

# Crustal Structure of the Sulaiman Range, Pakistan from Gravity Data

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## ABSTRACT

Gravity data along an east-west profile from the Punjab plain of Pakistan to the western border town of Chaman have been incorporated into interpretation of the gross crustal structure underlying the Sulaiman Range. Interpretation of the free-air, Bouguer, and isostatic gravity anomalies suggests that 15 to 25 km thick, transitional crust underlies the 250 km wide fold-and-thrust belt. Thick overlying sediments are compensated by shallow mantle material, which leads to a long wavelength (~ 200 km) Bouguer gravity high in the area. Free-air and isostatic anomalies suggest that high topography in the eastern Sulaiman Range lacks roots, as the Moho apparently shallows beneath the thick (15 km) sediments. In the western Sulaiman Range the topography appears to be compensated by thicker crust.

Interpretation of transitional crust in the region suggests that passive margin structures identified along the western edge of the Indo-Pakistani subcontinent continue under the Sulaiman fold belt, and that the region is at an early stage of continental collision. The crust appears to be deformed under the load of the thrust belt and the influence of horizontal compressive forces resulting from the convergence of the Indian subcontinent against the Afghan Block. Crustal thickening is taking place on the west, as the Indo-Pakistani plate is underthrusting continental crust of this block.

## INTRODUCTION

The Sulaiman Range is part of the fold-and-thrust system along the western margin of the Indo-Pakistani plate. This system is conspicuous because of its widespread extent over the foreland, primarily due to effective decoupling of the sedimentary sequence from the underlying basement (Seeber and Armbruster, 1979). The 250 km wide Sulaiman lobe is bounded to the northwest and north by the Zhob Thrust and Katawaz flysch basin, to the northeast, east and southeast by the Indus plain constituting the Sulaiman

foredeep, and to the southwest and west by the Sibi syntaxis (Figure 1).

Like the other fold-and-thrust belts of Pakistan (Kashmir, Salt Range/Potwar Plateau, Kirthar Range), the Sulaiman Range is a consequence of the convergence of the Indo-Pakistani and Eurasian plates that resulted in the ongoing Himalayan collision. Knowledge about the deep structure of the Himalayan studies carried out by many workers. Particularly, gravity interpretations by Marussi (1964, 1976, 1980), Karner and Watts (1983), Verma and Subrahmanyam (1984), Lyon-Caen and Molnar (1983, 1985), Duroy (1986), and Malinconico (1986, 1989) provide ideas about the nature and structure of the crust underneath the high Himalayan mass. In northern Pakistan the crust is nearly twice the normal continental thickness (~ 70 km). To the south, in the Salt Range and Potwar Plateau region (Figure 1), a maximum of 7 to 8 km of sediments are thrust over full-thickness continental crust (Duroy et al., 1989). However, in the Sulaiman region, little is known about the underlying crust.

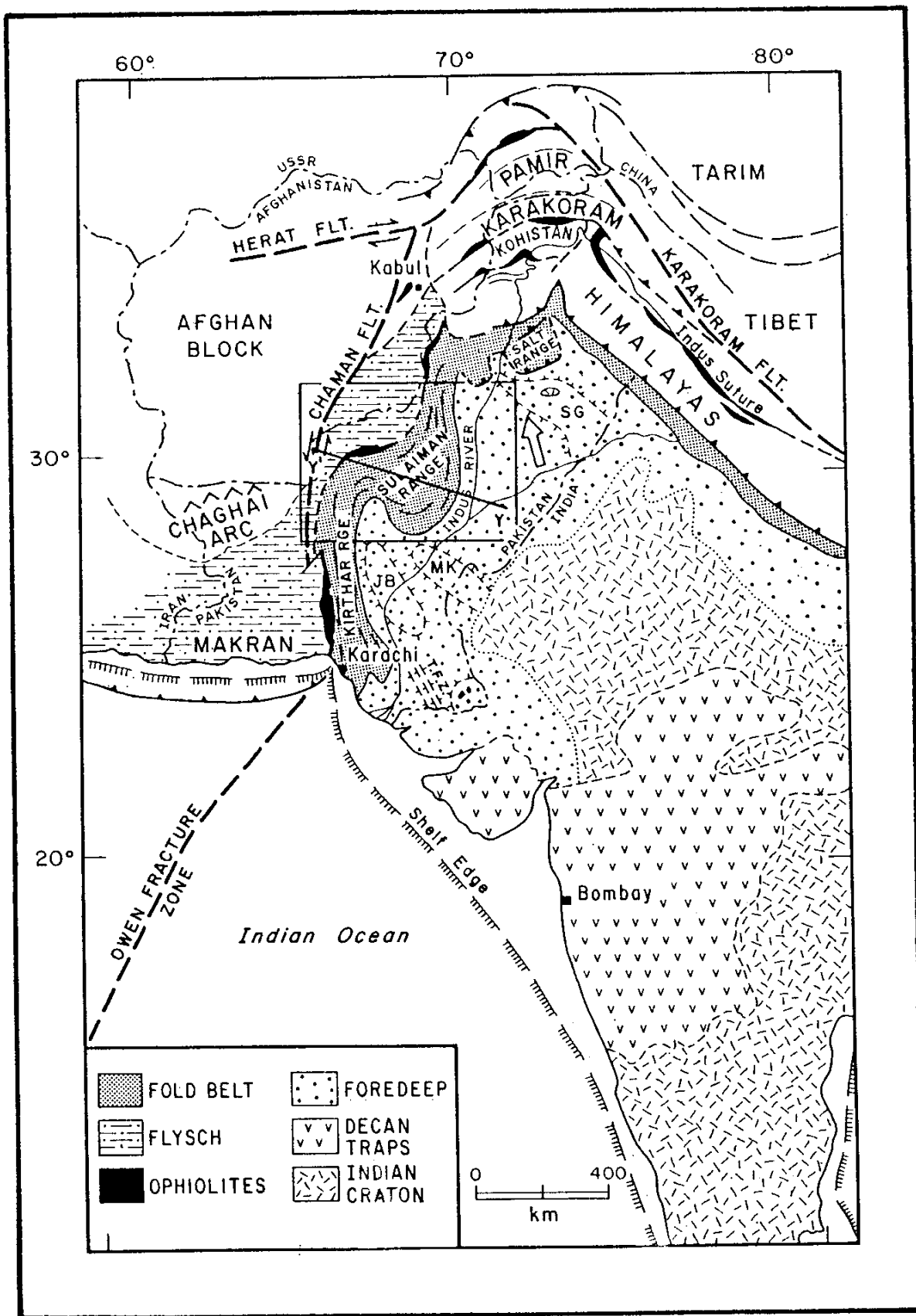
The Sulaiman region depicts a complex interaction of strike slip and thrust motion, owing to oblique convergence along the Chaman fault (Lawrence and Yeats, 1979; Lawrence et al., 1981; Farah et al., 1984). On the undisturbed craton, Mesozoic and younger sediments are about 2 km thick, but have been interpreted to thicken to 15 km in the western part of the Sulaiman Range (Banks and Warburton, 1986). Seismic reflection profiles show the basement to be more than 10 km deep beneath frontal folds of the Sulaiman Range (Humayon et al., 1991; Jadoon et al., 1991). However, the lines do not extend far enough to constrain basement depths beneath the interior of the range.

An east-west gravity profile was evaluated in this paper to study the configuration of the top of the basement as well as the Moho. The nature of these boundaries beneath the interior of the Sulaiman Range has helped in interpreting the overall nature and structure of the crust along the western margin of the Indo-Pakistani plate.

In contrast to large negative Bouguer gravity anomalies in the Pakistan Himalaya (Malinconico, 1986, 1989; Duroy et al., 1989), relatively small negative Bouguer gravity anomalies are observed over the Sulaiman region (Rahman, 1969; Marussi, 1976). Modeling in this paper suggests that the thick, low density sediments are compensated by shallow mantle material in the Sulaiman region, implying that the underlying crust is transitional in thickness between

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**Figure 1— Major tectonic features along the western and north western margins of the Indo-Pakistani plate (adapted from Humayon et al., 1991). Note the broad fold belts in Pakistan suggesting weak decollement zones. Also note the emplacement of flysch and ophiolites near the Chaman Fault, marking the boundary zone between the Indo-Pakistani plate and the Afghan Block. The large arrow indicates the motion of the Indo-Pakistani plate relative to the Eurasian plate. The Mari-Kandkot high (MK), Jacobabad high (JB) and the Talhar Fracture Zone (TFZ) are structures that may indicate the northward continuation of the western passive margin of the Indo-Pakistani plate under the Indus alluvium and the Kirthar and Sulaiman fold belts (Quadri and Shuaib, 1986; Malik et al., 1989). The Sargodha basement high (SG) is a flexural bulge (Duroy et al., 1989), due to loading by the Himalaya. Line Y-Y' is the gravity profile interpreted in this study. Rectangle shows the area covered in Figure 2.**

that of normal continental and oceanic crust. Thus, passive margin structures, identified in the Cambay region and lower Indus Basin (Naini and Talwani, 1983; Malik et al., 1988), may continue underneath the Sulaiman fold and thrust system (Figure 1).

In the first part of the paper free-air, Bouguer and Airy isostatic gravity anomalies are presented, and some important considerations regarding the Moho configuration and isostatic state of the region are discussed. These results, along with assumptions developed about the shallow crust, are then used as constraints for the construction of a two-dimensional gravity model. For this purpose, forward gravity modeling was done using the GM-SYS computer modeling program, based on the Talwani (1959) method and supplied by Northwest Geophysical Associates, Inc., Corvallis, Oregon, USA.

The preferred model is interpreted as a rifted continental margin involved in early stages of collision, by comparing the interpreted crustal structure with that of undeformed passive margins and other mountain belts. Finally, possible physical mechanisms responsible for deformation in the region are discussed and a tectonic model, based on the preferred 2-D gravity model, is proposed.

## REGIONAL TECTONIC AND GEOLOGICAL SETTING

Fold-and-thrust belts over the Himalayan foreland in Pakistan are the products of the ongoing collision between the Indo-Pakistani and Eurasian plates (Figure 1). Continent-continent collision, which led to the building of the Himalayan Ranges, is considered to have begun in the middle Eocene (Molnar and Tapponier, 1975; Powell, 1979). The Himalayan mountain belt changes strike from northwest-southeast in India to east-west in Pakistan. The foreland fold-and-thrust structures are conspicuously broader in Pakistan than in India, particularly the Salt Range/Potwar Plateau and the Sulaiman fold belt. This difference is generally attributed to the presence, in Pakistan, of a thick evaporite sequence that acts as a weak decollement between the sedimentary cover and underlying basement (Seeber and Armbruster, 1979; Lillie et al., 1987; Jaume and Lillie, 1988).

The Sulaiman and Kirthar ranges (Figure 1) represent the foreland fold-and-thrust belt along the northwestern margin of the Indo-Pakistani plate, bounded by the left-lateral Chaman transform zone in the west and the Indus plain on the east side (Abdel-Gawad, 1971; Lawrence et al., 1981). The broad width (250 km) of the Sulaiman Range (Figure 2) suggests that the range is a thin-skinned structure, thrusting southward on a weak decollement above a low angle, northwestward dipping basement (Sarwar and DeJong, 1979; Seeber et al., 1981; Humayon et al., 1991). However, it is not known if the decollement is an extension of the weak Eocambrian evaporite zone known to underlie the Salt Range/Potwar Plateau region, or if it is another type of weak zone.

