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*Geological Society, London, Special Publications*, first published August 27, 2014; doi 10.1144/SP399.20

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### **Notes**

## Tectono-stratigraphic evolution of the Andean Orogen between 31 and 37°S (Chile and Western Argentina)

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**Abstract:** In this classic segment, many tectonic processes, like flat-subduction, terrane accretion and steepening of the subduction, among others, provide a robust framework for their understanding. Five orogenic cycles, with variations in location and type of magmatism, tectonic regimes and development of different accretionary prisms, show a complex evolution. Accretion of a continental terrane in the Pampean cycle exhumed lower to middle crust in Early Cambrian. The Ordovician magmatic arc, associated metamorphism and foreland basin formation characterized the Famatinian cycle. In Late Devonian, the collision of Chilenia and associated high-pressure/low-temperature metamorphism contrasts with the late Palaeozoic accretionary prisms. Contractional deformation in Early to Middle Permian was followed by extension and rhyolitic (Choiyoi) magmatism. Triassic to earliest Jurassic rifting was followed by subduction and extension, dominated by Pacific marine incursions, during Jurassic and Early Cretaceous. The Late Cretaceous was characterized by uplift and exhumation of the Andean Cordillera. An Atlantic incursion occurred in latest Cretaceous. Cenozoic contraction and uplift pulses alternate with Oligocene extension. Late Cenozoic subduction was characterized by the Pampean flat-subduction, the clockwise block tectonic rotations in the normal subduction segments and the magmatism in Payenia. These processes provide evidence that the Andean tectonic model is far from a straightforward geological evolution.

This chapter will focus on the general framework of the Andes along this segment of the orogen, as an introduction to the different specific contributions of the following chapters. This part of the southern Central Andes of Argentina and Chile has received the attention of numerous overviews and syntheses in recent years, such as the publications of Mpodozis & Ramos (1989), Ramos *et al.* (1996b), Ramos (1988b, 1999) and Charrier *et al.* (2007, 2009). However, several articles have been published in recent years that complement and modify the tectonic and palaeogeographic reconstructions and interpretations presented in previous syntheses. Therefore, the objective of this introductory chapter will be to present a brief updated summary, taking into consideration the most recent advances in the geological knowledge of the region.

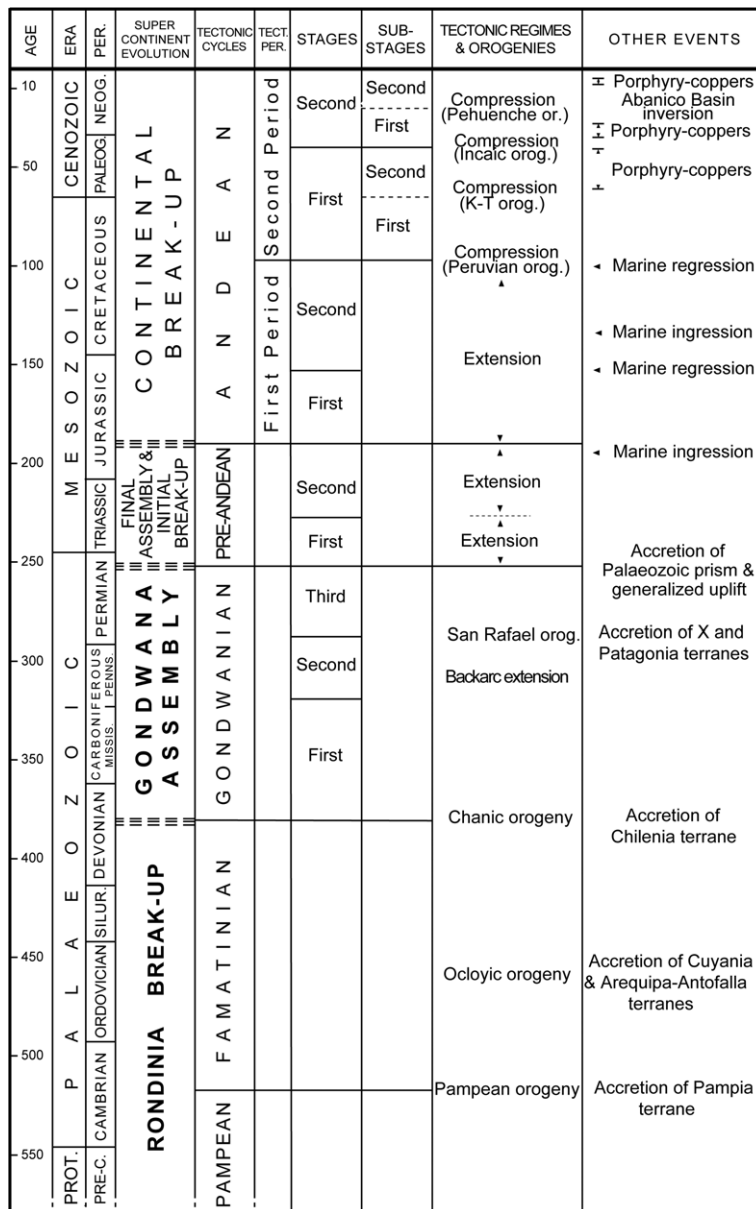
### Tectonic cycles

The continental margin of southern South America was an active plate margin during most of its history. The Neoproterozoic to late Palaeozoic evolution is punctuated by a succession of tectonic regimes in which extension and compression alternate through time. As a result, terrane accretion and westward arc migration alternate with periods of rifting and extensional basin formation. Although accretion of some terranes has been documented until Jurassic time, as in Patagonia (Madre de Dios terrane; Thompson & Hervé 2002), the post-Triassic history is characterized by the eastward retreat of the continental margin and eastward arc migration, attributed to a combination of shallowing of the subducting plate and subduction erosion. The period between the latest Permian and earliest Jurassic

corresponds to an episode of arrested continental drift, which, however, does not mean that subduction along the continental margin ceased. Different palaeogeographic organizations were developed at that time, and a widely distributed magmatism with essentially different affinities occurred. It is therefore possible to differentiate major stages in the

tectonostratigraphic evolution of the Chilean–Argentine Andes, which can be related to the following episodes of supercontinent evolution: (a) breakup of Rodinia; (b) Gondwanaland assembly; and (c) post-Pangaea breakup (Fig. 1).

These stages can in turn be subdivided into shorter tectonic cycles separated from each other



**Fig. 1.** Tectonic cycles, orogenies and events in the evolution of the continental margin of southern South America compared with the supercontinent evolution.

by regional unconformities or by significant palaeogeographic changes that indicate the occurrence of drastic tectonic events in the continental margin. These tectonic events have been related to modifications in the dynamics of the lithospheric plates (see James 1971; Rutland 1971; Charrier 1973; Aguirre *et al.* 1974; Frutos 1981; Jordan *et al.* 1983a, 1997; Malumián & Ramos 1984; Ramos *et al.* 1986; Isacks 1988; Ramos 1988a; Mpodozis & Ramos 1989). As a result of that, tectonic cycles have been identified along the western southern South America, which according to Mpodozis & Ramos (1989) and Charrier *et al.* (2007) are (Fig. 1): *Pampean* (Neoproterozoic–Early Cambrian), *Famatinian* (latest Cambrian–Early Devonian), *Gondwanian* (Late Devonian–early Late Permian), *pre-Andean* (latest Permian–earliest Jurassic) and *Andean* (Early Jurassic–Present).

### Morphostructural units

The northern part of the analysed segment (31–33°S) is located in the flat-slab subduction segment developed between *c.* 27 and *c.* 33°S. There the passive Juan Fernández Ridge has been subducting the continental margin since *c.* 12 Ma with an eastward dip of *c.* 20° to the east beneath the forearc to almost horizontal beneath the retroarc (Jordan *et al.* 1983a; Yáñez *et al.* 2001; Pardo *et al.* 2002). This Andean segment, known as the Pampean flat-slab segment, is characterized by the absence of recent volcanic activity and of a Central Depression, existing further south in the normal subduction segment (south of 33°S). Therefore, in this segment no differentiation can be made easily between a Coastal and a Principal Cordillera, and the Coastal Cordillera has been extended further east (Rodríguez 2013; Rodríguez *et al.* 2013, 2014). East of this extended Coastal Cordillera, other morphostructural units are developed, which gradually disappear southwards or are not developed further south in the normal subduction segment. These are, from west to east: the Frontal Cordillera, the Precordillera and the Sierras Pampeanas (Fig. 2). The alignment of the crustal earthquake epicentres parallel to the projection of the subducted Juan Fernández Ridge shows the strong control that this subduction exerted in the more recent morphologic, magmatic and tectonic features of the Andean cordillera in the flat-slab segment (Alvarado *et al.* 2009).

South of the flat-slab subduction segment (south of *c.* 33°S), the Wadati–Benioff zone dips *c.* 30°E (Cahill & Isacks 1992). As indicated, in this segment, a Central Depression is well developed separating the Coastal Cordillera, to the west, from the Principal Cordillera, to the east, with the edifices

of the volcanic arc (Fig. 2). The western flank of the Principal Cordillera is located in Chile, while the eastern flank is located in Argentina.

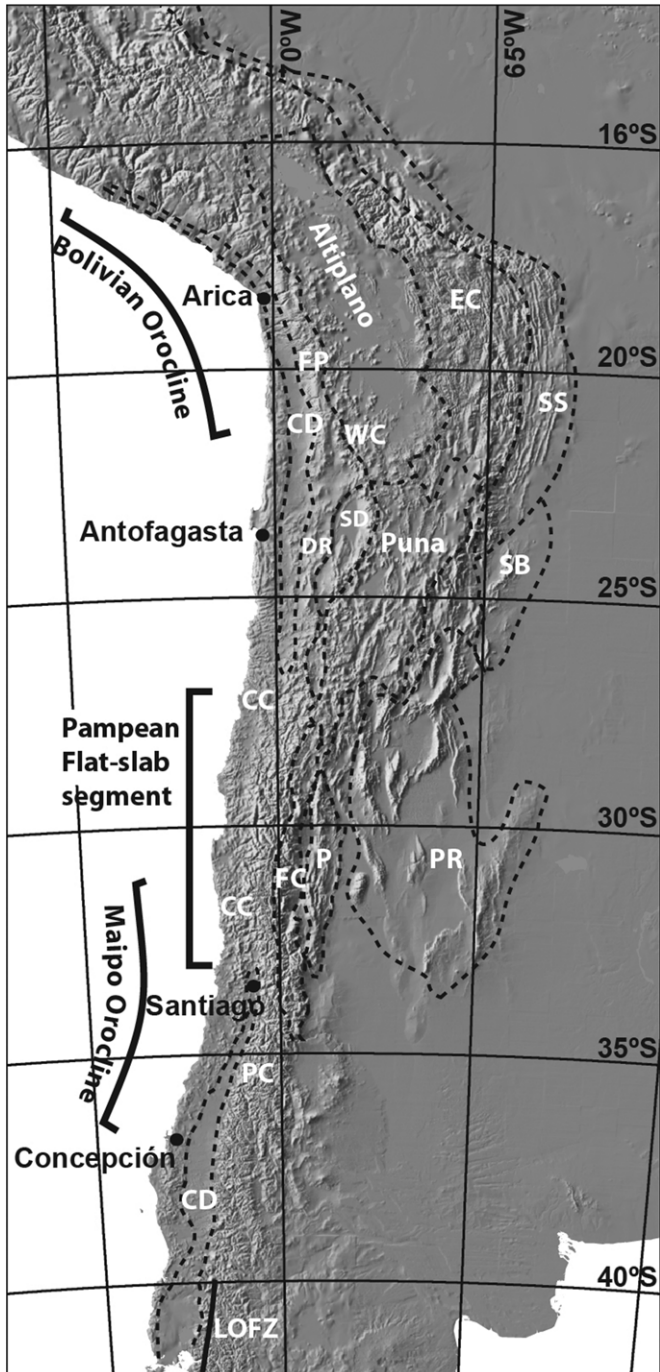
### Pampean tectonic cycle (Neoproterozoic–Early Cambrian)

The Pampean tectonic cycle as proposed by Aceñolaza & Tosselli (1976) includes sedimentation, magmatism and important deformation that took place in Early to Middle Cambrian in northwestern Argentina (Coira *et al.* 1982). The orogenic deformation at that time, in the central segment analysed here (31–37°S), was located along the Eastern Pampean Ranges, and its extension to the south (Fig. 2) (Ramos 1988a; Rapela *et al.* 1998; Chernicoff *et al.* 2012).

The Eastern Sierras Pampeanas comprises an orogenic belt characterized by metamorphic rocks of middle-to-high amphibolite facies, low-grade metapelites and granulite facies meta-basic rocks (Gordillo 1984; Kraemer *et al.* 1995; Rapela *et al.* 1998). Medium-grade para- and ortho-gneisses and schists constitute the dominant lithology; large massifs composed of garnet-cordierite pelitic migmatites are also characteristic (Rapela *et al.* 1998). Geochemical and isotopic studies show a typical calc-alkaline magmatic arc related to subduction (Lira *et al.* 1996; Rapela *et al.* 1998). Ultrabasic rocks dominated by harzburgites, chromitites and serpentinites have been interpreted as a disrupted ophiolitic sequence (Escayola *et al.* 1996; Ramos *et al.* 2000).

This orogenic belt has been interpreted as (a) the result of a collision between a Pampean block against the Río de La Plata Craton (Ramos 1988a; Ramos & Vujovich 1993; Rapela *et al.* 1998); (b) in the context of a subduction of a mid-ocean ridge beneath the palaeo-Pacific Gondwana margin (e.g. Gromet & Simpson 2000; Simpson *et al.* 2003; Piñán-Llamas & Simpson 2006; Schwartz *et al.* 2008); or (c) the result of complex strike-slip tectonics between Kalahari and Río de la Plata craton (Rapela *et al.* 2007; Casquet *et al.* 2012; Spagnuolo *et al.* 2012a).

In recent years more precise studies of the pre- and post-collisional suites seem to indicate that the main episode of deformation is bracketed between 537 and 530 Ma (Iannizzotto *et al.* 2013), and the tectonic evolution comprises a complex geological history to fit all of the observations (Escayola *et al.* 2007; Ramos *et al.* 2010). This model implies a primitive island arc that under western subduction collided against the Río de la Plata Craton by the end of the Ediacarian (Escayola *et al.* 2007). This oceanic terrane of the Eastern Sierras Pampeanas known as the Córdoba terrane



**Fig. 2.** Digital elevation model of the Andes between 16 and 40°S with indication of the main geographical, tectonic and morphostructural features. Abbreviations: CC, Coastal Cordillera; CD, Central Depression; DR, Domeyko Range; EC, Eastern Cordillera; FC, Frontal Cordillera; FP, Forearc Precordillera (western flank of the Altiplano); LOFZ, Liqueñe–Ofqui Fault Zone; P, Precordillera in Argentina; PC, Principal Cordillera; PR, Pampean Ranges; SB, Santa Barbara System; SD, Salar Depressions; SS, Subandean System; WC, Western Cordillera. Rectangle: Andean region considered in this chapter.

is composed of several belts of ophiolites (Muti 1997; Ramos *et al.* 2000, 2010). This collision was followed by the final collision of Pampia through an east-dipping subduction against the Río de la Plata craton as proposed by Kraemer *et al.* (1995), Escayola *et al.* (2007) and Ramos *et al.* (2010). Among the post-collisional effects, the emplacement of mafic bodies of Ocean-Island Basalts (OIB) signature emplaced at about 520 Ma could be interpreted as evidence of slab breakoff (Tibaldi *et al.* 2008), associated with general anatexis and crustal delamination as indicated by extensive rhyolitic plateaux preserved in the northern sector of Eastern Sierras Pampeanas, such as the Oncán Rhyolites and Los Burros Rhyodacites of 532–512 Ma (Leal *et al.* 2004). These regions have been affected by ductile shear deformation along some weakness zones during the early Palaeozoic (Martino 2003).

### Famatinian tectonic cycle (Cambrian to Late Devonian)

The Famatinian orogenic cycle as proposed by Aceñolaza & Tosselli (1976) comprises the evolution of two important sedimentary sequences, separated by an important angular unconformity. The basal sequence comprises Early Cambrian to Middle Ordovician carbonatic and clastic platform deposits of the Cuyo Precordillera deformed during the Ocloyc diastrophism at about 460 Ma (Astini *et al.* 1996; Ramos 2004, and references therein). Both sequences were deformed during the Middle to Late Devonian, developing the Chanic unconformity that separates these deposits from the late Palaeozoic sequences. The different sedimentary, magmatic and metamorphic rocks of these two sequences will be described from west to east.

#### *Frontal Cordillera*

In Cordón del Carrizalito region, in the southern Frontal Cordillera, north of the Río Diamante valley, is exposed a sequence of turbidites of the Las Lagunitas Formation (Fig. 3) (Volkheimer 1978). Graptolites of Ordovician age have been found in these turbidites, previously interpreted as Carboniferous deposits (Tickyj *et al.* 2009a). These rocks are characterized by low-grade metamorphism, and are intruded by pre-tectonic to syntectonic granitoids such as the Carrizalito Tonalite and Pampa de Los Avestruces Granite deformed during the Chanic orogeny (Tickyj *et al.* 2009b; Tickyj 2011). The studies of García-Sansegundo *et al.* (2014a) described the Chanic structures as west-vergent, in contrast with the east-vergent late Palaeozoic structures.

North of 34°S at Cordón del Plata region, in northern Frontal Cordillera (Fig. 3), Heredia *et al.* (2002, 2012) described the Vallecitos beds, low-grade metamorphic rocks correlated with Devonian turbidites of western Precordillera. These rocks as well as the Las Lagunitas Formation were deformed during the Middle to Late Devonian Chanic deformation.

