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Sanchez Nassif Francisco, Gallagher Kerry, Ezpeleta Miguel, Collo Gilda, Davila Federico, Mora Andres

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2 from kinematic modeling and Monte Carlo sampling of thermal boundary conditions

Authors: Sanchez Nassif, Francisco¹; Gallagher, Kerry²; Ezpeleta, Miguel¹; Collo, Gilda¹,
 Davila, Federico¹, Mora, Andres³

- Centro de Investigaciones en Ciencias de la Tierra (CICTERRA). Av Velez
 Sarsfield 1699, Cordoba, Cordoba, Argentina.
- Geosciences/OSUR, University of Rennes, Campus de Beaulieu, Rennes, 35042,
 France
- 9 3. Ecopetrol, Praia de Botafogo, Brazil

10 Abstract

11 It is common practice to assume values for basal heat flow or basal temperatures as a lower boundary condition for thermo-kinematic models of crustal tectonics. Here, we infer 12 spatial and temporal variations of the paleo-basal temperature from integrated modelling of 13 thermochronological ages, to relate the inferred variations to the geodynamic setting. To 14 this end, we consider the Argentine Precordillera as a natural laboratory, given that its 15 16 kinematic evolution is relatively well constrained and therefore, the focus can be placed on 17 the variations of its basal thermal state. By means of a simple Monte Carlo sampling 18 approach with thermochronological data as constraints, we infer the paleo-basal temperature history. This is compared to estimates posed by models existing in the 19 20 literature concerning flat-slab subduction. Our results imply that, given the kinematic models used to date in the area, extremely low temperature gradients (< 15°C/km) are 21 required to adequately predict the observed thermochronological ages. Substantial cooling 22 23 of the lithosphere around 10 Ma is also required in order to fit measured values. This agrees with previous thermal simulations carried out in the region. Furthermore, major 24 controls of the thermal architecture on the Argentine Precordillera are implied, thus 25 reigniting the debate on thermal driving mechanisms in the evolution of mountainous 26 27 settings and their relationship with deeper processes within the Earth, such as on the 28 effects of the flat-slab subduction.

29

31 Introduction

Thermochronological data have been extensively used as constraints for models of the 32 thermal evolution of the lithosphere (see Reiners and Ehlers, 2005; Guillaume et al., 33 2013., Dávila and Carter, 2013; Fosdick et al., 2015; and also England and Molnar, 1990; 34 35 Ring et al., 1999; for a review of cooling processes). In that sense, the growing use of thermochronological data has propelled major advances in kinematic thermochronological 36 modeling in the last two decades (Braun et al., 2012; Almendral et al., 2015, among 37 others). Moreover, inverse thermochronologic modeling carried out under the assumption 38 39 of constant lower boundary conditions (such as basal temperature or heat flow) has 40 rendered valuable information on heat transfer in settings where the geodynamic evolution is relatively well understood (Braun, 2003; Fillon and van der Beek, 2012; Coutand et al, 41 42 2014; Olivetti at al., 2017). In general, the lower boundary conditions are rarely treated as variable (spatially and/or temporally) parameters (although see Schildgen et al., 2009 for 43 an example of transient lower thermal boundary conditions). Furthermore, no studies have 44 focused on inferring transient boundary conditions from thermochronological 45 measurements. Not taking geodynamic variability into account in regions where major 46 changes have clearly occurred (e.g. modification of the subduction angle; see for example 47 Dávila et al., 2018), can lead to equivocal results and conflicting interpretations. These 48 concerns are corroborated by studies demonstrating the thermal evolution of the 49 continental lithosphere is dependent on the evolving geodynamic scenario (Vitorello and 50 Pollack, 1980; Sachse et al., 2016; Ávila and Dávila, 2020). Thus, the relationship between 51 transient geodynamics and thermochronological modeling of the upper crust calls for 52 special attention. 53

To understand the implications of unsteady subduction and, as would be likely, an 54 55 unsteady or transient lower boundary condition for the overlying lithosphere, we consider the well-known Argentine Precordillera (AP) as a preliminary case study. Structural 56 57 reconstructions in the Jachal area (near Jachal city, see Fig. 1; Jordan et al., 1993; Allmendinger and Judge, 2014; Nassif et al., 2019) have been complemented with 58 thermochronological data (Levina et al., 2014; Fosdick et al., 2015; Val et al., 2016; and 59 new data from this work) and estimations of erosion rates (Fosdick et al; 2015; Val et al., 60 2016; Nassif et al., 2019). These multiple constraints make the Argentine Precordillera of 61 Jachal an ideal test case to assess the potential of extracting novel geodynamic 62 information from measured thermochronological ages. Furthermore, the present work 63