Structural complexities in the Sulaiman region owe their origin to oblique convergence of the Indo-Pakistani plate along the Chaman fault system, which transforms motion between the Makran subduction zone, in the south, and the Himalayan convergence zone to the north (Figure 1, Lawrence et al., 1981; Farah et al., 1984). Some of the pre-existing basement structures (Mari-Kandkot and Jacobabad highs), which may have developed as passive margin structures along the western edge of the Indo-Pakistani plate during Mesozoic rifting of Gondwana (Chaudary, 1975; Naini and Talwani, 1983; Quadri and Shuaib, 1986; Malik et al., 1988), may also influence the structural development of the Sulaiman Range.

In general, rocks exposed in the Sulaiman area can be divided into three main groups to emphasize their tectonic significance (Raza et al., 1989). From east to west, along the gravity profile (Figure 2), these units are: (1) Late Oligocene to Recent molasse deposited at the deformation front; (2) Permian to Eocene, shallow marine shelf to deep marine rocks exposed in the fold belt area (Kazmi and Rana, 1982); and (3) late Eocene to early Oligocene Khojak Flysch (Lawrence and Khan, 1990), deposited between the Chaman transform fault to the west and the Muslimbagh ophiolite in the east. These later sequences are thrust over Mesozoic-Cenozoic shelf strata, along a number of thrust faults in the Zhob valley (Abbas and Ahmad, 1979). Ophiolites are present all along the eastern (Sengupta et al., 1990), northern (Gansser, 1980), and western (Gansser, 1980; Lawrence et al., 1981) convergence boundaries of the Indo-Pakistani plate. In the west they probably continue underneath the Khojak Flysch as remnants of Neotethys oceanic crust (Farah and Zaigham, 1979).

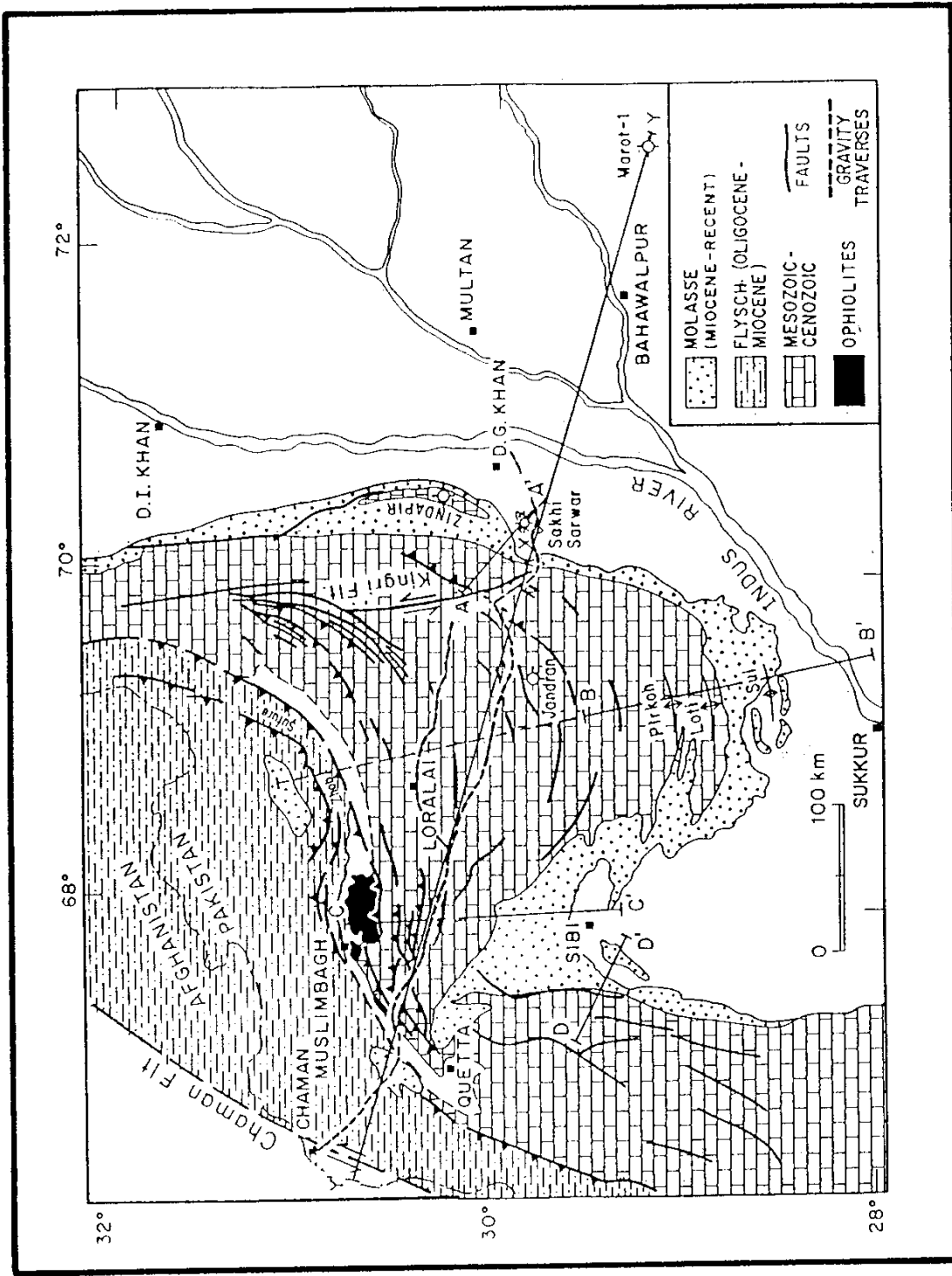


Figure 2— Map of the Sulaiman fold belt showing the major tectonic features and some of the anticlinal structures at the deformation front (modified from Humayon et al., 1991). A-A' is the location of the cross-section interpreted by Humayon et al. (1991) and B-B' is the position of the cross section interpreted by Jadoon et al. (1991). C-C' and D-D' are the locations of the cross-sections made by Banks and Warburton (1986). Y-Y' is the gravity profile interpreted in Figures 4 to 7, and the broken lines from D. G. Khan to Chaman are the actual gravity transects done by the Geological Survey of Pakistan.

AGE	FORMATION	LITHOLOGY	TECTONO-STRATIGRAPHIC UNITS	THICKNESS (m)		SEISMIC VELOCITY RANGE (m/s)
				FOLD-BELT	FORE-DEEP	
MIOCENE-RECENT	SIWALIKS		Molasse. Final collision, uplift and rapid erosion sequence.	2000 to 3200	300 to 2000	2000 to 2700
	CHITARWATA					
EOCENE	KIRTHAR		Initial collision sequence of shallow marine rocks.	1700 to 4000	200 to 1700	2300 to 3000
	GHAZIJ					
PALEOCENE	DUNGAN		Post-rift deposits.	0 to 1900	0 to 1500	2700 to 4600
	RANIKOT					
CRETACEOUS	PAB		Passive continental margin sequence deposited during drift of India.	0 to 1900	0 to 1500	2700 to 4600
	FORT MUNRO					
	MUGHAL KOT					
	PARH					
	GORU					
	SEMBER					
JURASSIC	CHILTAN		Syn-rift and Pre-rift deposits ?	0 to 3800	100 to 1300	2800 to 5200
	LORALAI					
TRIASSIC	ALOZI					
PALEOZOIC	PERMIAN TO CAMBRIAN					
	SALT RANGE	Not exposed or drilled			200 to 1200	
PRECAMBRIAN- INFRACAMBRIAN	BASEMENT					6000 to 6200

Figure 3— Generalized stratigraphy of the Sulaiman fold belt and foredeep (adapted from Humayon et al., 1991). Thicknesses in the fold belt and foredeep are shown along with interval velocities encountered in the foredeep area, on the basis of which sediment densities (Table 2) are approximated for the present study.

Figure 3 gives the general stratigraphy of the Sulaiman fold belt and foredeep region, based on surface geology, well data and seismic reflection profiles (Humayon et al., 1991; Jadoon et al., 1991). In the foredeep area, a 2 km thick, Precambrian to Recent sedimentary sequence is encountered in the Marot well (Figure 2, Humayon et al., 1991). A major stratigraphic break occurs between the Cambrian and Permian sequences (Raza et al., 1989). The Cambrian sequence, marine in origin, thins out in the west, suggesting easterly tilting of the platform during that time. In contrast, the Mesozoic and younger strata thicken to 10 km to the west. Both the Mesozoic and younger strata, predominantly comprised of carbonates, sandstone and shale with facies changes toward the east, suggest typical shelf environments (Malik et al., 1988; Raza et al., 1989; Humayon et al., 1991). In the fold belt, exposures are generally older toward the west as the strata are uplifted 4 to 8 km from their regional level as a result of duplex geometry (Figure 2; Banks and Warburton, 1986; Humayon et al., 1991; Jadoon et al., 1991). On the western side of the fold belt Khojak Flysch (dominantly deep water turbidites) and ophiolites are present (Lawrence et al., 1981).

Facies changes in the Mesozoic-Cenozoic sedimentary sequences, from west to east and north to south (Figure 2), indicate deep marine to shallow water shelf environments, reflecting evolution of a passive continental margin during Mesozoic time. Collision processes from Paleocene to Recent time were accompanied by emplacement of the ophiolite along the western margin of the Indo-Pakistani plate (Lawrence et al., 1981).

### PREVIOUS WORK

Despite its intriguing structure and tectonic importance in the framework of crustal shortening along the Himalayan convergence zone, little geological/geophysical information is available on the Sulaiman area. Some geological mapping was undertaken by the Geological Survey of Pakistan, in collaboration with the Hunting Survey Corporation at a scale of 1:250,000 (Jones, 1961). Structural studies, predominantly based on LANDSAT images, seismicity and field studies, were done by Abdel-Gawad (1971), Menki and Jacob (1976), Rowlands (1978), Quittmeyer et al. (1979), Verma et al. (1980) and Hemphill and Kidwai (1973). These studies interpret the structure of the area as dominated by north-south trending, left-lateral strike slip faults and arcuate, compressional folds and faults. The axial orientation of the compressional features changes from east-west to north-south within the lobe. Banks and Warburton (1986) and Humayon et al. (1991) presented a passive roof duplex model to partly explain the enormous sedimentary thickness formed at the deformation front of the Sulaiman-Kirthar ranges.

Rahman (1969) interpreted a 55 km thick crust, based on a gravity profile running along the road from Sukkur to Chaman, via Sibi and Quetta (Figure 2). Bouguer anomalies generally decrease from about -50 mgals in the Indus basin in the east to about -200 mgals at the Chaman fault, and then increase to -50 mgals over Afghanistan to the west (McGinnis, 1971; Marussi, 1976, see his plate 2). In contrast to the interpretation of Rahman (1969), who was unaware of the great thickness of the sedimentary wedge, the gravity behavior might be attributable to the deepening of the sedimentary section, accompanied by shallowing of the Moho from east to west (as discussed later in this paper). On a smaller scale, positive Bouguer gravity anomalies in the Zhob area have been attributed to scattered, thin-skinned ophiolite bodies and partly to shallowing of the Moho (Farah and Zaigham, 1979). In addition, some earthquake studies were carried out by Menki and Jacob (1976), Molnar and Tapponnier (1978), Rowlands (1978), Sceber and Armbruster (1979), Verma et al. (1980), and others supporting active tectonics in the region. Surface waves studies by Chun (1986) suggest that the lithosphere beneath the Sulaiman Range has an oceanic affinity.

No other large-scale geophysical work has been reported in the Sulaiman area, except for proprietary seismic reflection and gravity surveys carried out by oil companies in the Sulaiman foredeep. Some of these data have been utilized as surface and subsurface constraints for this study.