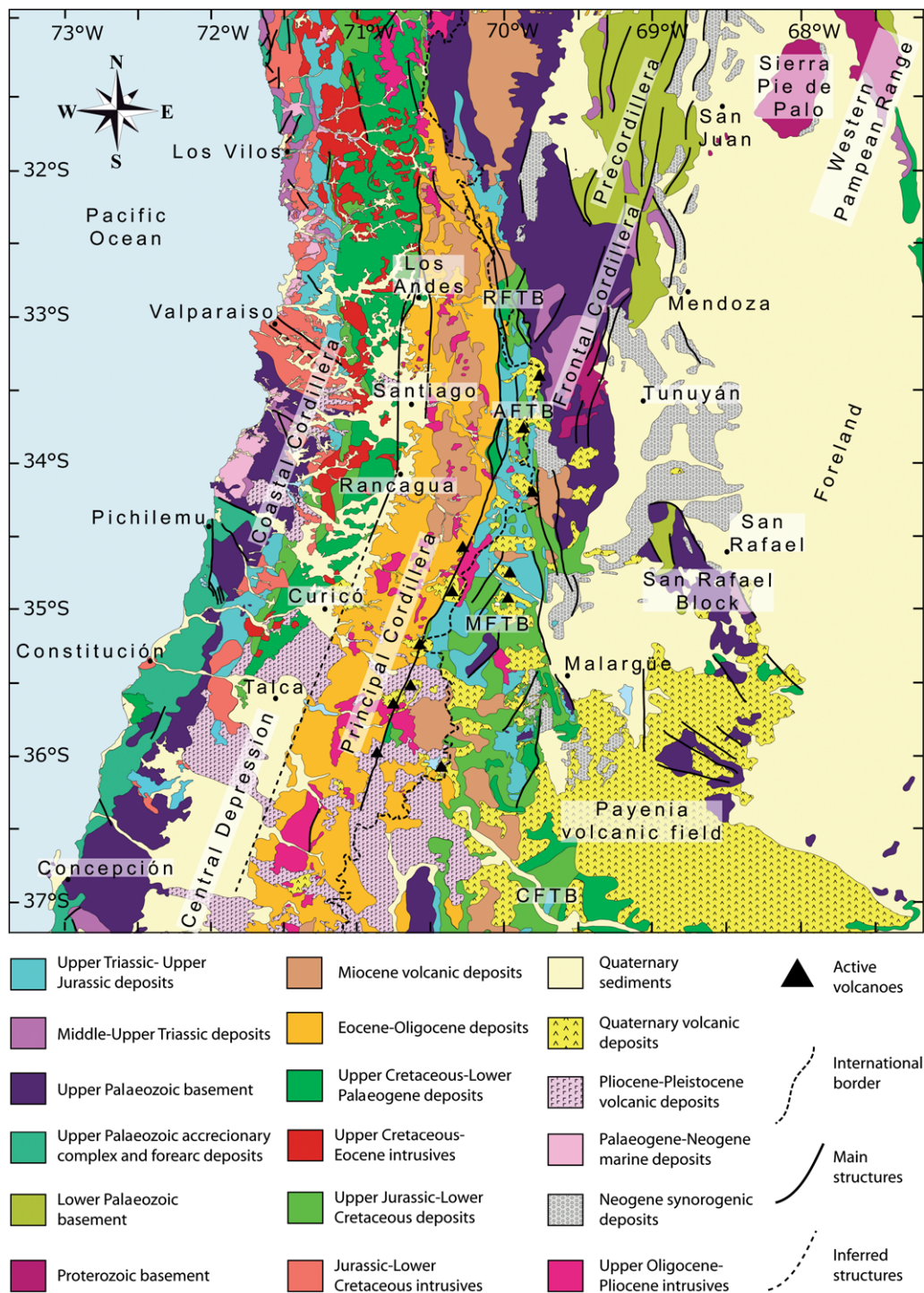
Exposures of metamorphic basement rocks that include ultrabasic rocks occur within the Frontal Cordillera as a medium-grade unit further south (Polanski 1964, 1972; Bjerg *et al.* 1990; López & Gregori 2004), known as the Guarguaraz Complex (Willner *et al.* 2011). This complex consists of garnet–micaschist and quartzitic schist, metasediments with intercalated lenses of garnet bearing amphibolite with a N- or E-MORB (normal or enriched mid-ocean ridge basalt) geochemical signature, serpentinite with tremolite-/talc-bearing wall rocks and marbles and calc-silicates. Willner *et al.* (2011) interpreted this sequence as related to a high-pressure–low-temperature metamorphism, with a metamorphic peak dated in 385 Ma, followed by decompression and retrograde metamorphism between 348 and 337 Ma, associated with the new stage of subduction along the Pacific margin. These high pressure–low temperature conditions (12–14 kbar–550 °C) are interpreted as a collisional metamorphism, distinctive from the subduction complexes of the western series (basal accretion) younger than 307 Ma and the eastern series (frontal accretion) younger than 330–345 Ma (Hervé *et al.* 2013).

#### *Cuyo Precordillera*

This region comprises a series of platform sedimentary rocks, which are unconformably deposited on scarce syn-rift deposits, mainly preserved in the northern Precordillera. The Cerro de la Totorá Formation includes some evaporites and red-beds of Early Cambrian age (515 Ma), which fill the half-graben system developed on the Grenvillian age basement (Rapalini & Astini 1998; Rapalini 2012).

The platform deposits comprise mainly an Early Cambrian to Early Ordovician carbonate sequence bearing typical *Olenellus* trilobites of Laurentia derivation (Bordonaro 1980, 1992). Various studies have characterized the complex third-order sequences of these carbonates (Cañas 1999; Keller 1999), the palaeogeographic connections of their fauna (Benedetto *et al.* 1999) and their tectonosequences (Astini *et al.* 1995; Thomas & Astini 1996).

These platform deposits are bounded to the west by slope deposits (Alonso *et al.* 2008; Voldman *et al.* 2010) and the Famatinian ophiolites (Haller & Ramos 1984, 1993). This sequence of mafic, ultramafic and granulitic rocks of Middle to Late



**Fig. 3.** Geological map of the Andean region between 31 and 37°S. *Abbreviations:* RFTB, Ramada fold-and-thrust belt; AFTB, Aconcagua fold-and-thrust belt; MFTB, Malargüe fold-and-thrust belt; CFTB, Chos-Malal fold-and-thrust belt.

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Ordovician age extends for more than 1000 km along the eastern slope of the Andes near the boundary between the Precordillera and the Frontal Cordillera (Fig. 3) (Ramos *et al.* 2000). These rocks show a dominant E-MORB composition, as well as the Silurian and Devonian mafic rocks and pillow lavas further to the west (Cortés & Kay 1994). The time of emplacement of these ophiolites is constrained by the Middle to Late Devonian age of the low-grade metamorphism of these rocks (Buggish *et al.* 1994; Davis *et al.* 1999; Robinson *et al.* 2005).

The subsequent clastic deposits above the platform successions were characterized by two syn-orogenic sequences; the older comprises the sandstones, conglomerates, glacial deposits and turbidites with olistostromes and olistoliths of Late Ordovician to Silurian age, represented by numerous formations (Astini *et al.* 1996). A second syn-orogenic sequence is represented by the turbidites and clastic deposits of Early to Middle Devonian age. Both sequences are separated by an angular unconformity seen in the Cuesta del Tambolar region between the eroded tilted carbonates and the Silurian deposits, interpreted there as the expression of a peripheral bulge associated with the deformation of the Sierra de Pie de Palo (Fig. 3) (Astini *et al.* 1995). Both sequences are affected by the Chanic unconformity, associated with an important period of uplift, stacking and deformation of the Frontal Cordillera and western Precordillera with a characteristic west-vergence (Von Gosen 1992; García-Sansegundo *et al.* 2014a).

### Western Sierras Pampeanas

The western Sierras Pampeanas as defined by Caminos (1979) encompasses the Sierra de Pie de Palo and the belt of westernmost Sierras Pampeanas, such as the Valle Fértil, La Huerta and other basement uplifts further to the east. This region is the locus of the Famatinian orogeny, which has been preserved in metamorphic facies that, based on their characteristics, can be divided into several belts.

The western slope of Sierra de Pie de Palo preserved a belt of limestones and quartzites, known as the Cauce Group (Vujovich & Ramos 1994), heavily deformed and overridden by the Pie de Palo Complex, an ophiolite sequence of Grenville age (Vujovich & Kay 1998). Based on detrital zircons and geochemistry, the Cauce Group has been correlated with the sedimentary Cambrian and Ordovician sequences of Precordillera (Naipauer *et al.* 2010a, b). The metamorphic conditions of the Cauce Group indicate high pressures and modest temperatures in amphibolite facies. These conditions occurred during subduction of a cold sedimentary slab in an A-subduction zone setting (Van Staal *et al.* 2011) around 460 Ma (Ramos 2004). The

data indicate a clockwise pressure–temperature ( $P$ – $T$ ) trajectory reaching a peak pressure of roughly 13 kbar at 450 °C, and then heating as pressure declined, reaching a maximum temperature of roughly 500–560 °C at pressures of 8–10 kbar. This fact has been explained by these authors as continuous subduction of a cold sedimentary slab (Caucete Group) after amalgamation with the Pie de Palo Complex in the subduction channel, followed by underthrusting of progressively more buoyant Precordillera crust.

Further to the east the remaining western Sierras Pampeanas have been extensively studied. Two dominant rock types characterized this region, a western magmatic belt that consists of latest Cambrian, Early to Middle Ordovician calc-alkaline granitoids and metamorphic rocks produced in the same interval (Ramos 1988a, 2004). After the pioneering work of Pankhurst & Rapela (1998) and Quenardelle & Ramos (1999), several new studies have characterized the geological evolution of the Ordovician magmatic arc. The petrological conditions of these granitoids have been studied by Otamendi *et al.* (2008, 2009a, b, 2010a, b, and references therein) complemented by the analyses of Verdecchia *et al.* (2007) and Casquet *et al.* (2012, and references therein). The wall rocks of these granitoids were characterized by Verdecchia *et al.* (2007), who found fossil shelly faunas preserved in the metamorphic rocks of Ordovician age. Further north, the Ordovician rocks are preserved in sedimentary facies and sedimentological studies show that sedimentation took place in an extensional environment (Mángano & Buatois 1996). Similar conclusions were obtained for the Ordovician age of the metamorphism (Collo *et al.* 2008), and the extensional regime of the magmatic rocks (Collo *et al.* 2009).

### Tectonic evolution of the Famatinian cycle

Although several tectonic models have been proposed to explain the early Palaeozoic history of central Chile and western Argentina, sometimes with contrasting interpretations, such as accretions of allochthonous terranes (Ramos 1988a; Astini *et al.* 1995) or by continent–continent collisions involving Laurentia and Gondwana (Dalla Salda *et al.* 1992a, b), in recent years some consensus has been obtained for the evolution of that region (see Ramos & Dalla Salda 2011).

Most of the authors agree that the main deformation that affected the early Palaeozoic the Precordillera platform and slope deposits occurred at about 460 Ma almost in the upper part of the Darriwillian (Thomas & Astini 2003; Ramos 2004). This deformation explains the stacking of different thrust sheets of the eastern Precordillera and the



development of olistoliths in the foreland basin during Late Ordovician as part of the Oclöyic deformation (Thomas & Astini 2007). These authors explain the deformation by a collision of the Cuyania (or a larger Precordillera) terrane, an allochthonous terrane derived from the Ouachita embayment of Laurentia that collided against the proto-margin of Gondwana (Astini *et al.* 1995; Thomas & Astini 1996). The first palaeomagnetic data obtained from Cerro Totorá syn-rift deposits confirmed this origin for Cuyania (Rapalini & Astini 1998), and, although the new data from the polar apparent curve of Gondwana poses some uncertainties in the location of Cuyania in the Early Cambrian, the recent palaeomagnetic analysis of Rapalini (2012) shows that the origin in the Ouachita embayment is still the best alternative to explain most of the existing data.

The western margin of Sierras Pampeanas shows that the Cambrian–Ordovician calc-alkaline magmatic arc lasted between the Furongian (497–485 Ma) and the Darriwilian (457–458 Ma), reaching the maximum activity in the Early Ordovician (Pankhurst & Rapela 1998; Quenardelle & Ramos 1999; Rapela *et al.* 2010; Dahlquist *et al.* 2013, and references therein). The metamorphic peak was around 460 Ma (Ramos 2004; Van Staal *et al.* 2011; and references therein). This peak was associated with the collision of the Cuyania terrane (Von Gosen *et al.* 2002; Chernicoff & Ramos 2003) by the end of Middle Ordovician.

The consensus that has been obtained for the Oclöyic deformation is greater than that for the various alternatives still discussed for the Silurian and Devonian evolution, which ends with the Chanic deformation at Middle to Late Devonian times. There is agreement to relate that deformation with the collision of the Chilenia terrane, but is not clear where the magmatic arc was located. Most authors have agreed with the proposal of Cucchi (1972), who dated by K–Ar the deformation and low-grade metamorphism of western Precordillera as Late Devonian. New Ar–Ar ages and metamorphic studies confirm the age and the low-grade metamorphism related to the collision (Bugish *et al.* 1994; Robinson *et al.* 2005; Voldman *et al.* 2009).

The main problem that has persisted since the early proposal of Ramos *et al.* (1984, 1986) is the polarity of subduction. These authors proposed an eastern subduction, a criterion that was followed by subsequent studies (see Willner *et al.* 2011, and references therein). On the other hand, the hypothesis of a western subduction beneath the Chilenia terrane proposed by Astini *et al.* (1995) was followed by Davis *et al.* (1999), Gerbi *et al.* (2002), Heredia *et al.* (2012) and González-Menéndez *et al.* (2013), among others. The uncertainty about

the location and age of the magmatic arc make these two alternatives difficult to reconcile. Heredia *et al.* (2012) interpreted a Devonian arc developed in the Frontal Cordillera based on the clasts found in the Devonian (?) Vallecitos beds, but the ages of this arc and these beds are not well constrained. Since the peak of high-pressure metamorphism occurred at 385–390 Ma (Willner *et al.* 2011) in Middle Devonian times, and is related to the collision of Chilenia and Cuyania, the arc inferred from the Vallecitos clasts could be Late Devonian and associated with east-dipping subduction from the Pacific side. The other criterion to establish the polarity of subduction is the dominant Chanic vergence of deformation. García-Sanseguendo *et al.* (2014a) describe a dominant west-vergence for the early Palaeozoic rocks of the Frontal Cordillera in the Cordón del Carrizalito region. Until the age and location of the magmatic arc are established, it will not be possible to address the polarity of the subduction. Moreover, the propagation of the uplift and deformation of the Frontal Cordillera produced the syn-orogenic deposits of the Angualasto Group in the Precordillera at the Early Carboniferous (Limarino *et al.* 2006).

### Gondwanian tectonic cycle (Mississippian–Lopingian)

The Gondwanan units north of *c.* 33°S differ considerably from those exposed south of this latitude and will be described in two different segments.

#### *Northern segment*

North of *c.* 33°S the following Gondwanan units were recognized from west to east on both sides of the Andean Cordillera.

*Accretionary prism rocks.* Polyphase deformed metamorphic rocks of the Choapa Metamorphic Complex are exposed along or next to the coast line, northwards of Los Vilos (Fig. 3). This complex consists mostly of grey-coloured phyllites, schists, fine-grained gneisses and metabasites (Muñoz-Cristi 1942; Thiele & Hervé 1984; Hervé 1988; Hervé *et al.* 1988; Irwin *et al.* 1988; Godoy & Charrier 1991; Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991; Rebolledo & Charrier 1994; Charrier *et al.* 2007; Hervé *et al.* 2007; Richter *et al.* 2007; Willner *et al.* 2008, 2012; García-Sanseguendo *et al.* 2014b), with protoliths of fine- to coarse-grained sedimentary deposits for the phyllites, quartz-mica schists and gneisses, and basic to ultrabasic volcanic rocks, with occasional pillow structures, for the green-coloured, amphibole schists. The Choapa Metamorphic Complex resulted from basal and frontal

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accretion in a subduction complex and has been subjected to different  $P$ – $T$  metamorphic conditions. The presence of phengite-rich muscovite and garnet relics indicates the first stage of very high pressures, probably in the subduction channel, followed by retrogression to greenschist facies conditions. This occurred between 308 and 274 Ma (from Late Pennsylvanian to the end of Cisuralian, in the Early Permian) with a high-pressure–low-temperature peak at *c.* 279 Ma (Willner *et al.* 2008, 2012). Exhumation and deformation, like broken formation-type breccias (mélange-type 1 of Cowan 1985), of the metamorphic complex continued during Mesozoic times and resetting events on minerals have ages that correspond to known extensional or compressional Mesozoic events in this region of the Andes (Willner *et al.* 2012). Recent U–Pb Sensitive High Resolution Ion Micro Probe (SHRIMP) age determinations on detritic zircons from the Choapa Complex immediately north of the region considered here indicate that sedimentation occurred until at least Early Triassic and, thus, that metamorphic processes affected the accretionary prism until at least early Mesozoic times (Empanán & Calderón 2014).

*Forearc basin deposits.* Two sedimentary stages have been recognized in the forearc region. In the first one, the meta-sedimentary unit Agua Dulce Metaturbidites, and the not metamorphic, strongly folded turbiditic Arrayán Formation, were deposited in a forearc basin (Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991; Rebolledo & Charrier 1994). These units have maximum depositional ages of 337 and 343 Ma, respectively (Willner *et al.* 2008). Supply of the Arrayán Formation is from the NW and the deposits accumulated on the western side of the basin in Carboniferous time (Rebolledo & Charrier 1994; Willner *et al.* 2008, 2012). Platform deposits of the forearc Arrayán basin are exposed on the eastern side of the basin in the present day western Frontal Cordillera, intruded by granitoids of Cisuralian age (Elqui plutonic complex). These slightly contact-metamorphosed deposits consist of a rhythmic alternation of slates and sandstones of at least 1500 m thick, which have been included in the Hurtado Formation (Mpodozis & Cornejo 1988). These deposits are considered to be the prolongation of a series of similar outcrops representing a transgressive–regressive event, some of which further north contain fossil remains indicating a Middle Devonian to Mississippian age, and a provenance of sediments from a volcanic source located to the east and SE (Charrier *et al.* 2007 and references therein). The continuous Devonian to Mississippian sedimentation in the retrowedge Arrayán basin (Charrier *et al.* 2007; García-Sansegundo *et al.* 2014b) demonstrates that the Late Devonian

Chanic deformation did not affect the western margin of the Chilena terrane.