seeks to build on previous findings exploring the influence of basal temperatures on 64 65 thermochronological data (see for instance Shildgen et al., 2009), and also to cast new light on heating mechanisms. As has been previously suggested (Ehlers, 2005; Dávila and 66 Carter, 2013; Nassif et al., 2020, in press), physical phenomena other than burial and 67 denudation processes may play a significant role regarding rates and durations of heating 68 and cooling. Hence, we take advantage of the state-of-the-art knowledge of the Argentine 69 Precordillera to pose questions not directly concerning exhumation and/or erosion. In 70 particular, can we constrain variations of paleo-basal temperatures with kinematic and 71 72 thermochronological data? What implications may such estimates have on our 73 interpretations and thermochronologically driven conclusions? The present effort addresses those questions by means of Monte Carlo sampling to infer basal temperature 74 75 values over time. We apply an easy-to-implement statistical framework to compare model 76 predictions with existing and new thermochronological data. These data are complemented with diagenetic indicators (% Illite to Smectite; see Środoń et al., 1986), 77 78 the combination of which lets us set bounds on the lower thermal boundary condition, i.e. 79 basal temperature over time. The model results are compared to proposed thermal states in the study region (Gutscher et al., 2000) which are of particular importance given the 80 81 uncommon nearly-flat subduction angle in the region. We propose that the stochastic sampling approach described here may be suitable for other geological scenarios where 82 inversion of thermochronological data can aid reducing uncertainties of first-order variables 83 present in thermal simulations. 84

85

86 Geological setting

The Argentine Precordillera (AP) is an intraplate fold-and-thrust belt located at the southern end of the Central Andes foreland. It is composed of N-S trending mountains that record a prolonged Paleozoic to Cenozoic tectonic history, suggested being controlled by subduction processes and the accretion of exotic terranes (Ramos et al, 1986; 2004). Major Andean deformation and uplift in this region have been related to the ongoing flat subduction of the Nazca plate beneath the South American lithosphere (Isacks et al., 1982; Jordan et al., 1983a-b; Kay and Abbruzzi, 1996; Dávila et al., 2018).

The present-day landscape in the AP shows meridional and sub-parallel thrust sheets 94 95 separated by seven major thrust faults, named from west to east: Tranca, Caracol W, Caracol E, Blanco, Blanquitos, San Roque, and Niquivil (Fig. 1; Allmendinger and Judge, 96 2014). Such structures, suggested to be associated with a deep decollement (~ 16 km), 97 are responsible for the complex scenario outcropping in Jachal section (see Fig 1). Studies 98 99 of the chronology of motion of the thrustbelt have elucidated its kinematics (Allmendinger and Judge, 2014; Jordan et al., 1993), and have been complemented by recent efforts to 100 101 estimate Tertiary erosion and deposition (Fosdick et al., 2015; Val et al., 2019; Nassif et 102 al., 2019). Taken together, the structural and thermochronological endeavours in the area 103 have successfully constrained the spatial evolution of the region, but kinematic models relating such deformation to the thermal evolution of the belt remain to be developed. 104 Given that the AP constitutes an exploratory frontier (Pérez et al., 2011), insights into the 105 106 thermal history experienced by potential source-rocks within the Cambro-Ordovician limestone sequence. (Pérez et al., 2011; see Fig. 1 for reference), are of importance to 107 both researchers and industry. 108

Regarding its thermal state, the AP has been linked to refrigerated thermal regimes, as it 109 sits over the Chilean-Pampean flat slab segment (see Collo et al., 2018). Shifting of the 110 asthenospheric wedge caused by slab flattening is suggested to produce thermal cooling 111 of the upper crust (Gutscher et al., 2000; English et al. 2003; Álvarez et al. 2014), with 112 evidence of the 'cold state' provided in the Vinchina Basin. Here extremely low heat flow 113 values (< 30 mW/m^2) were proposed to explain thermal calibration data (Collo et al., 2011; 114 2015). Such low heat flow values may have varied with the slab geometry, which has also 115 been constrained in the study region. Several authors (Gutscher et al. 2000; Jordan et al., 116 117 2001; Ramos and Folguera, 2009; among others) have postulated the beginning of the flattening episode at ~15-18 Ma, with the slab becoming sub-horizontal at ~7-6 Ma 118 (Gutscher et al. 2000; Kay and Mpodozis, 2002). Taking into account the already 119 understood spatial deformation at Jachal (see Fig. 1, above), the available data and 120 interpretations make this region of the Pampean flat slab an ideal scenario to explore the 121 relationship between a) the record of crustal cooling and exhumation, and b) the combined 122 effects of thin-skinned deformation and changes in subduction geometry at the lithospheric 123 124 scale.

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128 Methodology

a) Inversion of time-dependent boundary conditions from thermochronological andkinematics data

Using the documented deformational sequence for the AP (see Jordan et al., 1993; Allmendinger and Judge, 2014; Nassif et al.; 2019, and references therein) as a geological reference framework, we used Fetkin (Finite element kinematics; see Almendral et al., 2015) to predict thermochronological ages along the thrustbelt. Fetkin is a 2D thermokinematic code which takes as input a series of structural sections to forward-model lowtemperature thermochronological ages at user-specified locations by solving the heat equation, given as