### DATA COLLECTION AND REDUCTION

In order to interpret the gross density structure of the Sulaiman region, gravity traverses were run along roads from D. G. Khan to Chaman by the Geological Survey of Pakistan (Figure 2). The gravity data were observed at 2 to 2.5 km intervals and tied to local gravity base stations and subsequently to the international gravity base at Karachi Airport (24° 53' 54" N, 67° 09' 12" E). To the east, between D. G. Khan and Marot, the gravity values were incorporated from the Bouguer gravity map of AMOCO Pakistan Exploration Company (1972). The observed Bouguer gravity values are projected on profile Y-Y', running almost parallel to the roads (Table 1 and Figure 2), at 5 km intervals and in total 115 Bouguer gravity values are utilized in this study.

The Bouguer gravity values are calculated using the 1930 Geodetic Reference System and density value of 2.67 gm/cm<sup>3</sup>. The elevation of each gravity station was measured by an altimeter and was considered correct within 5 m, as these values were tied to local triangulation points established by the Survey of Pakistan. Along line Y-Y', the average elevation in the fold belt (km marks 0 to 375 in Table 1) is about 1400 metres and in the foredeep it is just over 100 metres (km marks 380 to 575 in Table 1). Terrain

**Table 1. Straight line (Y-Y') projection of gravity values between Chaman and Marot. X = 0 km distance is on the west end of the line Y-Y'. Gravity values are projected at 5 km intervals; Z = elevation in km; F.A = Free-air anomaly in mgals; B.A = Bouguer anomaly in mgals; I.A = Airy isostatic anomaly in mgals.**

X(km)	Z(km)	F.A(mgal)	B.A(mgal)	I.A(mgal)
<b>Fold belt</b>				
0	1.493	+ 08	- 158	+ 12
5	1.637	+ 24	- 157	+ 14
10	2.165	+ 77	- 151	+ 20
15	1.815	+ 51	- 151	+ 20
20	1.605	+ 26	- 152	+ 20
25	1.546	+ 20	- 153	+ 20
30	1.505	+ 12	- 156	+ 17
35	1.483	+ 1	- 159	+ 14
40	1.468	- 1	- 165	+ 9
45	1.460	- 3	- 166	+ 8
50	1.460	- 5	- 168	+ 7
55	1.462	- 9	- 173	+ 3
60	1.485	- 4	- 169	+ 8
65	1.505	+ 6	- 162	+ 16
70	1.518	+ 7	- 163	+ 16
75	1.509	+ 7	- 162	+ 18
80	1.524	+ 9	- 162	+ 20
85	1.672	+ 21	- 166	+ 17
90	1.725	+ 25	- 168	+ 17
95	1.795	+ 27	- 173	+ 13
100	1.937	+ 37	- 173	+ 15
105	1.928	+ 42	- 173	+ 16
110	2.080	+ 57	- 175	+ 16
115	2.122	+ 70	- 163	+ 29
120	1.975	+ 55	- 162	+ 31
125	2.122	+ 78	- 157	+ 37
130	2.204	+ 87	- 155	+ 39
135	2.240	+ 91	- 154	+ 40
140	2.347	+ 102	- 155	+ 39
145	2.527	+ 123	- 154	+ 39
150	2.637	+ 136	- 154	+ 38
155	2.408	+ 109	- 155	+ 36
160	2.300	+ 99	- 154	+ 35
165	2.260	+ 94	- 155	+ 32
170	2.163	+ 90	- 150	+ 34
175	2.041	+ 83	- 145	+ 36
180	1.958	+ 78	- 142	+ 36
185	1.894	+ 73	- 139	+ 35
190	1.788	+ 62	- 136	+ 34
195	1.722	+ 67	- 125	+ 41
200	1.631	+ 56	- 126	+ 36
205	1.634	+ 63	- 120	+ 37
210	1.445	+ 41	- 121	+ 32
215	1.356	+ 35	- 117	+ 31
220	1.183	+ 28	- 104	+ 40
225	1.072	+ 25	- 95	+ 45
230	1.055	+ 30	- 90	+ 46
235	0.950	+ 25	- 89	+ 43
240	0.960	+ 25	- 84	+ 45
245	0.955	+ 26	- 82	+ 44
250	0.962	+ 31	- 75	+ 46
255	0.963	+ 34	- 73	+ 47
260	0.966	+ 38	- 70	+ 48
265	0.963	+ 34	- 73	+ 43
270	0.962	+ 30	- 75	+ 39
275	0.960	+ 32	- 75	+ 37
280	0.947	+ 28	- 77	+ 34
285	0.942	+ 25	- 76	+ 34
290	0.930	+ 30	- 75	+ 33
295	0.945	+ 32	- 74	+ 33
300	0.960	+ 34	- 73	+ 34
305	0.960	+ 33	- 74	+ 32
310	0.945	+ 31	- 75	+ 30
315	0.930	+ 31	- 73	+ 31
320	0.960	+ 37	- 70	+ 34
325	1.006	+ 48	- 65	+ 38
330	1.128	+ 70	- 57	+ 45
335	1.088	+ 67	- 54	+ 47
340	1.273	+ 87	- 51	+ 49
345	1.134	+ 81	- 45	+ 53
350	1.092	+ 70	- 46	+ 50
355	1.400	+ 88	- 37	+ 56
360	1.480	+ 127	- 37	+ 53
365	1.600	+ 140	- 37	+ 49
370	1.024	+ 68	- 43	+ 39
375	0.771	+ 24	- 54	+ 24

(Table 1 continued)

X(km)	Z(km)	F.A(mgal)	B.A(mgal)	I.A(mgal)
<b>Foredeep</b>				
380	0.396	- 43	- 73	+ 00
385	0.348	- 50	- 84	- 15
390	0.268	- 64	- 90	- 26
395	0.215	- 81	- 97	- 37
400	0.180	- 92	- 104	- 49
405	0.150	- 99	- 112	- 60
410	0.123	-107	- 116	- 68
415	0.116	- 97	- 110	- 65
420	0.114	- 96	- 109	- 67
425	0.113	- 95	- 108	- 68
430	0.113	- 94	- 107	- 69
435	0.111	- 93	- 106	- 70
440	0.111	- 93	- 106	- 72
445	0.110	- 92	- 105	- 72
450	0.110	- 90	- 102	- 70
455	0.110	- 85	- 97	- 67
460	0.110	- 80	- 92	- 63
465	0.110	- 76	- 88	- 60
470	0.110	- 72	- 84	- 57
475	0.110	- 70	- 82	- 55
480	0.110	- 68	- 80	- 54
485	0.108	- 66	- 78	- 53
490	0.108	- 63	- 75	- 50
495	0.108	- 61	- 73	- 49
500	0.108	- 60	- 70	- 49
505	0.108	- 58	- 70	- 47
510	0.108	- 58	- 70	- 48
515	0.107	- 57	- 69	- 47
520	0.107	- 57	- 69	- 47
525	0.107	- 55	- 67	- 46
530	0.107	- 52	- 64	- 43
535	0.107	- 51	- 63	- 43
540	0.107	- 50	- 62	- 42
545	0.107	- 49	- 61	- 41
550	0.107	- 46	- 58	- 39
555	0.107	- 40	- 52	- 33
560	0.107	- 33	- 45	- 26
565	0.107	- 27	- 39	- 21
570	0.107	- 22	- 34	- 16
575	0.107	- 18	- 30	- 12

corrections were also applied; however, they only range from 0 to 5 mgals.

The Bouguer gravity values calculated agree well with the AMOCO (1972), and Marussi (1976) Bouguer gravity anomaly maps. However, considerable discrepancies occur with Bouguer gravity values of Rahman (1969), and Farah and Zaigham (1979) in the Chaman and Muslimbagh areas, respectively (Figure 2). Rahman did not mention what density he used for Bouguer reduction. However, the low Moho density contrast ( $0.15 \text{ gm/cm}^3$ ) used in his model to calculate crustal thickness, suggests that a reduction density higher than the standard  $2.67 \text{ gm/cm}^3$  was used, leading to relatively low Bouguer gravity values. On the Farah and Zaigham (1979) profile the effect of high density mass lying on the surface appears to be dominant, because two reduction densities ( $2.6$  and  $2.8 \text{ gm/cm}^3$ ) were used for the Bouguer correction. However, gravity values do decrease towards the west and the crustal structure interpreted in the later study is consistent with the model presented in this paper.

#### DISCUSSION OF GRAVITY ANOMALIES

Figure 4 displays the gravity anomalies relative to each other and to topography, drawn at about eighty times vertical exaggeration. Numerical values relative to the same horizontal coordinates are shown in Table 1.

##### Free-Air Gravity Anomalies

Free-air anomalies generally mimic the topography of an area, because compensation that occurs at a deep level yields a longer-wavelength effect (Heiskanen and Meinesz, 1958). The highest free-air gravity values ( $+100$  mgals) are observed in areas of high elevation in the fold belt, while the lowest values ( $\sim -100$  mgals) are just east of the deformation front (near D. G. Khan), in the foredeep. Similar high free-air anomalies are observed at Fort Munro ( $+140$  mgals) and at Ziarat ( $+136$  mgals). Comparison of these anomalies to topography (1.6 km and 2.6 km, respectively) suggests some contribution from high density material at depth in the Fort Munro-Loralai area. On the western end of the profile, free-air gravity values are near zero, suggesting roots corresponding to topography produce isostatic compensation in this region.

##### Bouguer Gravity Anomalies

Bouguer gravity anomalies along profile Y-Y' generally decrease toward the west, with a low over the foredeep and



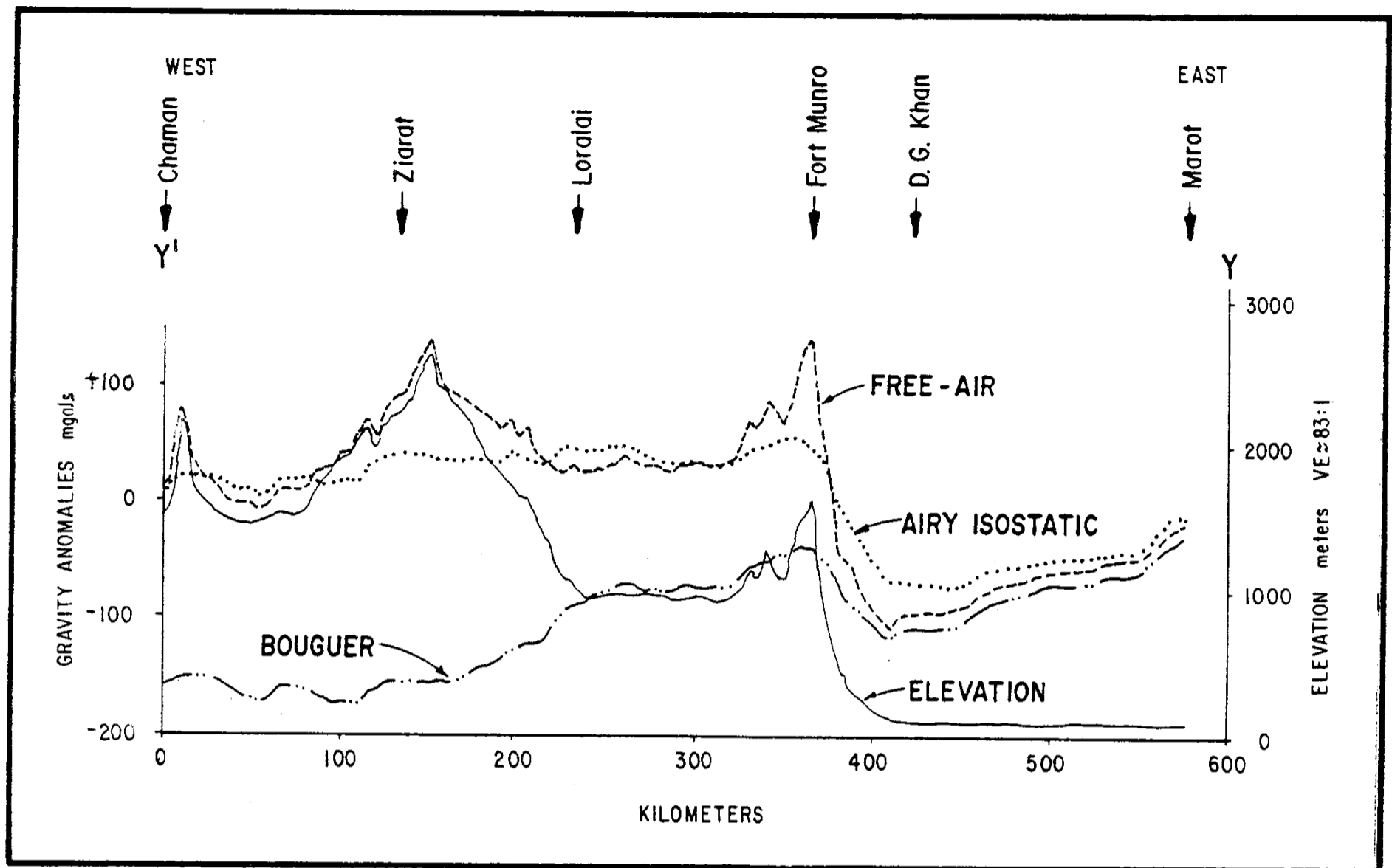


Figure 4— Gravity anomalies relative to elevation along gravity profile Y-Y'. Note that Bouguer anomalies are negative in the Sulaiman Range, while free-air and Airy isostatic anomalies are generally positive.