The second sedimentary stage occurred in third stage of the Gondwanian cycle (Charrier *et al.* 2007) and is characterized by coarse- to fine-grained, fossiliferous marine deposits with turbiditic and calcareous intercalations exposed close to the coast, north of Los Vilos. The Quebrada Mal Paso Beds and Huentelauquén Formation (Muñoz-Cristi 1973; Charrier 1977; Mundaca *et al.* 1979; Rivano & Sepúlveda 1983, 1985, 1991; Irwin *et al.* 1988; Méndez-Bedia *et al.* 2009) unconformably overlie the Arrayán Formation, and mark a major palaeogeographic change at the moment of deposition. A maximum depositional age of 303 Ma was obtained by Willner *et al.* (2008). Although Rivano & Sepúlveda (1983, 1985, 1991) favour a Late Pennsylvanian to Cisuralian (Early Permian) age, other authors consider that its fossil content indicates a Permian (Fuenzalida 1940; Muñoz-Cristi 1942, 1968; Minato & Tazawa 1977; Thiele & Hervé 1984; Mundaca *et al.* 1979) or a mid-Permian age (Díaz-Martínez *et al.* 2000). A Guadalupian age would be consistent with its maximum depositional age of 303 Ma (Willner *et al.* 2008) and its unconformable superposition on the Arrayán Formation.

*Main magmatic arc rocks.* The magmatic arc is not exposed in the study region, although it is well represented further north in the Frontal Cordillera, between 29 and 31°S, where it forms the Elqui–Limarí and Chollay batholiths, and still further north the Montosa–El Potro batholith (Nasi *et al.* 1985; Mpodozis & Kay 1990, 1992). The Elqui plutonic complex includes series of plutons that range in age from the Mississippian to the Late Triassic (Hervé *et al.* 2014), indicating a protracted magmatic history in this region of the Frontal Cordillera. New U–Pb ages obtained by Hervé *et al.* (2014) plus those obtained by previous authors (Pankhurst *et al.* 1996; Pineda & Calderón 2008; Coloma *et al.* 2012) form four groups, falling into the Late Mississippian, Late Pennsylvanian to Cisuralian, Late Lopingian to Middle Triassic, and Late Triassic, respectively. The second group with ages between 301 and 284 Ma predates the San Rafael orogeny, coincides in time with the evolution of the Choapa metamorphic complex and corresponds to the next Gondwanan unit to the east. Geochemical features indicate development in a magmatic arc associated with a subduction zone on a gradually thickening crust.

The rhyolitic welded ash-tuffs and flows of the Guanaco Sonso Formation (lower portion of the Pastos Blancos Group) exposed in the Elqui drainage basin (*c.* 30°S) are related to this plutonic activity. They yielded K–Ar biotite ages of  $281 \pm 6$ ,  $262 \pm 6$  and  $260 \pm 6$  Ma, and a U–Pb

zircon age of  $265.8 \pm 5.6$  Ma, which except for the first one correspond to the Guadalupian (Martin *et al.* 1999). Based on these ages, the Guanaco Sonso Formation should instead be included in the post-tectonic Guadalupian to early Lopingian third stage of Gondwanian evolution of Charrier *et al.* (2007) and thus be related to the Colangüil plutonic activity, which yielded ages between *c.* 279 and *c.* 252 Ma (Sato *et al.* 1990; Sato & Llambías 1993, 2014), rather than to the pre-tectonic second group of Hervé *et al.* (2014).

In the Elqui valley, immediately north of the region considered here, K–Ar hornblende and biotite age determinations in this batholith yielded Permian ages of  $297 \pm 9$  and  $258 \pm 4$  Ma, respectively (Nasi *et al.* 1985, 1990), which coincide within errors with the age of the second group of Hervé *et al.* (2014). These ages also coincide fairly well with a recent U–Pb age determination of  $282.7 \pm 5.8$  Ma for a rhyolitic volcanic sequence that still further north overlies the western El Tránsito Metamorphic Complex (Salazar *et al.* 2009). The felsic character of these units makes it difficult to differentiate them from each other and the wide age range covered by them suggests that there existed a long lasting felsic volcanic activity from at least Pennsylvanian to Triassic times. Late Pennsylvanian to Cisuralian activity corresponds to the second group of Hervé *et al.* (2014) and is pre-tectonic relative to the San Rafael orogeny, whereas the Guadalupian to early Lopingian activity is post-tectonic. The latter, according to its age, would correspond to a volcanic activity coeval with intrusion of the Colangüil plutonic activity, deposition of the Huentelauquén Formation and the subduction-related lower portion of the Choiyoi Group (Kay *et al.* 1989; Kleiman & Japas 2009). A third stage of activity would include the felsic upper portion of the Choiyoi Group in Argentina and the Matahuaico Formation, exposed further west in Chile in the Elqui river drainage, which has been assigned to the early stage of the next tectonic Pre-Andean cycle (Charrier *et al.* 2007).

*Retroarc magmatic rocks.* The Colangüil batholith and associated volcanic rocks are exposed north of  $31^\circ\text{S}$  to east of the previous arc rocks in the Cordillera Frontal along the Argentine slope in the province of San Juan. The batholith is composed of several granitoids varying from granodiorites to granites as the Los Puentes, Los Lavaderos, Las Opeñas, Agua Blanca and Chita plutons (Sato *et al.* 1990), with K–Ar ages varying between 272 and 247 Ma (Sato & Llambías 1993). The coarse-grained granodiorites have an Early to Middle Permian age, and they are typically calc-alkaline with magmatic arc affinities, associated with the final stage of subduction in a retroarc setting, and

as early post-orogenic products respect to the orogenic San Rafael deformation (Sato & Llambías 1993). The granites are commonly fine grained and characterized by granophyric textures consistent with intrusions at shallow levels, and have a transitional signature from calc-alkaline to alkaline (A-type). They were interpreted as reflecting an evolution to an extensional post-orogenic setting during Late Permian times. These granitoids are associated with lava flows, ignimbrites and tuffs of andesitic and rhyolitic composition, which follow the same trend as the plutonic rocks. Based on the geochemical characteristics, the calc-alkaline series was assigned to a pre-Choiyoi field, typical of an arc setting, while the younger transitional series was assigned to a Choiyoi field of within-plate affinities in an extensional regime (Kay *et al.* 1989).

*Retroarc basin deposits.* Several authors have described the sedimentation in the retroarc region of this segment of the Andes as part of the Calingasta and Uspallata basins developed in the Frontal Cordillera and the Precordillera, as well as an intraplate basin known as the Paganzo basin developed between the Precordillera and the Sierras Pampeanas (Fig. 3) (Ramos *et al.* 1986; López Gamundi *et al.* 1994, among others). These authors recognized two different stages separated by the San Rafael orogenic deformation in the Middle Permian. The first stage is unconformably overlying the Devonian deposits and comprises mainly Late Carboniferous to Early Permian sequences, where a complete record of different glacial stages has been recognized. The Early Carboniferous is only preserved in the eastern Precordillera (Fig. 3) where the Angualasto Group of mainly Visean age recorded the first infills of the retroarc marine basin with an early glacial stage (Fernández-Seveso & Tankard 1995; Limarino *et al.* 2013). The upper part of the first stage comprises widely developed marine deposits in the Precordillera, and recorded the glacial diamictites, overlain by transgressive postglacial shales (Pazos 2002; Limarino & Spalletti 2006). These transgressive facies were succeeded by deltaic and fluvial sequences bearing coal beds where recent U–Pb ages indicate a late Bashkirian age (Gulbranson *et al.* 2010; Spalletti *et al.* 2012; Limarino *et al.* 2013).

The sequences above the San Rafael unconformity of Early–Middle Permian age are mainly volcanoclastic, pyroclastic and volcanic rocks associated with the lower and upper parts of the Choiyoi Group (Kay *et al.* 1989; Kleiman & Japas 2009). The lower part of the Choiyoi volcanic rocks is subduction related, while the upper part corresponds to an extensional regime that controlled the extensive rhyolitic plateaux in the foreland

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area (Mpodozis & Ramos 1989; Mpodozis & Kay 1992; Llambías 1999).

There is no agreement on the dominant tectonic regime after the Late Devonian Chanic compressive deformation. Fernández-Seveso & Tankard (1995) interpreted that the described sequences reflect changes from transtensional to extensional regimes. A similar extensional regime was proposed by Astini (1996), Astini *et al.* (2011), and Martina *et al.* (2011) for the Mississippian (348–342 Ma) based on the occurrence of rhyolites at about 28°S in the southern Puna, coeval with the well-known occurrence of A-type granites in the Sierras Pampeanas (Grosse *et al.* 2009). On the other hand, after the Chanic deformation during Middle to Late Devonian times (Ramos *et al.* 1986) compressional deformation and flexural loading produced the foreland basin where the Mississippian deposits of the Angualasto Group and El Ratón Formation have accumulated (Heredia *et al.* 2012). As a result of this deformation, the Protoprecordillera was uplifted and remained as a positive area until the end of the Carboniferous, when it collapsed by extensional faulting (Limarino *et al.* 2013).

### Southern segment

South of 33°S and further south of the considered region, four Gondwanan units are exposed continuously paralleling the coast from west to east (see Fig. 3): a metamorphic complex; a north–south elongated Coastal Batholith that intrudes the former; an extensive batholith emplaced in the Frontal Cordillera; and an extensive volcanic episode in the Frontal Cordillera and further east in the San Rafael Block (Fig. 3) represented by the Choiyoi Group.

**Metamorphic complex.** In this segment the metamorphic complex includes the eastern and a western series that form a paired metamorphic belt (González-Bonorino 1970, 1971; González-Bonorino & Aguirre 1970; Aguirre *et al.* 1972; Hervé *et al.* 1974, 1984, 2003, 2013; Hervé 1977; Kato & Godoy 1995; Willner 2005; Willner *et al.* 2004, 2005, 2008; Glodny *et al.* 2005, 2006, 2008), interpreted recently as the result of frontal and basal accretion in a subduction system, respectively (Richter *et al.* 2007; Willner *et al.* 2008).

The western series, which was deposited shortly after the eastern series (Hervé *et al.* 2013), consists of polyphase deformed and metamorphosed sandstones and pelites, metacherts, metabasites, occasionally with pillow structures and scarce serpentine bodies, formed by basal accretion under a higher  $P$ – $T$  metamorphic gradient, while the eastern series consists mainly of polyphase deformed metaturbidites, with recognizable primary

structures and lenses of calc-silicate rocks, deposited in a retrowedge or forearc basin, metamorphosed by a low  $P$ – $T$  gradient (Glodny *et al.* 2006; Richter *et al.* 2007; Hervé *et al.* 2013). All SHRIMP U–Pb age determinations on igneous detrital zircons from the accretionary complex yielded peaks older than Mesozoic. The youngest peak obtained from the eastern series was dated at 330–345 Ma, while the youngest peak in the western series was dated at 307 Ma (Hervé *et al.* 2013). All these ages are older or coeval with the Coastal Batholith, and coincide with ages determined for the Agua Dulce metaturbidites and the non-metamorphic Arrayán Formation north of  $c.$  33°S, respectively. Moreover, ages of detrital zircons in both series indicate a major input from the Famatinian orogenic belt and subordinately from Pampean and Grenvillian sources (Hervé *et al.* 2013).

Ar–Ar dating of white mica in the metamorphic series indicates for the western series a peak of high- $P$ – $T$  metamorphism between 320 and 288 Ma and for the eastern series a peak of high-temperature metamorphism between 302 and 294 Ma (Willner *et al.* 2005). According to the age and the contact metamorphism affecting the eastern series, the sedimentation, at least in the western series, began before emplacement of the Coastal Batholith (see below).

South of the Lanalhue lineament ( $c.$  38°S) conditions seem to have been different from those to north of this latitude. Here the metamorphic complex bends to the east and consists mainly of the western series, which is here much younger than further north (Hervé *et al.* 2013).

Deposits in the Coastal Cordillera close to Concepción, in the southern part of the considered region, form the newly proposed Patagual–El Venado unit (Mardonez *et al.* 2012). These deposits overlie unconformably the eastern series and are unconformably covered in the Bio Bío valley by the marine, Carnian Santa Juana Formation (Nielsen 2005). This unit consists of a tightly folded and slightly metamorphosed (epizone close to the anchizone) alternation of pelitic and thick psamitic layers, which differentiates them from the eastern series and the overlying early Late Triassic deposits. Its loosely constrained age, between the Early Permian (age of the thermal metamorphism in the eastern series of the metamorphic complex, south of 33°S) and the early Late Triassic Santa Juana Formation makes its age assignment difficult. Considering that this unit overlies the eastern series, which was affected by thermal metamorphism between 302 and 294 Ma (Willner *et al.* 2005), its maximum age is early Sakmarian, in the Early Permian. According to the lithologic description, strong deformation and low-grade metamorphism, which are reminiscent of the Agua Dulce

metaturbidites and the Arrayán Formation, we suggest that the tectonic setting for this unit is the late Palaeozoic forearc or retrowedge basin. Another possibility is that these deposits accumulated in a rift basin during the first stage of the Pre-Andean cycle.

Its strong deformation and low metamorphic grade suggest that the Lopingian to Early Triassic deposits close to the continental margin would at that time still have been affected by processes related to subduction activity, as has been shown by the presence of Triassic detritic zircons in rocks of the Choapa Metamorphic Complex (Emparan & Calderón 2014).

*Coastal batholith.* This batholith consists of a series of plutons of calc-alkaline character, meta- to peraluminous composition, and granitic to quartz-dioritic lithologies exposed along the Coastal Cordillera, between 33 and 38°20'S, intruding to the east the metamorphic complex (Fig. 3). Further south (38°S), the batholith curves to the east and can be followed southwards along the Principal Cordillera. This shift is probably controlled by the NW-orientated Lanahue lineament (Glodny *et al.* 2008; Hervé *et al.* 2013). According to the recent SHRIMP U–Pb age determinations, the Coastal Batholith was emplaced in a *c.* 19 Ma period, between  $319.6 \pm 3.3$  and  $300.8 \pm 2.4$  Ma, in Pennsylvanian time, according to Deckart *et al.* (2014). This age differs considerably from the ages recently obtained by Hervé *et al.* (2014) for the Elqui plutonic complex, which fall into the Early Permian (Cisuralian; 301–284 Ma). Ages for the metamorphic peaks on the western series indicate that metamorphism overlapped with emplacement of plutons of the Coastal Batholith (Hervé *et al.* 2013).

#### *Frontal Cordillera batholith*

Further east, along the Frontal Cordillera, there are several granitoid stocks and batholiths, exposed south of 33°S latitude (Fig. 3). These granitoids outcrop from the Cordón del Plata to the Cordón del Portillo region, and continuous further south until the Río Diamante valley. They have been described by Polanski (1964, 1972) and Caminos (1965) as typical calc-alkaline metaluminous granitoids emplaced in the Carboniferous deposits. Petford & Gregori (1994) and Gregori *et al.* (1996) compared this belt of Frontal Cordillera granitoids with the Coastal Batholith of Peru and concluded that they share similar La/Yb ratios, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> contents and several petrographic characteristics that show a typical subduction setting. These authors interpreted these granitoids as emplaced in a several thousand metres-thick sedimentary sequence formed in an extensional regime. The first U–Pb ages of the

Frontal Cordillera of this segment were presented by Orme & Atherton (1999), ranging in age between 276 and 262 Ma and with  $\epsilon$ Nd between –2.5 and –3.5. These posttectonic granitoids were also recognized in the Frontal Cordillera by Gregori & Benedini (2013), who interpreted these Cisuralian and Guadalupian granodiorites, tonalites and monzogranites of I-type as emplaced subsequent to the San Rafael orogeny that closed the Carboniferous basin between 284 and 276 Ma. The new ages seem to discard the presence of Carboniferous granitoids in this sector of Frontal Cordillera assumed by Caminos (1979).

*Choiyoi volcanic rocks.* These volcanic rocks, recognized in this segment of the Andes by Groeber (1953), are widely represented in the Frontal Cordillera and further east in the San Rafael Block as well as in the foothills of western Sierras Pampeanas. The volcanic rocks of the Choiyoi Group formed after the San Rafael tectonic phase. This group is subdivided into two essentially different units. A lower unit consisting of volcanic rocks of basic to intermediate composition and calc-alkaline signature (Poma & Ramos 1994) developed in late Cisuralian and Guadalupian times in an arc setting in association with subduction of oceanic lithosphere, an upper volcanic unit consisting of silicic volcanic and volcanoclastic deposits and subvolcanic intrusives derived from crustal melting under extensional tectonic conditions deposited in Lopingian to Anisian times (Kay *et al.* 1989; Mpodzis & Kay 1990; Llambías *et al.* 1993, 2003; Llambías & Sato 1995; Spalletti 1999; Martínez 2005; Martínez *et al.* 2006; Giambiagi & Martínez 2008). New U–Pb ages have been presented by Rocha Campos *et al.* (2011), which confirm a Guadalupian age for this section of the older Choiyoi volcanic rocks. The partly coeval age of this older Choiyoi unit with deposition of the Huentelauquén deposits, its location further east of the retrowedge or foreland basin, and its calc-alkaline signature indicate that it corresponds to a subduction related magmatic arc developed during closure of the retrowedge basin and uplift of the continental margin at the final stage of Gondwanan evolution (third stage of Charrier *et al.* 2007). The younger Choiyoi unit has, in turn, been assigned to the next pre-Andean tectonic cycle.

#### *Gondwanan tectonic evolution*

Based on the marked difference between the regions north and south of 33°S, it is difficult to reconcile the late Palaeozoic tectonic evolution of the two regions in one single coherent model, which is evidence that more information is necessary to solve this problem. However, some general conclusions

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can be drawn on the basis of the available information. The post-Devonian age of the units described from the western slope of the Andes suggests that these developed on the rear side of Chilenia. The recent chronologic data for the metamorphic complexes and plutonic belts north and south of 33°S indicate that:

- (1) Maximum depositional ages for the deposits accreted by basal and frontal accretion in both regions are approximately the same; however, the peaks of high  $P$ - $T$  metamorphism in the paired belt, south of 33°S, are older than in the Choapa Metamorphic Complex, to the north of this latitude.
- (2) Emplacement of the Coastal Batholith, south of 33°S, is older (Pennsylvanian) than the Elqui plutonic complex (Cisuralian), in the Frontal Cordillera, north of 33°S. This evidence indicates that the Choapa Complex and the paired metamorphic complex south of 33°S probably belong to two different accretionary complexes, and that the plutonic belts correspond to two different subduction-related magmatic arcs.
- (3) The late stage of emplacement of the Elqui plutonic complex in late Cisuralian and Guadalupian times is coeval with sedimentation of the Huentelauquén Formation, in the retro-wedge basin, and the lower Choiyoi Group would thus correspond to the extrusive products of the magmatic arc.

