



Crustal motion in the Southern Andes (26°–36°S): Do the Andes behave like a microplate?

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[1] A new Global Positioning System (GPS)-derived velocity field for the Andes mountains (26°–36°S) allows analysis of instantaneous partitioning between elastic and anelastic deformation at the orogen's opposing sides. Adding an "Andes" microplate to the traditional description of Nazca-South America plate convergence provides the kinematic framework for nearly complete explanation of the observed velocity field. The results suggest the oceanic Nazca boundary is fully locked while the continental backarc boundary creeps continuously at ~4.5 mm/yr. The excellent fit of model to data (1.7 mm/yr RMS velocity misfit), and the relative aseismicity of the upper crust in the interior Andean region in comparison with its boundaries, supports the notion that the mountains are not currently accruing significant permanent strains. Additionally, the model implies permanent deformation is not accumulating throughout the backarc contractional wedge, but rather that the deformation is accommodated only within a narrow deformational zone in the backarc.

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1. Introduction

[2] Surface velocity fields measured with GPS (Global Positioning System) geodesy promise new insight into the incremental processes that actively deform continents and, over geologic time, construct mountains. For continental regions associated with plate boundaries such as the Andes of South America, an interpretive challenge in relating the GPS-derived velocity field to the long-term deformational pattern is that the current pattern likely represents the superposition of an ephemeral (self-reversing) elastic signal driven by the plate boundary earthquake cycle and steadily accumulating deformation that produces mountain growth. Specifically accounting for these two signals is important if we wish to be able to address first order issues such as the degree of seismic coupling at the main plate boundary [Savage, 1983] and whether specific instances of continental deformation are more aptly described by the relative motions of rigid microplates or as the deformation of a viscous continuum [England and McKenzie, 1982; Thatcher, 1995]. Here, we present a new GPS-derived velocity field from a >1000 km long section of the Andes mountains (26–36°S) (Figure 1, Table 1, Table 2). In our analysis, we test the hypothesis that the orogen itself behaves as a rigid unit with a class of models that combines ephemeral (plate boundary) and permanent (microplate) deformational components.

[3] In the Andes, subduction of the oceanic Nazca plate and locking of the subduction interface strains

the upper plate until rupture during major earthquakes [Barazangi and Isacks, 1976]. Shortening in backarc contractional orogenic wedges such as the Argentine Precordillera (PC) accommodates underthrusting of the South American craton and makes a significant contribution to permanent orogenic deformation [Allmendinger *et al.*, 1990; Kley and Monaldi, 1998; Ramos *et al.*, 1996]. Norabuena *et al.* [1998] explained their GPS velocity field for the central Andes (12°–22°S) by assuming the Nazca boundary is only ~50% locked and that slip of ~10–15mm/yr occurs on backarc reverse faults locked to 20km depth. Kendrick *et al.* [2001] produced an improved velocity field for the region, and Bevis *et al.* [2001] argued that this favored 100% locking of the Nazca plate boundary and reduced rates of backarc shortening. Similarly, Klotz *et al.* [2001] concluded that the Nazca plate boundary was fully locked, though their analysis did not explicitly include any velocity component from backarc contraction.

[4] Less attention has been focused on interpreting and modeling the velocity field in the backarc region of the Andes, largely because horizontal velocities in these regions tend to be 10 mm/yr or less. In one recent study, however, Lamb [2000] found that velocity gradients (from geologic and Norabuena *et al.*'s [1998] GPS data) do not share the same orientation as calculated buoyancy stress gradients in the central Andean foreland; thus, the thin viscous sheet approximation has not been applied to this portion of the Andes as successfully as it has been

Figure 1. (opposite) GPS velocity field superimposed on Andean topography. Inset shows map of South America with the study area highlighted (red box) and stations used to define the reference frame (blue circles). Plates denoted with magenta labels. White contours are of the subducted Nazca plate and red triangles denote schematically the presence of active arc volcanism [Cahill and Isacks, 1992]. Yellow tic mark is the Nazca-South America convergence direction with a magnitude of ~63 mm/yr.