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}\rho C = \nabla \cdot (\lambda \nabla T) - (q\rho C \cdot \nabla T) + H$$

where T is temperature, t is time, λ is the thermal conductivity, ρ and C are the density 139 and specific heat capacity, respectively; and q is the rock velocity, determined by the 140 tectonic history of the setting. Rock velocities are obtained directly in Fetkin by tracking the 141 position of material particles throughout the simulation of the structural evolution. H 142 represents heat sources and sinks, which for simplicity, were not included in the models 143 144 considered here. Moreover, to solve the 2D form of the heat transfer equation, four 145 boundary conditions; namely B₁ (lower), B₂ (upper), B₃ (right boundary) and B₄ (left boundary) are required. In this work, the lower boundary condition, B_4 , was allowed to vary 146 over time to better represent the geodynamic evolution of the system. The numerical 147 148 model starts from an equilibrated thermal steady-state, thereafter solving the heat equation considering thrusting kinematics and boundary enforcements. 149

Our thermo-kinematic model for the Jachal AP (see Fig. 1 for location) started at 16 Myrs, when movement along the westernmost thrust, Tranca (see Fig. 1), was triggered (Jordan et al., 1993; Allmendinger and Judge, 2014). Thermo-kinematic calculations were carried out to the present day, with the final model form being equivalent to the outcropping structural configuration today (see Allmendinger and Judge, 2014; Nassif et al., 2019). For

the thermal model calibration, we incorporated 2 sets of unpublished fission track data 155 (processed by Late Andes laboratory, Argentina, see Table 1). Sample J272, belonging to 156 Permian strata within the San Roque nappe (see Fig. 1 for location in the thrustbelt), 157 yielded a central AFT age of 152.3±12.9 Ma. Track lengths measurements were also 158 carried out in this sample, resulting in a unimodal distribution with a mean track length 159 160 (MTL) of 10.17 ± 1.68 µm (see Table 1 and also Supplementary Material, S1). In the easternmost nappe, Niguivil, analysis in a Silurian sandstone yielded a central AFT age of 161 10.9 ± 2.1Ma, but no track lengths were observed in this sample. It is highlighted that the 162 two central ages obtained (ages for samples J259 and J272) were concordant (passed the 163 164 chi-squared test, see Supplementary Material 2) and are also considerably younger than their stratigraphic ages. Moreover, no appreciable relationship between the single grain 165 166 ages and the kinetic parameter considered, Dpar (measured on each grain) was seen in 167 any sample (see Supplementary Material). These ages are therefore considered to reflect 168 primarily the post-depositional thermal history and are interpreted in terms of the samples' 169 cooling to the surface.

170

	Sample	х	Y	Z (m)	Geologic unit	Ns	Ni	Nd	Rho-d (1/cm ²)	grains	Dpar (µm)	MTL(μm)	U (ppm)	Central ages (Ma)	Disp.	P(X ²)
	J272	68.64° W	30.30° S	1125	Fm Panacan	777	519	10000	6.48E+05	15	1.46	10.16	37.52	152.3+- 12.9	0.06	34.98
ľ	J259	68.62° W	30.31° S	1195	Fm Los Espejos	33	314	10000	6.48E+05	21	1.36	no lengths	17.21	10.9+-2.1	0.13	46.51

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Table 1. AFT data from this work

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In addition to the new AFT measurements, data from 3 U-Th/He samples are available from the literature (Fosdick et al., 2015; see Fig. 4, results) and these were also incorporated as constraints. Finally, in order to complement the inferences based on the thermochronological data, diagenetic indicators in clays (Smectite to Illite, I/S%) were also measured along the easternmost nappe, Niquivil; following standard procedures for clay treatment at the clay laboratory at Universidad Nacional de Córdoba (see Środoń et al., 1986; an references therein).

180 Regarding the 2D heat transfer and thermochronological age simulations, the model 181 considers: a) a mesh resolution of 2500 nodes covering the modeled thrust belt ; b) a

timestep of 1 Myr; c) kinetics for AFT and U-Th-Sm/He from Ketcham et al. (2007) and 182 183 Wolf et al. (1998), respectively; d) an inherited age of 152 Myrs for the apatites in the study region before Andean deformation took place. The last assumption is based on AFT 184 detrital results that registered such age (152.3 ± 16 Ma; see sample HC07 from Fosdick et 185 al., 2015) in grains from the foreland basin, Huaco (see Fig. 1 for location). Likewise, 186 187 results (this work) from AFT measurements in an eastern nappe of the thrust belt (San Roque nappe; 152.3 ± 12.9 Ma; see also Supplementary Material); point also to a 188 189 Mesozoic inherited age of apatite grains before Andean deformation started in the AP (16 190 Ma). The program assumes the same inherited age for all thermochronological systems, 191 which poses no major problems in modeling exercises as long as thermal resetting in U-Th-Sm/He samples is guaranteed (as occurs in this work; see results). Radiation damage 192 effects on He retentivity were not incorporated into the modelling (see also Limitations and 193 194 further insights)

The depth scale of the model, i.e. the depth to the lower thermal boundary condition, was 195 196 defined to be 20 km. In accordance with lithological characterizations in the area stating that the thrustbelt is mostly composed by siliciclastic sediments (see Allmendinger and 197 Judge, 2014), we assigned a thermal conductivity of 2.5 W/m*K, a density of 2500 Kg/m³ 198 and specific heat of 1000 J/kg*K (see Hantschel and Kauereauf, 2009; for value 199 200 references) across the whole model. Given the limited amount of calibration data, a more complex set of thermophysical parameters or the inclusion of heat production, was not 201 justified for this preliminary study. The top boundary condition at mean sea level was set to 202 23 °C, after climate characterizations in the region (arid to semi-arid for the studied time 203 204 interval; see Walcek and Hoke, 2012).