high over the frontal Sulaiman Range, separated by a gradient of about 1.6 mgals/km. In the foredeep region, short-wavelength variations are primarily due to shallow-depth sedimentary structures, which are apparent on seismic reflection sections (Humayon et al., 1991). Values decrease to -116 mgals near D. G. Khan and abruptly increase to -37 mgals at Fort Munro. They remain relatively high for some distance to the west, decreasing slightly at a rate of about -0.3 mgals/km. Still farther west, between kilometre points 270 and 170, in the region west of Loralai, Bouguer anomalies decrease rapidly from -75 mgals to -155 mgals at a rate of about -1.0 mgal/km. West of the 170 km point the Bouguer gravity field is relatively flat, with three short-wavelength anomalies apparent.

#### Airy Isostatic Gravity Anomalies

To compute Airy isostatic anomalies, Bouguer anomalies were calculated that would result if the topography along the profile was compensated only by a crustal root (Figure 5). These computed anomalies were then subtracted from the observed Bouguer profile to yield

the Airy Isostatic anomalies. For this purpose a 35 km thickness is assumed for 'normal' crust of the Indo-Pakistani plate. Roots were calculated by using densities of  $2.7 \text{ gm/cm}^3$  for the crust and  $3.3 \text{ gm/cm}^3$  for the upper mantle, which gives a density contrast of  $-0.6 \text{ gm/cm}^3$ . The Airy compensation depth "H" from sea level is then calculated by:

$$H = T + 4.5h$$

where "T" is the normal crustal thickness and "h" is the height of the topography above sea level.

Isostatic gravity anomaly values in the area range from -72 mgals to +56 mgals, and the average value is +3 mgals, suggesting very general compensation of the area; however, there are zones that systematically deviate from equilibrium (Figure 4). Major patterns are a negative anomaly in the foredeep region, steep gradient between D. G. Khan and Fort Munro, a long-wavelength positive anomaly toward the west beyond 370 km, and various short wavelength anomalies.

The steep gradient that extends from about the 400 km point to the 370 km point separates low values over the

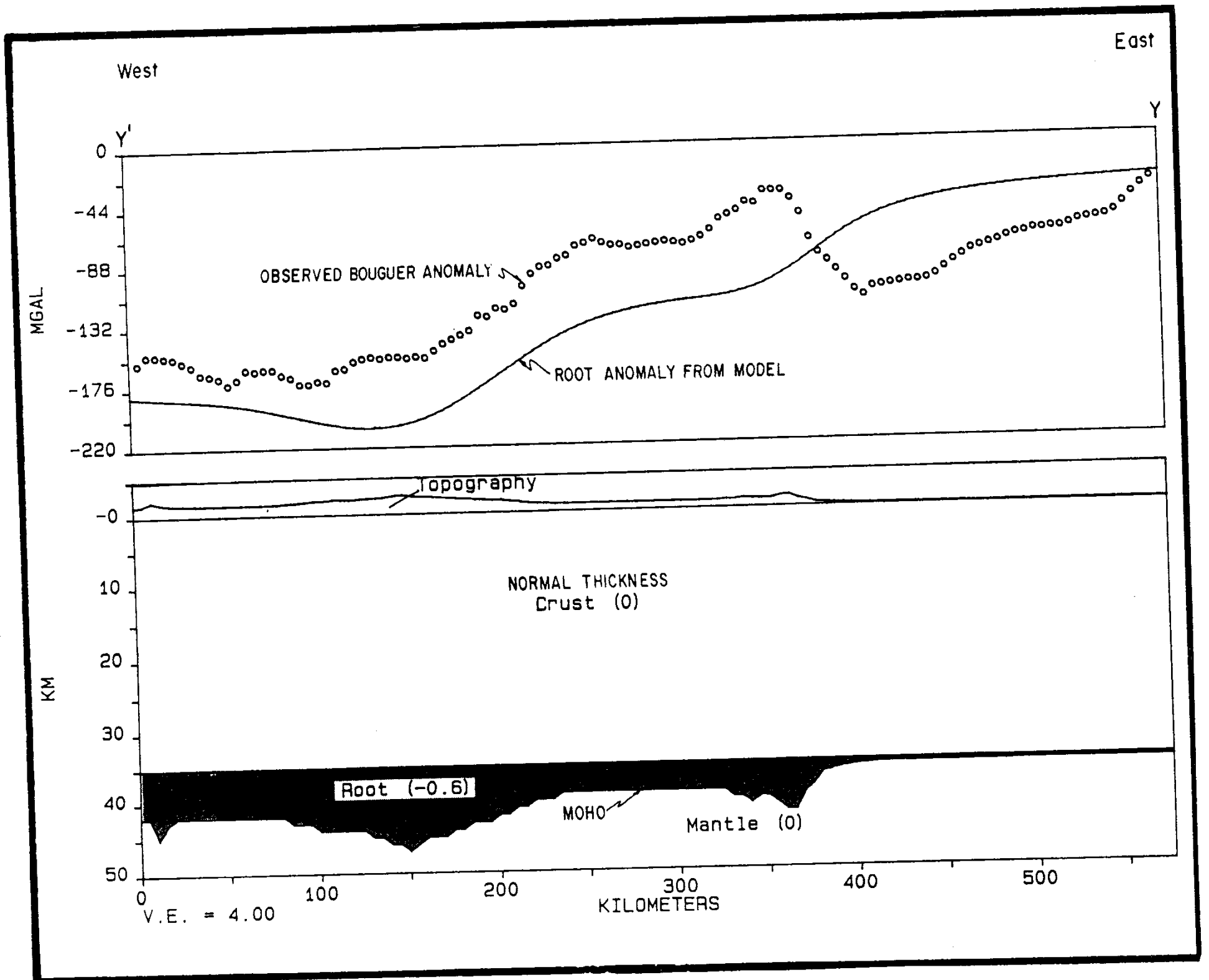


Figure 5— Roots calculated corresponding to surface topography, for normal crust of 35 km thickness at sea level, using Airy Isostatic compensation model. Compensation is assumed at 50 km depth at the base of the model. Assuming density  $2.7 \text{ gm/cm}^3$  for the topography and crust, and  $3.3 \text{ gm/cm}^3$  for the mantle, a density contrast of  $0.6 \text{ gm/cm}^3$  is used across the Moho. Comparison of calculated root anomaly with observed Bouguer profile suggests that roots explain only parts of the observed profile. Subtraction of the calculated root anomaly from the observed Bouguer anomaly gives the Airy isostatic anomaly shown in Figure 4.

foredeep from higher values over the frontal zone. The Airy isostatic anomaly values increase by 118 mgals over this zone. Similar isostatic gravity gradients are evident at many oceanic-continental boundaries (Rabinowitz and Labrecque, 1977).

In the foredeep region close similarity of short-wavelength anomalies with free-air and Bouguer gravity anomalies appears to be due to the dominance of structures at shallow depths. However, the isostatic anomaly is calculated by assuming the density contrast between the crust and mantle, and subtracting the root anomaly from the Bouguer gravity anomaly (Figure 5);

deviations of the anomaly from zero may represent variations in Moho depth. In the Fort Munro-Loralai region the broad-wavelength positive isostatic anomaly may suggest undercompensation due to shallower than expected mantle material. It may be a southward extension of the shallow mantle identified in the Muslimbagh region (Figure 2; Farah and Zaigham, 1979), possibly inherited from Mesozoic rifting.

In the western extremity, beyond the 120 km point, the isostatic anomalies are near zero, suggesting local isostatic compensation of the region. Superimposed, three short-wavelength anomalies may represent a shallow, high

density mass in the Ziarat region and isolated ophiolite bodies, in the subsurface, in the flysch basin region (Gansser, 1980; Farah and Zaigham, 1979).

The free-air anomalies also approach zero, beyond the 120 km point, west of Ziarat. The relatively low free-air values for such high topography at Ziarat may suggest mass deficiency in the deep subsurface. On the Bouguer anomaly, steep westward gradient, between kilometre points 270 and 170, suggests deepening of the Moho and subsequent thickening of the crust to the west. The short-wavelength Bouguer anomaly (positive isostatic anomaly as well) present immediately at the lower end of the westward gradient, between 170-120 km points at Ziarat, is likely to be from a shallow source. Jurassic to Cretaceous rocks are exposed in the Ziarat region and topography is very high. It is possible that this shallow depth, high density source beneath Ziarat may be a basement high, While the remaining two short-wavelength anomalies are due to subsurface ophiolite bodies.

### CONSTRAINTS

Since most of the major structures in the Sulaiman region are linear, 2-D modeling is a reasonable approach to interpret the Bouguer gravity anomalies observed in the area. The location of the profile was chosen purposely, keeping in mind the accessibility of the area and the work done and data used by Humayon et al. (1991). These data provide constraints for sediment thicknesses in the foredeep and frontal part of the Sulaiman fold belt. However, deep inside the fold belt area, control on sediment thickness can only be estimated from surface geology (Banks and Warburton, 1986; Humayon et al., 1991). Only in the area between Loralai and the western boundary of the Mesozoic sediments (approximately between the 100 and 250 km marks) are the structures strongly oblique to the section line. In this area, the 2-D modeling has some limitations.

At the Marot well (Figure 2) the basement is encountered at about 2 km depth and dips at about  $2.5^\circ$  toward the west. Near the deformation front it is about 8 km deep and extends off the bottom of seismic lines at 5 sec two-way travel time (Humayon et al., 1991). Similarly, in the southern Sulaiman Range more than 15 km of sediments are interpreted near Jandran along line B-B' (Jadoon et al., 1991). If one extrapolates the basement surface deep inside the fold belt, assuming the same gentle dip along both the southern and eastern lines, it deepens to about 20 km near Loralai. This is consistent with the Banks and Warburton (1986) interpretation.

The Mesozoic-Cenozoic sediments are primarily composed of limestone, dolomite, sandstone, and shale, the densities of which generally vary between 2.17 to 2.75 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> (Dobrin and Savit, 1988). Interval velocities from

seismic profiles (Figure 3), and lithologic descriptions and density logs from the Marot well (Humayon et al., 1991) provide estimates for the subsurface densities used in the gravity models. In addition, the Nafe and Drake (1957) curves (published in Sheriff, 1984), were utilized in estimating densities. Table 2 shows estimates of densities for different rock units encountered along the gravity profile.

