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1 **Formation of the Alpine orogen by amagmatic**
2 **convergence and assembly of previously rifted lithosphere**

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9 **ABSTRACT**

10 *The tectonic and magmatic characteristics of the Alps and Pyrenees during*
11 *convergence are quite distinct from characteristics associated with classic Benioff-type*
12 *oceanic subduction. From the initiation of subduction at passive margins until the*
13 *onset of continental collision, the closure of the Western Tethys never produced a long-*
14 *lived magmatic arc. This is a consequence of the 3-D architecture of the Western*
15 *Tethys (a series of hyper-thinned basins and continental blocks) and its narrow width*
16 *(<500–700 km) prior to convergence. Subduction primarily involved the slow and*
17 *amagmatic subduction of a narrow domain of dry lithospheric mantle. This type of*
18 *congested Ampferer subduction led to the sequential and coherent accretion of*
19 *inherited rifted domains which today form the Alpine and Pyrenean orogens.*

20 KEYWORDS: amagmatic subduction; Ampferer-type, Benioff-type, hyperthinned
21 basins, continental subduction

22

23 **INTRODUCTION**

24 Benioff-type oceanic subductions are typically characterized by compositionally
25 variable and extensive magmatism from the onset of subduction initiation to mature
26 arc magmatism (Grove et al. 2012; Stern et al. 2012; Jicha and Jagoutz 2015; Li et al.
27 2019 and references therein). Although variations in magmatism might occur over
28 tens of millions of years (Paterson and Ducea 2015) and flat-slabs, or accretion of
29 plateaus, might locally inhibit magmatism, the development of extensive magmatism
30 during subduction is a consequence of two main factors: 1) upper-plate extension
31 and adiabatic decompression mantle melting, particularly during subduction
32 initiation or back-arc spreading; 2) dehydration (\pm melting) of subducted oceanic
33 lithosphere at depths of \sim 100 km, which triggers flux-melting of the mantle wedge
34 (Grove et al. 2012 and references therein).

35 However, evidence of magmatism in the Alps and Pyrenees remains sparse to
36 nonexistent during convergence (e.g., Trümpy 1975; McCarthy et al. 2020 and
37 references therein). We address this conundrum by targeting the Jurassic–Cenozoic
38 magmatic and tectonic history of the Western Tethys from rifting to subduction and
39 collision. We also include the Pyrenean orogen because it shares similarities with
40 the Western and Central Alps in term of its pre-orogenic setting (a series of former

41 hyper-thinned rift basins) and lack of magmatism during convergence. We show
42 that in order to constrain the mechanisms of lithospheric foundering and recycling,
43 it is crucial to clearly characterize the lithosphere prior to convergence in terms of
44 its architecture, size, and the lithologies of the “subductable” domain.

45 **MAGMATISM IN THE ALPS AND PYRENEES**

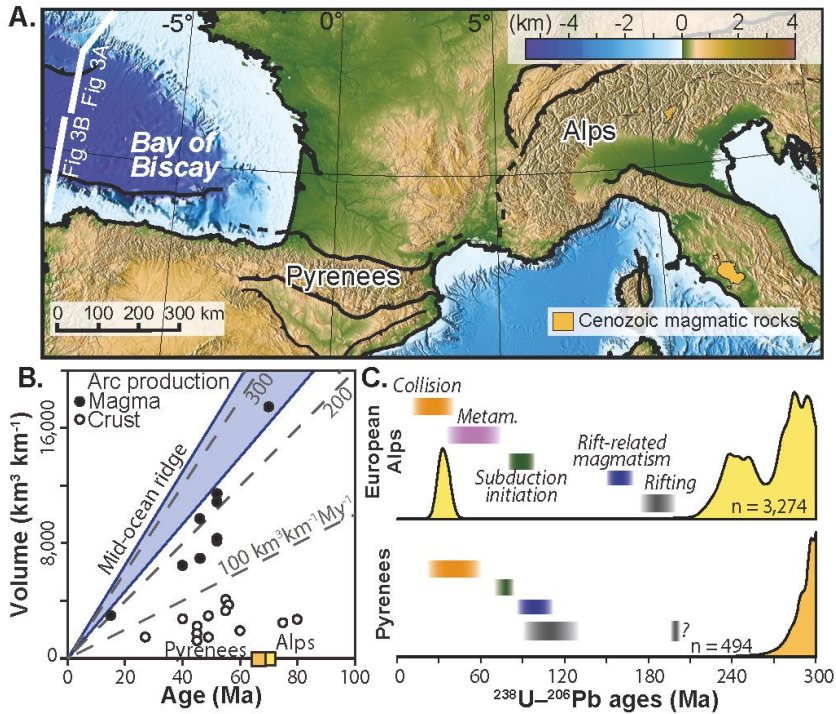
46 Paleogene magmatism in the Western and Central Alps (Fig. 1A), typically found as
47 small plutons and dykes within the Alpine Orogen, occurs immediately prior to, and
48 during, continental collision (43–29 Ma) (Müntener et al. 2021 this issue). The
49 volume of this short-lived Paleogene magmatism, normalized to the length of the
50 arc, is several orders of magnitude smaller than the volume of magmatism at mid-
51 ocean ridges and typical arc systems (e.g., Jicha and Jagoutz 2015) (Fig. 1B).
52 However, evidence of magmatism in the Alps occurring prior to 43 Ma—from the
53 initiation of subduction (100–90 Ma) to subduction of the Western Tethys —
54 remains unheard of in the Alps (e.g., Trümpy 1975; McCarthy et al. 2018, 2020). In
55 addition, no evidence of subduction-related Paleogene magmatism is found in the
56 Pyrenees. This implies that either no magmatism occurred during a 40–50 My
57 period of subduction or that volcanic edifices and plutons were formed during
58 subduction but were subsequently very efficiently eroded and redeposited in
59 adjacent sedimentary basins.