Additionally, two features – the narrow width of the outcrops of the western series north of the NW-orientated Lanalhue lineament (*c.* 38°S) and the considerably wider outcrops of this series to the south of the lineament that interrupts the southward prolongation of the Coastal Batholith and apparently caused its bend towards the Principal Cordillera (Hervé *et al.* 2013), and the much younger depositional age of the western series to the south of the lineament containing abundant Permian detrital zircons (Hervé *et al.* 2013) – suggest that: (a) the accretionary complex was considerably wider than the present day outcrops; (b) its age is younger towards the SW; and (c) the probable orientation of the accretionary complex and the Gondwana coast was NNW–SSE.

Although there is no consensus on the tectonic regime during the Carboniferous, there is agreement that the San Rafael orogeny caused in Early to Middle Permian (late Cisuralian to early Guadalupian) generalized uplift of the region (Ramos 1988*b*; Mpodozis & Kay 1992; López Gamundi *et al.* 1994; Limarino *et al.* 2006, 2013; Giambiagi *et al.* 2011; Willner *et al.* 2008, 2012; García-Sansegundo *et al.* 2014*a*, among others). This tectonic event was responsible for deformation of the

Arrayán Formation in the forearc (Charrier *et al.* 2007) and the cataclastic fabric in the El Volcán plutonic unit of the Elqui plutonic complex (Mpodozis & Kay 1990).

It has been proposed that the late Palaeozoic evolution of this sector of the Andes can be explained by a period of subduction in the Carboniferous times associated with extension after the Chanic compressive orogenic episode in the Middle to Late Devonian, with an active subduction-related magmatic arc. This arc expanded and migrated towards the foreland, reaching the Central Cordillera and the western side of the Sierras Pampeanas during Early Permian times, associated with the San Rafael orogenic deformation. Subsequent extension and formation of extensive rhyolitic plateaux were associated with delamination of the lower crust owing to injection of hot anhydrous asthenosphere. These processes were previously interpreted as produced by orogenic collapse and slab break-off by Mpodozis & Ramos (1989), Kay *et al.* (1989) and Mpodozis & Kay (1992). However, this evidence together with the new available U–Pb ages favour the interpretation advanced by Ramos & Folguera (2009), where these episodes can easily be explained by a period of slab shallowing followed by steepening of the subduction zone, as proposed by Martínez *et al.* (2006).

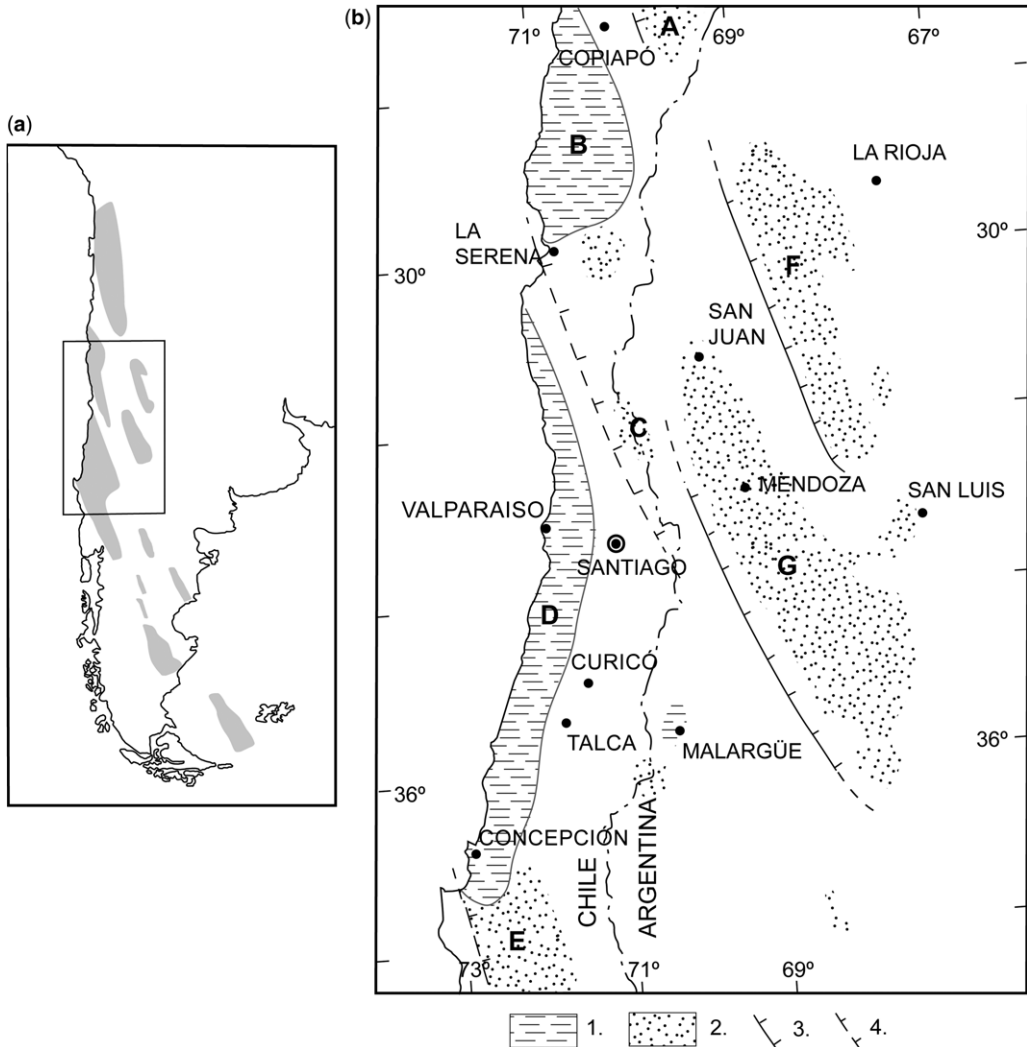
### Pre-Andean tectonic cycle (Lopingian–late Early Jurassic)

The term Pre-Andean is used for a period of arrested or very slow subduction during which extensional tectonic conditions prevailed following deformation of the Late Permian deposits, closure of the retro-wedge or forearc basin, exhumation of the continental margin and intense erosion on the Palaeozoic units. Groeber (1922) presented the first description of these deposits along the continental margin. Extensional conditions on the thickened crust of the continental margin determined the reactivation of pre-existent weakness zones like the sutures of the Palaeozoic terranes accreted to western Gondwana (Ramos & Kay 1991; Ramos 1994). The weakness zone defined a different palaeogeographic organization compared with those that prevailed earlier and later, that is, in the Gondwanan and Andean tectonic cycles, consisting of NW-trending rift basins (Charrier 1979; Uliana & Biddle 1988; Suárez & Bell 1992) (Fig. 4). Additionally, extension favoured the development of a widely distributed felsic magmatism that resulted predominantly from intense crustal melting (upper Choiyoi magmatic province; Rapela & Kay 1988; Kay *et al.* 1989; Llambías 1999; Spalletti 1999). End of this

cycle is marked by resumption or more intense subduction activity along the continental margin and development of the Early Jurassic magmatic arc. The pre-Andean cycle reflects the tectonic conditions determined by the assembly of Gondwana, but also the initial processes that later resulted in its breakup.

Generalized extension and the existence of weakness zones (sutures) on the continental margin resulted in the development of the following

basins and successions of associated basins (Fig. 4): (a) El Quereo–Los Molles, next to the coast, at *c.* 32°S; (b) La Ramada, further east in the high Andes, (c) Cuyo, in the Precordillera and Andean foreland, in the San Juan–Mendoza region; (d) Bermejo, SW of La Rioja, in the northeastern San Juan province; and (e) Curepto–Bio Bío–Temuco, further south, which extends south-southeastwards from the coast up to the high Andes, at 40°S. Deposits in these basins are generally marine next



**Fig. 4.** Generalized palaeogeographic sketch for the Triassic in the Andean region of Argentina and Chile. (a) Southern part of South America showing in grey the approximate distribution of the basins, based on Uliana & Biddle (1988). Rectangle corresponds to the area represented in (b). (b) Distribution of the marine and continental deposits in the Triassic basins. 1, Marine deposits; 2, continental deposits; 3, observed basin bounding faults; 4, inferred faults. A, Profeta–La Ternera basin; B, San Félix–Rivadavia basin; C, La Ramada basin; D, El Quereo–Los Molles basin; E, Curepto–Bio Bío–Temuco basin; F, Bermejo basin; and G, Cuyo basin; based on Charrier *et al.* (2007).

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to the coast and continental towards their south-southeastern prolongation. The extensional faults that control the basins in Chile have not been clearly identified and the structural pattern is certainly more complicated than represented here. In Argentina, sedimentary polarity, seismic data and structural analyses indicate that some of the basins consist of hemigrabens (Milana & Alcober 1994; López Gamundi 1994).

Two rift stages have been detected in the evolution of the Pre-Andean cycle, each one consisting of a phase of tectonic subsidence followed by a phase of thermal subsidence (Charrier *et al.* 2007), a model that coincides with the one developed by Milana & Alcober (1994) and Milana (1998) for the Bermejo basin, in Argentina (Fig. 4). According to Charrier *et al.* (2007), in Chile, the first stage would have begun in Lopingian times (Late Permian) and ended by Ladinian to Carnian times (Middle Triassic to early Late Triassic), while the second one would have lasted from Late Triassic (post-Carnian) to Pliensbachian, in Early Jurassic times. Each phase of tectonic subsidence would have been accompanied by a pulse of felsic volcanism followed by marine or continental deposits, depending on the distance from the Triassic coast.

Sedimentary deposits of the first stage are known in the Coastal Cordillera north of 32°S in the El Quereo–Los Molles basin. These consist of a series of marine outcrops that can be grouped into the El Quereo Formation (Muñoz-Cristi 1942, 1973; Cecioni & Westermann 1968; Mundaca *et al.* 1979; Irwin *et al.* 1988; García 1991; Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991). These deposits reveal an Early? to Middle Triassic transgression–regression sedimentary cycle beginning with breccias and separated from the deposits of the second stage by the thick felsic volcanic and volcanoclastic Pichidanguí Formation, associated with initiation of the second tectonic subsidence phase of the pre-Andean cycle.

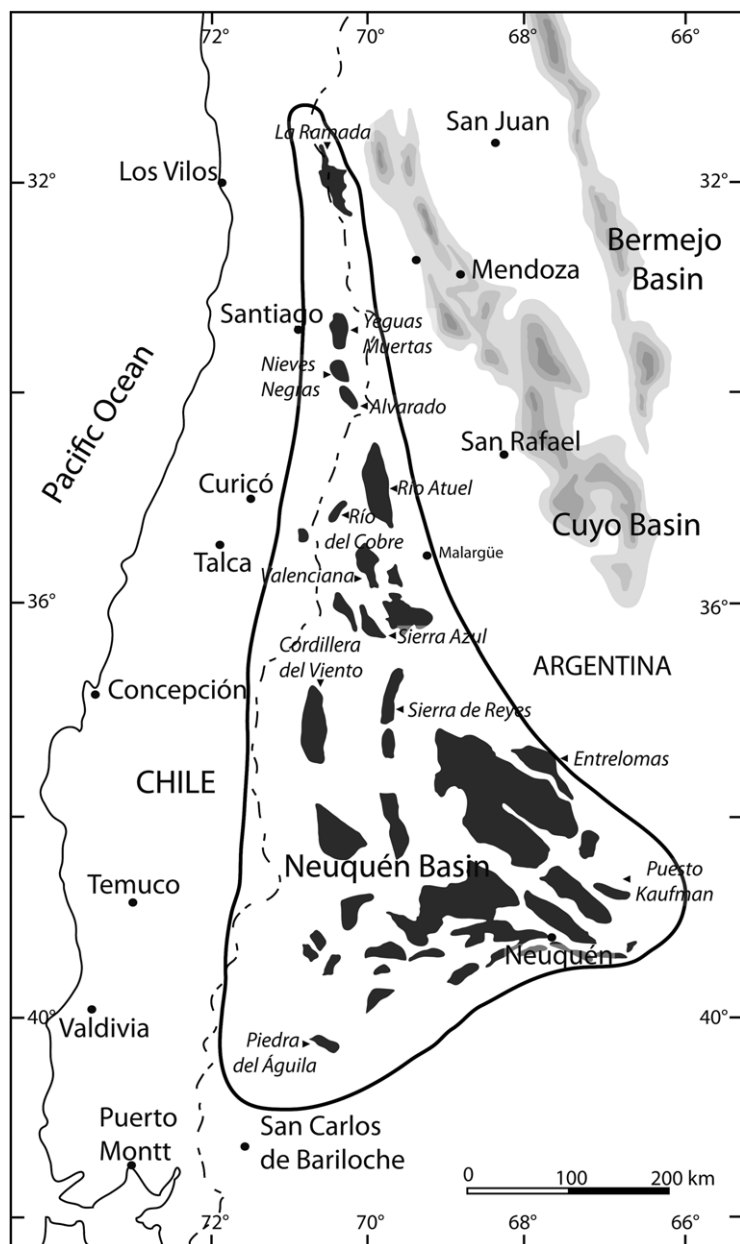
Second-stage deposits have a latest Triassic to Early Jurassic age and therefore correspond to the late portion of the second stage, probably to the thermal subsidence phase occurring after the felsic volcanic event (Charrier *et al.* 2007). In the high Andes, at 31°S, Early Jurassic transgressive marine deposits of the Tres Cruces Formation are exposed overlying conformably the Late Triassic, continental, sedimentary and volcanic Las Breas Formation. This formation contains rests of *Dicrodium* flora and was recently dated at  $219.5 \pm 1.7$  Ma (Norian) (U–Pb SHRIMP zircon crystallization age) on a dacitic volcanic breccia from the base of the formation (Hervé *et al.* 2014). The Las Cruces Formation is in turn covered by backarc volcanic and volcanoclastic deposits of the Late Jurassic Algarrobal Formation (Dedios 1967; Letelier 1977;

Mpodozis & Cornejo 1988; Pineda & Emparan 2006). At the coast, at 32°S, overlying the Pichidanguí Formation, is the transgressive–regressive Los Molles Formation (Cecioni & Westermann 1968; Bell & Suárez 1995). The mostly marine deposits of the second stage, exposed along the Coastal Cordillera, south of 35°S, overlie, between 35 and 36°15'S, silicic volcanic deposits assigned to the bimodal volcanic Pichidanguí Formation (Vicente 1974; Vergara *et al.* 1995) (La Totorá–Pichidanguí volcanic pulse) related to the upper Choiyoi magmatic province (Charrier *et al.* 2007). Further south of 36°15'S, they rest on Palaeozoic intrusive and metamorphic rocks (Fig. 3). The presence of a rather continuous series of marine deposits assigned to the second stage along the Coastal Cordillera, between 35 and 37°S (Curepto–Bio Bío–Temuco basin; see Charrier *et al.* 2007, Fig. 3.11, p. 39), suggests that the region covered by marine deposits during the thermal subsidence phase of the second stage was considerable and that the sea extended beyond the faults that controlled subsidence of the basin. We assign the marine Retian Malargüe rift deposits on the eastern versant of the Principal Cordillera, in Argentina, at c. 36°S (Riccardi & Iglesia Llanos 1999) (Fig. 4) to the earliest rift stages of the Jurassic backarc basin rather than to the second stage of the Pre-Andean cycle as previously proposed by Charrier *et al.* (2007). These deposits belong to one of the depocentres related to the Neuquén basin (Fig. 5).

Continental Triassic to Early Jurassic deposits were accumulated in the south-southeastward prolongation of the basins or in smaller isolated basins. These contain generally abundant volcanic and volcanoclastic deposits, like the Carnian–Norian Los Tilos sequence in the high Andes, at c. 30°S, somewhat north of the considered region (Martin *et al.* 1999), probably deposited in the prolongation of the San Félix basin (see Charrier *et al.* 2007, Fig. 3.11, p. 39). Other deposits apparently filled separated basins, like the La Ramada, in the high Andes, at 32°S (Álvarez 1996; Álvarez & Ramos 1999), the various depocentres of Cuyo basin located in the Frontal Cordillera, Precordillera and Andean foreland, between 31 and 36°S (Legarreta *et al.* 1992; Kokogían *et al.* 1993, 1999; Manceda & Figueroa 1995; Barredo *et al.* 2012), and the depocentres in the Sierras Pampeanas (Milana & Alcober 1994; Milana 1998), between 29 and 33°S (Fig. 4).

The best dated deposits are in the Cuyo basin in the Potrerillos depocentre, and were included in the Uspallata Group. These are separated from Devonian turbiditic deposits (Villavicencio Formation) and volcanic rocks of the Choiyoi Group by a normal fault and unconformably overlain by Miocene foreland deposits of the Mariño Formation.





**Fig. 5.** Main depocentres of the Triassic–Early Jurassic rifts with the location of Alto del Tigre High (after Giambiagi *et al.* 2003b).

The Uspallata Group forms a 1385 m-thick continental sedimentary succession rich in fossil plants consisting of the following formations, from bottom to top (Spalletti *et al.* 1999, 2005, 2008): Río Mendoza (314 m; Anisian;  $243 \pm 4.7$  Ma; Ávila *et al.* 2006), Cerro de las Cabras (190 m), Potrerillos (735 m; late Middle to early Late

Triassic;  $239.2 \pm 4.5$ ,  $239.7 \pm 2.2$  and  $230.3 \pm 2.3$  Ma), Cacheuta (44 m; early Late Triassic) and Río Blanco (102 m). The succession consists at the bottom and top of alluvial conglomerates and in the middle part of fluvial medium- to fine-grained deposits with tuff intercalations. The Río Mendoza, Cerro de las Cabras and Potrerillos formations

correspond to the syn-rift phase of the basin, while the two upper units correspond to the sag phase. A rich fossil flora recovered in the Potrerillos and Cacheuta formations was used to propose a bio-zonation of the whole Triassic (Spalletti *et al.* 1999, 2005).