The densities assumed for the upper and lower crust are 2.8 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> and 2.9 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> respectively. These values are below the density range determined by Chun (1986) for the western wedge of Indo-Pakistani crust. He determined shear wave velocities to be between 3.1 and 3.8 km/sec for the crust, which he associated with densities between 3.0 and 3.08 gm/cm<sup>3</sup>, suggesting to him that the crust beneath the Sulaiman region has an oceanic affinity. On the same basis, densities (Chun, 1986) determined for the upper 10 km of sediments are between 2.66 and 2.72 gm/cm<sup>3</sup>. These densities appear to be systematically high. Menki and Jacob (1976), Seeber and Armbruster (1979), and Kaila (1981), on the basis of earthquake seismic studies, interpreted P-wave velocities of 5.8 to 6.5 km/sec for the upper crust and 6.5 to 7 km/sec for the lower crust. Based on these values, the Nafe and Drake (1957) curves suggest densities from 2.65 to 2.8 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> for upper crust and 2.8 to 3.0 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> for the lower crust. P-wave velocities, determined in the above studies to range from 8 to 8.2 km/sec, suggest a density of 3.25 to 3.35 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> for the upper mantle.

Based on the above information, density contrasts of +0.4 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> between the lower crust and upper mantle, and -0.1 to -0.7 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> between sediments and upper crust were assumed for the 2-D models in this study. To compute the Airy isostatic anomaly, however, a simplified model of 2.7 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> for crust and 3.3 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> for mantle was assumed (Figure 5). The 0.6 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> contrast at the Moho thus yielded smaller roots than would have resulted if 0.4 gm/cm<sup>3</sup> was assumed.

### GRAVITY MODELING

#### Assumptions and Limitations

A unique interpretation is almost impossible through gravity observations because of superimposed effects of many mass distributions; the free-air and Bouguer gravity fields represent the combined effects of shallow and deep sources. Isolated effects of each can only be determined if reasonable constraints are available. Since a primary objective of this study is to interpret the gross crustal structure and configuration of the Moho, some constraints and assumptions on the shallower crust had to be established. Sediment thicknesses west of the deformation front were estimated by assuming that the basement

**Table 2. Average densities of sedimentary rocks used for gravity models (Figures 6 and 7).**

Geological Units	Age	Approx. velocity km/sec	Assumed Density gm/cm <sup>3</sup>
Molasse	Miocene to Recent	2.0 - 2.7	2.1
Flysch	Oligocene to Miocene	-	2.65
Roofsediments (Cenozoic)	Eocene	2.3 - 3.0	2.55
Shelf sediments (Upper Paleozoic and Mesozoic)	Permian to Cretaceous	2.7 - 5.2	2.65
Ophiolites	?	-	2.8

Note: The P-wave velocities are obtained from Humayon et al., (1991), and the assumed densities are estimated according to Nafe and Drake (1957).

descends at about the same angle (2.5°) observed at the deformation front, reaching a depth of about 20 km in the hinterland (Banks and Warburton, 1986).

A limitation is that the model is assumed to be 2-D, which is not entirely accurate because the line of section is oblique to the strike of the surface geologic structures in many places (Figure 2). Thus, a more thorough interpretation may require 3-D parameters, which is beyond the scope of the present study.

#### Construction of Models

In the foredeep region gravity anomalies are of low amplitude and there are no major differences between the free-air, Bouguer, and isostatic anomalies (Figure 4). Short-wavelength anomalies are caused by local structures identified on seismic profiles in the region (Humayon et al., 1991). West of the deformation front, positive free-air and isostatic anomalies suggest undercompensation, perhaps by mantle material that is shallower than expected in the region west of the 400 km point.

The comparison of observed Bouguer anomalies with the calculated root anomaly in Figure 5 suggests that portions of the region are compensated in a manner that differs significantly from simple Airy isostatic equilibrium.

Subtraction of the calculated root anomaly from the observed Bouguer anomaly in Figure 5 thus yields the Airy isostatic anomaly shown in Figure 4 and in Table 1. Figure 6 depicts a 2-D density model constructed using the above mentioned constraints, assumptions and the shape of the Moho from the crustal root calculated in Figure 5. The anomaly calculated from the model shows a low toward the foreland and high over the hinterland. This anomaly is in agreement with the observed Bouguer anomaly in the eastern and western extremity of the gravity profile, but the long wavelength discrepancy in the region between the 500 km and 100 km points might suggest shallowing of the Moho to match the relatively high Bouguer anomaly. Figure 7 depicts the same 2-D density model as in Figure 6, but with the Moho adjusted so that the observed and calculated Bouguer anomalies are in close agreement.

#### DISCUSSION OF MODELS

The constructed model in Figure 7 suggests the presence of a 15 to 25 km thick transitional crust underneath the Sulaiman fold belt, with the gradual shallowing of the Moho from 35 km depth at the 530 km point to about 30 km depth at the 300 km point to the west. Large discrepancy in the observed and the calculated values between the 350 km and 250 km points is in the region where gravity values could not be observed in the field. Hence, the values in this region were approximated between the values observed along the roads and the nearby gravity contours.

In the central part of the model, the Moho descends steeply between the 270 and 170 km points to about 43 km depth and then flattens out to the west in the Chaman transform fault region. This configuration suggests local isostatic equilibrium in the region (e.g., Warner, 1987), which is also evident from near zero free-air and Airy isostatic gravity values (Figure 4, Table 1).

The calculated gravity in Figure 7a depicts the contribution of the low density sedimentary section, relative to the upper part of the crystalline crust. The calculated gravity closely matches with the observed Bouguer gravity from the eastern extremity to about the 350 km point, the Fort Munro gravity high, where observed values are higher than those calculated. One can match the calculated sediments anomaly with the observed Bouguer gravity by decreasing the sediment thickness, but depth to the basement and thicknesses of overlying sediments in the foredeep and at the frontal part of the deformation front are well controlled by seismic reflection and drill hole data (Humayon et al., 1991; Raza et al., 1989). Therefore, little latitude is left to vary these parameters in this area. The calculated anomaly in Figure 7b represents the Moho effect, which generally follows the observed Bouguer gravity anomaly towards the west, beyond Fort Munro. However, the calculated Moho effect is much higher than

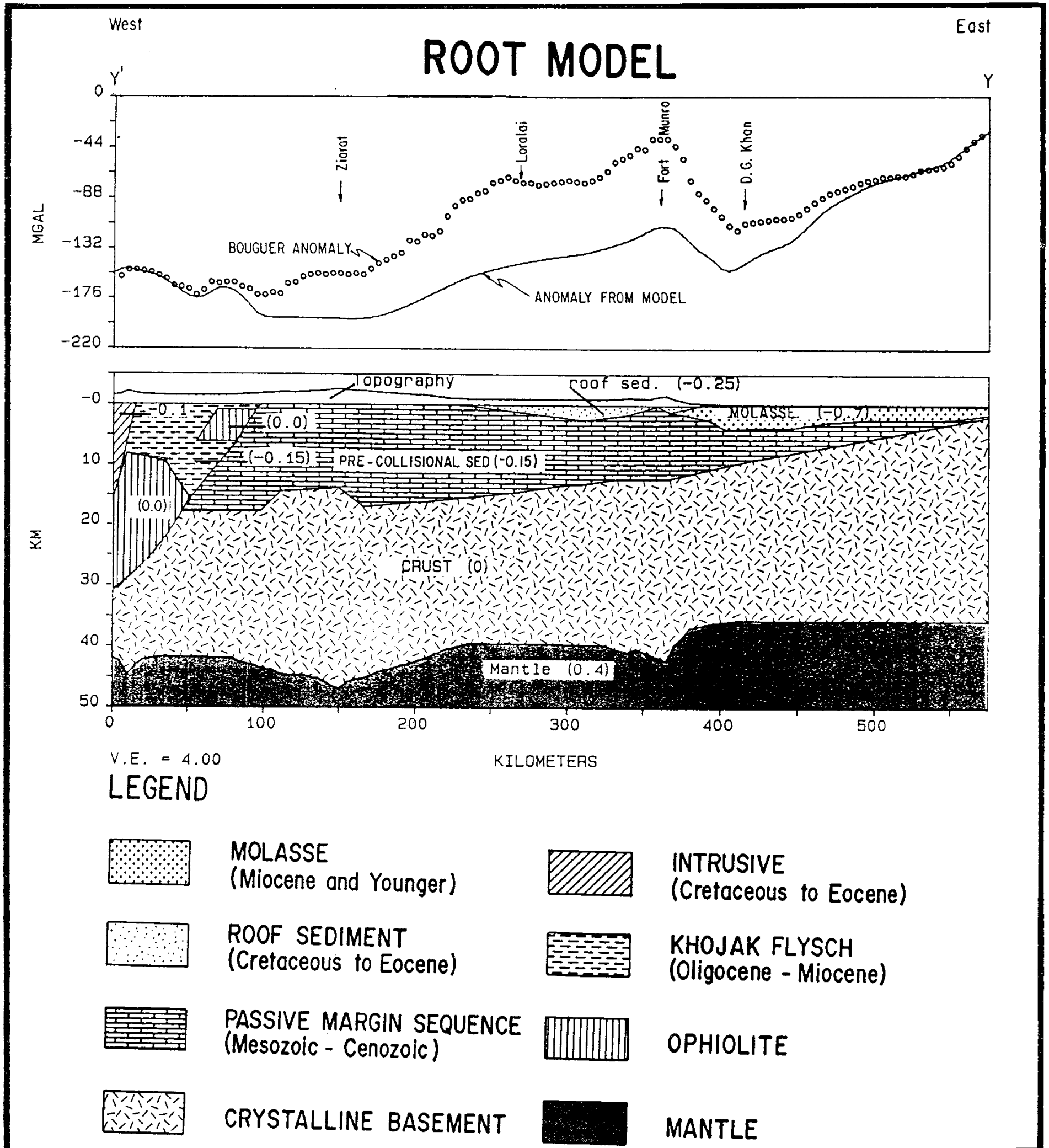


Figure 6. Comparison of the observed Bouguer anomaly and the calculated anomaly of the 2-D density model drawn, using the constraints and assumptions discussed in the text and the Moho depths obtained in Figure 5. The difference between the observed and calculated anomalies might suggest that the mantle is shallower in the region between Km marks 100 and 450. Depth control west of Km mark 350 is poor and is based on: (i) Banks and Warburton (1986) structural interpretation, (ii) assuming that the basement is continuously deepening towards the west as it does on the seismic reflection lines in the foredeep and beneath the deformation front (Humayon et al., 1991; Jadoon et al., 1991). The basement high (km marks 120 to 170) is the same as that interpreted in the model (Figure 7). Ophiolite bodies are arbitrarily drawn to match the small wavelength anomalies. Density contrasts ( $\text{gm/cm}^3$ ) for the sediments and mantle are relative to the crystalline crust.