205 As the aim of this work is to infer the lower thermal boundary condition 206 (temperature at 20 km), values for this parameter were allowed to vary in the range 100-800°C, corresponding to very low (5 °C/km) to high (40°C/km) thermal gradients (see 207 208 Hantschel and Kauereauf, 2009). These are broadly equivalent to a range in heat flow of 10 to 100 mWm⁻². To allow for some time dependence, and following thermal numerical 209 210 models involving slab-flattening processes (Gutscher et al., 2000), we parameterized the basal temperature history in 3 stages, in a step-function manner, with a constant but 211 unknown value in each stage. The time intervals considered for each stage were 1) 16-8 212 213 Ma, 2) 8-4 Ma and 3) 4 Ma to present (see Fig. 2). The time interval of the first stage was selected to be relatively wide as that the slab-flattening process started around 20 Ma (Kay 214

and Mpdozis, 2002), and that its associated thermal effects would not have been 215 216 perceived before 10 Ma in the upper crust, equivalent to the depth scale of our model (see Gutscher et al., 2000; Jaupart and Mareschal, 2010). Using simple Monte Carlo (MC) 217 sampling we select candidates for the basal temperatures in each time interval from the 218 temperature range defined earlier. To avoid drawing non-physical candidates (for example, 219 220 "scissor-like" ones implying rapid and large oscillations in the basal temperature), our Monte Carlo sampling proceeded as follows: First, we drew a value from a uniform 221 222 distribution between 100°C (T min) and 800 °C (T max), corresponding to the first time 223 interval (16 to 8 Ma). Then, we drew a second value (part 2) from a uniform distribution 224 centered on the candidate value in the first time interval and extending 200°C on either side. This large range (400°C) was set to ensure that a wide set of physically plausible 225 possibilities could be tested. The same prior lower and upper limits set (T_{min} = 100°C, T_{max} 226 227 = 800°C) as for the first part were also enforced in this instance, so samples were modified 228 accordingly when necessary (for example when values from the first draw corresponded to 229 temperatures near a limit). The basal temperatures for the first and second stages (see Fig. 2) were constant in space, consistent with subduction numerical models that suggest 230 no major lateral variation in the relatively short spatial scale defined by the AP, at the 231 depth scale concerned by this work (see 2D predictions in Gutscher et al., 2000; Gutscher 232 and Peacock, 2003; Manea and Manea, 2011; and also 3D models in Ji et al, 2017; see 233 also Fig. 2). Finally, a candidate model was drawn for the final stage (part 3; 4 Ma to 234 235 present; Fig 2), using constrained sampling conditional on the value for the second stage, 236 as described previously. For this final stage, we also allowed for spatial variation for the 237 basal temperature (see Fig. 2) as flat-slab Andean thermal models predict an appreciable 238 gradient in the lateral direction (west-east) for this time interval (4 Ma to present; see Gutscher et al., 2000). Hence, a candidate model for this part (3) consisted of two values, 239 both drawn from the same distribution (a uniform centered on the value for previous stage; 240 2). 10000 iterations of the process above described were performed, and the proposed 241 lower boundary condition temperature history were then entered into Fetkin to run a 242 243 thermal simulation for each iteration. As the final stage of a candidate model consisted of two values (at the lateral boundaries), the values were interpolated linearly in space in the 244 Fetkin environment. A Python program to parallelize thermal modeling calculations carried 245 out by the Fetkin algorithm was deployed. To measure the agreement of predictions from 246 the thermal model with the observed data, we adopted the following misfit expression (φ) 247

248
$$\varphi = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{M} \frac{(i\alpha_{j,\text{mod}} - i\alpha_{j,\text{sam}})^2}{i\sigma_j}}$$

where *N* the number of data sets and *M* the samples in each data set, $\alpha_{j,\text{mod}}$ the modeled age for a particular set of parameters and $\alpha_{j,\text{sam}}$ the sampled value (measured age). ${}^{i}\sigma_{j}$ refers to the data uncertainty. Following Valla et al. (2010), we adopted an uncertainty of 0.5 Myrs to equally weight all data in terms of the difference between the observed and predicted ages.

254

255 b) Additional views from classical inverse thermal history modelling

To complement insights derived from the 2D thermochronological simulations, we used inverse thermal history modeling for samples J259 and J272, using the software HeFTy (see Ketcham, 2005). To account for the depositional history of each sample, as well as episodes of heating (potential resetting) before the period concerned by this work (16 Ma to present), the inverse modeling exercises were set considering the following constraints:

Sample	Time (Ma)	Temp. range (°C)	Rationale					
	400-280	>170	simulate provenance					
	300-280	0-30	sediment accumulation					
J272	260-80	60-140	40 burial heating					
	60-23		Paleozoic rocks should have been close to the surface					
		20-45	anytime in the Cenozoic, as implied by the Neogene/Permian					
			unconformity in the maps					
	22.0	60 100	burial and heating of Paleozoic rocks as Andean-related					
	25-0	00-100	subsidence took place					
	500-440	>170	simulate provenance					
	440-420	0-30	sediment accumulation					
	300-90	60-140	burial heating					
J259			Paleozoic rocks should have been close to the surface					
	60.22	20-45	(but deeper than sample J259, and therefore hotter)					
	00-25		anytime in the Cenozoic, as implied by the Neogene/Permian					
			unconformity in the maps					
	22.0	60 100	burial and heating of Paleozoic rocks as Andean-related					
	23-0	00-100	subsidence took place					

Table 2. Constraints considered in classical inverse thermal modeling.