60 Arc magmas generally contain zircons crystallized during magma differentiation in
61 the crust. Once volcanic and plutonic edifices are eroded, these zircons are
62 deposited in nearby sedimentary basins. Therefore, dating populations of detrital

63 zircons can provide accurate snapshots of magmatism through time. Detrital zircon
64 populations from continental arcs reveal the near-continuous output of volcanism
65 over hundreds of millions of years, with detrital zircon populations overall
66 mirroring the population of magmatic zircons (Paterson and Ducea 2015). Similar
67 patterns are identified along intra-oceanic arcs, albeit over shorter timescales. For
68 example, in the western Pacific, detrital zircon populations from 25–40 Ma
69 volcanoclastic sediments shed from the juvenile Izu–Bonin Arc show a similar
70 evolution in zircon crystallization ages with time of deposition, as evidenced by
71 biostratigraphy and magnetostratigraphy (e.g., Barth et al. 2017). These overlapping
72 ages imply that volcanoclastic rocks were rapidly erupted and deposited in proximal
73 basins.

74 Detrital zircons in sediments deposited during convergence in the Western Tethys
75 should, therefore, record a “lost” Alpine magmatic arc, if, in fact, it existed. A
76 compilation of U–Pb detrital zircon ages from sediments deposited in the last 300
77 My for both the Alps and the Pyrenees (data compiled in McCarthy et al. 2018, 2020)
78 shows a clear gap in zircon ages, which persists from rifting until the onset of
79 continental collision (Fig. 1C). This dearth of magmatic zircons in the Western and
80 Central Alps covers the timeline from the onset of subduction initiation between 90
81 Ma and 100 Ma until shortly prior to the onset of continental collision (e.g., Handy et
82 al. 2010; Zanchetta et al. 2012; McCarthy et al. 2018), during which only minor
83 volumes of arc-like magmatism were produced (Fig. 1A).

84 This magmatic zircon gap notably coincides with subduction- related eclogite-facies
85 high-pressure metamorphism of continental fragments from the Adria margin,
86 which reached the peak metamorphic conditions of 1.5–2.0 GPa at 65–75 Ma,
87 implying a subducted depth of ~50–70 km (e.g., Berger and Bousquet 2008; Agard
88 and Handy 2021 this issue). This zircon gap also coincides with the initial slow
89 subduction of hydrated oceanic domains, for which metamorphic garnet documents
90 a prograde metamorphism at 1.1–1.4 kbar, likely starting as early as 70–80 Ma,
91 before reaching peak eclogite-facies metamorphism at 2–3 GPa, ~38–40 Ma (Skora
92 et al. 2009 and references therein). The lack of magmatic zircons derived from arc
93 magmas during these events implies that there is a 40–50 million year window
94 when typical conditions relevant to hydrous arc magmatism—namely, a hydrated
95 oceanic slab subducted to 50–150 km depth, which should lead to flux-melting of
96 the mantle wedge (Grove et al. 2012)—did not produce any magmatism. Instead,
97 detrital zircons reveal a “magmatic arc gap” consistent with the observed lack of
98 plutonic and volcanic rocks (Fig. 1A) (Trümpy 1975; McCarthy et al. 2018). Notably,
99 the detrital zircon record in the Pyrenees also shows no detrital zircon population
100 from rifting to continental collision (Fig. 1C).



101

102 **Figure 1:** Fingerprinting magmatism during convergence along the Western Tethys.
 103 (A) The distribution of Cenozoic magmatism (orange) in the Alps, Pyrenees and
 104 Apennines. Note the locations of two seismic profile lines (white lines) in the Bay of
 105 Biscay: these are given as cross-sections in Figures 3A and 3B. (B) Estimated volume
 106 of magma production and crust production in arc systems and mid-ocean ridges
 107 (From Jicha and Jagoutz 2015) as compared to such production in the Alps and
 108 Pyrenees (From McCarthy et al. 2020). Volume of magmatism is normalized per
 109 kilometre of arc length (km³/km). (C) Distribution of detrital zircon ages from 300
 110 Ma to present, showing important geodynamic markers (bars represent different
 111 geological processes) related to the opening and closing of the Western Tethys.
 112 Abbreviation: Metam = high-pressure metamorphism during subduction.

