: Arabia
- IND: India
- ANT: Antarctica
- AUS: Australia



high-grade rocks in core of East African Orogen (EAO)



Pan-African clastic wedge derived from EAO



volcanism



subduction zone



spreading ridge

SP<sup>+</sup> South Pole

EQ Equator

bordering regions (Fig. 8D). Minor, principally mafic, extrusive and intrusive rocks of Ordovician–Carboniferous age have been reported (Wensink et al., 1978; Stampfli et al., 1991; Alavi, 1996; Wendt et al., 2005), but there are few candidates for significant igneous centers capable of supplying the dominant zircon age populations. Nevertheless, we tentatively favor this third model and postulate that poorly dated igneous rocks may include a record of Paleozoic zircon crystallization in the Alborz. This model is consistent with Paleozoic paleobotanical evidence and basement ages indicating a Gondwanan affinity for the Alborz (Ghavidel-Syooki, 1995, 2006; Hassanzadeh et al., 2008-this volume). Although poorly understood, middle to late Paleozoic magmatism may be the product of intra-arc or back-arc spreading related to opening of Paleotethys (e.g., Stampfli et al., 1991; Nikishin et al., 1996; Kostyuchenko et al., 2004) and northward transport of peri-Gondwanan and Cimmerian terranes across Paleotethys (Fig. 8D) (e.g., Stampfli and Borel, 2002; Keppie et al., 2003; von Raumer et al., 2003; Murphy et al., 2004).

#### 4.3. Timing of Iran–Eurasia collision

Collisional tectonics in Iran commenced with early Mesozoic northward accretion of Iran to the Turan block (Stöcklin, 1974; Zonenshain et al. 1990). At this time, Turan (Fig. 1) may have been part of an amalgamated Eurasia or an isolated block to the south (Zonenshain et al., 1990; Lemaire et al., 1997; Besse et al., 1998; Golonka, 2004). Detrital zircon signatures reported here for the Shemshak overlap assemblage in northern Iran are dominated by a range of 360–210 Ma ages (Fig. 6), consistent with derivation from Carboniferous–Triassic magmatic arcs forming part of the Variscan basement of the Turan block (Rastsvetaev, 1997; Thomas et al., 1999; Garzanti and Gaetani, 2002) (Fig. 8E). An alternative or additional contributor of zircon may have included similar basement rocks comprising the Scythian platform and Caucasus mountains west of the Caspian Sea (Fig. 1) (Natal'in and Sengör, 2005; Allen et al., 2006).

The presence of 1700–2700 Ma detrital zircons in the Shemshak Formation (Fig. 6) demonstrates an additional sediment source beyond the Turan block and Scythian platform. The likeliest source of these older grains is the East European Craton to the north (Fig. 1), which contains some of the only known Archean and Paleoproterozoic basement in the broader Caspian region (Nikishin et al., 1996; Claesson et al., 2001; Kostyuchenko et al., 2004; Allen et al., 2006). Such a source would require collision of the Turan block with Eurasia prior to Shemshak deposition. As outlined in the second of three models mentioned above (Section 4.2), one could envision collision of northern Iran with the Turan block prior to final collision with Eurasia by Late Triassic time (Fig. 8F). However, such a history would be at odds with stratigraphic and paleomagnetic data for the late Paleozoic–early Mesozoic record (e.g., Stöcklin, 1974; Stampfli, 1978; Besse et al., 1998). We therefore favor the conventional model (Fig. 8E), as outlined by Hassanzadeh et al. (2008-this volume).

The Shemshak has long been recognized as an overlap assemblage recording the Turan–Iran collision, but the reported age assignments span >60 Myr from Late Triassic to Middle Jurassic time (e.g., Seyed-Emami et al., 2006). The zircon ages

reported here constrain the maximum age of Shemshak deposition. A mean age of  $213 \pm 5.8$  Ma for the five youngest U–Pb ages (Fig. 6) indicates that deposition was underway by late Carnian–early Norian (early Late Triassic) time and provides a new estimate for the timing of the Iran–Eurasia collision. Because the Shemshak overlaps the Paleotethys suture, these young zircons require that collision was complete by ~220–210 Ma. When combined with the age of the pre-collisional early Carnian (~228–222 Ma) carbonate platform (Stampfli, 1978), the Iran–Eurasia collision is restricted to late Carnian–early Norian time (roughly 222–210 Ma), in agreement with the age proposed for the suture zone farther east (Alavi et al., 1997).

#### 4.4. Eocene arc magmatism and Arabia–Eurasia collision

Detrital zircon ages for Miocene strata in north-central Iran demonstrate the dominant contribution of Paleogene volcanic rocks and place rough limits on the cessation of arc magmatism following the Arabia–Eurasia collision. Eocene volcanic rocks are prevalent on both flanks of the central Iranian plateau: to the north along the southern Alborz and to the south in the Urumieh–Dokhtar belt (Fig. 1). The five youngest zircons from the analyzed sample yield a mean U–Pb age of  $46.1 \pm 4.2$  Ma (Fig. 7), indicating arc magmatism of Eocene age. The mean age likely represents late-stage arc magmatism and may be considered a maximum approximation for the age of initial contact between continental lithosphere of the Arabian plate and the Iran block of southern Eurasia. Independent age control on early foreland basin fill in the Zagros fold-thrust belt suggests that collision-related shortening was underway by late Oligocene–early Miocene time (Fakhari et al., 2008-this volume). Given these bounds, we place the timing of the Arabia–Eurasia collision between roughly 45 and 25 Ma (Fig. 8E). Although this estimate lacks precision, it is significantly older than many previous studies that rely on the late Miocene–Pliocene age of coarse-grained deposits in the modern Zagros foreland (e.g., James and Wynd, 1965; Falcon, 1974). Finally, it should be noted that although a middle Eocene to late Oligocene collision appears most likely, the main phase of rapid horizontal shortening expressed in the Zagros (McQuarrie, 2004) may have been delayed until after ~10 Ma (Hessami et al., 2001; Mouthereau et al., 2006).

## 5. Conclusions

1. U–Pb detrital zircon geochronology of selected clastic intervals in the uppermost Neoproterozoic to Miocene succession of Iran indicate evolving sediment source areas linked to construction of the East African (Pan-African) orogen followed by successive opening and closing of the Paleotethys and Neotethys oceans.
2. A basal clastic succession representing the earliest sedimentary record in Iran displays provenance age signatures dominated by Pan-African (900–600 Ma) rocks. Similar detrital zircon age spectra for age-equivalent strata of Israel, Jordan, and Egypt suggest that a clastic wedge derived from the East African orogen covered a huge region encompassing

most of northern Africa and the Middle East. In Iran, the youngest observed zircon ages within five Neoproterozoic–Cambrian sandstones suggest deposition of most of the basal clastic succession during very latest Neoproterozoic and Early Cambrian time.

3. Middle to upper Paleozoic sandstones reveal evidence of poorly documented Paleozoic magmatism in Iran and its surrounding regions. Detrital zircon ages indicate Late Devonian–Early Permian and Cambrian–Ordovician zircon crystallization that could reflect magmatic activity related to subduction of Paleotethys or related oceanic lithosphere. Alternatively, these zircons may be the product of rift-related magmatism during opening of Paleotethys and Neotethys.
4. The timing of the Iran–Eurasia collision is defined by the depositional age of the overlap assemblage comprised of the Upper Triassic–Middle Jurassic Shemshak Formation. The calculated mean U–Pb age of the youngest zircon population from the Shemshak indicates a late Carnian–early Norian (early Late Triassic) age, requiring continental collision and closure of Paleotethys by 220–210 Ma. The Shemshak data are further consistent with studies demonstrating that the Paleotethys suture is situated north of the Alborz (e.g., [Hassanzadeh et al., 2008-this volume](#)).
5. Detrital zircon ages for Miocene sandstones help constrain the age of some of the youngest products of major magmatism related to late-stage subduction and/or breakoff of the Neotethys slab. A major pulse of Eocene magmatism is well represented in the detrital age spectra, with most young zircons clustering around 50–45 Ma. On the basis of these ages and the timing of initial synorogenic sedimentation in the Zagros foreland basin, we place the Arabia–Eurasia collision in Iran between the middle Eocene and late Oligocene.

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