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262

264 **Results and discussion**

a) Misfit distribution

266 Results from the MC inversion are shown in Fig. 2. Fig. 2A shows the AP kinematics used 267 after Nassif et al (2019), which considered an in-sequence thrustbelt deformation starting at 16 Ma. Fig. 2B displays a "noodle plot" of thermal candidates for each of the 3 periods 268 269 considered (16 Myrs to 8 Myrs, 8 Myrs to 4 Myrs, 4 Myrs to 0 Myrs), and their respective 270 misfit values. Misfits were normalized for this figure to a 0-1 scale, with 0 representing the 271 lowest misfit observed (best agreement between model predictions and data) and 1 the highest (worst agreement between model predictions and data). We note that a 272 normalized misfit value of 0 does not represent a perfect agreement between data and 273 274 predictions. The distance along the AP axis is also shown rescaled (-1 to 1 representing west to east; see Fig. 2). Finally, Fig. 2C shows 1D marginal distributions obtained via 275 276 Neighborhood Algorithm Bayes (see Sambridge, 1999), along with deterministic 277 temperature estimates at the base of the model (20 km) after the flat slab subduction 278 model of Gutscher et al (2000). Best-fit temperature candidates are also shown in Fig. 2C 279 for clarity (see red lines).

We remark that the conditional dependence (or correlation) between parameters from 280 each of the 3 periods plays a major role regarding the misfit values. For example, 281 normalized misfit values for $T = 200^{\circ}C$ in the first stage (16 Myrs to 8 Myrs; see Fig. 2B), 282 vary between 0.7 and 0.1, depending on the values of the other 3 parameters. Some 283 284 combinations of this candidate (T=200°C) with candidates from the other two stages yielded better misfits than others, demonstrating a conditional dependence or trade-off 285 among values drawn for each of the 3 periods. Overall, however, basal temperatures in 286 the range between 400°C to 800°C represent poor models (high normalized misfit, 0.6 or 287 higher; see Fig. 2) for all of the 3 stages considered, regardless of how they were 288 289 combined.

Lower values of misfit for the first stage (16 Myrs to 8 Myrs) are obtained when candidates are in the 300°C-100°C range (with some conditional dependence on the other two

periods, as discussed above). Misfit values are lower when candidates are around 200°C 292 to 100°C in the second stage (8 Myrs to 4 Myrs), implying that basal temperatures (at 20 293 km depth) in the AP for this time interval may have decreased. This statement also holds 294 true for the third stage (4 Myrs to present). However, since a lateral variation of 295 temperature was allowed for this time interval of the simulations, the results appear more 296 297 dispersed across the temperature axis relative to the second phase. Furthermore, our MC inversion results suggest that heat coming into the base of the AP (20 km) during the 298 299 Miocene may have never led to temperatures in excess of 300°C, implying low thermal 300 gradients (\sim 15°C/km, or heat flow about 30mWm⁻²).

301 Marginal distributions obtained for each variable considered (Fig. 2C) using the NA 302 resampling method (see Sambridge, 1999) corroborate previous comments in regards to temperature reduction after 8 Ma (see Fig. 2C), as the range of temperatures in the 303 marginal pdf is strongly peaked at lower values (2 modes seen in the distribution) for the 304 interval 8-4 Ma. It can also be noted that marginal distributions from T1 and T2 barely 305 306 overlap, disclosing the diminution in basal temperatures after 8 Ma (see Fig. 2C). The 2 307 distributions for the last stage (in the period 4 to 0 Myrs, W and E) span a similar range to the 2nd stage, and both are peaked at low values (100-120°C). 308

309 To complement the previous assertions on conditional dependence, we used the same resampling approach to construct the 2D marginal distributions for each combination of 310 311 variables analyzed (T1, T2, T3, T4; see Fig. 3) and we also calculated the correlation 312 matrix for the 4 parameters (Fig. 3; bottom). These results show that there are indeed correlations between parameters, the strongest being between the parameters for stages 313 314 1 (T1) and 2 (T2) (correlation coefficient of -0.67), implying a trade-off such that as T1 increases T2 decreases. This is also manifested in the orientation of the contours in the 315 316 2D marginal distribution for these two parameters. There are less strong correlations of stage 1 and stage 2 with the parameter in the west (T3) from stage 3 (correlation 317 318 coefficients of -0.25, and 0.26 respectively, implying slightly negative and positive correlations). The temperature parameter in east (T4) has correlation coefficients of $< 10^{-2}$ 319 320 with the other 3 parameters, so effectively no correlation. Both the 1D and 2D marginal distributions also demonstrate that the more probable values for all 4 temperature 321 parameters are below 300°C, highlighting the dominantly cold thermal regime since 16 Ma. 322

b) Comparison with the Andean flat-slab subduction model of Gutscher et al. (2000)