However, recent precise U–Pb dating in zircons from the Rincón Blanco, one of the northern depocentres of the Cuyo basin, has presented new ages from the base to the top of the sequence (Barredo *et al.* 2012). The SHRIMP age obtained for the base is  $246.4 \pm 1.1$  Ma; the middle sequences yielded a SHRIMP age of  $239.5 \pm 1.9$  Ma and Laser Ablation age of  $238.0 \pm 5.4$  Ma; and the top, for both methods yielded  $230.3 \pm 1.5$  and  $230.3 \pm 3.4$  Ma (Barredo *et al.* 2012). These geochronological data, which are similar to those for the Potrerillos depocentre, indicate that almost the whole sedimentation is circumscribed to the Middle Triassic and the base of the Late Triassic, reaching neither the Norian nor the Rhaetian. The age differences observed between the Pre-Andean evolution in Chile and Argentina possibly indicate that extension began earlier in Chile than in Argentina. However, more precise chronological support is needed to make this decision.

Deposits in the Coastal Cordillera close to Concepción, in the southern part of the considered region, form the newly proposed Patagual–El Venado unit (Mardonez *et al.* 2012). These deposits overlay unconformably the eastern series and are unconformably covered in the Bio Bio valley by the marine, Carnian Santa Juana Formation (Nielsen 2005). This unit consists of a tightly folded and slightly metamorphosed (epizone close to the anchizone) alternation of pelitic and thick psammitic layers, which differentiates them from the eastern series and the overlying early Late Triassic deposits. Its loosely constrained age, which must be younger than the Early Permian, which is the age of the thermal metamorphism on the eastern series of the metamorphic complex, south of  $33^\circ\text{S}$  (between 302 and 294 Ma; Willner *et al.* 2005), and older than the early Late Triassic Santa Juana Formation, makes its age assignment difficult. According to these considerations, these deposits could correspond to (a) Permian forearc basin accumulations equivalent to the Huentelauquén Formation (third stage of the Gondwanan cycle) or (b) Latest Permian to Early Triassic deposits, which in this case would have accumulated during the first stage of the Pre-Andean cycle and, therefore, represent evidence for rifting in the first stage of the Pre-Andean cycle in this region.

In the Elqui plutonic complex, in the Frontal Cordillera north of  $33^\circ\text{S}$ , the plutonic and subvolcanic units included in the Late Lopingian to Middle Triassic age group (264–242 Ma) of Hervé

*et al.* (2014) (Ingaguás superunit of Mpodozis & Kay 1990, 1992) represent the intrusive equivalents of the felsic upper Choiyoi Group (Nasi *et al.* 1985; Mpodozis & Kay 1990) and possibly of the Mathuaico Formation. These plutons, along with the Laguna gabbro, form an epizonal association of intrusive rocks derived from deep, garnet-bearing levels in a thickened crust, and hypersilicic, calc-alkaline to transitional A-type granites (Nasi *et al.* 1985, 1990; Mpodozis & Cornejo 1988; Mpodozis & Kay 1990, 1992). These units consist predominantly of biotite–hornblende granodiorites and monzogranites, and syenogranites; graphic granites are known from the youngest El Colorado units. The given age range comprises a 22 Ma time lapse that goes from the Capitanian (late Middle Permian) to the Anisian/Ladinian boundary (Middle Triassic), and therefore coincides with the first stage of the Pre-Andean cycle.

Norian and somewhat younger Triassic ages have been also obtained along the coast: (a) in the northern part of the considered region in the A-type to transitional Altos de Talinay Plutonic Complex (Gana 1991; Emparan & Pineda 2006; Emparan & Calderón 2014), and further south in the Tranquilla and Millahue units (Parada *et al.* 1988, 1991, 1999, 2007; Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991); (b) in the Norian ‘Dioritas Gnéisicas de Cartagena’ (Gana & Tosdal 1996), next to San Antonio, at  $33^\circ30'\text{S}$ , and (c) in the Norian fayalite, anorogenic A-type Cobquecura pluton (Vásquez & Franz 2008). All these widely distributed plutonic units demonstrate the great regional extension of the Choiyoi Magmatic Province.

### Andean tectonic cycle (late Early Jurassic–present)

The beginning of this long-lasting cycle was determined in Chile by the initiation of subduction-related volcanism in the late Early Jurassic (Pliensbachian) (Charrier *et al.* 2007, and references therein). However, on the eastern versant of the Andes in central Argentina, a post-Choiyoi extensional event occurred in the Late Triassic that formed new depocentres in the region where later the backarc basin developed during Jurassic times. This extensional event and the initiation of sedimentation in the backarc region are considered in Argentina to mark the beginning of the Andean cycle. Thus, the age of the beginning of this cycle remains a question that needs further investigation: (a) do the Late Triassic deposits in Argentina belong to the second stage of the Pre-Andean cycle; or (b) did the new geodynamic conditions at this moment cause extension of the continental margin already in the Late Triassic, whereas subduction

magma reached the surface of the crust somewhat later in Pliensbachian time?

The Pre-Andean cycle, which began with renewal or intensification of subduction underneath the central Argentine–Chilean continental margin, reflects evolution of the continental margin during continental breakup and continental drift (Fig. 1). Subduction created conditions for arc magmatism, active almost uninterruptedly right through to the present day, and extensional tectonic conditions along the continental margin. During early evolution of this cycle (Pliensbachian to late Early or early Late Cretaceous), in northern and central Chile, the arc was located along the present day Coastal Cordillera, parallel to the western margin of Gondwana with a backarc basin on its eastern side. In contrast, the later evolution (Late Cretaceous and Cenozoic) is characterized by gradual eastward shift of the magmatic arc and by the development of retroarc foreland basins on the eastern side of the arc. These two major periods correspond to the Early and Late periods, respectively, described by Coira *et al.* (1982) for this tectonic cycle. However, each of these periods can be subdivided into shorter stages, which can be differentiated from each other by major palaeogeographic changes (Fig. 1). These changes are a consequence of major modifications of the convergence and subduction pattern in this region.

### Early period (Pliensbachian–late Early Cretaceous)

The early period of the Andean tectonic cycle ended in late Early or early Late Cretaceous with the Peruvian tectonic phase (Fig. 1) that caused a considerable crustal thickening, major palaeogeographic reorganization and modification of the tectonic regime in this Andean region (Coira *et al.* 1982; Mpodozis & Ramos 1989). Evolution of this early period in central Chile and Argentina is characterized by a dominating extensional tectonic regime, a rather thin crust, the development of a magmatic arc slightly oblique to the present day Pacific coast and a backarc basin on its eastern side (Mpodozis & Ramos 1989, 2008; Ramos 2010). This orientation of the arc–backarc basin palaeogeographic pair suggests that the late Proterozoic and Palaeozoic sutures and other major structures along the western margin of Gondwana still exerted a control on the tectonic evolution of this region. The tectonic evolution was further controlled by a rather loose plate coupling (negative trench roll-back) caused by the subduction of a considerably old and dense oceanic plate that had remained practically quiet during the pre-Andean cycle.

The two stages in which this Early period has been subdivided are reflected in the late Early to Late Jurassic and latest Jurassic to late Early Cretaceous by two magmatic episodes along the arc and two transgression–regression cycles in the backarc. This separation is clear for the backarc basin deposits, although it is less evident for the arc deposits and plutonic units. However, the plutonic units of the second stage are slightly shifted to the east of the plutonic units of the first stage (Sernageomin 2002). In the arc region, the beginning of this cycle is defined by the first appearance of subduction related lavas covering and interrupting sedimentation of the westernmost marine deposits of the second stage of the pre-Andean cycle (i.e. Pan de Azúcar, Profeta and Los Molles formations; see Charrier *et al.* 2007), whereas in the eastern flank of the Andes it seems to have begun before. In fact, structuration of the backarc basins of the Early Period began there in the latest Triassic–earliest Jurassic (Pre-Cuyano sedimentary cycle), suggesting that the tectonic conditions (tectonic subsidence) had changed before the subduction-related magmas could reach the surface. The first stage (late Sinemurian–Pliensbachian to Kimmeridgian) is characterized by intense activity in the arc and development of a transgressive–regressive marine cycle in the backarc basin. At the end of this stage a second phase of tectonic subsidence followed by thermal subsidence began. This second stage (Kimmeridgian to Aptian–Albian) is characterized by apparently less activity in the arc, and by a second transgression–regression marine cycle in the backarc basin.

Palaeogeography during this Early Period was apparently controlled by NNW-orientated structures, somehow like in the Pre-Andean cycle. This is demonstrated by the reduction in the width of the presently remaining arc towards the north, and its almost complete absence in the Arica region, in northernmost Chile. This plus the eastward shift of the magmatic arc in the second stage, allows identification in the second stage and south of *c.* 30°S (latitude of La Serena) of another depocentre, the Lo Prado basin, located west of the arc (i.e. in the Coastal Cordillera) and therefore in a forearc position (Charrier 1984; Charrier *et al.* 2007). Additionally, in this region, the backarc basin, which is known as the Mendoza–Neuquén basin, gradually bends southeastwards, and becomes considerably wider than further north. This basin, which extends eastwards into Argentina, represents the southernmost part of the Jurassic–Early Cretaceous backarc basin, which is traceable without interruption along the eastern side of the magmatic arc from at least southern Ecuador to southern Argentina, at *c.* 40°S, and, possibly, still further south (Vicente 2005).

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*First stage (Pliensbachian–Kimmeridgian)*

**Magmatic arc.** Along the coast a wide swath consisting mostly of Middle–Late Jurassic and Early Cretaceous plutons and associated volcanic units represents the arc activity (Fig. 3). In the northern part of the study region, Jurassic plutonic units can be continuously followed up to 34°S (Fig. 3). Further south, exposures are patchy, up to 38°S, where they begin to occur further east, in the high Andes, following the bend formed by the Palaeozoic units (south of the region included in Fig. 3; see Sernageomin 2002, for more detail). North of 33°S, they consist of monzodiorites and granodiorites of Late Jurassic age assigned to the Puerto Oscuro and Cavilolén units, with Sr initial ratios of 0.7034 and 0.7035 (Parada *et al.* 1988; Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991). These initial ratios, being lower than those obtained in the Late Triassic Tranquilla and Millahue units (0.7063 and 0.7050), indicate a different magma source directly derived from the upper mantle and associated with the recently renewed subduction activity. South of 33°S, they consist of several units (Laguna Verde, El Sauce, Peñuelas, Limache and Lliu-Lliu) comprising I-type, calc-alkaline diorites, tonalities, granodiorites and granites (Gana & Tosdal 1996). According to these authors, intrusion of these units occurred in only 6 myr, between 162 and 156 Ma (Oxfordian to Kimmeridgian times), implying a very rapid pulse of ascent of large amounts of magma. This magmatic pulse can be related to the event of rift-associated subsidence that facilitated extrusion of magmas in the backarc at this time (see Oliveros *et al.* 2012; Rossel *et al.* 2013) and permitted the marine ingression in the backarc basin.

Volcanic deposits associated with the Jurassic arc are well exposed in the Coastal Cordillera south of 31°S (Fig. 3). These are the Middle–Late Jurassic Ajjal Formation (Thomas 1958; Piracés 1977; Vergara *et al.* 1995) and the Late Jurassic Horqueta Formation (Piracés 1977), separated from each other by the Middle Jurassic marine Cerro Calera Formation (Piracés 1976; Nasi & Thiele 1982) that represents a westward advance of the backarc deposits into the arc domain. Further south, at 35°S, the Jurassic arc volcanic activity is represented by the Middle Jurassic Altos de Hualmapu Formation (Morel 1981). The mentioned arc deposits conformably overlie Sinemurian marine deposits assigned to the late stage of the pre-Andean cycle in the Curepto region (Thiele 1965). The Horqueta volcanic activity coincides with the rapid plutonic pulse detected by Gana & Tosdal (1996) in the Coastal Cordillera west of Santiago (see above). The Jurassic arc formed a rather low relief, which probably indicates high rates of subsidence (Oliveros *et al.* 2007; Charrier *et al.* 2007).

**Backarc deposits.** The first transgression–regression cycle (*first stage*) in the backarc basin in this region is represented on the western side of the cordillera by the following marine deposits, from north to south: (a) lower member of the Lagunilla Formation (Aguirre 1960); (b) Río Colina Formation (Thiele 1980); (c) Nieves Negras Formation (Álvarez *et al.* 1997; Charrier *et al.* 2002) formerly Leñas–Espinoza Formation of Klohn (1960) and Charrier (1982); (d) Nacientes del Teno Formation, at 35°S (Klohn 1960) and 36°S (Muñoz & Niemeyer 1984); (e) Valle Grande Formation (González & Vergara 1962), at 35°30'S; and (f) Nacientes del Bío Bío Formation (De la Cruz & Suárez 1997; Suárez & Emparan 1997), at 38°30'S. The base of these formations is not exposed, except for the Nacientes del Teno, which unconformably overlies rhyolitic rocks of possible Triassic age at 35°S (Davidson 1971; Davidson & Vicente 1973), and of confirmed Triassic age (Cajón de Troncoso Beds), between 36 and 37°S (Muñoz & Niemeyer 1984). These formations consist of thick successions of sandstones (some of them turbiditic), marls and limestones, and represent a transgression–regression cycle that ends with thick Oxfordian evaporitic deposits, generally named '*Yeso Principal*' (Schiller 1912) or more formally Auquilco Formation (Groeber 1946), in Argentina, and the Santa Elena Member of the Nacientes del Teno Formation in Chile (Klohn 1960; Davidson 1971; Davidson & Vicente 1973). This gypsum unit, which is the middle member of the Lagunilla Formation, at 33°S (Aguirre 1960), is overlain by the upper member of the Lagunilla Formation (Aguirre 1960) and its southern equivalent, the Río Damas Formation (Klohn 1960), which consists of breccias and alluvial fan deposits that grade towards the east into the red, finer-grained and thinner fluvial sandstones of the Tordillo Formation (Klohn 1960; Arcos 1987). At its type locality (Río de las Damas, next to Termas del Flaco, at 35°S), the Río Damas Formation consists of a c. 3000 m-thick red continental, detrital succession, with coarse and fine intercalations, which includes at the top a member comprising >1000 m of andesitic lavas culminating in breccias containing enormous angular blocks, some over 4 m in diameter (Arcos 1987). Close to its contact with the Baños del Flaco Formation, dinosaur tracks are well exposed (Casamiquela & Fasola 1968; Moreno & Pino 2002; Moreno & Benton 2005). Thus, the Río Damas Formation and northern equivalents represent the final deposits of the first transgression–regression cycle in the backarc basin. Because of the thick backarc volcanic intercalation at the upper part of this formation (Rossel *et al.* 2014), which is overlain by coarse breccias, it has been considered to also represent the initial deposits of

the Second stage of the Early Period, associated with the tectonic subsidence phase (Charrier *et al.* 2007). These deposits are conformably overlain by Late Jurassic to Early Cretaceous marine sediments that form the bulk of the second transgression–regression cycle of the second stage.

Along the eastern slope of the Principal Cordillera the depocentres of the first transgression are represented by a series of alternate sub-basins. The Ramada depocentre in the northern section (31°30′–32°30′S) has a complete section of continental and volcanic deposits of the Triassic Rancho de Lata Formation, unconformably overlain by the Los Patillos Formation of Early Jurassic age. This last unit has a rich fauna of ammonites studied by Álvarez (1996) that includes from the Aalenian until the Callovian. The Alto del Tigre High is located in the central segment at the latitude of the Mount Aconcagua (32°30′–33°30′S) (Fig. 5). It is a positive area where there is no deposition of the Triassic–Early Jurassic deposits known since the early work of Groeber (1918).

Further south, the Yeguas Muertas, Nieves Negras, Alvarado, Río del Cobre, Río Atuel–La Valenciana, Palauco, Sierra Azul, Sierra de Reyes and Cordillera del Viento are some of the depocentres of the Nequén basin located south of 33°S (Fig. 5). In particular, the Río Atuel–La Valenciana is an important subsidence zone west of Malargüe (34°–35°30′S) with a thick sequence of Triassic rift deposits that continue with the different units of the Cuyo Group represented by Arroyo Malo, El Freno, Puesto Araya and Tres Esquina Formations (Fig. 6) (Legarreta *et al.* 1993). The marine sequence dated by ammonites goes from Rhaetic to Toarcian in a complex fluvio-deltaic array (Lanés 2005).

It is interesting to remark that the Cuyo Group is overlain by the Callovian transgression of the La Manga Formation of the Lotena Group (Fig. 6). This unit includes a thin sequence of limestones between 50 and 100 m thick that covers all the depocentres from La Ramada towards the south, including the Alto del Tigre High (Giambiagi *et al.* 2003*a, b*). This carbonate platform is followed by a generalized regression that ended with the Auquilco Formation, a thick gypsum deposit up to 200 m thick widely distributed in the Principal Cordillera (Legarreta *et al.* 1993).

### *Second stage (Kimmeridgian–Albian)*

From 30°S southwards the distribution of the marine deposits accumulated during the second stage forms two clearly separated depositional areas: one in the Coastal Cordillera, and the other in the Principal Cordillera, and mostly on its eastern side (Charrier 1984; Mpodozis & Ramos 1989;

Charrier & Muñoz 1994; Charrier *et al.* 2007). The two basins are separated from each other by a volcanic domain that we propose to name the Lo Prado volcanic arc. Therefore, it is possible to identify three palaeogeographic domains at this moment, from west to east: (a) the Lo Prado forearc basin, bounded to the west by a relief formed on older units; (b) the Lo Prado volcanic arc; and (c) the Mendoza–Neuquén backarc basin, the latter including volcanic activity.