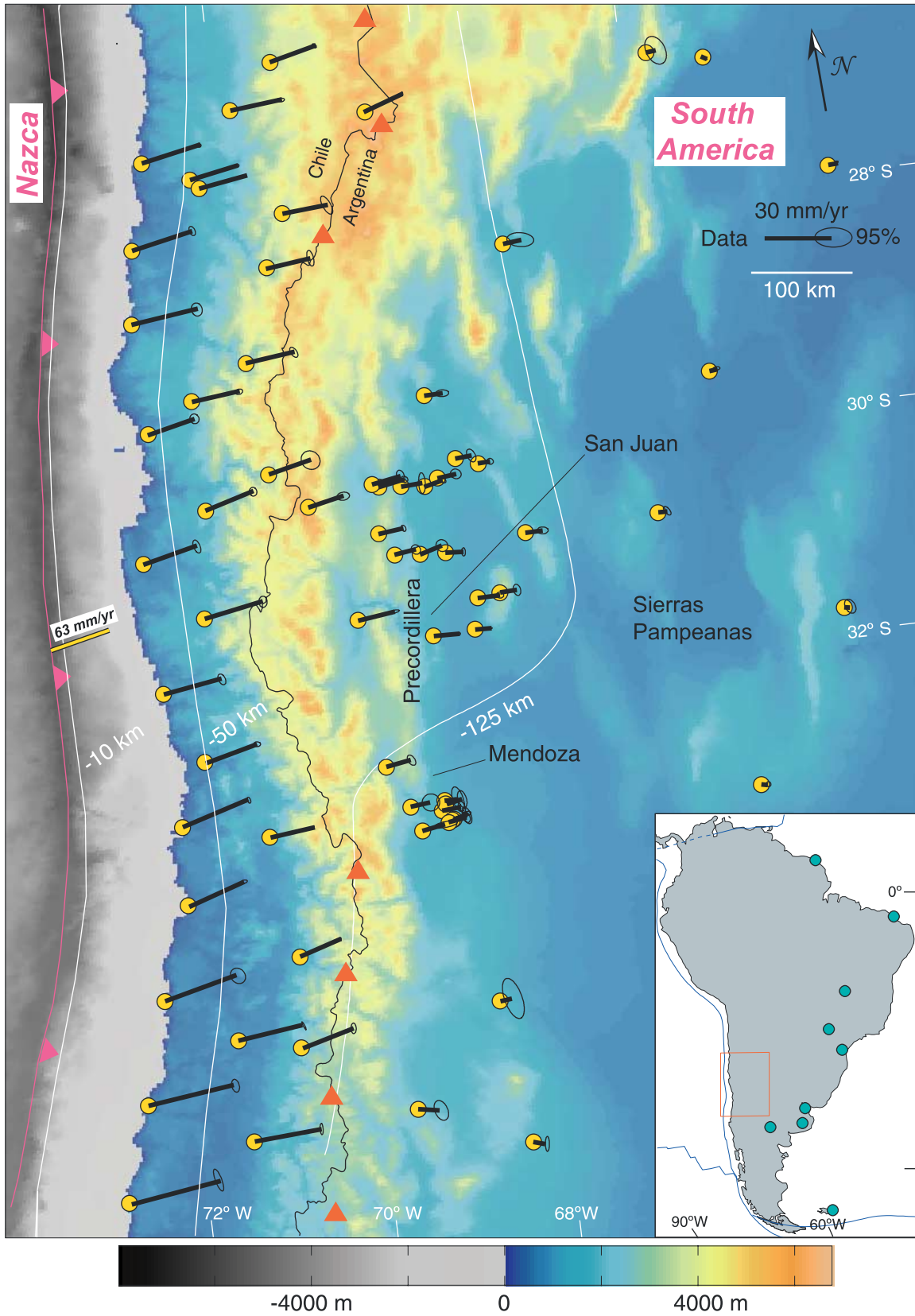




Table 1. GPS Site Velocity^a

Code	Lat	Long	Tspan	Vn	SigVn	Ve	SigVe	CorNE
ACOL	-30.7834	-66.2134	7.25	0.43	0.77	4.00	0.68	-0.64
AT03	-30.8935	-68.4264	3.37	0.39	0.73	7.91	0.34	-0.14
AT05	-30.8483	-68.9495	3.29	2.43	0.85	9.47	0.83	-0.16
AT06	-30.8787	-68.6879	3.40	3.97	1.06	9.57	1.06	-0.12
AT10	-30.2893	-68.5464	3.39	2.94	0.51	8.13	0.57	-0.47
AT12	-30.2332	-68.4026	3.40	2.04	0.87	8.16	0.95	-0.11
AT17	-30.0813	-68.1954	3.38	1.39	1.13	7.16	0.85	-0.43
AT20	-30.2610	-68.7820	3.32	1.70	1.86	9.29	0.60	-0.18
AT23	-30.2346	-69.0057	3.31	3.48	0.55	11.21	0.65	-0.15
AT24	-30.2039	-69.0711	3.53	3.67	1.06	12.48	0.75	-0.33
AT25	-30.6447	-69.0763	3.32	2.56	0.55	10.93	0.42	-0.33
AT29	-30.8156	-67.5906	3.27	1.02	0.61	7.68	1.00	0.00
AT30	-30.1523	-67.9716	3.33	0.93	0.52	5.42	0.57	-0.08
AT31	-33.0743	-69.1556	2.99	2.02	1.52	8.46	1.57	0.01
AT32	-33.3004	-69.0728	2.93	2.96	0.65	9.95	2.07	0.59
AT33	-33.1475	-68.8355	3.01	1.74	1.01	8.30	0.64	-0.46
AT35	-33.0619	-68.7961	2.99	0.66	2.20	5.60	1.14	-0.52
AT37	-33.0956	-68.7871	3.04	2.29	1.51	6.81	0.85	-0.42
AT39	-33.2380	-68.7213	2.98	1.77	1.48	5.54	0.88	-0.53
AT40	-33.2408	-68.7387	2.99	2.88	0.38	6.30	0.55	0.11
AT41	-33.2561	-68.7861	3.01	2.18	0.92	7.92	0.66	-0.31
BDS	-31.6088	-68.6662	4.99	1.15	0.19	11.23	0.21	-0.36
CALD	-27.0827	-70.8621	6.57	8.42	0.35	25.71	0.35	-0.13
CBQA	-36.1383	-72.8018	4.07	10.32	1.95	38.75	0.91	-0.75
CFAG	-31.6022	-68.2326	5.33	0.62	0.05	7.14	0.05	-0.25
CHAM	-27.2976	-70.4142	4.98	6.63	0.21	20.94	0.19	-0.47
CHIG	-31.7530	-71.5198	4.05	7.04	0.95	25.24	0.72	-0.42
CNGT	-31.3744	-69.4162	3.97	3.92	0.28	16.09	0.80	0.55
CNST	-35.3180	-72.4148	4.10	9.26	1.14	37.18	0.71	-0.27
COGO	-31.1534	-70.9753	3.78	7.91	1.00	25.43	0.74	-0.03