The results presented in this work are consistent with previous subduction models 324 325 (Gutscher et al., 2000; Gutscher and Peacock, 2003; Manea and Manea, 2011), that propose refrigerated thermal architectures after slab flattening (see estimates from 326 Gutscher et al., 2000; Fig. 2C). Moreover, the trends from our best-fit models agree well 327 with the pronounced cooling after c.a. 10 Myrs proposed by Gutscher et al. (2000; see Fig. 328 329 2C). The main difference between our best-fit result and Gutscher et al. (2000) occurs for the period from 8 to 4 Myrs (Fig. 2C), where our inferred best temperature values (around 330 331 100°C for T2) are lower than those after Gutscher et al. (2000; around 200°C). However, 332 the marginal distributions suggest that there is a local maximum (equivalent to a local 333 minimum for the misfit) around 200°C, so the results overall are consistent with Gutscher et al. (2000). More data are required to resolve more definitively whether the thermal effect 334 of the flat slab had already perturbed the upper crust by 8 Myrs (for our best model) or if 335 336 this effect arrived at a later stage (as implied by Gutscher et al., 2000). Regarding the last 337 4 Myrs, our best-fit candidate implies the same eastward increase in temperature as in the 338 Gutscher et al. (2000) model, but again more data are needed to better constrain the basal temperature values for that period. A lack of resolution is implied by the variable 339 orientations among basal temperature candidates and associated lack of correlation for 340 341 that interval (see Fig 2B, 2C and Fig. 3). We note that the implied present day gradients resulting from all the lower misfit candidates (~13°C/km to 5°C/km) are consistent with low 342 thermal gradients derived from borehole measurements (Collo et al, 2018; 18 °C/Km). 343 344 Collo et al. (2018) highlighted a westward reduction of thermal gradients between 64°W 345 and 68°W attributable to a flat-slab.

346 c) Discussion on modeled thermochronological ages

Results obtained for modeled thermochronological data are shown in Fig. 4, along with the 347 348 interpreted structural state of the Jachal AP for the present day (after Nassif et al., 2019; 349 Allmendinger and Judge, 2014). Table 3 summarizes the measured (from this and other 350 works) and modeled values. We note that although the thermochronological ages exhibit significant variation along the transect (see AFT ages of Permian and Silurian rocks in the 351 easternmost nappe; 152.3 ± 12.9 Myrs and 10.9 ± 2.1 Myrs, respectively; Fig. 4); predicted 352 ages (obtained with the best-fit model) and measured ages follow the same trend. In 353 particular, the thermal resetting of U-Th/He samples from Blanco (JT07), Blanguitos (JT12) 354 and Niquivil (JT01) is well replicated, with all ages implying Andean cooling (see Fig. 4 and 355 Fig. 1 for reference). We remark that modeled U-Th/He age of sample J701 (8.4 Myrs) 356

implies, like the measured age (12.3 ± 1.4 Myrs; Fosdick et al., 2015), cooling that 357 predates deformation along Niquivil thrust (see Fig. 4). This inference is significant given 358 that kinematic reconstructions point to a major burial episode at that time (~4 Km at 5 359 Myrs, see Nassif et al., 2019), which might be hard to reconcile with the observed U-Th/He 360 ages, which are older than Niquivil faulting (see Fig. 4, samples JT01 and JT259). 361 362 Modeling incorporating a normal gradient (20 °C/km to 30°C/km) would fail to reproduce such a situation, producing totally reset ages that reflected later cooling around the time of 363 364 Niquivil thrust activation (5 Myrs or less; see also Nassif et al., 2020; in press).

365

	Sample	Depositional age	Measured age (Ma)	Measured MTL (µm, c- axis corrected)	Modeled age (Ma)	Modeled MTL (µm)
AFT	J259 (this work)	Silurian	10.9 ± 2.1		23.14	12.3
AFT	J272 (this work)	Permian	152.30 ± 12.9	12.57 ± 1.18	114.321	12.63
U-Th- Sm/He	JT07 (Fosdick et al., 2015)	Silurian	14.1 ± 1.0		7.85	
U-Th- Sm/He	JT01 (Fosdick et al., 2015)	Silurian	12.3 ± 1.4		8.42	
U-Th- Sm/He	JT012(Fosdick et al., 2015)	Permian	11.7 ± 4.1		6.8	

366

Table 3. Modeled and measured ages and track lengths

The AFT modeled ages agree with observations (see also supplementary material), both implying partial annealing of fission tracks during Andean structuration (see Fig. 4). The high content of Illite in I/S mixed layers (around 80%; R3; see Fig.4 and supplementary material) in AFT Permian and Silurian samples (J272 and J259, respectively) tentatively imply that Paleozoic rocks were heated above temperatures over 100°C (see Velde and