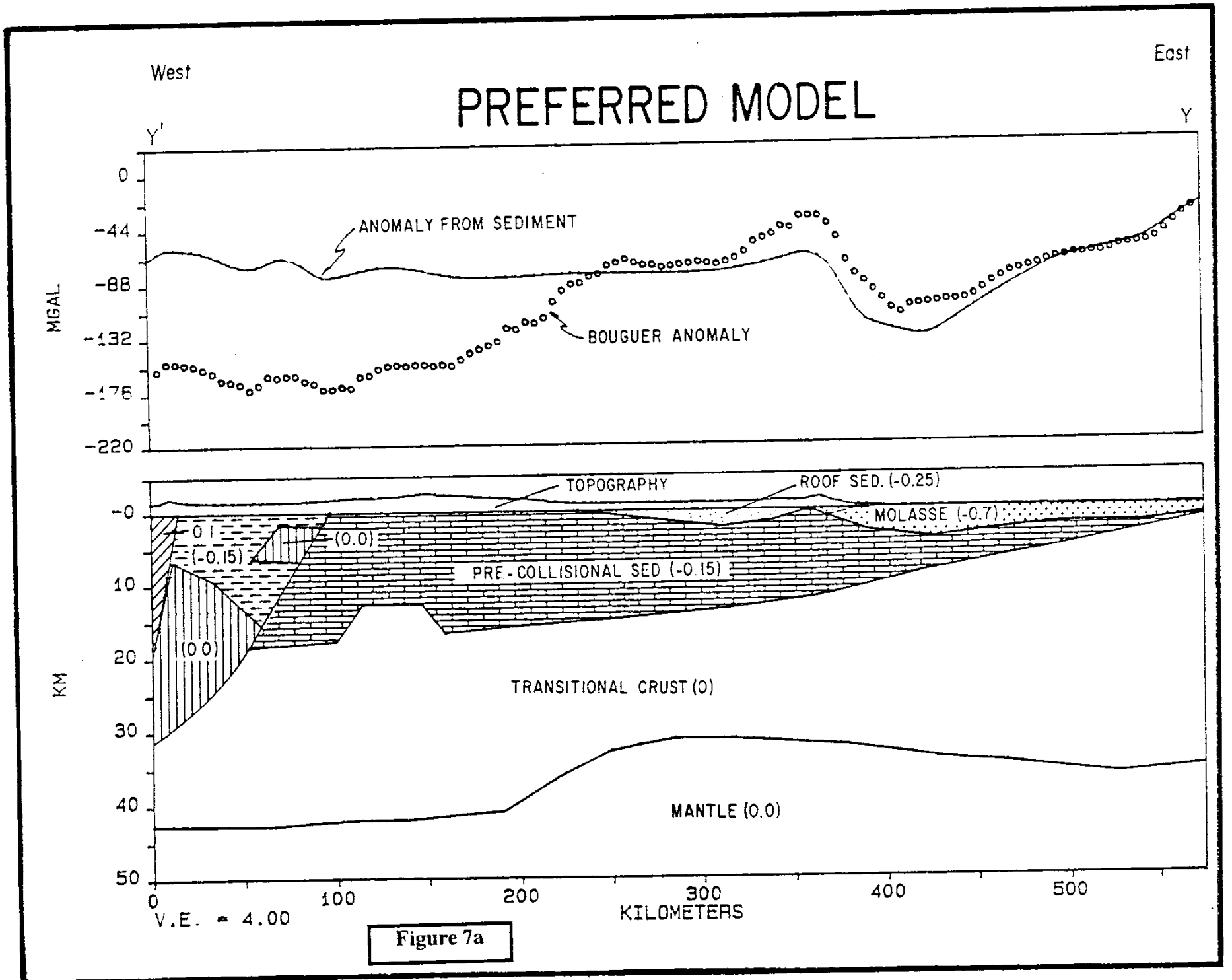


Figure 7. Preferred 2-D density model showing the presence of transitional crust underneath the thick sediments of the Sulaiman fold belt. The model shows relatively shallow Moho between 540 km point to 170 km point. To the west of the 170 km point, the Moho flattens at about 43 km depth. A 50 km wide basement high is interpreted between the 170 km and 120 km points. Sediments, density, basement constraints, ophiolite bodies, and the patterns shown are the same as in Figure 6. Figures 7a, 7b, and 7c, respectively, represent the shallow source, Moho, and cumulative effects. Density contrasts are relative to crystalline basement of assumed density  $2.8 \text{ gm/cm}^3$  for the upper crust and  $2.9 \text{ gm/cm}^3$  for the lower crust. Figure 7d shows the model with no vertical exaggeration.

the lower observed Bouguer values in the east, beneath the foredeep.

According to Humayon et al. (1991) basement is encountered at 2 km depth at the Marot well (Figure 2), and dips gently westward at  $2.5^\circ$  on seismic lines. It is 8 km deep near D. G. Khan, more than 12 km near Sakhi Sarwar (Figure 2), and more than 10 km deep near Jandran (Jadoon et al., 1991). Eocene and younger molasse sediments are about 5 km thick at the deformation front and gradually thin out to about 500 metre at Marot in the foredeep area (Humayon et al., 1991). Based on these

constraints, some contribution from a deeper level is apparent from the discrepancy between the observed and calculated anomalies in the region between the 500 and 350 km points in Figure 7a.

Comparison of Figures 7a and 7b reveals that the thick, low-density sediments may be compensated by a slight shallowing of the Moho in the foredeep region. However, farther west in the Loralai region, deepening of the Moho has subdued the effect of the sediment, and the observed Bouguer gravity curve generally shows the trend of the Moho beyond the Fort Munro anticline, with superimposed