CONA	-28.9754	-70.1502	3.77	5.11	0.89	21.27	0.74	-0.54
COPO	-27.3845	-70.3382	4.67	5.92	0.06	20.91	0.05	-0.32
CORR	-36.1540	-68.3546	4.69	-0.97	1.34	5.33	0.36	-0.04
CPDR	-29.6011	-65.5278	7.30	0.85	0.33	3.27	0.64	0.24
GNDL	-29.4935	-68.4188	3.98	1.20	0.60	8.12	1.17	0.07
GRDA	-27.7157	-69.5584	3.75	3.98	1.61	19.80	1.08	-0.68
GYCN	-34.8831	-71.3451	4.07	6.84	0.69	28.00	0.38	-0.92
HUAS	-28.4785	-71.2223	3.77	7.20	1.16	28.87	0.98	-0.13
INCA	-26.7459	-69.9128	3.75	5.09	0.34	22.49	0.74	0.14
JUNT	-29.9791	-70.0939	3.78	6.52	1.66	18.37	1.69	-0.11
LOBO	-34.4316	-72.0468	4.09	11.53	1.37	31.17	1.35	-0.16
MALR	-35.7268	-69.5425	4.07	-0.47	1.76	9.33	1.29	-0.37
MGCR	-31.3088	-67.9268	3.52	1.16	1.00	7.36	0.68	-0.24
MORA	-30.2082	-70.7897	3.78	8.69	0.78	20.94	0.67	-0.10
MORR	-33.2689	-65.4767	7.27	-0.29	0.44	2.86	0.41	-0.05
MROC	-32.9409	-71.5540	4.06	12.28	0.54	28.55	0.33	-0.50
NIHL	-34.8864	-68.5030	4.06	1.26	3.58	5.05	1.94	-0.54
PAGN	-30.3228	-69.7499	7.90	5.24	0.73	15.43	1.12	0.13
PALO	-31.3306	-68.1651	5.47	1.36	0.54	9.80	0.66	-0.05
POBR	-30.5910	-71.5037	3.82	8.42	1.16	23.34	0.72	-0.53
POTR	-26.3744	-69.4581	3.75	7.52	0.39	20.18	0.38	-0.46
PSNF	-26.9319	-68.5988	3.75	8.05	0.37	16.85	0.10	-0.19
PSTO	-28.1716	-69.7938	3.76	4.61	1.40	19.42	0.65	-0.50
QNTA	-31.7966	-64.4273	7.24	-0.07	1.24	2.62	1.02	-0.37
QPOB	-32.4061	-71.2126	6.76	8.32	0.42	22.48	0.62	-0.06
RARI	-35.7868	-71.3472	4.07	5.53	1.00	29.17	0.28	-0.28
RBLS	-27.9118	-64.1192	4.98	0.74	0.17	4.31	0.24	-0.06
RSTD	-33.6335	-71.6350	4.08	10.93	0.31	23.94	0.58	0.31
SANT	-33.1503	-70.6686	8.18	4.57	0.08	19.31	0.05	-0.33
SIFO	-34.2367	-70.5474	4.05	7.74	0.28	17.66	0.10	-0.52
SILA	-29.2404	-70.7496	3.77	4.95	0.48	20.87	0.65	0.19