Vasseur, 1992; Huang et al, 1993; among others). Given that maximum temperatures 372 373 rendered by the best-fit model for partially-reset AFT Silurian sample J259 do not exceed the 90-100°C range (see Fig. 4, inset), and that AFT age of Permian sample J272 points to 374 a very minor degree of thermal resetting (152.3 ± 12.9 Myrs, Fig. 4), our results suggest 375 that temperatures in excess of 120°C might have been reached prior to Tertiary 376 377 deformation. Such a proposal is consistent with 1D modeling exercises previously performed for the AP (Fosdick et al., 2015), which suggested temperatures always below 378 379 80°C for the period modeled in this work (16 Myrs to present). We note that the proposed 380 pre-Andean heating might imply that Cambro-Ordovician marine sedimentary rocks (see 381 Fig.1), suggested to be potential oil source rocks (see Pérez et al., 2011; Fig. 1), would have reached temperatures in the oil window before the Miocene orogenesis, therefore 382 ruling out Tertiary-trap hydrocarbon accumulation. 383

384 d) Complementary views from 1D thermal models

As discussed previously in the methodology, inverse thermal models using HeFTy for the two AFT samples (J272 and J259) were performed. The inverse thermal model for sample J272 considered age and length measurements, since both were available. In contrast, the inverse thermal model for sample J259 only had age measurements as constraints, as no confined lengths were observed (see SM1) for that sample. Fig. 5 shows the results for both samples, outlining major observations that can be obtained from the time-temperature paths inverted, which can be summarized as follows:

i) Sample J272 (San Roque nappe, see Fig. 5A): the thermal history of this Permian 392 sample exhibits two episodes of thermal resetting; at Mesozoic and at Miocene. Full 393 thermal resetting of sample J272 at ~220 Ma points to an old (> 150 Ma) remnant age of 394 the sample by the time it underwent Andean-related burial and consequent heating. Such 395 Andean heating only promoted maximum temperatures around 80°C, producing only 396 397 partial annealing in fission tracks. This partial annealing was followed by rapid Neogene 398 cooling, which might be interpreted in terms of thrusting and kinematics of the AP (see Fosdick et al., 2015; Val et al., 2016, Nassif et al., 2019). Moreover, according to the 399 HeFTy inverse model (and also 2D kinematic simulations), the sample J272 was never 400 401 heated by temperatures above 90°C during the Tertiary, so the remnant age was not altered substantially during Andean deformation. Such partial thermal-resetting during 402 Andean tectonics remarks the strong influence of the basal boundary conditions on the 403

thermal history of the thrust belt: the sample underwent cooling since 10 Ma despite the
fact that, indeed, the sample was being substantially buried (see sedimentation estimation
in Nassif et al., 2019) as a consequence of thrusting-related syn-sedimentation.

407 ii) Sample J259 (Niquivil nappe, see Fig. 5B): the degree of Miocene thermal resetting in 408 this sample remains unconstrained by thermochronological data alone, as the lack of 409 length data means that many possible models can explain the age measurements. However, considering similar constraints as those imposed for sample J272, the inverse 410 411 model rendered corroborates previous assertions regarding a Miocene cooling episode not 412 linked to rock exhumation but to transient boundary conditions instead. Alike sample J272, 413 the thermal history of sample J259 also points to a cooling event after 10 Myrs, which 414 seems counterintuitive as by this time most volume of the Argentine Precordillera was 415 being translated from western nappes to eastern ones (see Fosdick et al., 2015; Val et al., 2016, Levina et al., 2014; and kinematics in Nassif et al., 2019), therefore implying 416 substantial burial and deepening of sediments within the Niquivil block; i.e. what might be 417 considered the opposite of cooling. Hence, the inverted Andean thermal evolution of 418 419 sample J259, to some extent unpaired with the kinematics and sedimentation of the thrust belt, discloses the major effects of the flat-slab subduction (and its associated changes in 420 basal heat flow) on time-temperature paths and thermochronological ages. 421

422 e) Regional geodynamic context

423 Although a complex thermal structure is inferred for this region (Sánchez et al. 2019) and some discrepancies exist regarding the associated thermal regime during the transition 424 425 from normal to flat subduction (see Collo et al., 2011 and Goddard and Carrapa, 2018), the cooling of the thermal regime by 8 Myrs implied by our models is consistent with the 426 427 inferred low heat flow in the region based on borehole, seismic, thermochronological and magnetic data (Marot et al., 2014; Collo et al., 2018; Sánchez et al. 2019) and with the 428 429 extremely low gradients in the Huaco foreland basin proposed by authors such as Dávila 430 and Carter (2013), Richardson et al. (2013), Hoke et al. (2014), Bense et al. (2014), and 431 Collo et al. (2018); as well as with those recorded for other flat slab regions (eg. Dumitru et al., 1991, Gutscher 2002, Manea and Manea 2011). 432

433 Moreover, our results support the proposals of Dávila & Carter (2013), who suggested that 434 thermochronological ages in this region not only record erosion/exhumation, but also 435 changing subduction geometry and dynamics. Building on these previous qualitative

propositions, the present effort represents the first attempt to quantify the influence of the 436 437 Pampean flat slab subduction in the thermal regime of the AP. Our findings are similar to those seen in deep Vinchina Basin (around 10 km depth), where sediments belonging to 438 the depocenter were not thermally reset during Miocene deformation (Collo et al., 2011, 439 2015, 2018). Such unreset AFT ages (and also U-Th/He ages, see sample JT01) within 440 441 the AP, a fold-and-thrust belt where the magnitude of erosion is probably >5 km (see Zapata and Allmendinger, 1996; Jordan et al., 2001; Fosdick et al., 2015, Val et al., 2016; 442 443 Nassif et al., 2019), suggest that other heating/cooling mechanisms apart from burial and 444 exhumation may need to be invoked. The reduction of heat transfer from below by fluid 445 flow (Nassif et al., 2020, in press) would also allow higher basal temperatures to fit the measured thermochronological data. However, the extent of fluid flow through the AP is 446 yet to be precisely quantified (Lynch and van der Plujim, 2017) and only then can such 447 448 effects be better understood.