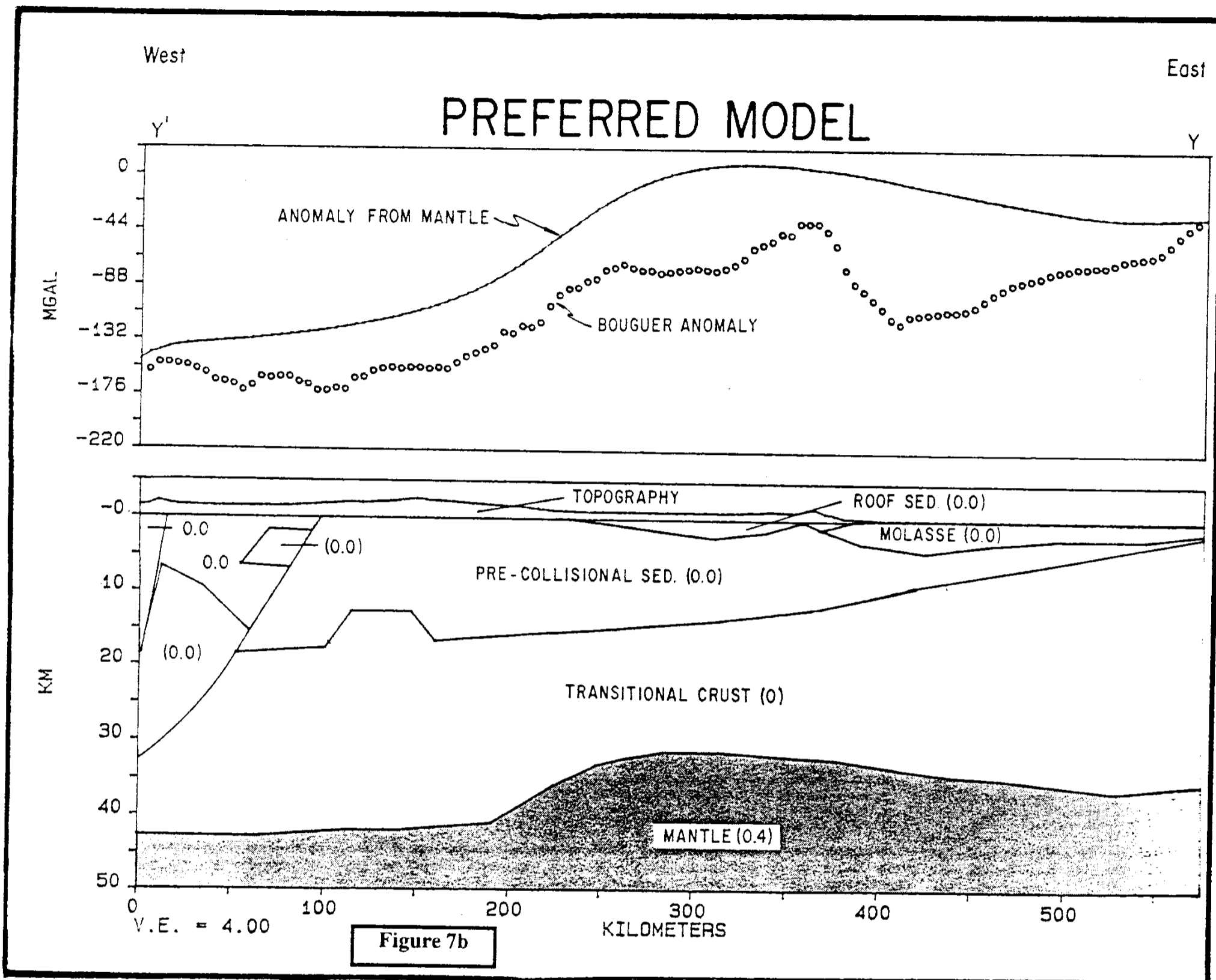


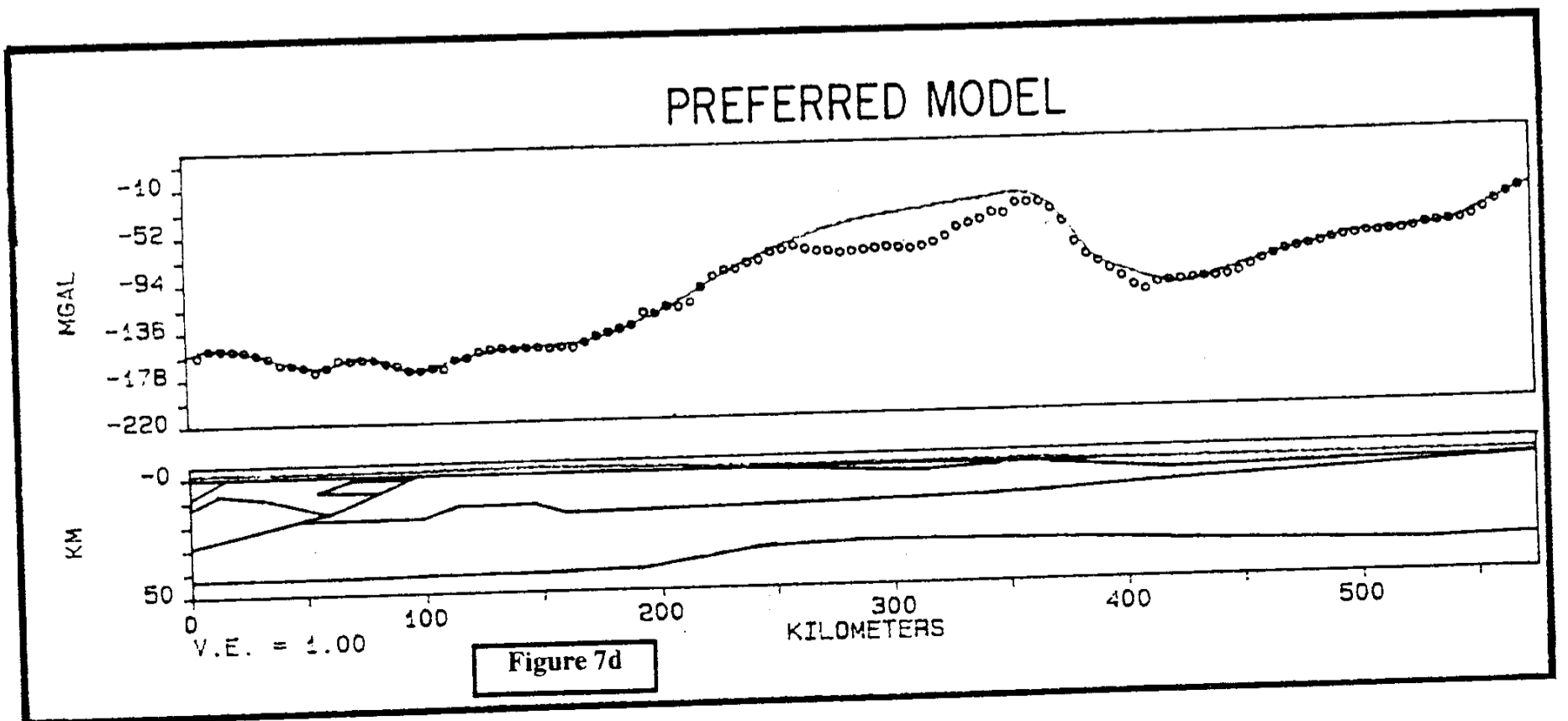
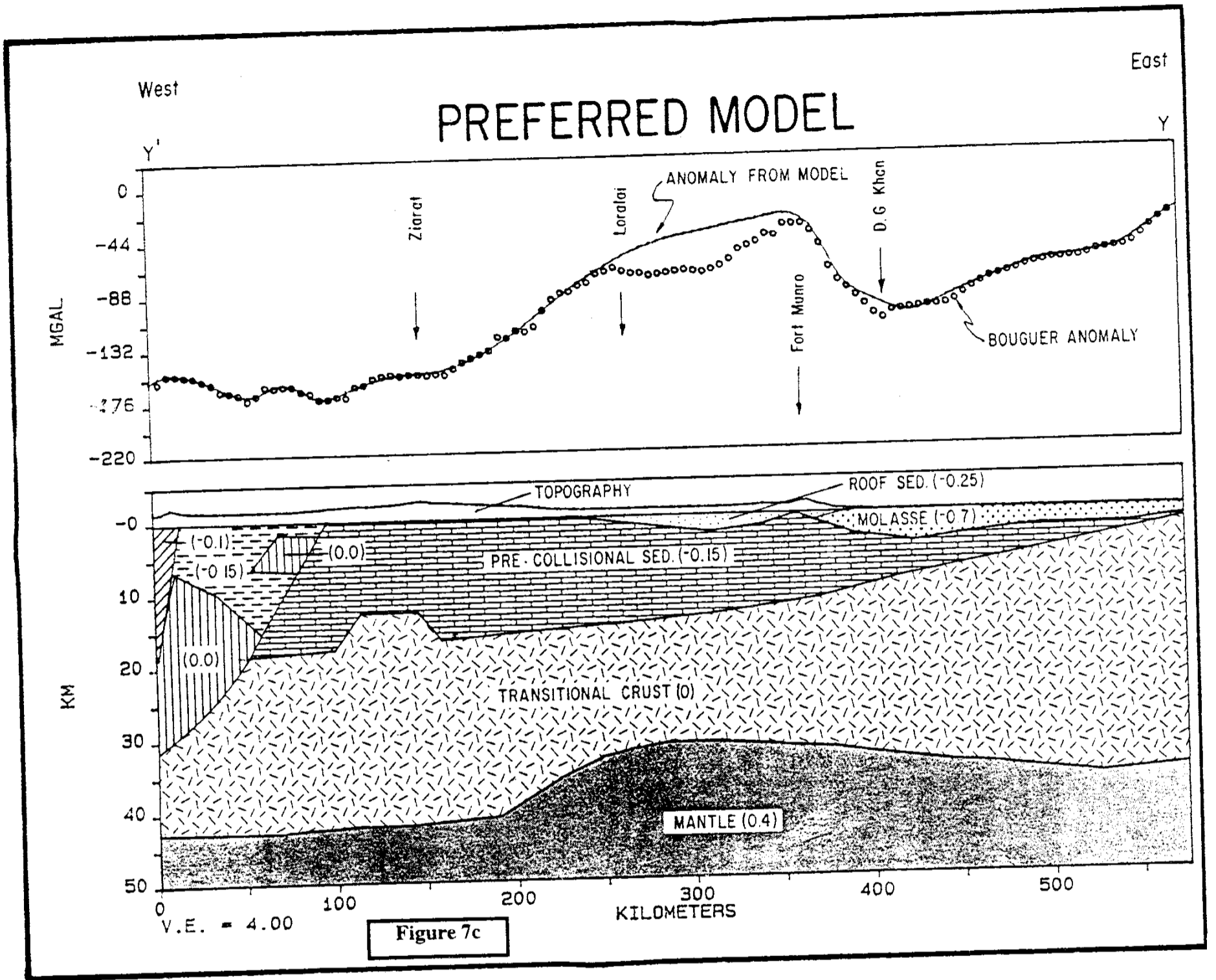
Figure 7b

effects of short wavelength anomalies. Figure 7c shows the combined contribution of the sediments and upper mantle, which agrees closely with the observed Bouguer gravity.

Transitional or rift-stage crust is suggested through gravity modeling to underlie the Sulaiman region. A 4 to 5 km high and 50 km wide basement high has been interpreted between the 170 km and 120 km points (near Ziarat), which might have developed during the rifting of Gondwanaland, or during later compressional tectonics. It possibly is involved, along with an overlying duplex structure, in lifting of the older sequence to more than 8 km above its regional level (Banks and Warburton, 1986; Humayon et al., 1991; Jadoon et al., 1991). Farther west, beyond the 80 km point, ophiolite bodies are drawn arbitrarily to match the remaining two short wavelength anomalies; Eocene-Oligocene ophiolites and flysch, thrust over the older sediments, are documented by field mapping

in that area (Abbas and Ahmad, 1979; Gansser, 1980; Lawrence et al., 1981).

Although no evidences are available to substantiate the existence of the Ziarat basement high, it is plausible considering the nature of the crust interpreted in the region. Outer marginal basement highs have developed on many rifted continental margins, such as the Gulf of Mexico (Hall et al., 1983), along the southwest African continental margin (Gerrard and Smith, 1983), and in the Carolina Trough region (Hutchinson et al., 1983). Such highs are relatively narrow features (10 to 50 km) and extend roughly parallel to the margin for hundreds of kilometres (Hall et al., 1983). The interpreted high at Ziarat may continue in an arcuate manner along the western Indo-Pakistani margin (Figure 2), thus forming a ramp for the emplacement of ophiolites during the Eocene-Oligocene





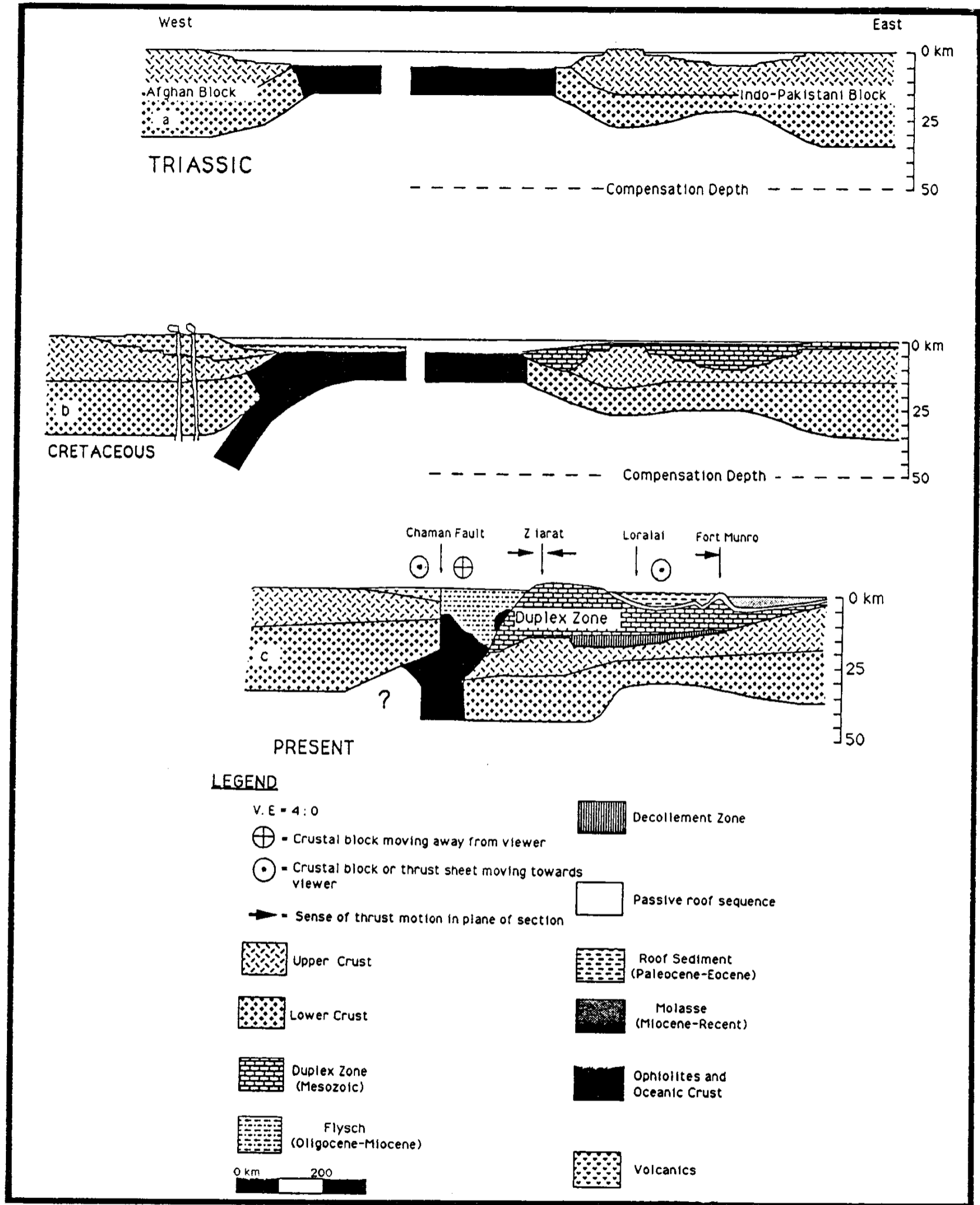


Figure 8. Schematic diagram suggesting one of the possible models of tectonic evolution of the Sulaiman foreland fold-and-thrust belt. The diagram is based on the gravity model shown in Figure 7c. (a) Atlantic type passive continental margin with an outer basement high inherited from Mesozoic rifting. (b) Indo-Pakistani western margin loaded with Mesozoic shelf sediments. The margin is subsided under sediment load and due to thermal cooling to attain isostatic equilibrium. Compensation is assumed to occur at 50 km depth. (c) Present configuration as a result of compressional tectonics since Eocene-Oligocene time. Note subsidence of the basement due to thrusting and increasing sediment load. Shallow Moho beneath the Sulaiman Range may primarily be inherited from earlier passive margin. The model shows crystalline basement involved in later thrusting. Presence of a pre-existing thick crust underneath the high appears to cause space problems during convergence, since shortening may lead to thickening of the crust by more than that suggested by gravity modeling.