113 THE ARCHITECTURE OF THE WESTERN TETHYS

114 The history of the Western Tethys is related to the geodynamic evolution of Western
 115 Europe upon the opening of the Central and North Atlantic systems (Fig. 2A). The
 116 Western Tethys was hemmed in between two wide oceanic domains, namely the

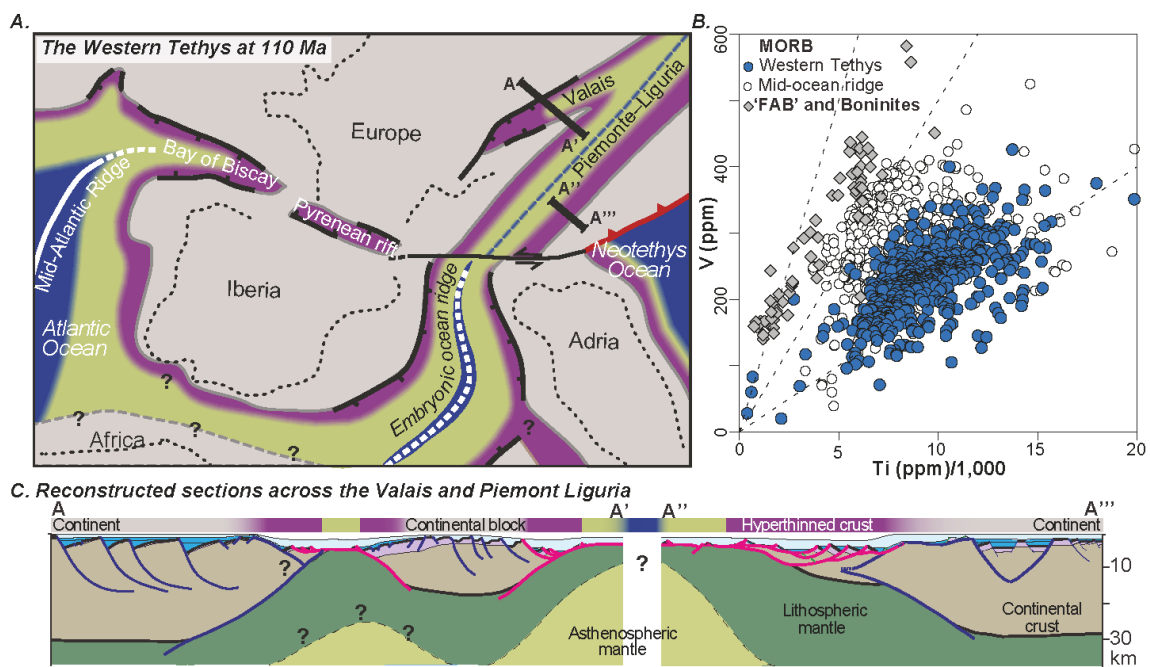
117 Atlantic Ocean to the west and the Neotethys Ocean to the east, and consisted of a
118 series of rift basins floored by hyperthinned crust, exhumed subcontinental mantle,
119 and embryonic oceans formed in Jurassic–Cretaceous times between Europe and
120 Adria (Alps) and Europe and Iberia (Pyrenees). Remnants of the Western Tethys are
121 found in the Western and Central Alps, Apennines, and Pyrenees and form atypical
122 ophiolitic sequences dominated by mantle rocks, sparsely distributed pillow lavas,
123 lava flows, and gabbroic bodies (see Rampone and Sanfilippo 2021 this issue) partly
124 overlain by their syn- to post-rift sedimentary cover. Sparse basaltic and gabbroic
125 bodies of mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) affinity found preserved in the Alps and
126 Apennines reveal a short-lived phase of magmatism, with magmatic zircon ages
127 typically between 155 Ma and 165 Ma (Manatschal and Müntener 2009). These
128 ophiolites are characterized by almost amagmatic spreading accommodated by
129 kilometre-scale concave-downwards detachment faults that exhumed mantle rocks
130 and gabbros to the sea floor, comparable to magma-poor and (ultra)slow-spreading
131 systems such as the Mid-Atlantic Ridge and the Southwest Indian Ridge (e.g.,
132 Lagabrielle et al. 2015 and references therein). Published chemical analyses of
133 MORB-like basalts that originally formed in the Western Tethys have Ti and V
134 abundances similar to MORB from (ultra)slow mid-ocean ridges, implying that these
135 basalts shared similar sources and partial melting processes and are unlike
136 magmatism associated with subduction initiation (Fig. 2B).

137 Certain remnants of the Western Tethys that are found in Alpine ophiolites also
138 preserve pre- and syn-rift contacts between thinned continental crust and
139 subcontinental mantle; syn-rift sedimentary deposits also directly overly exhumed

140 mantle, and there are large continental blocks (allochthons, or microcontinents)
141 separated by heterogeneous mantle domains. The characteristics of these remnants
142 are analogous to present-day ocean–continent transitions as seen in Iberian and
143 Newfoundland (Canada) margins (e.g., Manatschal and Müntener 2009 and
144 references therein) (Fig. 2C).