449 f) Limitations and further insights

Although the numerical model performed in this study satisfactorily explains the 450 thermochronological data set, we highlight that model results could be enhanced by 451 452 considering the following: a) incorporation of radiation damage effects in the AHe analysis; which, as discussed by Zapata et al. (2020), might be a first-order factor conditioning U-453 Th-Sm/He thermochronological measurements (and interpretations) near the study region. 454 455 Moreover, overlapping of AHe and AFT ages in sample J259; might point in that direction, or could also just reflect rapid cooling across the partial retention/annealing zones. b) 456 Consideration of isostatic effects in the kinematic and erosional model of Nassif et al. 457 (2019), which could reduce the amount of eroded material and thus, the thickness of the 458 Neogene sedimentary column considered in the simulations (see also McQuarrie and 459 460 Ehlers, 2015); c) refinement of the numerical model by incorporating physical phenomena 461 not considered in this work (for instance radiogenic heat production, variable 462 thermophysical parameters or fluid flow), which could lead to different basal temperatures that also fit the thermochronological constraints. However, as the main aim of this work 463 464 was to explore a new way of exploiting thermochronological data; i.e. inversion of timedependent basal temperatures, the methods considered and the simplifications implicit in 465 them is sufficient to demonstrate the potential of this approach. 466

467

468 Conclusion

The basal temperature inversion exercise presented here, based on classic Monte Carlo 469 sampling, shows an alternative use of thermochronological data, that is, to try and 470 constrain time and spatial variations in the lower thermal boundary condition (at 20 km) for 471 472 thermo-kinematic models. The motivation is to link geodynamically induced thermal signals 473 from the deeper Earth with those related to upper-crust structural kinematics and to shed more light on the nature of heat transfer in subduction settings. However, this may seem 474 475 counter-intuitive as the thermochronological data are sensitive to temperatures $< 150^{\circ}$ C, 476 and also the inversion approach and model parameterizations we used were simple; the 477 preliminary results are promising. This is in part due to the very low basal temperatures 478 associated with the refrigerated thermal regime associated with flat subduction, suggesting 479 similar (or more sophisticated) approaches and other types of higher temperature thermochronological data (e.g. He dating of zircon, ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar on feldspar, U-Pb on apatite) 480 may be usefully applied in other areas where the structural evolution and the geodynamic 481 regime can be constrained. 482

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Fig 1. Geological-structural map of the study area (Jachal-Rodeo section after Nassif et al., 2019.
Geological characterization after Allmendinger and Judge, 2014). U-Th/He thermochronological
samples J701, J707 and J712 after Fosdick et al. (2015) and J272 and J259 are our own AFT
samples.



Fig 2. Monte Carlo sampling results. A) Kinematics considered after Nassif et al. (2019); B) Thermal
candidates for each of the three periods considered displayed with their respective normalized

misfit value (see color scale); C) 1D marginal probability distributions for the four parameters
calculated with the approach of Sambridge (1999). The red lines mark values for the best model
obtained from the MC sampling (the model with the minimum misfit over all 4 parameters).
Estimates of temperatures at the base of the model (20 Km), after numerical subduction models of
Gutscher et al (2000), are also shown (see pink rectangles)

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686 Fig. 3. 2D marginal probability distributions for the 6 combinations of the 4 temperature 687 parameters. The green, blue and red contours indicate 67, 95 and 99% probability and the white 688 circles indicate the values for the best model obtained from the MC sampling (the model with the 689 minimum misfit over all 4 parameters). The lower right panel illustrates the correlation matrix for 690 the 4 parameters, with each square indexed by the parameter values on the top and the left of the 691 image. The green colours indicate a positive correlation, brown colours a negative correlation and 692 the lighter the colour, the closer to zero the correlation coefficient (i.e. low correlation). All 693 parameters are perfectly correlated with themselves, so the diagonal (dark green) = 1.

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Fig 4. Forward modeled thermochronological ages. Interpreted present-day structural section of Jachal AP (Nassif et al., 2019) and measured %I in mixed I/S (this work), are also shown. U-Th-

700 Sm/He ages after Fosdick et al. (2015)





Fig. 5. Inverted time-temperature histories and track length distributions of samples J272 and
 J259, considering length and age FT data.











- Low-temperature thermochronological data are used to estimate unsteady basal boundary conditions in 2D thermokinematic simulations
- Geodynamic signals from deep Earth processes are linked to shallow-crust thermochronological signals by means of Monte Carlo sampling
- Inversion of transient boundary conditions discloses effects of flat slab subduction in the Argentine Precordillera

Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: