

Differential Exhumation of the Eastern Cordillera in the Central Andes: Evidence for South Verging Backthrusting (Abancay Deflection, Peru)

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Key Points:

- Thermochronological data quantifying the tectonic history of the undocumented northern edge of the Peruvian Altiplano (Abancay Deflection)
- 3D thermokinematic models unravel the evolution of the Eastern Cordillera and the Altiplano
- Steady and uniform exhumation between 40 and 5 Ma, followed by tectonically driven tilting of the Eastern Cordillera

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Differential Exhumation of the Eastern Cordillera in the Central Andes: Evidence for South-Verging Backthrusting (Abancay Deflection, Peru)

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Abstract Located at the northern tip of the Altiplano, the Abancay Deflection marks abruptly the latitudinal segmentation of the Central Andes spreading over the Altiplano to the south and the Eastern Cordillera northward. The striking morphological contrast between the low-relief Altiplano and the high-relief Eastern Cordillera makes this area a well-suited place to determine spatiotemporal variations in surface and/or rock uplift and discuss the latest phase of the formation of the Central Andes. Here, we aim to quantify exhumation and uplift patterns in the Abancay Deflection since 40 Ma and present new apatite (U–Th)/He and fission track data from four altitudinal profiles and additional individual samples. Age–elevation relationships and thermal modeling both document that the Abancay Deflection experienced a moderate, spatially uniform, and steady exhumation at 0.2 ± 0.1 km/Myr between 40 and ∼5 Ma implying common large-scale exhumation mechanism(s). From ∼5 Ma, while the northern part of the Eastern Cordillera and the Altiplano registered similar ongoing slow exhumation, the southern part of the Eastern Cordillera experienced one order-of-magnitude of exhumation acceleration (1.2 ± 0.4 km/ Myr). This differential exhumation since ∼5 Ma implies active tectonics, river capture, and incision affecting the southern Eastern Cordillera. 3D thermokinematic modeling favors a tectonic decoupling between the Altiplano and the Eastern Cordillera through backthrusting activity of the Apurimac fault. We speculate that the Abancay Deflection, with its "bulls-eye" structure and significant exhumation rate since 5 Ma, may represent an Andean protosyntaxis, similar to the syntaxes described in the Himalaya or Alaska.

1. Introduction

The Central Andes contain the second-highest and widest plateau on Earth: The Altiplano. This wide morphologic domain spreading over 350–400 km of maximum width is characterized by low relief sustained by an overthickened crust of ∼60 km (Allmendinger et al., 1997; James, 1971). Andean topography building started during the Cretaceous (∼120–110 Ma; Jaillard & Soler, 1996). Tectonic, climatic, and erosional interactions affecting the Altiplano and its eastward border, the Eastern Cordillera (Figure 1), have been extensively studied in the southern Central Andes (Bolivia, Argentina; Strecker et al., 2007). The northern edge of the Altiplano, namely the Abancay Deflection (southern Peru; Dalmayrac et al., 1980; B. Gérard et al., 2021; Marocco, 1971), however, has been poorly documented, although its relief and structural organization reveals uncommon features with curved faults, deflected drainage basins and rivers, and deeply incised landforms. The Abancay Deflection occupies a part of the Altiplano to the south and the Eastern Cordillera northward (Figures 1 and 2) and is limited to the north by the Subandes. Morphologically, the Altiplano and the Eastern Cordillera acquired their respective modern mean elevation of ∼4 and ∼4.5 km before 5 Ma (Sundell et al., 2019). Although having experienced similar timing and magnitude of surface uplift, the Altiplano and the Eastern Cordillera are quite different in terms of morphology and geology. In comparison, the Eastern Cordillera presents prominent landscape relief enhanced by deep incision and much older bedrock lithologies (Paleozoic for the Eastern Cordillera vs. Meso-Cenozoic for the Altiplano; Figure 2a). The Subandes represent the most recent domain in terms of orogen building and corresponds to the eastward propagation of Andean deformation through successive fold and thrust fronts since the

Figure 1. Abancay Deflection location. (a) Location within South America of the study area at the northern tip of the Altiplano in Peru (P). (b) Zoom-in on the Abancay Deflection area (black square in (a)). Double black arrows highlight the topography elongation axis. Note the pronounced incision within the study area through the isoelevation line (black) at 3.8 km elevation via the Urubamba and Apurimac rivers (blue) canyons. Black thin lines framed by white triangles highlight the latitudinal range width variation with the Abancay Deflection as the transition zone between the northern narrow Peruvian Andes and the southern wide Bolivian Orocline. Black squares with red borders are the places where thermal parameters were measured.

Miocene (Espurt et al., 2011), tectonically involving Paleozoic and Cenozoic deposits in thin and thickskinned mode (Figure 2a; Gautheron et al., 2013).

Mechanisms for exhumation of the Bolivian and southern Peruvian Eastern Cordillera are debated and imply either east-verging thrusting along a ramp connected to the Subandean zone (Gotberg et al., 2010; Rak et al., 2017) or reactivation of inherited faults as west-verging backthrusts (Perez, Horton, & Carlotto, 2016), both with subsequent erosion of the built topography. All these geometries and kinematics are nonetheless not mutually exclusive. In Bolivia, the Eastern Cordillera experienced exhumation between 50 and 15 Ma with transfer of tectonic deformation to the Subandean zone at ca. 15 Ma (Barnes et al., 2012). From thermochronological records, the northern Altiplano has been suggested to have experienced a steady exhumation of ∼0.2 km/Myr between around 40 and 15 Ma (Ruiz et al., 2009). However, the limited records before 38 Ma and after 14 Ma for this area prevent deciphering and/or speculating between different exhumation dynamics and drivers. Quantification of the exhumation history could give insights regarding surface uplift under specific geological conditions (England & Molnar, 1990), the lack of exhumation data does not allow to discuss surface-uplift scenarios such as slow and continuous surface uplift associated with (lower) crustal deformation since 40 Ma (Barnes & Ehlers, 2009; Husson & Sempere, 2003; Ouimet & Cook, 2010), versus potential surface-uplift acceleration during the Miocene triggered by lithospheric delamination event(s) (Garzione et al., 2017). The high-relief Eastern Cordillera seems to register a more recent and complex exhumation history (<5 Ma) with both topographic incision and regressive erosion (B. Gérard et al., 2021; Lease & Ehlers, 2013). Regarding the climatic imprint on the Eastern Cordillera, major canyon carving is supposedly related to Pliocene global climate cooling (Lease & Ehlers, 2013). Nonetheless, increased orographic precipitation in such a rising orogen (Insel et al., 2010) could explain also canyon incision events earlier than the Pliocene (Poulsen et al., 2010).

Although the timing of surface uplift and mechanisms of exhumation are debated, a clear contrast and decoupling in terms of vertical motion between the Altiplano, the Eastern Cordillera, and the Subandes has emerged (Garzione et al., 2017). Our aim is to provide further quantitative constraints to unravel the mechanisms triggering the Abancay Deflection exhumation since 40 Ma and discuss exhumation rates and timing in relation to large-scale surface-uplift information. The deeply incised Abancay Deflection is the ideal target to unravel the long-term evolution of the northern edge of the Altiplano (Figure 1). Here, we present new apatite (U–Th)/He (AHe) and fission track (AFT) data, targeting Permo-Triassic (Mišković et al., 2009)

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Figure 2. Geology and morphology of the Abancay Deflection. (a) Geological map of the study area. The crustal-scale Apurimac fault system marks the tectonic limit between the Altiplano and the Eastern Cordillera. (INGEMMET geological map database—1:100,000). White rectangles refer to previous thermochronological studies; references are provided in Sections 3 and 4. (b) Simplified map (from (a)) with major lithotectonic domains: the Altiplano in blue and the Eastern Cordillera framed in red. (c) 3D DEM of the Abancay Deflection. On panels, red stars are the thermochronological sample location (vertical profiles and individual data; this study). 2D colored area (b) and corresponding 3D views (c) are crustal-block locations processed with 3D thermokinematics modeling using Pecube for the Altiplano (blue) and the Eastern Cordillera (red) blocks.

> and Paleogene (Carlier et al., 1996; Mamani et al., 2010) plutonic bedrock along high-relief valleys. We interpret the thermochronological data using age–elevation relationships (AERs; Glotzbach et al., 2011), thermal (2D; QTQt; Gallagher, 2012) and thermokinematic (3D; Pecube; Braun, 2003; Braun et al., 2012) modeling to determine the late Eocene to modern exhumation history of the Abancay Deflection and discuss potential exhumation mechanisms.

2. Geological Setting

The Abancay Deflection connects the Central and Northern Andes in Peru; its hinge-like character is emphasized by the >45° deflection of its fault pattern from the overall NNW-SSE axis of the range (Figure 2a; Marocco, 1971). This region is directly located above the slab dip transition of the Nazca oceanic plate (Figure 1) from "flat" (northward) to "normal" (southward) subduction (Barazangi & Isacks, 1976). The study area encompasses the distinct morphotectonic regions of the Altiplano to the south and the

Figure 3. Crustal seismic map of the Abancay Deflection (dashed squares; hypocenters < 60 km; Mw > 2). (a) Mapped earthquakes come from the USGS, IGP and ISC databases. Regions included into black ellipses emphasize positive anomalous cluster of seismicity in comparison with the quiescent Abancay core of the Eastern Cordillera. Black lines represent the major thrusts of the studied area. (b) Moment tensors (CMT) for earthquakes (1969–2019) for the Abancay Deflection region (Dziewonski et al., 1981; Ekström et al., 2012). Focal mechanisms (transpressional) for the two 1969 Huaytapallana events are framed by the black rectangle (Dorbath et al., 1990; Suárez et al., 1983). There are no CMT data for Mw < 5.5 earthquakes. Tectonic shortening characterizes the Subandean front, whereas extensional mechanisms affect the Altiplano. The question mark refers to the unknown tectonic behavior for the Eastern Cordillera.

Eastern Cordillera to the north, separated by the regional crustal-scale Apurimac fault system (Figure 2; Carlier et al., 2005). This fault system marks the northern limit of the Arequipa terrane accreted to South America at 1 Ga (Loewy et al., 2004; Ramos, 2008). In the Eastern Cordillera, the existing relationships between lithospheric thinning and magmatism suggest that the Apurimac fault system seems to affect the study area since at least the Late Permian (by a strike-slip fault in an extensional context; Sempere et al., 2002) which remarkably shows the long-term tectonic inheritance of the region. Eocene–early Oligocene plutons (50–30 Ma; Mamani et al., 2010) emplaced into Meso-Cenozoic sedimentary rocks (Carlier et al., 1996) crop out in the high-elevation and low-relief Altiplano. This domain was exhumed steadily at moderate rates (∼0.2 km/Myr), at least between 38 and 14 Ma (Ruiz et al., 2009). In contrast, Permo-Triassic batholiths are dominant in the higher and deeply incised Eastern Cordillera and intruded into lower Paleozoic rocks (Figure 2; Mišković et al., 2009). Preliminary thermochronological data (AFT ages of ∼2 Ma; Kennan, 2008) of two samples, from the core of the Abancay region, suggest rapid and recent exhumation for the Eastern Cordillera. Thermal perturbation linked to magmatic arc activity ceased after ca. 30 Ma and the latest local and sporadic volcanic events (from 7 to 0.5 Ma; Bonhomme et al., 1988; Carlier et al., 1996) focused along the Apurimac fault system mostly south east of Cuzco (Bonhomme et al., 1988). Inherited deflected faults and arched-captured rivers characterize the Abancay Deflection on the northern edge of the Altiplano. The Abancay Deflection records high-magnitude counterclockwise tectonic rotation of up to 65° during the late Eocene–early Miocene (∼40–20 Ma; Butler et al., 1995; Richards et al., 2004; Roperch et al., 2006, 2011) and possibly more recently (since ∼12 Ma; Rousse et al., 2005) in a Bolivian Orocline bending context (Müller et al., 2002). In such context, according to the single study available with microstructural analysis (Dalmayrac et al., 1980), it appears that the Abancay Deflection mainly recorded left-lateral tectonic deformation since the late Eocene, possibly associated with a limited vertical component. This sinistral shear behavior is also supported by paleomagnetic data obtained close to Cuzco (Gilder et al., 2003). In addition, it appears that the Eastern Cordillera did not experience any burial during the Eocene, since it acted like a long-lived structural high as suggested by the lack of a Meso-Cenozoic sedimentary cover (except for Quaternary fluvial and landslide deposits of limited spatial extent; Figure 2a; Perez, Horton, & Carlotto, 2016; Perez, Horton, Mcquarrie, et al., 2016). Finally, at least since the early Cenozoic, the Eastern Cor-

dillera was high enough to prevent sediment transfer from the Western Cordillera to the Amazonian basin and was also an eroding area, representing a sediment source toward both the Altiplano to the southwest and the Amazonian basin to the northeast (Perez, Horton, & Carlotto, 2016; Perez, Horton, Mcquarrie, et al., 2016).

The Subandean zone and the Altiplano are documented as tectonically active; with shortening since ∼14 Ma in the Subandes (Espurt et al., 2011; Gautheron et al., 2013; Figure 3) and extension since ∼5 Ma in the Altiplano (Cabrera et al., 1991; Figure 3). In between, the Eastern Cordillera, limited southward by the Apurimac fault system presents nowadays a low-magnitude crustal seismicity, which mainly focuses along the Altiplano–Eastern Cordillera limit (Figure 3a). It is, however, too low to determine any specific tectonic behavior (Figure 3b). Preliminary thermochronological investigation in the core of the Eastern Cordillera (Machu Picchu; Figure 2b), nonetheless, favors a post ∼4 Ma acceleration of incision-driven exhumation with the capture of a northern-extended paleo-Altiplano along with potential tectonic activity of the Apurimac fault system (B. Gérard et al., 2021). However, this inference has been restricted to the

Figure 4. Sample locations of the new thermochronological ages within the Abancay Deflection. Red and pink polygons are, respectively, Permo-Triassic and Eocene plutons. Previous studies are (1) B. Gérard et al. (2021), and Kennan (2008); (2) Ruiz et al. (2009); (3) Espurt et al. (2011) and Gautheron et al. (2013). Blue and red numbers below sample names refer to AHe mean ages and AFT central ages for individual samples and the two-sampled-point Incahuasi vertical profile. Red capital letters refer to the other sampled vertical profiles (A, Ocobamba profile; B, Lucma profile; C, Limatambo profile; D, Abancay profile). Profiles results are displayed in Figure 6. Green, red, and black contours mark the latitudinal segmentation of the Abancay Deflection defining three areas according to thermal histories modeled with QTQt (i.e., Northern EC, Southern EC, and Altiplano, respectively). The black dashed square frames the Abancay Deflection. AHe, apatite (U–Th)/He; AFT, apatite fission track; EC, Eastern Cordillera.

area of Machu Picchu and cannot be extended yet for the entire Abancay Deflection. Also, this preliminary study can neither validate nor invalidate potential tectonic-driven exhumation. The observed seismicity for the Apurimac fault system area could be linked and/or connected with either Subandean flat-ramp thrust systems or undocumented active internal backthrusts, or even normal faulting as currently occurring in the Altiplano (Wimpenny et al., 2020). Potential tectonic drivers responsible for building the Abancay Deflection and particularly the Eastern Cordillera area remain unknown. Quantitative thermochronology and modeling are ideal tools that enable us to explore exhumation patterns over the whole area and to discuss the possible exhumation mechanisms.

3. Methods

AHe and AFT thermochronology are based on He and fission track production during alpha decay of 238 U, 235 U, 232 Th, and 147 Sm and fission decay of 238 U, respectively, with associated ⁴He and fission t mulation within apatite crystals. Using a rate of He diffusion out of the crystals or fission track annealing with temperature, those methods can be used to record the thermal evolution of the upper crust, given their thermal sensitivity ranges spanning from ∼80°C to 40°C (Ault et al., 2019) and ∼75°C to 125°C (Reiners & Brandon, 2006), respectively, for active mountain ranges, depending on cooling rate and/or holding time within the respective partial retention or annealing zones. Thus, low-temperature thermochronology records the thermal evolution of the upper crust (<5 km) and is a key to decipher between different exhumation mechanisms through time-evolving rock uplift and landscape evolution (Ault et al., 2019; Reiners & Shuster, 2009). Quantitative interpretation with three different types of models (i.e., geometric, thermal, and thermokinematic, Sections 3.2–3.4) with increasing complexity makes it possible to test model robustness and propose consistent scenarios for the exhumation of the Abancay Deflection.

3.1. Low-Temperature Thermochronological Data

We collected 33 samples from igneous bedrock along four altitude profiles (Ocobamba, Lucma, Abancay, and Limatambo) complemented by six individual samples across the Abancay Deflection, in order to get an optimal coverage of the study area (Figures 2 and 4; Table 1). Granite samples were crushed and sieved at the Géode Laboratory (Lyon, France) to extract the 100–160-µm grain size fractions. Apatite crystals were

Table 1

Sample Locations and Bedrock Lithologies

Note. The geologic unit and pluton period columns refer to the studies of Egeler and De Booy (1961), Lancelot et al. (1978), Mišković et al. (2009), Perello et al. (2003), and Reitsma (2012) and the INGEMMET geological database.

^aProfile names were given considering the main cities nearby the investigated area.

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concentrated using standard magnetic and heavy-liquid separation techniques at the GeoThermoChronology (GTC) platform within the ISTerre laboratory (Université Grenoble Alpes, France).

For AHe dating, single euhedral apatite crystals were carefully selected under a binocular microscope to identify minerals without fractures and/or inclusions that would skew the AHe age (diffusion artifacts and/or additional ⁴He sources; Farley, 2002). We determined the individual grain geometry and calculated the alpha-ejection correction factor using the Qt_FT program (Gautheron & Tassan-Got, 2010; Ketcham et al., 2011). Individual apatites were encapsulated in platinum tubes allowing apatite heating and manipulation. Each apatite in its platinum tube was then heated under high vacuum conditions at high temperature (1,050°C ± 50°C using an infrared diode laser) twice for 5 min at GEOPS laboratory (Université Paris-Saclay, France). The released ⁴He gas was mixed with a known amount of ³He, purified, and the gas was analyzed using a Prisma Quadrupole. The ⁴He content was determined by isotope dilution method. Subsequently, apatite crystals were dissolved in 100 μ L of HNO₃ 5 N solution containing known amount of ²³⁵U, ²³⁰Th, ¹⁴⁹Sm, and ⁴²Ca. The solution was heated at 70^oC during 3 h and after a cooling time, 900 µL of distilled water was added. The final solution was analyzed using an ELEMENT XR ICP-MS and the ²³⁸U, ²³⁰Th, and ¹⁴⁷Sm concentrations and apatite weight (using the Ca content) were determined following the methodology proposed by Evans et al. (2005). Durango apatite crystals were also analyzed during the same period to ensure the data quality. The one-sigma error on each AHe age amounts to 8%, reflecting the analytical error and the uncertainty on the F_T ejection factor correction. More details about the analytical procedure can be found in Recanati et al. (2017).

For AFT dating at the GTC laboratory (ISTerre, Grenoble, France), apatites were mounted in epoxy resin, polished, and etched for 20 s at 21°C using a 5.5 M HNO₃ solution to reveal spontaneous fission tracks. Using the external detector method, all samples were irradiated together with Durango and Fish Canyon Tuff age standards and IRMM540R dosimeter glasses at the FRM II reactor (Munich, Germany). Tracks were counted and horizontally confined track lengths were measured dry at 1,250X magnification under an Olympus BX51 optical microscope, using the FTStage 4.04 program at ISTerre. We used the BINOMFIT program (Ehlers et al., 2005) to calculate the AFT central ages (Figures S1–S27).

3.2. Age–Elevation Relationships

For AER modeling, single-tier or multitier age–elevation relationships to the AFT and AHe data from an altitudinal profile data were fitted using a Bayesian approach to obtain a first-order estimate of apparent exhumation rates and to possibly evidence any potential break-in-slope in AERs by minimization of the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC; Glotzbach et al., 2011; Schwarz, 1978). The BIC provides a statistical way to assess the appropriate model complexity (Schwarz, 1978) by computing the ratio between likelihood (fitting) and the model complexity (number of break-in-slope; Glotzbach et al., 2011). This statistical approach implies that the lower the BIC value is for different scenarios (i.e., one single or multiple segment(s) for a given AER), statistically the more robust is the inferred slope of the AER in terms of apparent exhumation rate. In our study, we only present and interpret the outcome scenarios that minimize the BIC criterion. This approach provides first-order constraints on the exhumation rates and potential exhumation changes through time for each altitudinal profile. These apparent exhumation rates are, nonetheless, not incorporating any consideration regarding the intersample AHe/AFT kinetic variability, the thermal crustal regime, the relief evolution, and the isostasy assuming a quasi-vertical profile (Stüwe et al., 1994). These modeling biases will be considered with 2D thermal and 3D thermokinematic modeling described hereafter.

3.3. Time–Temperature Modeling (QTQt)

Time–temperature modeling with QTQt (Bayesian transdimensional and Markov chain Monte Carlo sampling; Gallagher, 2012) gives quantitative constraints regarding thermal histories for individual samples, with the possibility to combine multisamples from pseudo vertical profiles. We processed 300,000 iterations for both individual sample and profiles exploring predicted *T*–*t* paths with their respective likelihood to extract best fitting thermal histories (Figures S28–S37). We used the implemented annealing model of Ketcham et al. (2007) and the radiation damage model of Gautheron et al. (2009) for AFT and AHe data, respectively. We allowed the geothermal gradient to vary over time between 10 and 40°C/km which are common for the nonvolcanic Central Andes (Barnes et al., 2008). The total timespan explored considers 2 times the older thermochronological age for each profile to eliminate any potential temporal bias.

Assessing the geothermal gradient is a crucial point for exhumation rate computation, and the Abancay Deflection is devoid of any direct measurement. We computed a geothermal gradient according to the nearest thermal parameter measurements and/or accepted values. Using heat flow and thermal conductivity measurements at the Tintaya mine 100 km south-east of Cuzco in the Altiplano (40 $\mathrm{mW/m}^2$ and 2.9 W/m/°C, respectively; Figure 1b; Henry & Pollack, 1988), crustal average heat production (∼0.9 μW/ m³; Springer, 1999), thermal diffusivity for granitic bedrock (∼40 km²/Myr; Arndt et al., 1997; Whittington et al., 2009), and a 25°C surface temperature (Gonfiantini et al., 2001), we obtained a geothermal gradient of 18 \pm 4°C/km (Text S1). This computed value is consistent with direct measurements inferred from the Camisea area (∼17°C/km; Figure 1b; Espurt et al., 2011) and the Tintaya mine (∼14°C/km; Henry & Pollack, 1988). Moreover, this value overlaps with compiled geothermal gradients for the Eastern Cordillera in Bolivia (26 \pm 8°C/km; Barnes et al., 2008).

Following QTQt modeling, we thus convert cooling histories derived from QTQt expected models into exhumation rates, using an assumed constant and spatially uniform geothermal gradient of 18 ± 4 °C/km. We report the 95% confidence interval around the expected models. This method leads to averaging and smoothing of the predicted cooling histories but is a conservative approach. With these estimates, in addition to the AER and Pecube outcomes, we can compare exhumation rates between these different and independent approaches to identify consistency in model predictions or any potential impact of different assumptions in the modeling approaches. Magmatic arc activity at the Abancay Deflection and its potential thermal perturbation ceased after ∼30 Ma (Mamani et al., 2010). It appears that the Eastern Cordillera did not experience any burial during the Eocene, because it acted like a long-lived structural high (Perez, Horton, & Carlotto, 2016; Perez, Horton, Mcquarrie, et al., 2016), as mentioned earlier. Furthermore, Cenozoic basins only occurred in the Altiplano domain (Figure 2a), which prevented potential sedimentary burial in our study area. For the Altiplano, most of the sedimentary cover was deposited synchronously with the magmatic arc activity prior to 30 Ma (Figure 2a; Mamani et al., 2010) and even prior to ∼40 Ma considering the crystallization age of the Cotabamba pluton we sampled (Limatambo profile; Table 1; Perello et al., 2003). We consequently assumed that all samples in the Altiplano were at temperatures higher than the closure temperature before the onset of cooling in our QTQt models (interpreted from 40 Ma). For the surface, we implemented an atmospheric lapse rate of 6° C/km according to Gonfiantini et al. (2001) for the eastern flank of the intertropical Andes. Parameters used for QTQt data inversion are displayed in Table S1.

3.4. Thermokinematic Modeling (Pecube)

3.4.1. Pecube Model

Pecube modeling allows to quantify thermal histories for rock particles at depth in exhumation or burial contexts, considering landscape evolution (topography, relief), the thermal regime of the crust, the tectonic setting (faults, uplift or subsidence), and isostasy (Braun, 2003; Braun et al., 2012). Pecube modeling offers the possibility to simultaneously test numerous tectonic or incision scenarios in 3D, computing associated thermal histories, and to subsequently compare numerical predictions to observed thermochronological data (punctual or along altitudinal profiles). By solving the 3D heat equation in the crust, the thermokinematic program Pecube v4.2 (Braun, 2003; Braun et al., 2012) predicts the spatial distribution of thermochronological ages for specific samples considering exhumation through lateral and vertical rock kinetics and relief evolution. We used Pecube in inverse mode (Neighborhood Algorithm [NA]; Sambridge, 1999a, 1999b) to determine optimal value ranges for tested parameters by minimizing the misfit function between predictions and observations (Text S2).