*Forearc (Lo Prado forearc basin).* Immediately north of the here considered region, in the Elqui river valley transect, at 30°S, on top of the Jurassic arc deposits, the forearc or rather the transitional deposits between the arc and a marine basin to the west are represented by the >4000 m-thick, volcanic, principally basaltic andesites and marine sedimentary Arqueros Formation (Berriasian–Albian) and the >2000 m-thick, continental, mostly red and volcanic Quebrada Marquesa Formation (Hauterivian–early Albian) (Aguirre & Egert 1965, 1970; Thomas 1967; Empan & Pineda 2006; Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991). The Quebrada Marquesa Formation interfingers with and covers gradually the Arqueros Formation; in its lower portion it contains abundant marine intercalations, some of which are fossiliferous, and consists in its upper portion of a thick succession of pyroxene–olivine bearing basaltic andesites and pyroxene–amphibole bearing andesites (Aguirre & Egert 1965; Empan & Pineda 1999, 2006; Empan & Calderón 2014). In this region, the Early Cretaceous backarc deposits (Río Tascadero Formation) are exposed over 60 km to the east in the high cordillera (Mpodozis & Cornejo 1988), where, like the Arqueros Formation, they interfinger with and grade upwards to red continental, volcanic and volcanoclastic facies (Pucalume Formation). In our palaeogeographic reconstruction the Marquesa Formation represents the late Early Cretaceous western facies associated with the magmatic arc, and the Pucalume Formation represents either the easternmost deposits of the magmatic arc or volcanic deposits that resulted from volcanic activity in the backarc.

Southern deposits with similar facies and the same stratigraphic position that the Arqueros Formation are the Lo Prado (Berriasian to Valanginian) and the La Lajuela (Early Cretaceous) formations. Both formations are constrained to the Coastal Cordillera south of *c.* 34°S and correspond to the oldest forearc basin deposits, which contain abundant lavas derived from the volcanic arc flanking the basin to the east. These units overlie, from north to south, the Late Jurassic arc-related Agua Salada Volcanic Complex (Empan & Pineda 2006; Empan & Calderón 2014), the Horqueta (Thomas 1958; Piracés 1977; Nasi & Thiele 1982;

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Period	Stage	Western flank		Eastern flank		
Cretaceous	Maastrichtian			Malargüe Gr.		
	Campanian	-----				
	Santonian	B.R.C.U.		Neuquén Gr.		
	Coniacian					
	Turonian					
	Cenomanian					
	Albian					
	Aptian	Cristo Redentor or Colimapu Fm.		Rayoso Gr.	Rayoso Fm. Huitrín Fm.	
	Barremian					
	Hauterivian	San José, Lo Valdés or Baños del Flaco Fm.			Mendoza Group	Agrío Fm. Mulichinco Fm. Quintuco Fm. Vaca Muerta Fm.
Valanginian						
Berriasian						
Jurassic	Tithonian			Mendoza Group	Tordillo Fm.	
	Kimmeridgian	Río Damas Fm.				
	Oxfordian	Lagunilla or Nacientes del Teno Fm.	Gypsum Mber.	Lotena Gr.	Auquilco Fm. "Yeso Principal"	
	Callovian		Lower Member		La Manga Fm. Lotena Fm.	
	Bathonian					
	Bajocian					
	Aalenian		-----		Cuyo Group	Tábanos Fm. Lajas Fm. Los Molles Fm.
	Toarcian					
	Pliensbachian					
	Sinemurian					
Hettangian						
Triassic						

**Fig. 6.** Stratigraphic succession of the Jurassic to Cretaceous deposits in the Principal Cordillera in central Chile and Argentina, between 32 and 37°S. Based on Aguirre (1960), Klohn (1960), González & Vergara (1962), González (1963), Davidson (1971), Davidson & Vicente (1973), Thiele (1980), Charrier (1981a) and Charrier *et al.* (2002).

Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991; Rivano 1996; Vergara *et al.* 1995) and Altos de Hualmapu formations (Bravo 2001). The Arqueros, Lo Prado and La Lajuela formations are conformably overlain by thick continental volcanic and volcanoclastic deposits of the Quebrada Marquesa (Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991; Emparan & Calderón 2014), Veta Negra Formation (Piracés 1977; Nasi &

Thiele 1982; Vergara *et al.* 1995) and El Culenar Beds (Bravo 2001), respectively. These extremely thick successions form a narrow band of almost continuous outcrops up to almost 36°S (Fig. 3). The stratigraphic position of the Veta Negra Formation and the age of the oldest granitoids that intrude this unit bracket its age to the Berriasian–Albian (Vergara *et al.* 1995). Notwithstanding the

stratigraphic position of the Veta Negra Formation, radioisotopic age determinations in this unit indicate that it is slightly older (*c.* 119 Ma; Aguirre *et al.* 1999; Fuentes *et al.* 2001, 2005) than the older lavas of the northern equivalent Arquerros Formation (117–115 Ma) (Morata & Aguirre 2003), suggesting a northward progression of volcanism and tectonic extension (Morata & Aguirre 2003; Morata *et al.* 2008).

The rather deep depositional conditions detected for the lower Lo Prado marine deposits and the several thousand metres-thick pile encompassed by the Lo Prado and Veta Negra formations indicate intense subsidence in the forearc basin (Vergara *et al.* 1995). Additionally, the rather primitive geochemical composition of the Lo Prado rocks with low MgO and high K content, that fall in the classification of high-K and shoshonitic porphyric basaltic andesites and andesites, and their low initial Sr ratios (*c.* 0.7036) are indicative of intense crustal extension in the basin during Early Cretaceous time (Morata & Aguirre 2003; Parada *et al.* 2005). Similarly, the flood-basalt-type flows of the overlying Veta Negra lavas (Äberg *et al.* 1984), the presence in this formation of approximately north–south-orientated dyke swarms suggestive of fissural eruptions parallel to the strike of the basin (Vergara *et al.* 1995), and its geochemical features (low La/Yb ratios, low  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratio of 0.70374 and more primitive Sr–Nd ratios than those of the Jurassic lavas), indicating an attenuated crust (Vergara *et al.* 1995; Morata & Aguirre 2003), are additional evidence for extensional tectonic conditions during Early Cretaceous times in the Lo Prado forearc basin. This basin corresponds to the aborted marginal basin of Äberg *et al.* (1984) and the intra-arc basin of Charrier (1984).

On the eastern flank of the Coastal Cordillera, the 3000 m-thick Las Chilcas Formation overlies with an apparently conformable contact the Veta Negra Formation (Wall *et al.* 1999). The lower volcanic portion of this formation has been dated (U–Pb) at  $109.6 \pm 0.1$  and  $106.5 \pm 0.2$  Ma (Wall *et al.* 1999), while lavas from its upper portion yielded K–Ar ages in plagioclase of  $95 \pm 3$  Ma (Gallego 1994). Based on these ages, we suggest that the Las Chilcas Formation formed during the transition from the Early to the Late period of Andean evolution. The lower portion, consisting of basaltic and andesitic lavas and dacitic and rhyolitic pyroclastics, developed in apparent conformity with the underlying Veta Negra Formation, would be the continuation of the volcanic activity developed in the Lo Prado forearc basin, whereas the coarse conglomerates of its upper part would correspond to syn-orogenic deposits associated with the Peruvian orogeny. We discuss this point below.

*Lo Prado magmatic arc.* Early Cretaceous plutonic rocks form an almost continuous swath of hypabisal dioritic to granitic plutons, which mostly intrude the Early Cretaceous deposits mentioned above (Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991; Gana & Tosdal 1996; Rivano *et al.* 1993; Empanan & Calderón 2014). K–Ar age determinations on these plutons yielded ages 134–86 Ma (Parada *et al.* 1988; Bravo 2001). Recent  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  dates in the northward prolongation of this swath, immediately north of the here considered region, yielded ages between 139 and 100 Ma (Valanginian–Albian) (Empanan & Calderón 2014). Low Sr initial ratios obtained on Early Cretaceous granitoids in the northern part of the region ( $31^\circ$ – $32^\circ\text{S}$ ) indicate an upper mantle origin, with virtually no continental crust involvement for these magmas (Parada *et al.* 1988; Creixell *et al.* 2011). This conclusion confirms the idea that the crust was thin and the tectonic conditions were extensional during development of the forearc basin, as well as in the Principal Cordillera, where thermal subsidence dominated the retroarc basins.

Arc volcanic rocks are also exposed further east and only in the northern part of the region (north of  $32^\circ\text{S}$ ). These have been assigned to the Pucalume Formation, unless they correspond to backarc volcanic activity (Charrier *et al.* 2007). In the Aconcagua area the Late Jurassic–Early Cretaceous successions are interbedded with backarc basalts and pyroclastic deposits (Cristallini & Ramos 1996).

*Backarc basin (Mendoza–Neuquén basin).* Backarc basin deposits in this region are exposed in Chile in the High Andes close to the international boundary and extend eastwards into western Argentina (Fig. 3). These generally consist mostly of sedimentary marine facies; however, at some localities they interfinger with volcanic deposits that, depending on their location, are interpreted as the easternmost arc deposits or to products of backarc volcanic activity.

In the high cordillera, in northern part of the region, between  $31$  and  $32^\circ\text{S}$ , volcanic deposits of the Late Jurassic Algarrobal Formation are exposed. These deposits interfinger and are covered by the conglomeratic Mostazal Formation (Mpodozis & Cornejo 1988; Oliveros *et al.* 2012), which is a western lateral facies of the Kimmeridgian, finer-grained, continental Tordillo Formation exposed next to the international border, between  $31$  and  $33^\circ\text{S}$  (Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991; Rivano *et al.* 1993; Lo Forte *et al.* 1996; Aguirre-Urreta & Lo Forte 1996). The great distance ( $>80$  km) that separates these volcanic deposits from those of the arc in this region suggests that they correspond to backarc volcanism, as has been observed in some regions along the central Argentina–Chilean Andes (Charrier *et al.* 2007; Mescua *et al.* 2008;

Mpodozis & Ramos 2008; Oliveros *et al.* 2012, among others).

Second-stage backarc marine sedimentary deposits in the northern part of the region consist of the Early Cretaceous Río Tascadero Formation (Mpodozis & Cornejo 1988; Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991). This unit forms a NNW-orientated swath that extends south-southeastwards into Argentina. Southwards, on the western flank of the cordillera, at 31°30'S, there is another similarly orientated swath, extending also into Argentina and consisting predominantly of volcanic and volcanoclastic deposits with mostly coarse detritic intercalations (breccias, conglomerates, and sandstones), and minor and finer marine fossiliferous calcareous sandstones, assigned to the Los Pelambres Formation (Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991).

Similar deposits exposed along the international border and next to it on the eastern flank of the cordillera at 33°S have been assigned to the Juncal Formation (Ramos *et al.* 1990; Aguirre-Urreta & Lo Forte 1996; Cristallini & Ramos 1996). Further east, the volcanic intercalations rapidly disappear eastwards, indicating that the source of the lavas and coarse volcanoclastic sediments was located to the west. Their source can either be the volcanic Lo Prado arc or volcanic edifices developed in the backarc basin to the east of the main magmatic arc. Because of the considerable distance separating the volcanic arc in the Coastal Cordillera and the volcanic deposits exposed along the axis of the Principal Cordillera, we favour the existence of volcanic activity in the backarc at this time coexisting with marine sedimentation. If this interpretation is correct it would emphasize the importance of volcanism in the backarc during the early period of the Andean Cycle (Ramos 1999; Charrier *et al.* 2007; Oliveros *et al.* 2012; Rossel *et al.* 2013).

Further south, between 33 and 36°15'S, along the western side of the Principal Cordillera (Fig. 3), but with a more external position than the previously mentioned units, Late Jurassic (Kimmeridgian) to late Early Cretaceous (Aptian–Albian), red continental and marine backarc deposits have been assigned to the upper member of the Lagunillas (Aguirre 1960) and Río Damas (Klohn 1960) formations, and the overlying marine San José (Aguirre 1960), Lo Valdés (González 1963; Hallam *et al.* 1986) and Baños del Flaco (Klohn 1960; González & Vergara 1962; Covacevich *et al.* 1976; Charrier 1981a; Arcos 1987) formations, and the red, detritic, continental Colimapu Formation (Klohn 1960) (see Fig. 6). These form a continuous, although considerably thrust and folded, swath of outcrops that extends further east into Argentina. The marine rocks consist of thick, richly fossiliferous successions of predominantly calcareous neritic to shallow (external platform) sediments. Lavas in the

Lo Valdés Formation form a thin intercalation in its lower portion (Biró-Bagóczy 1964), and volcanic intercalations in the Baños del Flaco Formation, a few kilometres to the south of the previous locality (*c.* 34°S), form a 440 m-thick succession of volcanic breccias and silicic lavas between marine fossiliferous sediments of Tithonian–Neocomian age (Charrier 1981b). In these formations the volcanic intercalations and volcanic components in the detritic deposits rapidly disappear eastwards, indicating again that the source of the lavas and coarse volcanoclastic sediments was located towards the west. At Termas del Flaco, in the Tinguiririca river valley, at 35°S, only the lowest portion of the Baños del Flaco is exposed. Its upper portion, and probably also the overlying Colimapu Formation, have been eroded in this place (Charrier *et al.* 1996). The final regressive episode led to the deposition of a second, generally thin band of gypsum ('Yeso Secundario' or 'Yeso Barremiano') at the base of the 1500 m-thick, red detrital Colimapu Formation (Klohn 1960; González & Vergara 1962; González 1963; Charrier 1981b), which corresponds to the generally fine-grained continental deposits with thin calcareous intercalations containing ostracodes that followed the regression in Aptian–Albian times. In the Maule river valley (36°S), a recent dating with detritic zircons yielded an Aptian maximum age for deposition of these deposits (Astaburuaga 2014). This formation is a lateral equivalent of the Huitrín–Rayoso Formation in western Argentina (Fig. 6).

At the end of the first Andean stage, a major plate reorganization associated with a great increase in generation of oceanic crust in the proto-Pacific (Larson 1991) and rapid westward drift of South America modified the tectonic conditions in the continental margin of South America. This geodynamic event, known as the Peruvian orogeny (Steinmann 1929; see also Groeber 1951; Charrier & Vicente 1972; Vicente *et al.* 1973; Ramos 1988b, 2010; Reutter 2001; Tunik *et al.* 2010), caused along western South America uplift of the continental margin, the marine regression referred above and definite emersion in the backarc basin, compressive deformation of the existing units, and crustal thickening. As a result of this phase, the first Andean mountain range was formed.

### Late period (early Late Cretaceous: Present)

The Peruvian orogeny separates the Early and Late periods into which Coira *et al.* (1982) subdivided the evolution of the Andean tectonic cycle. After this episode the palaeogeographic organization in this region of the Andes changed



completely: the backarc basin was inverted, the magmatic arc shifted considerably eastwards, a new mountain range was developed, a continental retroarc foreland basin was formed to the east of the arc instead of a backarc basin, and a rather wide forearc region west of the arc was produced as a result of eastward arc migration. Oblique subduction also prevailed at this time, although the movement of the oceanic plates towards the continent was mostly northeastward orientated, producing dextral displacement along trench-parallel faults. Moreover, some authors suggest from plan view reconstructions an orthogonal subduction for this moment, thus, dextral displacement could be less important (Arriagada *et al.* 2008; Martinod *et al.* 2010). The Late Period has been subdivided into two stages separated from each other by a major orogenic phase that occurred in middle Eocene, the Incaic orogeny (Fig. 1). Each one of these stages can be, in turn, subdivided into two substages by orogenic episodes that occurred at approximately the Cretaceous–Cenozoic boundary ('K–T' orogeny; Cornejo *et al.* 2003) and the Oligocene–Miocene boundary (Pehuenche orogeny; Fig. 1), respectively.

#### *First stage (early Late Cretaceous–middle Eocene)*

During the first stage, in the region between 31 and 37°S, a high sea-level stand in latest Cretaceous–earliest Cenozoic times caused a slight marine incursion along the western border of the present day Coastal Cordillera, and an extended marine incursion of Atlantic origin, on the eastern side of the mountain range that reached the axis of the present-day Principal Cordillera. This marine incursion from the Atlantic side was favoured by the tectonic loading and subsequent subsidence that developed a long foredeep along the eastern foothills of the Andes (Aguirre-Urreta *et al.* 2011).

For a better understanding of the following description of geological units, we will describe them separately in two different segments: a northern (31°–34°S) and a southern segment (34°–37°S).

*Northern segment.* The arc is represented by two parallel, close to each other, series of small and medium-sized plutonic outcrops located along the eastern flank of the Coastal Cordillera, immediately to the east of the previous arc representatives (Fig. 3). These outcrops can be followed up to 34°S, where they disappear or have not been identified. They consist of monzodiorites and subordinated granodiorites, gabbros, diorites and hypabissal andesitic and dioritic bodies (Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991; Rivano *et al.* 1993; Sellés & Gana 2001), and have been included by these

authors in the Cogotí superunit, and more recently in the Illapel Plutonic Complex by Morata *et al.* (2010) and Ferrando *et al.* (2014).

Stratified deposits corresponding to this stage are represented, between 31 and 33°S, by the following Late Cretaceous volcanic, volcanoclastic and sedimentary stratigraphic units: (a) upper part of the Las Chilcas; (b) the Viñita and its equivalent the Salamanca; and (c) the Lo Valle formations, with ages ranging from  $95.3 \pm 5$  Ma (Drake *et al.* 1976; Rivano & Sepúlveda 1991; Rivano *et al.* 1993; Gallego 1994; Mpodozis *et al.* 2009; Jara & Charrier 2014). The coarse and thick conglomeratic deposits of the upper Las Chilcas Formation, with a marine calcareous intercalation and some basaltic and andesitic–basaltic lavas at the top, would correspond to syn-orogenic deposits accumulated in a retroarc foreland basin developed with the Peruvian orogeny, which was deep enough to be invaded by the sea, and volcanic-arc deposits in its eastern and western border, respectively.