145 Along the narrowest sections of the Pyrenean basins, the Western Tethys did
146 not exceed a width of ~150 km, with exhumed subcontinental mantle typically less
147 than 50 km wide (e.g., Tugend et al. 2015). Palaeogeographic reconstructions
148 suggest that the Western Tethys reached a maximum width of 500–700 km along
149 the Western and Central Alps prior to convergence (Rosenbaum and Lister 2005).
150 Overall, the Western Tethys represents a large-scale pinch-and-swell architecture
151 where continental blocks of variable size (from kilometre-scale allochthons to
152 microcontinents tens of kilometres wide) were separated by hyper-thinned rift
153 basins and exhumed mantle domains (Figs. 2A, 2C) (Manatschal and Müntener
154 2009; Mohn et al. 2010; Manzotti et al. 2014; Tugend et al. 2015 and references
155 therein). A large part of the Jurassic and Cretaceous extension of the Western Tethys
156 was, therefore, accommodated by the extreme thinning of the continental
157 lithosphere. Measurements compiled from present-day rifted margins suggest that
158 the width of hyper-thinned crustal domains may range from ~20 km to ~80 km
159 (Chenin et al. 2017) prior to the exhumation of variably wide domains of exhumed
160 subcontinental mantle. The extent to which the 500–700 km wide Western Tethys
161 was underlain by an oceanic lithosphere that had formed at an active spreading
162 centre is, therefore, unclear. However, based on the Jurassic timing of short-lived

163 MORB magmatism in the Western Tethys and ultraslow spreading rates (<2cm/y),
 164 Manzotti et al. (2014) estimated a width of the Piemonte–Liguria Ocean (or Basin) of
 165 200–300 km (Fig. 2A). In spite of the large uncertainties, these estimations,
 166 combined with the estimated width of rifted domains, are consistent with a
 167 maximum extension of 500–700 km for the Western Tethys in what would become
 168 the Western Alps, as suggested by Rosenbaum and Lister (2005).



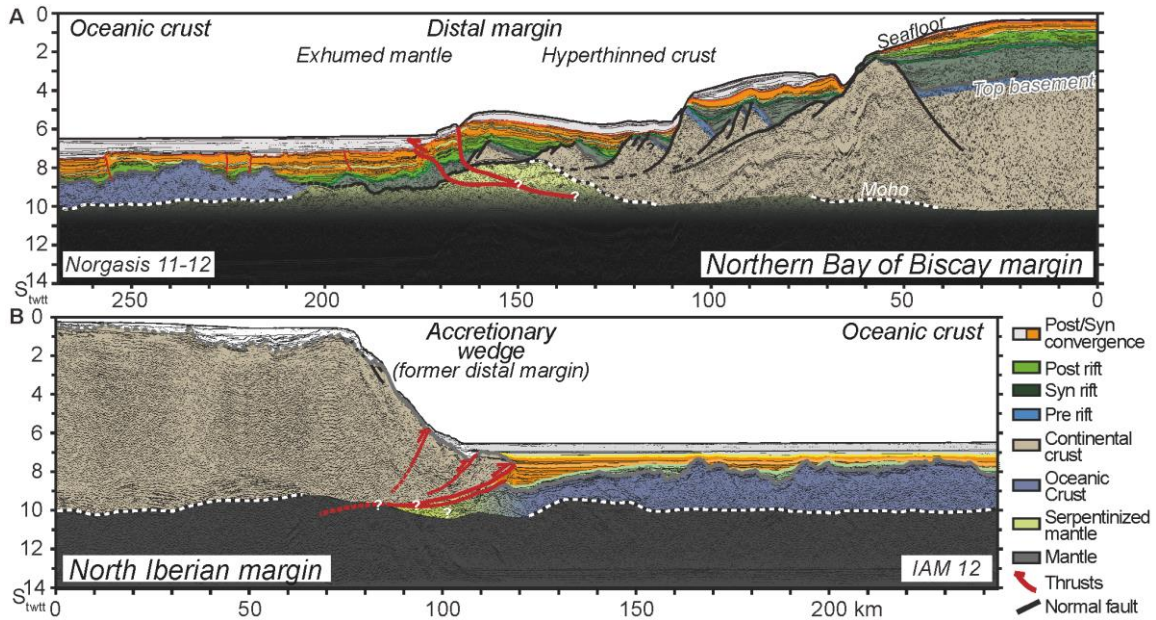
170 **Figure 2:** (A) Palaeogeographic reconstruction of the Western Tethys at ~110 Ma.
 171 Note locations of the two sections A–A' and A''–A'''. After Mohn et al. (2010) and
 172 Tugend et al. (2015). (B) Compilation of Ti and V compositions from published mid-
 173 ocean ridge basalt (MORB)-like ophiolitic rocks originally formed in the Western
 174 Tethys (filled circles); from published data for MORBs from (ultra-) slow-spreading
 175 mid-ocean ridges (the Atlantic Ridge and the Gakkel Ridge) (open circles); and
 176 depleted tholeiitic basalt and forearc basalt ('FAB') and boninites from the Izu-
 177 Bonin Mariana Arc (data from Li et al. 2019 and references therein). (C) Transect
 178 through the wider domains of the Western Tethys (Piemonte–Liguria Basin and

179 Valais Basin) illustrating how rift-related extension was accommodated by
180 (hyper)extension of continental lithosphere. For location of sections see Figure 2A.
181 From Mohn et al. (2010).

182

183 **ACCOMMODATING CONVERGENCE AT HYPERTHINNED BASINS**

184 The initial stages of convergence along a rift basin and passive margin are well
185 documented along the Bay of Biscay–Pyrenean system (Tugend et al. 2014). Seismic
186 imaging along the Northern Bay of Biscay reveals that deformation has been
187 accommodated along a series of thrust slices located at the edge of the continental
188 crust where mantle is exhumed (Tugend et al. 2014) (Fig. 3A). Increasing amounts
189 of convergence accommodated along the Northern Iberia margin (southern Bay of
190 Biscay) led to the almost complete overprint of the former hyper-thinned margin
191 and its incorporation as part of the accretionary prism (Gallastegui et al. 2002;
192 Tugend et al. 2014, 2015) (Fig. 3B). These seismic observations and interpretations
193 highlight how compressional deformation was initiated upon convergence and
194 highlights how the Bay of Biscay represents a unique place where the initial stages
195 of subduction at passive margins are preserved. The transitions between rifted
196 margin domains and, notably, between hyper-thinned continental crust and
197 exhumed mantle represent key weaknesses which can accommodate deformation at
198 the onset of convergence (Tugend et al. 2014). This convergence may evolve to
199 become a forced subduction initiation along a passive margin, as suggested by
200 numerical modeling (McCarthy et al. 2020).



202

203 **Figure 3:** (A) Interpretation of seismic imaging of hyperthinned passive margin
 204 along the northern margin of the Bay of Biscay, illustrating how deformation is
 205 accommodated along the ocean–continent transition during convergence. From
 206 Tugend et al. (2014). (B) Interpretation of seismic imaging of accretionary wedge
 207 along the opposite north Iberian margin, on the southern side of the Bay of Biscay.
 208 Location of the seismic transects can be found in Figure 1. Abbreviation: Stwtt =
 209 two-way-travel-time in seconds.

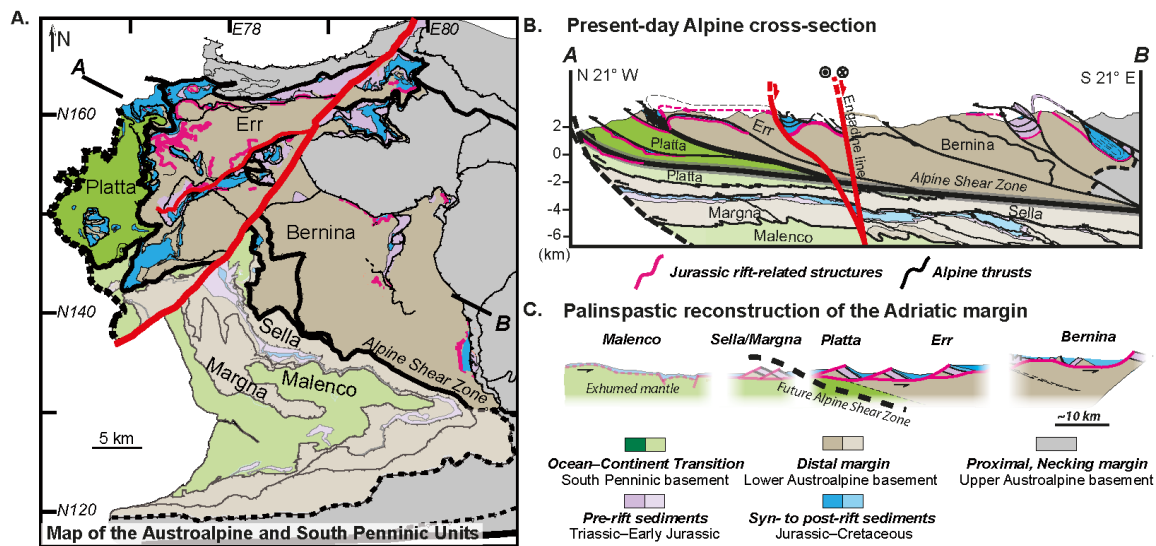
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211 Field mapping and petrological studies along the Central Alps have revealed
 212 complex lithostratigraphic associations, including continental crust, serpentinized
 213 mantle, and pre to post-rift sediments related to Jurassic rifting (Fig. 4). Such
 214 associations and related tectonic structures are the result of the coherent
 215 underthrusting (as large thrust sheets) of large fragments of the former ocean–