3.4.2. Input Data and Fixed Parameters

We implemented into Pecube thermochronological data including AFT and AHe thermochronometric systems. We used 33 AHe ages (AHe mean grain ages, 28 new data and 5 from B. Gérard et al. [2021]) and 42 AFT ages (AFT central ages, 32 new data, 2 from Kennan [2008], and 8 from Ruiz et al. [2009]). We implemented the present-day topography extracted from the global elevation database GTOPO30 (Figure 5). The He diffusion coefficient and the AFT annealing model from Farley (2000) and Ketcham et al. (1999) have

Figure 5. Parameters implemented and/or explored in Pecube through time. Example for the Eastern Cordillera crustal block (see Figure 2 for location). For the Altiplano block, we only explored the crustal-block exhumation (1). Red dots mark the location of the thermochronological data. Numbers and question marks refer to explored parameters. (1) Crustal-block exhumation (km/Ma); (2) fault velocity (km/Ma); (3) timing of fault activation (Ma); (4) x fault (km), proxy for the fault geometry (fault dip). AFS, Apurimac fault system. Additional details are given in Table S4 and Figure S38.

been used, respectively. For AHe data, we chose the Farley (2000) model for He diffusion as it presents mean values for the diffusion coefficient for low-damaged apatites. In our case, as exhumation histories are simple without identified reheating, damage influence may play a minor role in the He diffusion process and is nearly identical to the Gautheron et al. (2009) diffusion model in such a case. It is not possible with Pecube to reproduce the AHe age dispersion between crystals due to damage impact on He diffusion (Gautheron et al., 2009; Shuster et al., 2006). So, we here decided to implement the AHe mean ages and standard deviation errors (Table S2). Regarding the AFT data, we also implemented track-length measurements when available. Finally, we also subsequently compared the Pecube model *T*–*t* outcomes (best fitting scenarios) to *T*–*t* paths derived from QTQt modeling.

In order to optimize computation time, we divided the Abancay Deflection into two crustal blocks (Altiplano and Eastern Cordillera; Figure 2) that we modeled independently. Each of these crustal blocks represents the natural tectonomorphic boundary of the Abancay Deflection. The timespan explored starts at 50 Ma for all the simulations to eliminate any potential temporal bias. We subsequently divided the explored timespan into six time slices: 50, 25, 15, 10, 5, and 0 Ma. For each time boundary, we fit the modeled mean paleoelevation according to Sundell et al. (2019). We do not have, however, any information regarding the relief evolution of the Abancay Deflection, which sits in a remote location with no existing information about relief evolution (Text S4). Finally, for exhumation rate quantification from thermochronological data, we fixed the crustal thermal and rheological parameters in space and time (Figure 5 and Table S3). For these parameters, we finally explored the basal temperature of the crustal block and the thermal diffusivity to test our chosen geothermal gradient (Table S4).

3.4.3. Neighborhood Algorithm Inversions and Explored Parameters

We used Pecube in inverse mode to quantitatively constrain parameter values (i.e., tectonomorphic scenarios) that best reproduce the input thermochronological data. We extracted the best fitting parameter values for each inversion computing probability density functions (Sambridge, 1999a, 1999b). When the inversion clearly converges toward a unique parameter solution (one peak for the probability density function), we

Figure 6. Age–elevation plots (AHe and AFT ages) for the vertical profiles of Ocobamba (A; Oco.), Lucma (B), Limatambo (C) , and Abancay (D) (see Figure 4 for profiles location). Blue diamonds are single-grain AHe ages, open diamonds are mean AHe (blue), and central AFT (red) ages. Blue and red numbers on the graphics refer to AER apparent exhumation rates (km/Myr), respectively, for AHe and AFT ages. Blue and red dashed lines correspond to minimum and maximum values for exhumation rates (AER; 95% confidence interval). AHe, apatite (U–Th)/He; AFT, apatite fission track; AER, age–elevation relationship.

extracted the parameter value applying the 2*σ* standard deviation. We consequently used forward Pecube modeling to present the best fitting scenarios (*T*–*t* paths) and data reproducibility using inversion-derived parameters as input data (supporting information).

Because of computing time issues with the global model, and as the Altiplano and the Eastern Cordillera present opposite morphologies (flat vs. deeply incised; B. Gérard et al., 2021), and different exhumation trends according to local studies (slow and continuous [Ruiz et al., 2009] vs. recent acceleration [B. Gérard et al., 2021; Kennan, 2008]), we explored these areas separately with the ultimate goal to unravel their respective exhumation pattern. For the Altiplano model, we explored the basal crustal temperature (proxy for the geothermal gradient; Figure 5), the exhumation history for the entire crustal block (Figure 5), and landscape evolution through time (topography offset and relief amplification factor; Figure S38). Inverting topography offset and relief amplification factor can also be used to identify any potential reheating through sedimentary burial. If a complex cooling history with sample burial/reheating would be needed to explain the thermochronological data, we would expect the inversion outcomes to converge toward lowering of the relief amplification factor, implying valley filling and sample burial.

For the Eastern Cordillera model, we explored the exhumation history for the entire crustal block (Figure 5), relief and topographic evolution (Figure S38), and the kinematics of the Apurimac fault system (fault dip, timing of initiation, and fault velocity; Figure 5). Because of the code architecture, block exhumation and fault kinematics parameters were treated independently, which allows to explore both regional exhumation (spatially constant) and additional exhumation along the fault (spatially variable). For instance, the regional background exhumation (block exhumation) should imply deep-crustal/lithospheric mechanisms affecting equally the entire crustal block. The fault kinematics would imply a localized structure on which an additional source of exhumation could exist. Finally, the landscape dynamics through incision and deposition (relief and topographic evolution) could generate an additional source of exhumation or burial. Basal temperature for the Eastern Cordillera has been fixed in order to limit the number of inverted parameters and any modeling convergence issue. We fixed the basal temperature at 560°C (geothermal gradient of 18°C/km and surface temperature of 20°C) following previous studies (Barnes et al., 2008; Espurt et al., 2011; Henry & Pollack, 1988). This corresponds to an unperturbed geothermal gradient, which is then modified by rock

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advection. The detailed list of the explored Pecube parameters is available in Table S4.

4. Results

4.1. New Thermochronological Data and AERs

For the entire Abancay Deflection area, new 108 single-crystal AHe ages (from 28 samples) and 27 AFT central ages range from 0.7 ± 0.1 to 35.8 ± 2.9 Ma and from 2.6 ± 1.9 to 38.2 ± 4.4 Ma, respectively (Figures 4) and 6; Tables 2 and 3). Reproducibility of single-crystal AHe ages is satisfactory with averaged dispersion <10% for the whole data set. For AFT central ages, all samples passed the χ^2 test (>5%; Table 3 and Figures S1– S27), meaning that we can consider single-age populations for each sample (Green, 1981). Thermochronological ages ranging up to 40 Ma are characteristic of the northern Eastern Cordillera and the Altiplano, as shown for the Lucma, Abancay and Limatambo altitudinal profiles and individual data (AB-17-19 and AB-17-18; Figures 4 and 6). The southern Eastern Cordillera presents much younger thermochronological ages, all <10 Ma (Ocobamba profile and Incahuasi zone, AB-17-13 and AB-17-15; Figures 4 and 6).

For all altitudinal profiles, both AHe and AFT ages best fit a single AER statistically, but they reveal different rates and timing of exhumation (Figure 6). The Lucma profile presents apparent exhumation rates of $0.07^{+0.01}_{-0.01}$ and $0.08^{+0.04}_{-0.02}$ km/Myr since 40 Ma, based on AHe and AFT data, respectively (Figure 6), while the Abancay and Limatambo profiles give apparent exhumation rates between 0.1 to 0.2 km/Myr, with a possible increase in exhumation since 10–15 Ma (Figure 6). In the case of the Abancay profile, even if the three lowest samples appear aligned vertically (suggesting a potential acceleration in exhumation; Figure 6), our AER approach statistically favors a single linear trend, reconciled by the 95% confidence interval driven by data resolution and uncertainties. The Ocobamba profile presents much higher apparent exhumation rates for the last 6 Ma, with $0.5^{+0.2}_{-0.1}$ km/Myr based on AHe and $0.9^{+3.7}_{-0.4}$ km/Myr, based on AFT. These exhumation rates estimates correspond to the lowest computed BIC and consequently to the best fitting solutions according our Bayesian approach for interpreting AERs (Glotzbach et al., 2011).