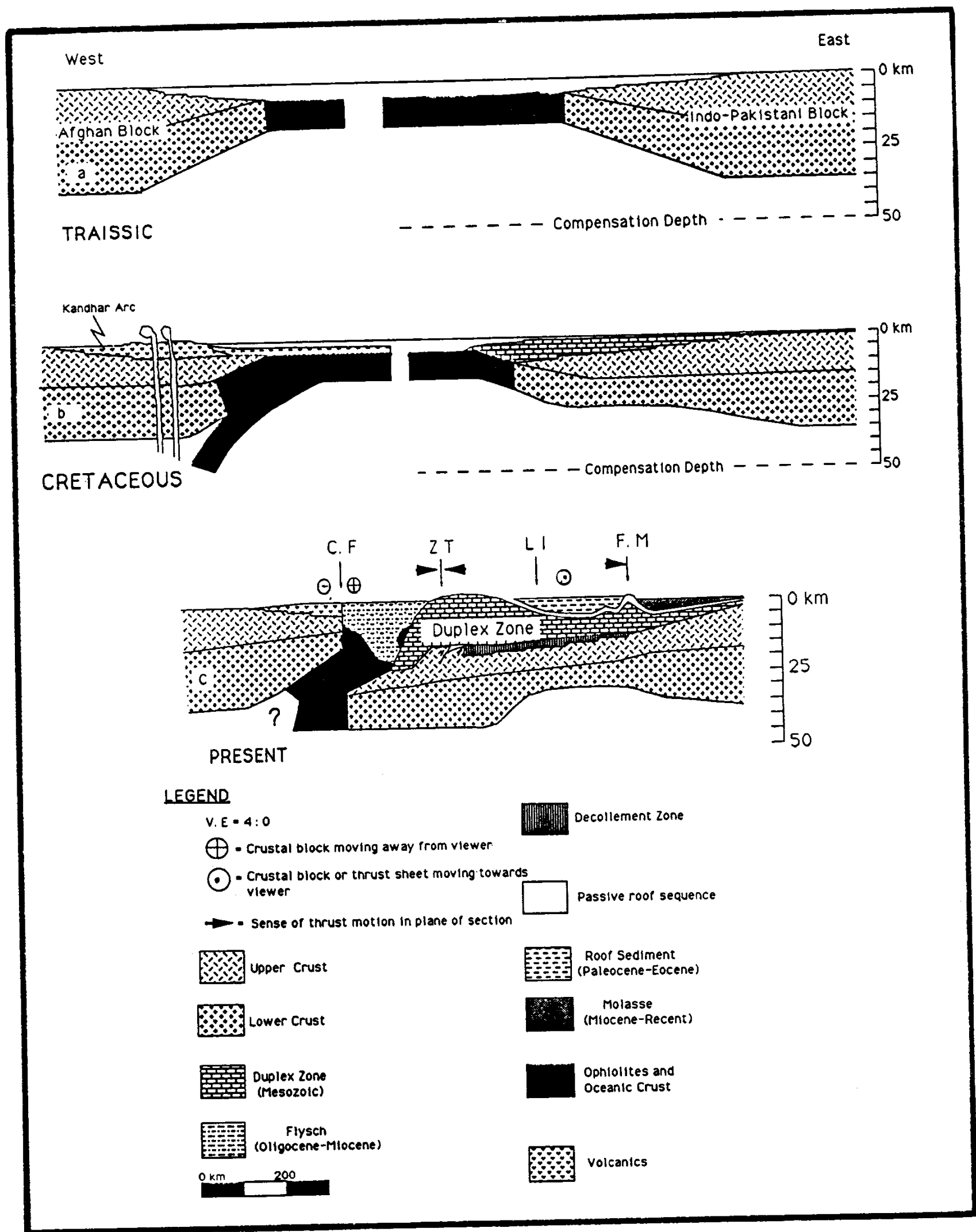


Figure 9. Schematic diagram suggesting alternative tectonic model of the Sulaiman foreland fold-and-thrust belt. The diagram is based on gravity model shown in Figure 7c. (a) Atlantic type passive continental margin inherited from Mesozoic rifting with no outer basement high. (b) Indo-Pakistani western margin loaded with Mesozoic shelf sediments. (c) Present configuration as a result of compressional tectonics since Eocene-Oligocene time. Note subsidence of the basement due to thrusting and increasing sediment load. Shallow Moho beneath the Sulaiman Range may primarily be inherited from earlier passive margin. However, some upwarp may be occurring due to underthrusting of Indo-Pakistan crust beneath crust of the Afghan Block. The model shows crystalline basement involved in thrusting, resulting in formation of the Ziarat High. Shortening of the basement is occurring by reverse motion along old basement normal faults (e.g. Jackson, 1980).

compressional orogeny (R. D. Lawrence, personal communication, 1990).

An alternate explanation could be that the arching of the basement occurred during later compressional movement, in a manner analogous to the Benton uplift in the Ouachita mountains (Lillie et al., 1983). Reverse faulting of the crystalline basement might have resulted in the southeastward (or eastward) and vertical movement of a portion of the continental margin as the Ziarat uplift. This reverse fault movement could have been accomplished by the reactivation of old normal faults developed during Mesozoic rifting, like in the Zagros region (Jackson, 1980). Some basement lineaments are observed on Landsat imagery in the region by Kazmi (1979), which may possibly be related to the Ziarat high.

Figure 5 shows the roots necessary for the region to attain simple Airy isostatic equilibrium according to the assumptions made. In contrast, the preferred model in Figure 7 depicts transitional crust underneath the Sulaiman region. The transitional crust region is wide and varies from 15 to 25 km in thickness, as along many passive margins. For example rift-stage crust of thickness ranging from 7 to 28 km has been observed along the Atlantic margin of North America (Grow, 1980; Hutchinson et al., 1983). So the presence of crust less than continental thickness (15 to 25 km) under the wide Sulaiman sub-basin, filled with deep marine to shallow marine sediments (Raza et al., 1989), may suggest continuation of the some rift-stage crust adjacent to the west coast of India (Figure 1).

Two levels of deformation can be associated with Figure 7 model. On the east, beyond the 200 km point, deformation within sediments appears to be thin skinned as the basement surface appears to be underthrusting in an undeformed state. The broad width and narrow cross-sectional taper of the thrust belt suggest the presence of a weak decollement zone within or at the base of the sedimentary section. The zone could be evaporites as in the Salt Range/Potwar Plateau region (Seeber and Armbruster, 1979; Jaume and Lillie, 1988), or ductile flow within such a thick sedimentary section. At a deep level thick-skinned deformation occurs within the interior of the fold belt, forming the Ziarat basement high and other structures farther west.

#### PREFERRED MODEL AND ITS TECTONIC IMPLICATION

Gravity modeling suggests the existence of transitional crust underneath the Sulaiman fold belt. This crust would have been part of Gondwana prior to its breakup, during late Paleozoic to early Mesozoic time. Figures 8 and 9 represent two possible evolutionary models of the tectonic development of the Sulaiman region. The models are the same except that Figure 8 represents an Atlantic type

passive continental margin, with a pre-existing basement high inherited from Mesozoic rifting. Figure 9 suggests that the basement high developed entirely during later convergence of an Atlantic margin of an even taper. Although both concepts are equally plausible, Figure 9 is preferred for the following reasons. (1) The predominance of deep water sediments favors the existence of an open basins (2) Isostatic assumption in Figures 8a and 8b requires thick crust underneath the high, which apparently is equal in thickness to what is calculated in the Figure 7 model. During convergence, thickening of the basement may lead to the presence of crust much thicker than that calculated in the Figure 7 model, because of the buoyancy of the continental material (McKenzie, 1969). Therefore, the mechanism of crustal thickening discussed above appears to be more consistent with the model shown in Figure 9.

The breaking of the Indo-Pakistani block away from the Gondwana Supercontinent is documented by an early Permian unconformity (Raza et al., 1989; Humayon et al., 1991). This unconformity probably marks a period of erosion associated with thermal and tectonic uplift during the rifting stage of the craton (e.g., Falvey, 1974). Subsequent tectonic processes, such as subsidence caused by thermal cooling of the lithosphere and sediment loading of thin extended basement, led to the development of the thick wedge of Mesozoic sediments along the western passive margin of the Indo-Pakistani subcontinent. The westward tilt of the craton during the Mesozoic is marked on seismic reflection lines by thickening of the west-dipping Mesozoic sequence in the Sulaiman foredeep area (Raza et al., 1989; Humayon et al., 1991). Passive margin structures are identified along the western shore of India (Naini and Talwani, 1983), and continue onland along the western margin of the Indo-Pakistani subcontinent (Figure 1; Biswas, 1982; Quadri and Shuaib, 1986; Malik et al., 1988). Sea floor spreading and synrift sedimentation continued during the rapid northward journey of the Indo-Pakistani plate during Mesozoic and early Tertiary times (Powell, 1979).

The main Himalayan orogeny began during the middle Eocene and was initiated by head-on collision along the northern margin of the Indo-Pakistani plate (Powell, 1979). However, the northwestern margin collided with the Afghan Block in an oblique fashion during Eocene-Oligocene to Recent (Lawrence et al., 1981). Figure 9b depicts the continents on the verge of convergence during Cretaceous time. The model shows the emplacement of the ophiolite, to the west, marking the closure of the ocean and subsequent deposition of flysch. The Indo-Pakistani western margin is subsided and loaded with undeformed sediments prior to convergence. Convergence of the Indo-Pakistani plate along its western margin is responsible for the development of the Sulaiman fold belt, and enormous thickening of the sediments (Banks and Warburton, 1986).

At some stage during convergence, some old normal faults developed during Mesozoic rifting might have absorbed shortening of the basement by reversing their sense of motion. This might have led to the simultaneous development of the Ziarat basement high, crustal thickening, foreland thrusting and thickening of the shelf sediments, and emplacement of flysch and ophiolites. Thrust sheet loading and synorogenic sediment deposition led to the development of the Sulaiman foredeep, like the Ganges foredeep in northern India (Lyon-Caen and Molnar, 1983, 1985), and the Jhelum basin in northern Pakistan (Duroy et al., 1989). However, unlike the Himalayan foreland, which is underlain by full-thickness continental crust, the thick sedimentary section in the Sulaiman Range is compensated by shallow mantle material, inherited from the Mesozoic rifted margin. A similar gravity model has been presented for the Ouachita Mountains of western Arkansas (Lillie et al., 1983), where the thick sedimentary sequence is also accompanied by shallowing of the Moho.

To the east of Ziarat, the deformation style appears to be thin skinned, as is evident from low topography, broad structures (Jaume, 1986), and the presence of Eocene to Recent sediments (Humayon et al., 1991). It is possible that thick sediments at depth are behaving ductilely (Davis and Lillie, manuscript in preparation), as a result of high temperatures (Raza et al., 1989). At the deformation front, the Fort Munro anticline has probably developed as a result of thrusting of the sediments, either along a basement buttress or along a ramp formed within the sediments due to termination of the weak decollement at shallower depths (Humayon et al., 1991).

Figure 9c shows the tectonic state of the region discussed above and based on the gravity model constructed in Figure 7. It represents the combined products of Mesozoic rifting, Eocene to present convergence, and sediment deposition depicted in Figures 9a and 9b. Note that the present configuration incorporates a shallowing of the Moho from the earlier passive margin and thickening of the transitional/oceanic crust to the west.

### CONCLUSIONS

The gravity model shown in Figure 7 combines shallow structures determined from seismic and drill hole data in the foredeep region (Humayon et al., 1991) with geological and structural studies in the hinterland region of the Sulaiman area (Banks and Warburton, 1986; Humayon et al., 1991). Based on the above discussions, conclusions drawn from the gravity observations (Figure 4) and the model are:

1) The entire Sulaiman foreland fold and thrust belt is underlain by transitional crust. The crust is wide and

relatively thick, like that of the Baltimore Canyon (Grow, 1980) and Carolina Trough region (Hutchinson et al., 1983). The thickness of the crystalline crust, beneath the thick sediments, ranges from 15 to 25 km.

2) Two levels of deformation are identified. One is within the crust, which is deforming under the influence of horizontal compressive forces and the overlying thrust load. The second level of deformation is within the thick overlying sediments, but the exact level (or levels) is not known.

3) The foreland fold-and-thrust belt deviates significantly from ideal Airy isostatic equilibrium. The Fort Munro-Loralai topography lacks crustal roots due to the shallowing of the Moho related to the earlier rifted margin, while the Ziarat topography does have roots and is in local isostatic equilibrium including the region west of it.

4) Interpretation of a passive margin underneath the eastern Sulaiman fold belt and the presence of ophiolites and Khojak Flysch to the west suggest that the margin is in the initial stages of convergence.

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