In fact, in this region, apatite fission track ages indicate for the western Coastal Cordillera the existence of a cooling event that began at 106–98 Ma (Gana & Zentilli 2000). This age is complemented by studies in the Caleu pluton on the eastern Coastal Cordillera indicating that crystallization occurred in the interval 94.2–97.3 Ma and that cooling occurred until about 90 Ma (Parada *et al.* 2005; Ferrando *et al.* 2014). These data have been confirmed by Willner *et al.* (2005), who reported for the eastern and western series of the metamorphic complex a cooling event between 113 and 80 Ma. This event is probably related to an exhumation process associated with uplift that can be associated with the Peruvian orogeny. Considering that it coincides with the age of the Las Chilcas Formation, we propose that the Las Chilcas Formation formed during the end of the Early period of Andean evolution and the beginning of the Late period, and represents the transition from an extensional to a compressional tectonic regime. A similar view has been proposed for the Caleu pluton (Parada *et al.* 2005). The calc-alkaline, silicic pyroclastic deposits, intermediate lavas and continental sediments of the Lo Valle Formation (Thomas 1958; Godoy 1982; Moscoso *et al.* 1982; Rivano 1996; Gana & Wall 1997) cover unconformably the Las Chilcas Formation. The Lo Valle Formation represents the deposits of the Late Cretaceous volcanic arc. K–Ar and Ar–Ar age determinations from samples collected at 33°S yielded  $70.5 \pm 2.5$ ,  $64.6 \pm 5$ ,  $72.4 \pm 1.4$  and  $71.4 \pm 1.4$  Ma (Vergara & Drake 1978; Drake *et al.* 1976; Gana & Wall 1997). According to these ages the unconformity that separates the Las Chilcas Formation from the overlying Lo Valle Formation represents a 20 Ma hiatus (Gana & Wall 1997).

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*Southern segment.* Further south, between 33 and 37°S, Late Cretaceous to Palaeogene deposits are exposed on the western and eastern flanks of the Coastal Cordillera, and in the Principal Cordillera. On the western flank of the Coastal Cordillera to south of Santiago, deposits of both Late Cretaceous to early Paleocene age and of late Paleocene (?) to Eocene age have been reported. The Late Cretaceous to Paleocene outcrops consist of fossiliferous marine platformal deposits related to the eustatic high stand developed at this time, and are exposed in the following localities, from north to south: Algarrobo (Levi & Aguirre 1960; Tavera 1980; Wall *et al.* 1996; Yury-Yañez *et al.* 2012), Topocalma (Charrier 1973; Cecioni 1978; Tavera 1979), Faro Carranza, south of Constitución (Chanco Formation; Cecioni 1983), and in the Arauco region, at the latitude of Concepción (*c.* 37°S) (Quiriquina Formation; Steinmann *et al.* 1895; Wetzel 1930; Muñoz-Cristi 1946, 1956; Biró-Bagóczy 1982; Stinnesbeck 1986; Finger *et al.* 2007; Salazar *et al.* 2010; Buatois & Encinas 2011). The Quiriquina Formation overlies the late Palaeozoic metamorphic complex and is unconformably overlain by the late Paleocene (?) to Eocene Concepción Group.

In the coastal region at the latitude of Concepción, late Paleocene (?)–Eocene deposits of the Concepción Group comprise alternations of continental and marine deposits accumulated in extensional basins formed along the coast in late Paleocene (?) to Eocene times. This outstanding succession containing hydrocarbon and important coal reserves is characterized by an alternation of transgressive and regressive episodes, controlled by eustatic changes, local subsidence and uplift of tectonic blocks (Wenzel *et al.* 1975; Pineda 1983*a, b*), and general uplift of the Andean range. It consists of the following formations, some of which interfinger with each other: Pilpilco (early Eocene, littoral marine sequence, partly continental), Curanilahue (early Eocene, a mainly continental sequence, coal-bearing strata), Boca Lebu (early Eocene, marine transgressive sequence), Trihuco (middle Eocene, a mainly continental sequence, coal-bearing strata) and Millongue (middle to late Eocene, marine sequence) (Tavera 1942; Muñoz-Cristi 1946, 1973; Pineda 1983*a, b*; Arévalo 1984; Finger *et al.* 2007). Along the eastern flank of the Coastal Cordillera up 35°15'S, the Late Cretaceous Lo Valle Formation is further exposed (Bravo 2001).

In the Principal Cordillera at 35°S, upward fining and thinning red-coloured fluvial deposits that unconformably rest on Jurassic terms of the Baños del Flaco Formation and unconformably underlie early Oligocene mammal bearing levels of the Abanico Formation have been informally named

Brownish-red Clastic Unit by Charrier *et al.* (1996). Similar deposits crop out next to the water divide at 36°S overlying Middle to Late Jurassic rocks of the Nacientes del Teno Formation and underlying the Late Cenozoic volcanic deposits assigned to the Campanario Formation (Drake 1976; Hildreth *et al.* 1998). These have been included in the Estero Cristales Beds by Muñoz & Niemeyer (1984). According to their stratigraphic position, these deposits can be assigned a Late Cretaceous age and correlated with the Late Cretaceous Neuquén Group on the eastern side of the cordillera (Charrier *et al.* 1996; Mescua 2011). On the western side of the cordillera, these units can be correlated with the upper Las Chilcas and the Viñita formations, further north. In westernmost Argentina, between 33 and 38°S on the eastern side of the Principal Cordillera, marine deposits of the Saldeño Formation (Tunik 2003) and the Malargüe Group (Bertels 1969, 1970; Aguirre-Urreta *et al.* 2011) testify to the far-reaching nature of the Late Cretaceous to early Cenozoic Atlantic transgression. The absence of these deposits in Chile suggests the existence of a relief that stopped the advance of the sea further west.

Along the western flank of the Andes, in Argentina between 35 and 38°S, the Late Cretaceous, 1500 m-thick red fluvial detritic deposits of the Neuquén Group, and the overlying Bajada del Agrio Group correspond to the retroarc foreland deposits related to the Peruvian orogeny (Ramos 1981; Ramos & Folguera 2005; Tunik *et al.* 2010; Di Giulio *et al.* 2012) (Fig. 1). New U–Pb detrital zircons age determinations indicate an early phase of westward-sourced deposits followed by deposition of sediments originated to the east of the retroarc foreland basin associated with uplift of the peripheral bulge as a consequence of the Late Cretaceous thrust front migration (Di Giulio *et al.* 2012).

In middle Eocene, the Incaic orogeny put an end to this stage. This event coincides with the peak of high convergence rate associated with a considerable reduction of the obliquity of convergence after 45 Ma (Pardo-Casas & Molnar 1987).

### *Second stage (middle Eocene–Present)*

The northern part of the considered region, between 31 and 33°S, is located in the southern part of the flat-slab segment, where the Central Depression and the volcanic arc are not developed. This is the region where the Frontal Cordillera, the Pre-cordillera and the Pampean ranges are developed (Fig. 2). The southern part, instead, between 33 and 37°S, is located in the transition to and in the normal subduction segment, where the Central Depression and the volcanic arc (along the axis of

the Principal Cordillera) have developed. In this stage, the Maipo orocline occurred in close relationship with the Pampean flat-slab. Palaeomagnetic rotations are observed within the normal subduction segment (Arriagada *et al.* 2013). In the considered region, second-stage deposits are located in all morphostructural units. We will describe the deposits from west to east.

*Western Coastal Cordillera.* No Oligocene deposits exist along the coastal region in Chile, probably because of the eustatic low stand at this time. Between 33°40' and 34°15'S, exposures of Miocene marine sediments are known as the Navidad Formation *sensu* Darwin (1846) and Tavera (1979). Recent work subdivided these deposits into the Navidad, Licancheo and Rapel formations (Encinas *et al.* 2006a). The Navidad Formation has been assigned a late Miocene age and the Licancheo and Rapel formations a Pliocene age by Finger *et al.* (2003) and Encinas *et al.* (2006a), whereas Gutiérrez *et al.* (2013) assigned an early to middle Miocene age to the Navidad Formation and a late Miocene age to the Licancheo and Rapel formations. The latter is overlain by the late Miocene to Pliocene, transitional marine to continental, richly tuffaceous La Cueva Formation (Tavera 1979), which interfingers and is overlain to the east by continental deposits of the Potrero Alto Beds of uncertain Miocene–Pliocene to Pleistocene age (Wall *et al.* 1996). According to Encinas *et al.* (2006a), the Navidad Formation was deposited on a rapidly subsiding basin, which reached depths of 1500 m; in contrast, Gutiérrez *et al.* (2013) favour a shallow coastal to outer shelf environment for this formation. The Navidad Formation can be correlated with the Ranquil Formation, to the south at 37°S.

The source of sediments in the Navidad basin based on the analysis of heavy mineral assemblages is the nearshore basement rocks (metamorphic and intrusive units) in the Coastal Cordillera and the central Chilean forearc (Rodríguez *et al.* 2012). Sediment supply from the latter began with erosion at the present-day eastern Central Depression (western Abanico Formation), later at the eastern Central Depression–western Principal Cordillera border (Miocene plutons), and finally in the western Principal Cordillera (Farellones Formation) (Rodríguez *et al.* 2012). The eastwards shift of the sediment source indicates the slow and gradual retreat experienced by the nick-points, which, according to Farías *et al.* (2008), arrived in the western Principal Cordillera between 2 and 6 myr after onset of surface uplift, at *c.* 7.6 Ma, and >2 myr later in the eastern Principal Cordillera.

Along the coast of central Chile, Plio-Pleistocene events are widely documented by: (a) marine deposits of the upper Coquimbo Formation (at 30°S)

and correlatives, like the Pliocene upper La Cueva formations (at 34°S) and further south the Tubul Formation (at 37°S) in the Arauco region; (b) fluvial deposits exposed in coastal–near river drainages, like the Confluencia and Caleta Horcón formations (Rivano 1996), and the Potrero Alto Beds; and (c) shoreline and fluvial geomorphic features that testify to a considerable uplift of the forearc. Five well-preserved marine terraces (wave-cut platforms) (Darwin 1846; Paskoff 1970, 1977; Fuenzalida *et al.* 1965; Ota *et al.* 1995; Saillard *et al.* 2009, 2012) and pedimentary surfaces developed in fluvial drainages connected with the marine terraces (Rodríguez *et al.* 2013) have been reported. Cosmogenic datings on these features yielded 6, 122, 232, 321 and 690 ka, and allow reconstruction of a non-steady history of uplift to *c.* 100–150 m during interglacial periods after 400 ± 100 ka (Saillard *et al.* 2009; Regard *et al.* 2010; Rodríguez *et al.* 2013).

*Central Depression.* Until recently, this morphostructural feature, which is developed south of 33°S, has been considered to be of tectonic origin (i.e. Carter & Aguirre 1965) and related to the subduction of the Juan Fernández Ridge (i.e. Jordan *et al.* 1983b). However, based on analyses of uplift markers and nick-point progression supported by geochronological and thermochronological dating, it has been recently interpreted as an erosional feature (Farías *et al.* 2008). However, the Quaternary alluvial and fluvial deposits derived from the Principal Cordillera that build up the *c.* 400 m thick infill, as well as new tectonic evidence, show that the Central Depression is tectonically controlled (see Giambiagi *et al.* 2014). Explosive volcanic activity in the volcanic arc produced abundant lahar and volcanic avalanche deposits such as La Cueva Formation in the coastal region (Encinas *et al.* 2006b). Between 33°30' and 37°S, tuff and ash-flow deposits covered the Central Depression, that is, the Pudahuel–Machalí Ignimbrite (Stern *et al.* 1984), Teno (MacPhail & Saa 1967; Marangunic *et al.* 1979), Tinguiririca (Abele 1982) and Laja (MacPhail 1966) lahars.

The origin of the Pudahuel–Machalí Ignimbrite (Stern *et al.* 1984) has been associated with the Maipo Caldera, in the high Andes, at 34°S. The ignimbrite flow was channelized along the main river valleys towards the coastal region, and into Argentina, along the Yaucha and Papagayos valleys. The tuff deposits in Pudahuel, next to Santiago, and Machalí, east of Rancagua, yielded apatite fission track ages of 0.44 ± 0.08 and 0.47 ± 0.007 Ma, respectively (Stern *et al.* 1984).

*Principal and Frontal Cordillera.* In the northernmost part of the region (31°–32°S), Oligocene

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plutonic rocks (El Maitén–Junquillar and Bocatoma units) form extensive outcrops that intrude Permo-Triassic volcanics of the Choiyoi Group and younger Mesozoic units (Fig. 3) (Mpodozis & Cornejo 1988; Martin *et al.* 1997; Bissig *et al.* 2001). Further south, these outcrops disappear and two alignments of scattered intrusives of early and middle to late Miocene age (the latter to the east of the former) are exposed along the western flank of the Principal Cordillera. The La Obra and the San Gabriel plutons in the Maipo river valley next to Santiago belong to this group of intrusives. Some of these plutonic bodies are associated with super-giant late Miocene to Pliocene porphyry Cu–Mo ore bodies such as Los Pelambres, Río Blanco–Los Bronces and El Teniente. These ore deposits developed within hydrothermal alteration zones linked to multiphase stocks, breccia pipes and diatreme structures in rocks of Oligocene to Miocene age (Cuadra 1986; Serrano *et al.* 1996; Vivallo *et al.* 1999; Camus 2002, 2003; Skewes *et al.* 2002; Maksaevev *et al.* 2004; Charrier *et al.* 2009; Mpodozis & Cornejo 2012).

Some of the stratified units of this stage exposed between 31 and 33°S have been previously considered to represent much older ages. Recent studies have shown that they formed essentially during Oligocene to Miocene times (Mpodozis *et al.* 2009; Jara & Charrier 2014; Jara *et al.* 2014). According to this age and their volcanic and volcanoclastic nature with only subordinated sedimentary intercalations, they can be correlated with similar deposits exposed between 29 and 30°S on the eastern flank of the cordillera in the Valle del Cura region (Winocur *et al.* 2014), and with the Abanico and Farellones formations well exposed 33°S along the western flank of the Principal Cordillera and to the north (Fig. 3).

The dominantly volcanic, middle–late Eocene to Oligocene Abanico Formation, and the Miocene Farellones Formation make up the pre-Pliocene Cenozoic deposits in the Principal Cordillera of Central Chile (31°–36°S) (Aguirre 1960; Klohn 1960; González & Vergara 1962; Charrier 1973, 1981a, b; Thiele 1980; Charrier *et al.* 2002; Godoy 2011). The Abanico Formation consists of a locally strongly folded, c. 3000 m-thick succession of volcanic, pyroclastic volcanoclastic and sedimentary deposits including abundant subvolcanic intrusions of the same age (Vergara *et al.* 2004), with a well-developed paragenesis of low-grade metamorphic minerals (Padilla & Vergara 1985; Levi *et al.* 1989; Aguirre *et al.* 2000; Fuentes *et al.* 2001, 2005; Bevins *et al.* 2003; Fuentes 2004; Muñoz *et al.* 2006, 2010). The outcrops of this formation form two north–south orientated swaths separated by the Farellones Formation (Fig. 3) (Sernageomin 2002). This formation contains abundant

mammalian rests (Flynn *et al.* 2007; Charrier *et al.* 2012). At the western side of the Abanico outcrops,  $34.3 \pm 2.2$  Ma old basal Abanico deposits unconformably overlie the  $72.4 \pm 1.4$  and  $71.4 \pm 1.4$  Ma old Lo Valle Formation (Gana & Wall 1997). At the eastern side of the Abanico exposures, the oldest age obtained for the base of the Abanico Formation is  $37.67 \pm 0.31$  Ma (Charrier *et al.* 1996). The Abanico Formation was deposited in an extensional basin formed while the crust was relatively thin, persisting throughout the Oligocene epoch, and underwent subsequent tectonic inversion in late Oligocene to early Miocene time (Pehuenche orogeny, see Fig. 1). This diachronic extensional event has not been recognized in northern Chile (Charrier *et al.* 2009, 2013) and seems to have been concentrated between 28 and 39°S, and probably extended further south, up to 43°S (Godoy 2011).

The younger Farellones Formation is a 2400 m thick, gently folded, almost entirely volcanic unit forming a continuous north–south trending swath between approximately 32 and 35°S (Fig. 3) (Thiele 1980; Charrier 1981a, b; Vergara *et al.* 1988). The deposits of the Farellones Formation typically cover the Abanico Formation, up to 35°S, where this formation is not exposed any more. The views about the contact are controversial (Charrier *et al.* 2002, 2007). It has generally been reported as unconformable (Aguirre 1960; Klohn 1960; Jara & Zelman 1967; Charrier 1973, 1981a, b; Thiele 1980; Quiroga 2013). Growth strata have been observed at several localities between the upper Abanico and the lower Farellones deposits (Fock *et al.* 2006; Quiroga 2013). The contractional event evidenced by the growth strata has been associated with the inversion of pre-existing normal faults that participated in the development of the Abanico basin (Charrier *et al.* 2002; Fock *et al.* 2006; Fariás *et al.* 2010). Inversion along the eastern side of the basin linked to El Diabolo fault triggered the development of the east-vergent thrust–fold belt systems during middle Miocene on the eastern flank of the Principal Cordillera (Ramos *et al.* 1996b; Giambiagi *et al.* 2003a; Mescua 2011; Muñoz-Saez *et al.* 2014; Giambiagi *et al.* 2014). Furthermore, inversion along the San Ramón Fault on the western side of the Abanico basin caused west-vergent thrusting of the Abanico Formation deposits over the Central Depression (Rauld 2002; Armijo *et al.* 2010). Recent activity has been detected on the San Ramón Fault (Vargas & Rebolledo 2012).

South of 36°S, the prolongation of the younger part of Abanico Formation is the Cura–Mallín Formation (Niemeyer & Muñoz 1983; Muñoz & Niemeyer 1984; Charrier *et al.* 2002; Radic *et al.* 2002; Flynn *et al.* 2008). This formation

accumulated in the southern prolongation of the Abanico Extensional basin (Elgueta 1990; Vergara *et al.* 1997; Jordan *et al.* 2001; Charrier *et al.* 2002; Radic *et al.* 2002; Croft *et al.* 2003; Flynn *et al.* 2008) that in this region was inverted during late Miocene times (Burns & Jordan 1999; Radic *et al.* 2002).

The Cura–Mallín Formation is conformably overlain by the andesitic and conglomeratic Trapa–Trapa Formation, which in turn is unconformably overlain by the late Miocene Campanario Formation, which is a southern equivalent of the upper Farellones Formation and the Pliocene Cola de Zorro Formation (González & Vergara 1962; Muñoz & Niemeyer 1984; Astaburuaga 2014). A nearly coeval stratigraphic series has been recognized in the Andacollo region on the Argentine side of the Andes at 37°S (Jordan *et al.* 2001), where these authors applied the same formational names as used in Chile. These Argentine deposits unconformably overlie the early Cenozoic Serie Andesítica, and are overlain by the late Miocene sedimentary and volcanoclastic Pichi Neuquén Formation.