4.2. Numerical Thermo(-Kinematic) Modeling

Modeled time–temperature (*T*–*t*) paths with QTQt show for the entire study area a moderate and continuous cooling history with a cooling rate of ∼2.5 °C/Myr between 40 Ma (∼38 Ma for the Limatambo profile due to the intrusion emplacement constraint; Figure 7c) and ca. 5 Ma (Figure 7; note that the rapid cooling for the Limatambo profile is due to the Cotabamba pluton crystallization and has not been taking into account because it has a very limited effect over time). Whereas cooling trends are relatively similar for the northern Eastern Cordillera and the Altiplano (Figures 7a, 7c, and S31–S35), *T*–*t* paths for the southern Eastern Cordillera (Ocobamba profile and individual data) suggest an increase in cooling rate with values of ∼17°C/Myr between 7 and 3 Ma (Figures 7b, S28–S30, and S36), in agreement with AERs (Figure 6). It appears, however, that the timing for cooling acceleration in the Inca-

Table 2

huasi zone (Figures 4 and S36) occurred slightly later (2–3 Ma). This signal could correspond to the same cooling acceleration identified for the southern Eastern Cordillera (7–3 Ma) with a short time-lag, or, could represent a local trend due to unidentified fault and/or exhumation process. Individual QTQt-derived cooling paths (Figures S28–S36) exhibit short-term variations and more complex possible thermal histories. For a conservative approach, we chose to extract the statistically most robust signal for each profile or individual sample, by considering the 95% confidence interval around the expected *T*–*t* path (Figure 7). This method prevents from potential overinterpretation of model outcomes, by focusing on well-constrained *T*–*t* paths. The apparent cooling increase at <2 Ma observed for Lucma and Limatambo profiles (Figures S33 and S34) represents a modeling bias. Indeed, all samples are colder than the closure temperature. The present-day surface temperature imposed in QTQt drives this apparent cooling acceleration, not supported by the thermochronological data. These modeling biases are not further considered in the following.

For Pecube modeling, we display results from our thermokinematic inversions in 2D graphs, where the explored parameter space is illustrated and each forward model is colored by its respective misfit value (Figures 8 and 9). We present thereafter the best fitting value for explored parameters within each modeled crustal block. For the Altiplano model, parameter exploration through data inversion reveals a clear inversion convergence for the output background exhumation rate at 0.2 ± 0.1 km/Myr (Figure 8a) with high reproducibility of observed thermochronological ages and time–temperature paths (Figures 8b and S41). The basal temperature does not converge but presents four peaks at 420° C \pm 15°C, 480° C \pm 20°C, 525° C \pm 10°C, and 675°C \pm 30°C (Figure 8a) corresponding, respectively, to geothermal gradients of 14 \pm 1, 16 \pm 1, 17 \pm 1, and 22 \pm 1°C/km (Text S1). Relief amplification factors do not converge neither and are nondeterminative or not discriminating (Figure S39). For the Eastern Cordillera model, the well-constrained value for background exhumation is converging to 0.2 ± 0.1 km/Myr (Figure 9a), similarly to the Altiplano results. The lateral (north-south) position of the Apurimac fault system at 25-km depth (x fault parameter) is constrained to −34 ± 5 km (the negative sign corresponds to the northward exploration of this parameter). According to the approximate surface trace of the Apurimac fault system and to the output value for x fault, we estimated a fault dip ranging between 28° and 47° toward the north (Figures 9a and 9d). Regarding the fault kinematics, Pecube models favor fault activation at 5.3 ± 1.5 Ma with an associated fault velocity of 2.9 ± 0.6 km/Myr (Figure 9b). By taking into account the fault dip and velocity predictions, fault-induced exhumation rate is ∼1 km/Myr. By adding background exhumation to the previous results, net exhumation rates of 1.2 ± 0.4 km/Myr are predicted for the southern Eastern Cordillera since ∼5 Ma (Figure 9e). For the same time period, the northern Eastern Cordillera and the Altiplano underwent steady exhumation rates (Figure 10). Finally, and similarly to the Altiplano crustal-block model, relief amplification factor through time does not converge for the Eastern Cordillera model (Figure S40). The thermochronological data reproducibility is, however, robust (Figure S42).

5. Discussion

5.1. From Cooling Rate to Exhumation Rate

Our three different and independent modeling approaches are based on the statistically most robust scenarios for cooling and exhumation. As a result, they may not entirely reflect the variability of raw thermochronological data. Such an approach is, however, conservative to interpret models without overinterpreting the outcomes. Because the landscape parameters (topography offset and relief amplification factor) did not converge for Pecube inversions, the landscape evolution through time cannot be quantitatively assessed by our modeling. The relief amplification factor (Figure S38) can be used as a proxy for burial, that is, reheating of the upper crust. As shown by the nonconvergence toward a minimization of the relief amplification factor at any time step explored (Figures S39 and S40), Pecube inversions confirm that no burial/reheating is required to accurately reproduce the thermochronological data set. This result implies that the thermal perturbation supposedly associated with the magmatic arc activity between 50 and 30 Ma (Mamani et al., 2010) is not registered in our local thermochronological record (except maybe for the highest and oldest AFT data from the Limatambo profile). This can be explained by three reasons: (1) present-day outcropping rocks were at that time still at depth and thus at temperatures above the PRZ/PAZ, that is, not impacted

Table 3

Apatite Fission Track Data

Note. Fission track age is given as Central Age (Galbraith & Laslett, 1993). Tracks were counted and horizontally confined track lengths were measured dry at 1,250X magnification under an Olympus BX51 optical microscope, using the FTStage 4.04 program at ISTerre. Ages were calculated with the BINOMFIT program (Ehlers et al., 2005), using a zeta value of 275.18 ± 11.53 and the IRMM 540 uranium glass standard (15 ppm U). MDpar = mean Dpar value, MTL = mean track lengths of horizontally confined tracks.

^aN.D. = no data. ^bPrevious data (Kennan, 2008). For samples LK95/200 and LK95/202, elevations are respectively 3.1 and 2.1 km. ^cN.R. = not reported. ^dPrevious data from Ruiz et al. (2009) for samples Pi6.1 (3.87 km), Pi6.2 (3.80 km), Pi6.3 (3.65 km), Pi6.4 (3.45 km), Pi6.5 (3.25 km), Pi6.6 (3.10 km), Pi6.7 (3.00 km), and Pi6.8 (2.85 km).

> have removed the upper crustal section that could have potentially registered older thermal perturbations; and (3) the thermal perturbation was potentially spatially and/or temporally localized and did not affect our sampled sites. This last point also applies for the 7–0.5 Ma volcanism along the Apurimac fault system described south of Cuzco and in northern Bolivia by Bonhomme et al. (1988). The volcanism was spatially localized and spread out sporadically over time. The thermal perturbation induced was thus restricted to the Apurimac fault zone, limited in time, and did not affect our sample sites. The same reasoning applies to a potential sediment burial that could have affected the Altiplano. We consequently assumed that our samples did not experienced reheating after 40 Ma. Modeled thermal histories obtained from the Abancay Deflection area present only a monotonic cooling phase with variable cooling rates (Figure 7). This simplifies our modeling approach regarding the crustal thermal structure.

ly link reheating eneric (2) for the southern Tastern Cordillera, the high exhumation rates since ≈5 Ma and the southern Eastern Cordillera, and the southern Eastern Cordillers and the southern Eastern Cordillers and the Because we did not detect any perturbation of thermal histories by reheating or potential isotherm relaxation (sampled rocks were deep and hot enough before the modeled onset time for rock cooling), we convert the inferred cooling scenario into simple exhumation histories. Exhumation rates estimated from QTQt-derived cooling rates and using a steady and spatially uniform geothermal gradient (18 \pm 4°C/km), apparent exhumation rates from AERs (Glotzbach et al., 2011), and Pecube inversions results are all consistent with high data reproducibility between three independent approaches (Figure S43). This confirms that the assumed geothermal gradients for QTQt and Pecube models are satisfactory, even if we cannot tightly constrain the basal crustal temperature from Pecube inversion (Figure 8a). This nonconvergence issue is frequently encountered in this type of modeling (e.g., Robert et al., 2011; Valla et al., 2012) and can be bypassed only by imposing thermal parameter values from regional estimates. In detail, we identified four temperature peaks (probability density function for the Altiplano model; Figure 8a), corresponding to geothermal gradients spanning from 13 to 23°C/km, compatible with our chosen value of 18 \pm 4°C/km for the uppermost 5 km of the crust, using a basal temperature of 560°C. We furthermore performed inversion for each crustal model (Altiplano and Eastern Cordillera blocks; Table S4; Text S5), imposing a "warmer" geothermal gradient (30°C/km; Text S5). It clearly appears that the ∼20°C/km geothermal gradient seems to be the most likely option for the Abancay Deflection at the scale of our study, with better thermochronological data reproducibility (Text S5; Figures S45 and S46).

We separated the study area into three zones derived from the patterns in output exhumation rate (QTQt; Figures 4 and 7). Using Pecube outcomes, the Altiplano and the northern Eastern Cordillera experienced similar exhumation histories since 40 Ma with exhumation rates of 0.15 ± 0.10 km/Myr (Figure 10). The southern Eastern Cordillera experienced the same exhumation rate from ∼20 to 5.3 ± 1.5 Ma, followed by an acceleration of exhumation to 1.2 ± 0.4 km/Myr (Figure 10). Even though the thermochronological data modeling and output time–temperature paths from QTQt are limited to the last 20 Ma for the southern Abancay Deflection (Figures 7b and 9c), we propose by temporal extrapolation that the southern Eastern Cordillera underwent similar exhumation rates as its neighboring areas (i.e., Altiplano and northern

Figure 7. Time–temperature paths derived from QTQt inverse modeling of thermochronological data (Gallagher, 2012). (a–c) Synthesis of time– temperature paths (colored lines) derived from QTQt (95% confidence interval around the expected model; see the supporting information for detailed inverse modeling outcomes). For profiles, because cooling dynamics are similar for top and bottom samples we plotted here the minimum and maximum confidence envelops. Colored numbers in legend refer to the output cooling rates. See the supporting information for details regarding the data reproducibility (observed vs. predicted data). (a), (b), and (c), respectively, correspond to samples in the northern Eastern Cordillera (EC), the southern Eastern Cordillera, and the Altiplano (see Figure 4 for location). In (b), number 1 (Machu Picchu profile) refers to B. Gérard et al. (2021) and the black dotted rectangle corresponds to the cooling acceleration timing at 5 ± 2 Ma.

Eastern Cordillera) between 40 and 20 Ma. We proposed this hypothesis because no data corroborate any incision and/or tectonic activity pulses that would modify the exhumation dynamics affecting the southern Eastern Cordillera, punched between the northern Eastern Cordillera and the Altiplano. Over the last ∼5 Ma, the exhumation acceleration is spatially framed southward by the Apurimac fault system, pointing toward a differential exhumation pattern in the Abancay Deflection that we attribute to tectonically driven rock uplift along the Apurimac fault system with rock removal by efficient erosion.

5.2. Exhumation of the Abancay Deflection Between 40 and 5 Ma

The whole Abancay Deflection region experienced steady, moderate $(0.2 \pm 0.1 \text{ km/Myr})$ and apparently spatially uniform exhumation between 40 and 5 Ma (Figures 10 and 11). This exhumation rate is highly consistent with those inferred between 40 and 15 Ma from the only thermochronological data available in the area (0.17 km/Myr; Ruiz et al., 2009). Even if the Peruvian Altiplano experienced Miocene faulting delimitating intramountainous basins (Tinajani, Punacancha, and Paruro basins; Carlotto, 2013; Horton et al., 2014), there is no evidence for any acceleration of exhumation nor sedimentary burial related to these crustal processes according to our three independent modeling approaches. Surprisingly, although the Bolivian Eastern Cordillera registered peaks of exhumation through tectonic and erosional processes between 50 and 15 Ma (Barnes et al., 2012; ∼500 km to the south-east of our study area), our data and inverse models rather favor a large-scale uniform exhumation history during that period.

Consequently, we interpret the steady and uniform exhumation rates as the record of low-magnitude surface denudation affecting the Abancay Deflection in an internally drained environment (Figure 11; B. Gérard et al., 2021). Furthermore, contemporaneously to the Bolivian Orocline bending during Miocene (Roperch et al., 2006), the Abancay Deflection was built in a left-lateral transpressional context (Dalmayrac et al., 1980) associated with lateral rock advection from the south (Figures 11c and 11d) with limited rock uplift as shown by QTQt and Pecube inversions (Figure 9c); that is, data reproducibility is overall good without implying any additional earlier rock uplift due to the transpressional context. The crustal tectonic regime, dominated by horizontal motion, cannot be registered by the thermochronological data, nor easily modeled by balanced cross section that encompass only 2D processes (Gotberg et al., 2010). Moreover, our outcomes, pointing toward a low-magnitude exhumation rate of ∼0.2 km/Myr between 40 and 5 Ma, are comparable in terms of magnitude with the large-scale and steady surface uplift (at ∼0.1 km/Myr) of the Eastern Cordillera and the Altiplano modeled by Sundell et al. (2019). The output exhumation rates are the part of rock uplift accommodated by erosion, while the remaining part (unconstrained by our thermochronological record) is the surface uplift.

The low-exhumation and surface-uplift rates are compatible with large-scale tectonic shortening (Lamb, 2011; Phillips et al., 2012) and/or lower crustal flow (Husson & Sempere, 2003; Ouimet & Cook, 2010; Tassara, 2005). Kar et al. (2016) suggested more rapid surface uplift of the northern Altiplano between 10 and 5 Ma (0.4 km/Myr). Indeed, one or multiple lithospheric delamination event(s) implying pulses of rapid surface uplift have been proposed during the Miocene (Garzione et al., 2017). Consequently, the Altiplano may have risen rapidly without prominent incision and thus recorded limited exhumation (i.e., steady

Figure 8. 3D Pecube inversion results for the Altiplano crustal block. (a) 2D parameter space and inversion results for crustal-block exhumation versus basal temperature. Each colored point corresponds to one forward model. Blue curves (up and right subpanels) are the probability density for each parameter. The yellow star is the best fitting model. (b) Direct comparison of time–temperature paths derived from QTQt and ones computed with Pecube best fitting model. (c) Crustal-block model for the Altiplano (see Figure 2 for location) with locations of thermochronological data.

low-exhumation rates despite rapid surface uplift). In a potentially endorheic context (B. Gérard et al., 2021), sediment evacuation and thus largescale erosion rates are low. Such an acceleration of surface uplift should have induced an increase in erosion/exhumation via enhanced erosion due to orographic precipitation, at the edge of the plateau between 10 and 5 Ma. Nevertheless, it has been also demonstrated from regional-climate numerical modeling that such a surface-uplift acceleration can be an artifact driven by climatic variability (Ehlers & Poulsen, 2009). Considering our data and modeling outcomes, as well as the timing of the exhumation acceleration from our data (5 ± 2 Ma), we cannot discard nor validate any of these surface-uplift models (slow and steady vs. acceleration of surface uplift between 10 and 5 Ma).

5.3. Southern Eastern Cordillera: 5 Ma Exhumation Rate Increase

The southern Eastern Cordillera, framed southward by the Apurimac fault system, has registered an order-of-magnitude acceleration in exhumation since ca. 5 Ma, driven by both topographic incision and tectonic uplift. The capture of an endorheic high-elevation paleo-Altiplano and subsequent pulse of incision could partly explain the exhumation acceleration for the southern Eastern Cordillera, although not enough to explain the total amount of exhumation since 5 Ma (B. Gérard et al., 2021). This timing is consistent with the inferred initiation of canyon carving (Pliocene) further south in the Bolivian Eastern Cordillera (Lease & Ehlers, 2013). Pecube modeling, however, does not allow quantitatively constraining relief and topographic evolution through time (Text S4).

The local 5-Ma exhumation event affecting the southern Eastern Cordillera (Figure 11e) cannot be explained by large-scale phenomenon such as lithospheric delamination, neither in terms of spatial extent nor timing (Garzione et al., 2006; Sobolev & Babeyko, 2005). Tectonic uplift along local structures associated with enhanced erosion could be a potential trigger for our observed pattern of thermochronological ages and exhumation (Figures 4, 6, and 7). Pecube inverse outcomes show that the inherited crustal-scale Apurimac fault system can reproduce the 3D thermochronological data pattern, with significant tilting of the southern Eastern Cordillera (Figure 9). Regionally, the fault system is curved around the Abancay Deflection. In such a deflected thrusting pattern, it is geometrically difficult to link the southern Eastern Cordillera to a south-dipping ramp located beneath and connected to the main Subandean front without implying an unlikely and complex structural geometry. Furthermore, the Subandean front has been active since 14 Ma (Espurt et al., 2011), which clearly predates the 5-Ma exhumation signal we observed in the Eastern Cordillera. The Apurimac fault system appears to be the most likely structure tilting the Eastern Cordillera (Figure 9) associated with backthrusting activity with a relatively low north-dipping angle of 30°–40° (Figure 9d). This tectonic signal is added to the large-scale and long-term exhumation signal affecting the whole area since 40 Ma $(0.2 \pm 0.1 \text{ km/Myr})$ and generates the differential exhumation pattern observed in Figure 9e.

Considering end-member values of best fitting Pecube parameters (i.e., fault dipping angle, timing for fault activation, and fault velocity), we estimated a first-order total horizontal crustal shortening ranging be-

Figure 9. 3D Pecube inversion results for the Eastern Cordillera crustal block. (a) 2D parameter space and inversion results for crustal-block exhumation versus position of the fault at 25-km depth (x fault parameter). (b) 2D parameter space and inversion results for the fault velocity versus activation timing of the Apurimac fault system. Each colored point corresponds to one forward model. Blue curves (up and right subpanels) are the probability density for each parameter. The yellow stars in (a) and (b) are the best fitting model. (c) Direct comparison of time–temperature paths derived from QTQt and ones computed with Pecube best fitting model. (d) Crustal-block model for the Eastern Cordillera with locations of thermochronological data (see Figure 2 for location). (e) Surface exhumation pattern for the Eastern Cordillera since ∼5 Ma predicted from Pecube best fitting model. AFS is the Apurimac fault system.

tween 6 and 21 km (mean shortening rate of 2.8 ± 1.5 km/Myr). The total amount of vertical rock uplift ranges between 4 and 17 km (mean rock-uplift rate of 2.2 ± 1.3 km/Myr) since 5 Ma. However, given our thermochronometric data set and the lack of high-temperature thermochronometers to further constrain the pre-5-Ma exhumation in the area, we considered that highest rock uplift estimated from Pecube modeling are unrealistic and rather should be ∼7 km maximum for the last 5 Ma. The parameter ranges derived from our approach do not allow to constrain precisely the tectonic deformation (nor vertical or horizontal) rates and thus to further discriminate the tectonic balance and the respective importance of different rock-uplift drivers for the southern Eastern Cordillera. On the other hand, rock-uplift rates overlap with exhumation rates over the last 5 Ma $(2.2 \pm 1.3 \text{ km/Myr})$ vs. 1.2 ± 0.4 km/Myr, respectively; Figure 10), which highlights the consistency between 2D and 3D modeling approaches. Furthermore, constrained 5-Ma horizontal shortening rates for the southern Eastern

Cordillera $(2.8 \pm 1.5 \text{ km/Myr})$ are also consistent with balanced cross-section reconstructions and derived shortening rates in the Subandean area (∼3.8 km/Myr; Espurt et al., 2011), directly located to the north of the Abancay Deflection (Figure 1).

Although thick-skinned backthrusts have been reported as active since the late Miocene to the north of the Abancay Deflection (Shira mountains; Gautheron et al., 2013; Huaytapallana fault, in the continuity of the Apurimac fault system; Dorbath et al., 1990, Figure 3b), we document for the first time the recent tectonic activity (i.e., <5 Ma) for the Abancay region itself, with significant but local exhumation along the Apurimac fault system south-verging backthrusting. The low-magnitude earthquake cluster in this zone

Figure 11. Tectonomorphic evolution of the Abancay Deflection since 40 Ma. Left panels represent the large-scale schematic map views of the study area (black dashed square). Right panels are 3D Abancay Deflection schematic crustal blocks corresponding to the surface to the square defined in the left panels. (a), (b), (c), (d), and (e) refer, respectively, to the situation at 40 Ma, between 40 and 25 Ma, between 25 and 10 Ma, between 10 and 5 Ma, and finally since 5 Ma to present day. AFS, Apurimac fault system; AP, Altiplano; EC, Eastern Cordillera.

Figure 12. Andean orogenic model (South-North cross section) crossing through the Abancay Deflection since ca. 5 Ma. Modified after the double-verging prism orogenic model of Armijo et al. (2015). Green numbers refer to the initiation timing of the associated crustal deformation. Black circled numbers refer to the compiled previous and present studies: (1) Loewy et al. (2004) and Ramos (2008, 2010); (2) Armijo et al. (2015); (3) Sébrier et al. (1985), Mercier et al. (1992), and Wimpenny et al. (2018); (4) this study; (5) Espurt et al. (2011) and Gautheron et al. (2013). AFS refers to Apurimac fault system.

(Figure 3a) strongly corroborates our interpretation, also supporting the hypothesis that such fault activity and observed exhumation pattern on million-year time scales is still ongoing today.

5.4. Potential Drivers for the Apurimac Fault System Reactivation

The Abancay Deflection is framed northward by the Subandean zone, which has been tectonically active since ca. 14 Ma (Espurt et al., 2011). To the south, the Altiplano is characterized by extensional faulting since the Quaternary (Sébrier et al., 1985; Wimpenny et al., 2018). Our results show that the Eastern Cordillera was tilted through the south-verging backthrust of the Apurimac fault system, which has been active since 8-2 Ma and statistically more likely since ca. 5 Ma (Figures 7b, 9b, 11e, and 12). Considering the orogenic-prism balance theory (Whipple & Meade, 2004; Willett et al., 1993), the tectonic-shortening transfer from the Altiplano to the Subandes (since ca. 15 Ma in Bolivian Andes; Anderson et al., 2018; Horton, 2005; Norton & Schlunegger, 2011) was triggered by sediment accumulation in the foreland basin (i.e., paleo-Subandean zone; Mosolf et al., 2011) following the late Miocene South-American monsoon intensification (Poulsen et al., 2010). Sediment accumulation in the foreland coming from more internal part of the mountain range (which implies mass removal) created a regional stress pattern reorganization that probably triggered eastward propagation of deformation. Thus, the question of the out-of-sequence Apurimac backthrust activity needs to be addressed.

From a morphologic viewpoint, the peculiarity of the Abancay Deflection makes it the only region at the scale of the northern Altiplano where the hydrographic network is reaching the core of the orogen after crossing the entire Eastern Cordillera (Apurimac and Urubamba Rivers; Figures 1 and 11). The river capture, incision, and subsequent increased erosion were probably triggered and enhanced by wetter conditions during the late Miocene (Poulsen et al., 2010) and Pliocene climate variability (Lease & Ehlers, 2013; Peizhen et al., 2001). Given the initiation of reverse faulting at ca. 5 Ma, the Apurimac fault system has played as an out-of-sequence thrust. We thus conceptually interpret in the following the tectonic evolution of the Abancay Deflection (Figures 11 and 12), linking the climate evolution and the tectonic transfer regarding the orogenic-prism rebalancing and geodynamic settings:

- (1) Late Miocene precipitation intensification (Poulsen et al., 2010) on the eastern flank of the Peruvian Andesa favored the regressive erosion through the proto-Apurimac and -Urubamba Rivers. These paleodrainage systems captured and incised the internally drained paleo-Abancay Deflection (Figures 11d and 11e).
- (2) In consequence to this drainage capture, river incision subsequently enhanced erosional processes over the large-scale Abancay Deflection. Rivers deeply carved the Eastern Cordillera, and sediments were exported toward the foreland basin and trapped within it (in the paleo-Subandes).

Observation **Example 20** Himalayan syntaxis Alaskan syntaxis Abancay Deflection Morphology Positive anomaly of topography TES TES TES TES TES Nanga Parbat mountains (NP); Namche Barwa mountains (NB) (Zeitler et al., 2001) Denali mountains; St Elias mount (Enkelmann et al., 2017) Cordillera Vilcabamba (Salcantay, southern Eastern Cordillera) (B. Gérard et al., 2021; B. G. Gérard et al., 2021) High relief and incision YES YES YES Indus River (NP)/Tsangpo River (NB) (Zeitler et al., 2001) Seward and Logan glaciers (Enkelmann et al., 2017) Urubamba River (B. Gérard et al., 2021; B. G. Gérard et al., 2021) Major crossing-orogens rivers YES NAa YES Indus River (NP)/Tsangpo River (NB) (Zeitler et al., 2001) Glaciated area Urubamba River (this study; B. Gérard et al., 2021; B. G. Gérard et al., 2021) Captured high-elevation plateau upstream YES NO YES Tibetan plateau (Clark et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2016) No plateau Altiplano (this study; B. Gérard et al., 2021; B. G. Gérard et al., 2021) Tightened and aligned rivers along active faults $N A^a$ YES Salween, Mekong/Yangtze Rivers (NB; Hallet & Molnar, 2001); Hari, Murgab and Helmand Rivers (NP; Brookfield, 1998) Glaciated area **Urubamba** and Apurimac Rivers along the Apurimac fault system (this study; B. Gérard et al., 2021; B. G. Gérard et al., 2021) Knickpoints YES NA^a YES NA^a YES Tsangpo River crossing the NB (Zeitler et al., 2001) Masked bedrock beneath the glaciers Urubamba River crossing the Eastern Cordillera (B. Gérard et al., 2021; B. G. Gérard et al., 2021) Tectonics and geodynamic Tectonic rotation and strike-slip faulting YES YES YES Crustal folding through orogenparallel compression (Royden et al., 1997); Jiali-Parlung fault (NB; Burg et al., 1998); Karakorum fault (NP; Bossart et al., 1988) Fairweather fault (Chapman et al., 2012) Counterclockwise rotation and leftlateral component of the Apurimac fault during Miocene (Dalmayrac et al., 1980; Roperch et al., 2006) Thick-skinned tectonic YES YES YES (Zeitler et al., 2001) (Chapman et al., 2012) Apurimac fault delimiting two crustal blocks (this study; Carlier et al., 2005) Localized deformation along crustal-scale faults and magmatic fluid circulation YES YES YES (NP; Edwards et al., 2000; Schneider et al., 1999; Seeber & Pêcher, 1998) Except for fluids circulation (Koons et al., 2010, 2013) Apurimac fault and volcanic fluids circulation since ∼7 Ma (Carlier et al., 1996, 2005) Indenter YES YES YES Indian plate (Burtman & Molnar, 1993) Yakutat terrane (Koons et al., 2010; Marechal et al., 2015) Arequipa terrane (Ramos, 2010; Villegas-Lanza et al., 2016) Higher exhumation rates into the core of the syntaxis YES YES YES ∼10 km/Myr since ∼1 Ma (King et al., 2016) ∼2 to ∼5 km/Myr since ∼2 Ma (Enkelmann et al., 2009, 2017; Falkowski et al., 2014) ∼1.2 km/Myr since ∼5 Ma (this study) Conclusion **Table 4** *Compilation of Observations and Comparison of Documented Tectonic Syntaxes With the Abancay Deflection*

Tectonic syntaxis YES YES YES

^aNot applicable.

Figure 13. Geodynamic comparison between the Abancay Deflection and the St Elias syntaxis of Alaska. (a) The Abancay Deflection case; the bulls-eye structure and morphology of the Abancay Deflection (red circle) suggest that it is an incipient syntaxis, with the Arequipa terrane acting as the indenter. (b) The St Elias case from Falkowski et al. (2014). The Yakutat microplate plays the role of the indenter for this Alaskan syntaxis.

- (3) By orogenic-prism rebalancing, the Subandean deformation propagated northward at ca. 5 Ma (Gautheron et al., 2013; Mosolf et al., 2011). In the core of the orogen, mass removal decreased the taper angle and thus favored tectonically driven rock uplift of the eroding southern Eastern Cordillera through the internal Apurimac fault system (Figures 11e and 12; DeCelles et al., 2009). Concurrently, the generated sediments accumulated in the Subandes have maintained the activity and the propagation of the Subandean front (Gautheron et al., 2013; Mosolf et al., 2011).
- (4) Focused deformation localized on the Apurimac fault system may be explained by its specific position and geographic organization, bounding the northern edge of the Arequipa terrane (Figure 12; Loewy et al., 2004). The Arequipa terrane could play the role of a buttress and the deformation could focus on the south-verging lithospheric-scale Apurimac fault system, with the Brazilian shield northward (Figure 12). The northward advance of the Arequipa terrane is still an ongoing process according to GPS measurements that support the current Bolivian Orocline bending (Allmendinger et al., 2005; Villegas-Lanza et al., 2016). In addition, the Apurimac fault system is a lithospheric-scale inherited structure (Carlier et al., 2005; Dalmayrac et al., 1980; Sempere et al., 2002) and constitutes a mechanical weak zone promoting the localization and accumulation of deformation.

Although the Andes present numerous deflected zones (i.e., Cajamarca, Huancabamba in Peru; Dalmayrac et al., 1980), the Abancay Deflection is exceptional with respect to its size, highly rotated fault systems, and its peculiar location at the northern tip of the Altiplano. It marks abruptly the along-strike segmentation of the Central Andes facing the Amazon basin with E-W topographic high. Although backthrusting activity through reactivated Cretaceous crustal normal-fault tilting in the Eastern Cordillera has been already documented in southern Peru (Perez, Horton, & Carlotto, 2016; Perez, Horton, Mcquarrie, et al., 2016), the Apurimac fault system backthrusting is a singularity for this region by its size and inheritance and appears to be one of the main structure articulating the northern narrow Andes versus the southern Bolivian Orocline. This fault system acted as a suture between the eastern Altiplano and the Eastern Cordillera (Jaillard & Soler, 1996)

and was reactivated as a backthrust within the last 5 Ma providing stronger uplift in the Eastern Cordillera. The relative position of the Arequipa terrane (Figure 11) acting as a rigid indenter could explain the accumulation of horizontal and vertical deformation in such limited-extend area and the subsequent orthogonal direction of the topography in comparison to the main orogen elongation axis. This could furthermore explain this undocumented tectonic behavior and probable higher erosion rates with an E-W topography facing the Amazonian moisture flux enhancing orographic updraft.

5.5. Is the Abancay Deflection a Tectonic Syntaxis?

According to the geodynamic context with an oblique subduction, as well as the slab dip transition (flat northward vs. steep southward of the Abancay region; Barazangi & Isacks, 1976), the Apurimac fault system could be a contractional duplex developed at bends or a stepover of crustal-scale strike-slip faulting. The Abancay Deflection presents, however, numerous geomorphic, tectonic, and geodynamic features at the origin of the theory of the tectonic syntaxes (Table 4) already documented in the Himalaya (Namche Barwa; Nanga Parbat; e.g., Zeitler et al., 2001) and Alaska (Saint Elias mount; e.g., Enkelmann et al., 2017). Focusing on the Abancay Deflection, high exhumation rates appear concentrated in the core of a distorted zone of limited-extend and framed by deflected active faults, promoting the classification of the Abancay Deflection as a tectonic syntaxis (this study; Table 4). In this case, the Arequipa terrane could play the role of the indenter in response to counterclockwise rotation (Roperch et al., 2006) of the northern limb of the Bolivian Orocline since the Miocene (Allmendinger et al., 2005; Müller et al., 2002).

The Himalayan syntaxes are characterized by heat advection, subsequent upward deflection of isotherms inducing a brittle–ductile rheological limit to the ascent (Koons et al., 2013). These peculiar thermal and rheological parameters associated with high geothermal gradients (∼60°C/km; Craw et al., 1994) and shallow seismicity (∼2–5-km depth; Meltzer et al., 1998) are defining tectonic aneurisms (Koons et al., 2013). The Abancay Deflection, however, seems to be relatively "cold" (∼20°C/km; this study) and brittle at depth, consistent with geothermal gradient that does not exceed 30°C/km (Eastern Cordillera far south in Bolivia; Barnes et al., 2008; Henry & Pollack, 1988), and crustal seismicity up to 30-km depth, respectively (Figure 3a). Thus, the Abancay Deflection cannot be defined as a tectonic aneurism.

The similarity in structural and geomorphic setting between the Abancay Deflection and the Himalayan/ Alaskan syntaxes leads us to speculate that the Abancay Deflection may reflect an incipient Andean syntaxis, where drainage capture and ensuing rapid incision of the plateau edge led to focused exhumation and tectonic uplift along a deflected fault pattern. In such a geodynamic context, associated with ocean–continent convergence, the closest comparison can be done with the Denali syntaxis in Alaska (Figure 13). The Abancay Deflection, however, has not reached yet (and maybe will never do) a mature stage of tectonic aneurism.

6. Conclusions

Our new thermochronological data and inverse thermo(-kinematic) modeling from the Abancay Deflection reveal steady and spatially uniform exhumation for the whole study area between 40 and 5 Ma, at a moderate rate of ∼0.2 km/Myr. We interpret such slow and steady exhumation as evidence for large-scale crustal shortening and/or lower crustal flow associated with low-magnitude erosion rates in an internally drained area. The differential exhumation of the Abancay Deflection area initiated at ca. 5 Ma, characterized by around 500% increase in exhumation rate for the southern Eastern Cordillera (∼1.2 km/Myr). This 5-Ma exhumation signal has been driven by incision (capture of the paleoendoreic environment) and enhanced by tectonically driven rock uplift along the Apurimac fault system activation as a south-verging backthrust. For the first time, we document the recent $(< 5$ Ma) and ongoing tectonic activity of this fault system. Finally, we propose the late Miocene precipitation intensification and the Arequipa terrane underplating as potential triggers for the reactivation of this out-of-sequence inherited crustal-scale thrust. Considering such a geomorphic and structural setting together with rapid and focused exhumation, in a region of anomalously high relief and topography, we speculate that the Abancay Deflection may represent the first identified incipient Andean syntaxis.

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Data Availability Statement

Data sets for this research are included in this paper (and its supporting information files). Data sets for this research are available at PANGAEA®—Data Publisher for Earth & Environmental Science [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.929199) [org/10.1594/PANGAEA.929199](https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.929199)), [Creative Commons Attribution License].

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