216 continent transition below the continental margin during convergence (Mohn et al.
217 2010, 2011). Tectonometamorphic studies reveal an abrupt change in metamorphic
218 conditions and deformation style within the former ocean–continent transition zone
219 of the Adriatic margin (Mohn et al. 2011; Picazo et al. 2019 and references therein).
220 Segments that represent the Adriatic upper plate (Bernina–Err–Platta, a low
221 greenschist facies unit) have not been extensively affected by Alpine metamorphic
222 overprint during subduction and collision. In contrast, accreted lower plate
223 sequences (Malenco–Margna Sella, an epidote-amphibolite facies unit that reached
224 ~0.5–0.7 GPa and 450–500 °C) show higher P–T conditions and pervasive Alpine
225 deformation consistent with being underthrust during convergence. This change in
226 degree of metamorphism occurs within exhumed mantle domains between the
227 hyper-thinned continental margin of Adria and the continental allochthons further
228 oceanward (Figs. 4B, 4C) (Mohn et al. 2010 and references therein). In accordance
229 with observations from the Bay of Biscay margins, field and petrological evidence in
230 the Central Alps indicates that subduction initiation occurred at the edge of hyper-
231 thinned continental crust. Following subduction initiation, rift-related features, such
232 as extensional shear zones and continental allochthons, may typically control the
233 localization of large-scale shear zones that accommodated compression during
234 subduction (e.g., Mohn et al. 2011) (Figs. 4B, 4C). Therefore, the plate interface
235 between the subducting plate and the upper plate is formed of a wide domain of
236 sequentially underthrust coherent lithospheric slices from the downgoing plate
237 (Fig. 4). Similarly Beltrando et al. (2014) and Lagabrielle et al. (2015) showed that
238 rift-related lithostratigraphic associations (e.g., syn- to post-rift sediments

239 associated with continental basement or with serpentinitized mantle and large
 240 gabbroic bodies) can still be identified even in the high-pressure (blueschist-
 241 eclogite facies) domains of the Western Alps. Despite having a pervasive Alpine
 242 metamorphic overprint, rocks of the ocean–continent transitions and the slivers of
 243 ultra-slow-spreading oceanic lithosphere can still be coherently preserved and
 244 identified throughout the Alpine orogen (Beltrando et al. 2014; Lagabrielle et al.
 245 2015).

246



247

248 **Figure 4** (A) Simplified tectonic map along the Central Alps (Eastern Switzerland)
 249 highlighting continental units from the Adria margin (Austroalpine: Err, Bernina,
 250 Margna–Sella) and exhumed mantle and oceanic units (Penninic: Platta and
 251 Malenco). Note location of section line A–B. From Mohn et al. (2011). (B) Present-
 252 day Alpine crosssection, taken along line A–B in Figure 4A. The thick black line is a
 253 major Alpine Shear Zone that delimits units from the distal Adriatic margin with
 254 distinct Alpine overprint. Above the shear-zone, the Upper Platta, Err and Bernina
 255 are poorly affected by Alpine deformation. Below the shear-zone, the underthrust

256 Lower Platta, Malenco, Margna–Sella Units are affected by pressure-dominated
257 (subduction-related) Alpine metamorphism. Thick, near-vertical, lines (Engadine
258 line) are Cenozoic strike-slip faults crosscutting the Alpine nappe stack. (C)
259 Palinspastic reconstruction of the Adria margin showing the location of subduction
260 initiation within the Continent–Ocean Transition of the Adriatic margin (Future
261 Alpine Shear Zone). The darker, more pronounced, colours represent the upper
262 plate (with a weak Alpine metamorphic overprint); the lighter colours (strong
263 Alpine overprint) represent the lower-plate accreted sequences.

264

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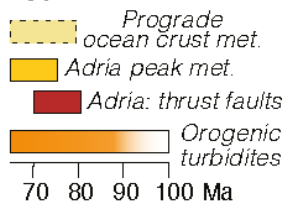
266 Tectonic, metamorphic, and sedimentary fingerprints related to subduction
267 initiation are preserved in the Western Tethys (Fig. 5). Plate kinematic
268 reconstructions indicate that Africa and Adria followed a NE trajectory starting from
269 ~85–100 Ma recorded by slow rates of convergence (~1–2 cm/y) in the Western
270 Tethys (Rosenbaum and Lister 2005). Convergence is accommodated by highly
271 oblique to strike-slip motions along the former Adriatic margin and upper-plate
272 compression at ~85–100 Ma, leading to the forced subduction of the Western
273 Tethys under Adria (e.g., Rosenbaum and Lister 2005; Zanchetta et al. 2012). Along
274 the upper plate, compression is recorded by the dating of thrust faults, as well as by
275 syn-sedimentary deformation of detrital turbidites (the Lombardian Basin of the
276 Southern Alps) (Zanchetta et al. 2012 and references therein). In addition, the oldest
277 deep-water conglomerates and sandstones (Alpine Flysch), which resulted from the
278 erosion of a nascent wedge along the Western and Central Alps, are ~90–100 Ma
279 (e.g., Handy et al. 2010; Agard and Handy 2021 this issue). In terms of subduction-

280 related metamorphism, continental fragments from the Adriatic passive margin
281 were affected by peak eclogite-facies metamorphism at 75–65 Ma along the Western
282 Alps (e.g., Agard and Handy 2021 this issue). The peak metamorphism of continental
283 fragments occurs prior to prograde and peak metamorphism of the oceanic domains
284 (Fig. 5) (e.g., Berger and Bousquet 2008 and references therein). From all these
285 observations, the closure of the Western Tethys along the Western and Central Alps,
286 from ~90–100 Ma until continental collision in the Western Alps at ~34–32 Ma,
287 most likely occurred as a consequence of highly oblique, slow, and forced
288 subduction that had initiated at a hyper-thinned passive margin.

289 The record of subduction initiation at the Western Tethys passive margins is unlike
290 the magmatic response to intraoceanic subduction initiation. Although subduction
291 initiation mechanisms are likely diverse and complex, one general model has been
292 developed on the basis of two examples. First, Neotethys supra-subduction-zone
293 ophiolites formed upon subduction initiation (e.g., Stern et al. 2012 and references
294 therein). Second, the development of the Izu–Bonin–Mariana Arc, where intra-
295 oceanic subduction initiated at 50–52 Ma and formed a long-lived intraoceanic arc
296 (Stern et al. 2012; Li et al. 2019 and references therein). (Fig. 5). These systems are
297 characterized by extensive upper-plate extension and variably extensive hydrous
298 shallow mantle ± slab melting (e.g., depleted tholeiitic basalts or “forearc basalts”,
299 boninites, and high-Mg andesites) upon subduction initiation. Subduction initiation
300 is then followed shortly after either by obduction, as was the case for the Neotethys
301 ophiolites (Stern et al. 2012 and references therein), or, in the case of the Izu–
302 Bonin– Mariana Arc, the development into a mature arc volcanic system within ~7

303 My after subduction initiation (Fig. 5). Thus, a variety of compositionally distinct
 304 magmas can be produced and erupted within a distinctively short timeframe upon
 305 intra-oceanic subduction initiation.

A. Hyperthinned basins



B. Intra-oceanic



306

307 **Figure 5:** Two contrasting tectonic responses to subduction initiation. (A) An
 308 amagmatic response to subduction initiation at hyper-thinned basins and passive
 309 margins as recorded in the Western and Central Alps. The dotted line part of the
 310 “prograde metamorphism of ocean crust” bar signifies uncertainty as to when
 311 garnet started growing during prograde metamorphism (Skora et al. 2009).
 312 Timescales are from Skora et al. (2009), Zanchetta et al. (2012 and references
 313 therein) and Handy et al. (2010 and references therein). (B) The short-term
 314 magmatic response to intraoceanic subduction initiation of the Izu–Bonin–Mariana
 315 Arc. After Stern et al. (2012 and references therein). Abbreviation: met =
 316 metamorphism.

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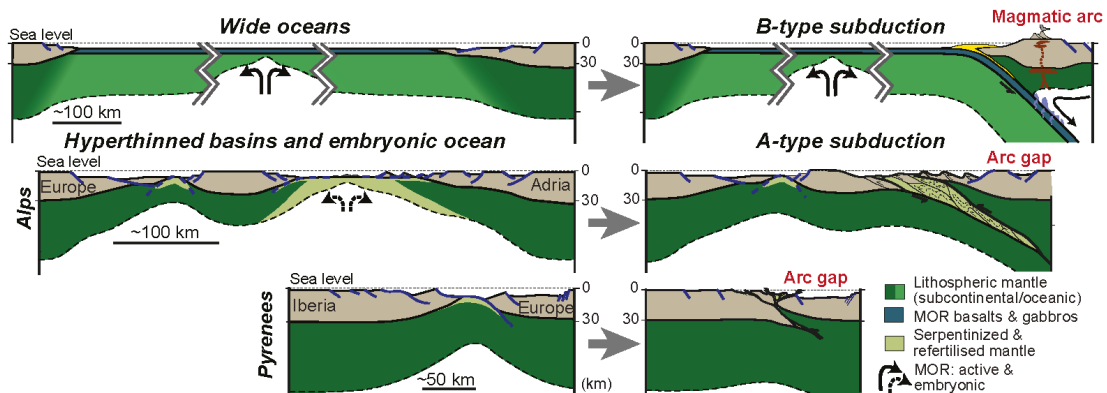
318 **SHUTTING DOWN MAGMATISM**

319 The (ultra-)slow-spreading Western Tethys was dominated by serpentized mantle
320 and hydrated oceanic sediments, representing the main reservoirs of volatiles that
321 should typically drive arc magmatism. So, why was magmatism so sparse, played
322 such a late role during convergence in the Alps, and was nonexistent in the Pyrenees
323 following subduction initiation?

324 Initially, unlike intra-oceanic subduction initiation, upper plate compression during
325 the onset of convergence (e.g., Zanchetta et al. 2012) likely inhibited decompression
326 driven magmatism. Then, because even a small percentage (10%–15%) of
327 serpentization lowers the brittle strength of peridotites (Escartín et al. 2001), the
328 hydrated upper layers of the Western Tethys, namely the serpentinites and oceanic
329 sediments, are likely to have been efficiently sheared off from the underlying dry
330 peridotites during forced convergence and then sequentially accreted as coherent
331 slivers to the nascent orogenic wedge (Fig. 4B) (e.g., Mohn et al. 2010; Beltrando et
332 al. 2014). Numerical modeling supports this scenario (McCarthy et al. 2020). The
333 subducting slab will, therefore, primarily be dry lithospheric mantle (Fig. 6)
334 (McCarthy et al. 2018, 2020). The combination of a highly oblique and slow
335 subduction and decoupling of hydrated lithologies from a downgoing dry slab would
336 then form a congested subduction zone characterized by the inefficient subduction
337 of hydrated lithologies. This would have suppressed magmatism for up to 40–50 My
338 even as subducted continental and oceanic fragments were affected by prograde and
339 peak high-pressure metamorphism starting at 70–80 Ma (Fig. 5). Further west along

340 the Pyrenean basins (Tugend et al. 2014), the combination of narrow (<150 km)
 341 hyper-thinned rift basins, including only limited exhumed mantle domains (<50
 342 km), implies that the cumulative convergence was likely not sufficient to produce
 343 any high-pressure metamorphism nor arc magmatism even upon collision (Fig. 6).

344



345

346 **Figure 6:** Illustration of Benioff-type (“B-type”, with a magmatic arc) oceanic
 347 subduction versus amagmatic Ampferer-type (“A-type”, without a magmatic arc)
 348 continental subduction. Modern subductions represent a continuum between both
 349 end-members and are controlled by the pre-existing lithosphere and width of the
 350 “subductable domain” prior to the initiation of subduction. MOR = mid-ocean ridge.
 351 Modified from McCarthy et al. (2020).

352

353 **FROM AMPFERER TO BENIOFF... AND BACK AGAIN ?**

354 In 1911, Otto Ampferer introduced the conceptual idea of downthrusting of
 355 continental crust to great depth, or Verschluckung (Ampferer and Hammer 1911), a
 356 term later defined as Ampferer-type continental subduction. Almost 65 years later,

357 as plate tectonics became an accepted and established paradigm, Trümpy (1975)
358 raised the problematic issue of the lack of magmatism in the Alps.

359 Still, the presence of (1) ophiolites interpreted as oceanic lithosphere; (2) (sparse)
360 arc-like magmatism; (3) seismic tomography images of a subducted slab attached to
361 the Alpine Orogen (e.g., Handy et al. 2010 and references therein), and (4) the
362 presence of eclogite-facies continental and oceanic crust (Berger and Bousquet
363 2008) have all been used as strong evidence in favour of a classical Benioff-type
364 oceanic subduction zone in the Alps. Such a plate tectonic model implies the long-
365 lived efficient subduction of hydrated oceanic crust and sediments. The observed
366 short timescale of Jurassic MORB magmatism recorded in the Alps is then
367 interpreted as a consequence of the efficient subduction of oceanic lithosphere,
368 explaining its poor preservation in the Alpine orogen (Fig. 6). If this were so,
369 processes akin to present-day Benioff-type subduction zones would have driven
370 convergence along the Western Tethys, from subduction initiation to the burial and
371 exhumation of high-pressure rocks and continuing until collision. In this case, the
372 formation of the Alps would have been essentially controlled by buoyancy-driven
373 slab pull and slab roll-back forces, as well as by possible slab breakoff mechanisms.

374 However, we emphasize an alternative view. The Western Tethys was formed
375 subsequent to extreme continental lithosphere extension and the ultraslow plate
376 separation was controlled by regional plate kinematics. As a result, prior to
377 convergence, the Western Tethys can be described as a series of rift basins, floored
378 by hyper-thinned continental crust and exhumed subcontinental mantle as well as

379 having sporadic embryonic oceanic crust formed by ultraslow spreading (Fig. 2)
380 (e.g., Manatschal and Müntener 2009; Lagabrielle et al. 2015; Tugend et al. 2015). In
381 this scenario, the observed short timescale of Western Tethys MORB magmatism
382 was not a consequence of the efficient subduction of oceanic lithosphere. On the
383 contrary, it would represent the preservation of the rather small (200–300 km
384 wide) (Manzotti et al. 2014) and short-lived ultra-slow-spreading events of the
385 Piemonte–Liguria Basin (Fig. 2) (Manatschal and Müntener 2009; McCarthy et al.
386 2020). This view is compatible with the limited width of the Western Tethys
387 inferred from plate kinematic restorations (e.g., Rosenbaum and Lister 2005). Slow
388 convergence forced by regional plate kinematics outside of the Western Tethyan
389 realm was first accommodated at the exhumed mantle domain at the edge of hyper-
390 thinned continental crust (Fig. 3). Increasing convergence resulted in partial
391 underthrusting and subduction of the distal margin (Fig. 4) prior to that of the
392 embryonic oceanic lithosphere, as supported by the ages of subduction-related
393 metamorphism.

394

395 In the above scenario, an Ampferer-type continental subduction would imply
396 that Western Tethyan oceanic lithosphere played a limited and rather passive role
397 during convergence. This mechanism of continental—and congested—Ampferer-
398 type subduction might lead to alternative interpretations regarding the origins of
399 sporadic, late-stage Paleogene magmatism in the Alps, including the necessity of

400 slab break-off mechanisms (e.g., Müntener et al. 2021 this issue) and the origin and
401 significance of (ultra) high-pressure metamorphism in collisional orogens..

402

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408

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