Scattered Plio-Pleistocene volcanic activity on the western Principal Cordillera has been reported for areas located next to the El Teniente ore deposit at 34°S (Camus 1977; Charrier & Munizaga 1979; Charrier 1981*b*; Cuadra 1986; Godoy & Lara 1994; Gómez 2001) and Sierras de Bellavista at 34°45′S (Klohn 1960; Vergara 1969; Charrier 1973; Malbran 1986; Eyquem 2009). These volcanic centres form a north–south alignment suggesting a tectonic control for this activity. Finally, the volcanoes of the present-day magmatic arc lie east of the eastern outcrops of the Abanico Formation, covering Mesozoic units and forming the northern part of the Southern Volcanic Zone (Stern *et al.* 2007). From north to south the most important of these volcanoes are named Tupungato, San José, Maipo and Maipo caldera, Tinguiririca, Planchón–Peteroa, Descabezado Grande, Cerro Azul, Descabezado Chico, San Pedro, Longaví and Chillán, some of which are aligned with the El Diablo fault (see Fig. 3). Isotopic studies on late Neogene magmatic rocks from the Chilean Principal Cordillera reveal a source contamination probably resulting from the deep westwards underthrusting of the basement beneath the orogen, a process that is coeval with thickening and uplifting events in the Andes (Muñoz *et al.* 2013).

Thermochronometric studies oriented to constrain the tectonic-related exhumation history in central Chile, between 28.5° and 32°S, reveal that uplift of the Coastal Cordillera occurred mostly in Palaeogene times (apatite fission track (AFT) ages between *c.* 60 and 40 Ma and apatite He (AHe) ages around 30 Ma) and that little exhumation occurred during the rest of the Neogene in

that region, while exhumation ages from the Frontal Cordillera are younger AFT ages between *c.* 40 and 8 Ma and AHe ages from *c.* 20 to 6 Ma). Thermal modelling of AFT and AHe data allows recognition of three main episodes of accelerated cooling affecting different areas of the Frontal Cordillera: *c.* 30, *c.* 22–17 and *c.* 7 Ma. The first of them coincides with the early stages of development of a late Oligocene extensional intra-arc basin along the eastern Frontal Cordillera, between 29 and 30°S, and is interpreted as a consequence of tectonic exhumation. The early and late Miocene periods of accelerated cooling along the Frontal Cordillera correlate with periods of contractional deformation widely recognized throughout the Central Andes and, thus, interpreted as a consequence of surface-uplift (Rodríguez 2013; Rodríguez *et al.* 2014).

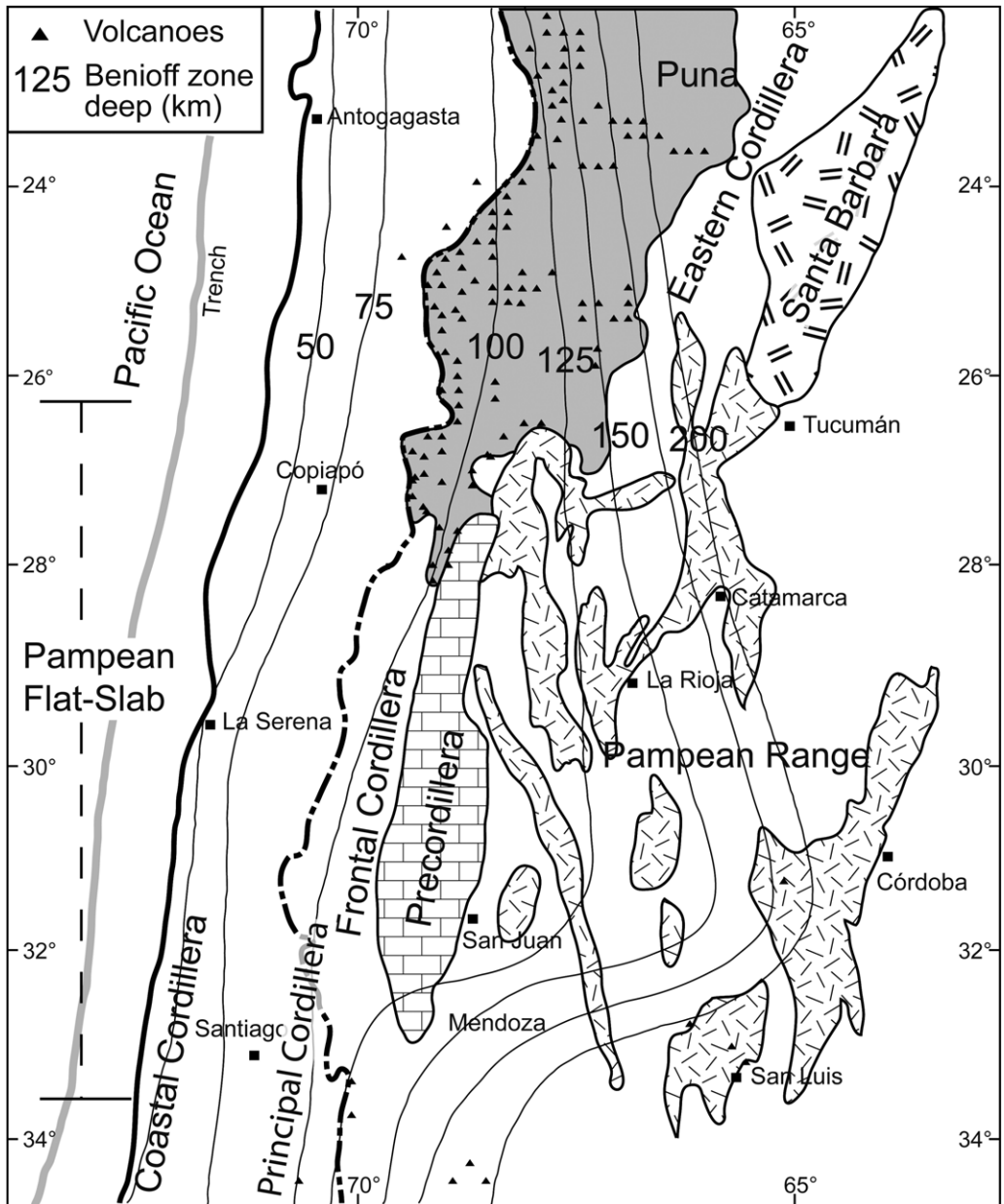
<sup>10</sup>Be content in bed-load from different rivers and across a major climatic gradient on the western flank of the mountain range in central Chile has been analysed in order to determine erosion rates associated with uplift (Carretier *et al.* 2013). This study confirms the primary role of slope as a control of erosion even under contrasting climates and supports the view that the influence of runoff variability on millennial erosion rates increases with aridity. However, even if current erosion rates are decoupled from precipitation rates, climate still plays a fundamental role by accelerating the erosion response to uplift (Carretier *et al.* 2014).

*Foreland.* In Neogene times in the Andean foreland some processes related to shallowing and steepening of the subducting slab occurred, which are described next.

*Pampean flat-slab subduction.* The magmatic arc that was developed during previous stages of the Andean cycle along the western slope of the Andes expanded and shifted during late Miocene to the Quaternary to the Argentine side between 31 and 33°30′S latitude (Fig. 7) associated with a period of shallowing of the subduction zone (Jordan *et al.* 1983*a, b*).

Magmatic activity ended in the Principal Cordillera at about 8.6 Ma and in Sierras Pampeanas at 1.9 Ma with the last subduction-related volcanism more than 750 km away from the trench (Ramos *et al.* 2002). The first migration of the volcanic arc at these latitudes is recorded in the Aconcagua volcanic rocks. Huge amounts of andesitic and dacitic rocks were erupted at about  $15.8 \pm 0.4$  and  $8.9 \pm 0.5$  Ma in the Aconcagua massif on the eastern side of the Principal Cordillera, at 33°S (see Fig. 3). This area constitutes the new volcanic front 50 km east of the Farellones arc in the western slope. The retroarc magmatism of Paramillos,

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**Fig. 7.** The Pampean flat-slab segment with the different geological provinces in the foreland, the Quaternary volcanic arc and the isobath to the subducted oceanic slab (after Ramos *et al.* 2002).

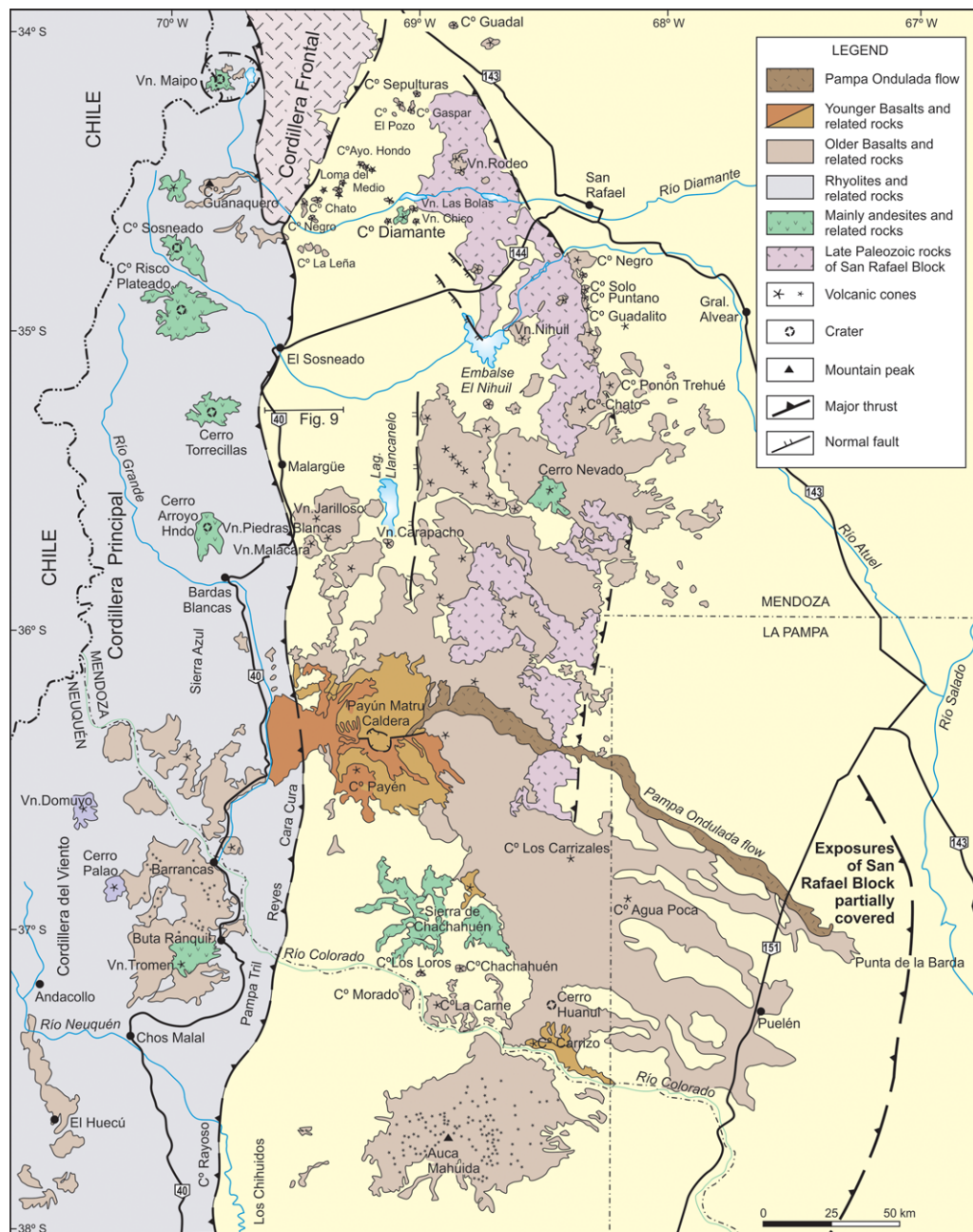
west of the city of Mendoza, was shut off at 15.2 Ma, almost at the same time that the migration took place (Ramos *et al.* 1996b). Geochemical studies show a typical calc-alkaline signature of these volcanic rocks (Kay & Abbruzzi 1996).

The shifting of the magmatic arc was preceded by an important deformation in the western half

of the Aconcagua fold-and-thrust belt (Fig. 3) (Ramos *et al.* 1996a). At about 8.6 Ma, the thin-skinned Aconcagua fold-and-thrust belt detached in Jurassic evaporites ceased. As a result of that, the orogenic front migrated about 25 km from Las Cuevas to Río de Las Vacas (Ramos *et al.* 1996b). Syn-orogenic deposits were preserved in

isolated exposures between Principal and Frontal Cordilleras, in the Uspallata–Calingasta depression and in the present foreland basin in the foothills around Mendoza (Fig. 3). Magnetostratigraphic

studies performed in the foothills show that sedimentation started at 15.7 Ma in the Mariño Formation with distal fluvial and eolian deposits with a low sedimentation rate. This unit was followed



**Fig. 8.** The Miocene magmatic arc rocks, the Quaternary Payenia basaltic province and the Present thrust front (after Ramos & Folguera 2011).

by the conglomerates and sandstones of La Pilona Formation at 11.7 Ma, which exhibit a marked increase in accumulation rate with time (Irigoyen *et al.* 2000).

There is no magmatic activity in the Principal and Frontal Cordilleras. Magmatic arc rocks are concentrated in the Sierras Pampeanas between 8 and 6 Ma. Volcanic arc rocks are widespread in the Sierra de San Luis (Urbina & Sruoga 2009) and consist of high-K andesites and dacites with typical shoshonites in the Sierra del Morro, which recorded the latest eruption at 1.9 Ma along the flat-slab subduction segment (Ramos *et al.* 1991, 2002; Kay *et al.* 1991).

The magmatic expansion was accompanied by the development of a broken foreland where several late Cenozoic basins were formed related to tectonic loading and dynamic subsidence (Dávila *et al.* 2005).

The neotectonic activity is presently concentrated between Precordillera and Sierras Pampeanas, where large intracrustal earthquakes have occurred (Alvarado *et al.* 2009). Surface fault ruptures and other neotectonic features indicate important Quaternary deformation (Schmidt *et al.* 2011).

*Payenia palaeoflat-slab subduction.* South of 33°30'S latitude a different geological setting is observed (Fig. 8). The Principal Cordillera is flanked by the Frontal Cordillera up to 34°30'S, where south of this latitude the foothills of the Andes are in contact with an extensive basaltic plateau of Quaternary age between 34 and 37°S (Ramos & Folguera 2011). This basaltic plateau is known as the Payenia volcanic province.

The Principal Cordillera between 35 and 37.5°S latitudes recorded in the Miocene an important expansion of the magmatic arc from the Chilean slope to the foreland eastern foothills (Spagnuolo *et al.* 2012b; Folguera & Ramos 2011). After a period of extension during the Oligocene, where the within-plate alkaline basaltic rocks of Palauco Formation erupted, a series of granitic stocks were emplaced in the eastern slope of the Principal Cordillera. Subvolcanic bodies of calc-alkaline andesites with ages ranging from middle to late Miocene are found in the foreland extra-andean plains. The eruption of these rocks is also linked to another phase of contraction and deformation (Spagnuolo *et al.* 2012b). The within-plate basalts of the Payenia volcanic province are unconformably overlying previous deposits and extend over an area larger than 40 000 km<sup>2</sup> between 33°30' and 38°S latitudes. The huge Payún Matru caldera is the main feature related to the Payenia retroarc basalts (Bertotto *et al.* 2009; Llambías *et al.* 2010). The basalts have an estimated volcanic

volume of about 8387 km<sup>3</sup> erupted through more than 800 volcanic centres in the last c. 2 Ma (Ramos & Folguera 2011; Gudnason *et al.* 2012; Søger *et al.* 2013).

The sedimentary basin evolution at these latitudes during the Cenozoic shows the transit from a single foreland basin to a broken foreland basin associated with the uplift and exhumation of the San Rafael Block (Silvestro & Atencio 2009; Ramos *et al.* 2014). Geophysical studies have demonstrated that the steepening of a subducted slab is the more appropriate process to explain the extension and characteristics of the Payenia basaltic retroarc province (Burd *et al.* 2008).

### Concluding remarks

The analysis of the geology of this sector of the southern Central Andes shows continuous subduction along the proto-Pacific margin of Gondwana and the present margin of South America during most of the Cenozoic. However, it is possible to identify an accretionary orogen during the Palaeozoic, with docking of different terranes, and a Meso-Cenozoic subduction with different tectonic regimes. These variations defined tectonic cycles with different processes, where extensional and compressive regimes alternate through time. The accretion of continental basement terranes produced the obduction of slices of oceanic crust, high-pressure–low-temperature metamorphism, and important shifting to the trench of the magmatic arcs. Periods of shallow subduction, partially combined in late Palaeozoic times with the processes of accretionary orogenesis, produced broken forelands under extreme contraction and subsequent extension and widespread rhyolitic volcanism. The Mesozoic was characterized by subduction with generalized extension until late Early Cretaceous, when evidence of contraction and orogeny led to the present Andean tectonic setting with dominant contraction. The development of segments with flat-slab subduction with no arc-magmatism alternates with segments where, after periods of flat subduction, the steepening of the subduction zone produced generalized extension and backarc basaltic magmatism.

All these processes indicate the complexities of the classic Andean tectonic setting, where the simple subduction of oceanic crust under continental crust controls the orogenesis. The analysed segment, one of the classical sectors of the Central Andes, with excellent exposures and where many of these processes have been first recognized, enhanced the importance of understanding the relationship among magmatism, metamorphism, sedimentation and deformation.



The authors thank the participants of the IGCP 586-Y 'Geodynamic Processes in the Andes, 32–34°S' for their invitation to prepare this introductory chapter to this book. They thank two anonymous reviewers for their valuable suggestions that considerably improved the manuscript and several colleagues who provided in-press manuscripts on subjects related to the considered region. The authors acknowledge: FONDECYT Project no. 1120272, 'Extension, inversion and propagation: key tectonic styles on the development of the Andean Cordillera of central Chile-Argentina (32–36°S)'.

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