Table 1. (continued)

Code	Lat	Long	Tspan	Vn	SigVn	Ve	SigVe	CorNE
TAFI	-26.7444	-65.7810	5.50	1.10	2.46	4.33	1.94	-0.36
TENO	-35.0343	-70.6895	4.09	8.70	0.94	22.15	0.46	-0.08
TINO	-28.2602	-67.4245	3.98	1.92	1.25	7.97	2.40	-0.09
TOFO	-29.4594	-71.2384	3.78	7.27	0.87	20.47	0.83	-0.09
TOTO	-27.8324	-71.0961	3.76	8.77	0.82	26.20	0.59	-0.44
TUCU	-26.8433	-65.2304	5.26	-1.24	0.06	2.68	0.07	-0.25
UPSA	-32.6929	-69.3488	7.43	3.04	0.91	10.74	0.76	-0.46

^aGPS site velocity is expressed relative to the stable South American plate. Code, station code; Lat, latitude; Long, longitude; Tspan, time span of measurements in years; Vn, north component of velocity (mm/yr), SigVn, standard error (mm/yr); Ve, east component of velocity (mm/yr); SigVe, standard error (mm/yr), CorNE, north-east correlation.

applied to, for example, the Tibetan plateau [England and Molnar, 1997].

[5] Our study area, between 26°S and 36°S (Figure 1), was chosen so that surface velocity would not be affected by postseismic signals from either the 1995 Antofagasta earthquake to the north [Klotz *et al.*, 1999] or the great 1960 Chile earthquake to the south [Plafker and Savage, 1970]. The region is also of interest because the subducted Nazca slab undergoes a pronounced change in dip with which the basement uplifts of the Sierras Pampeanas range coincide [Jordan *et al.*, 1983] (Figure 1).

[6] We installed the network of survey (SGPS) and continuous (CGPS) GPS stations presented here between 1993 and 1997. SGPS measurements were carried out from 1993 to 2001 in sessions of at least 40 hours over consecutive days. Our field, processing, and velocity analysis methods have been described elsewhere [Bevis *et al.*, 1997, 2001; Kendrick *et al.*, 2001]. We realize a craton-fixed frame nominally attached to stable South America (Figure 1, inset) with an RMS residual velocity of 1.0 mm/yr. In this reference frame, Andean velocities are directed eastward toward the craton (Figure 1). Velocities are largest (~35 mm/yr) closer to the Nazca boundary and decline toward the craton with no obvious evidence of strike-slip deformation [Siame *et al.*, 1997]. Backarc velocity vectors tend to be rotated clockwise with respect to forearc vectors, a pattern similar to that of the south central Andes [Bevis *et al.*, 2001]. Notably, the velocity field shows no obvious or abrupt change in character

associated with the changing dip of the subducted Nazca plate (Figure 1).

2. Analysis

[7] We analyze the data in a way that simultaneously addresses both the short-term ephemeral deformation related to the earthquake cycle at the Nazca plate boundary and the residual deformation field that leads to backarc contraction and long-term mountain growth. Although we recognize the utility of continuum models based on a thin viscous sheet in examining long-term Andean evolution [Lamb, 2000; Wdowinski *et al.*, 1989], these models do not consider explicitly the short-term elastic deformation related to the plate boundary. Thus we choose to base our analysis on a model that

Table 2. Model Parameters^a

Parameter	Value
<i>L</i>	<i>1</i>
ω_{AS} Lat.	<i>56.5°N</i>
ω_{AS} Lon.	<i>113.9°W</i>
ω_{AS} ω	<i>0.087°/Myr</i>
ω_{NS} Lat.	61.1°N,
ω_{NS} Lon.	93.6°W
ω_{NS} ω	0.57°/Myr
Updip extent	10km
Down-dip extent	50km
Poisson's ratio	.25

^aParameters used in the modeling. Parameters in bold italics are solved for in the 3-plate model inversion, other parameters are held fixed. *L*, degree of locking on the Nazca boundary; ω_{AS} Lat., AS Euler pole latitude; ω_{AS} Lon., AS Euler pole longitude; ω_{AS} ω , AS Euler pole angular velocity; ω_{NS} Lat., NS Euler pole latitude; ω_{NS} Lon., NS Euler pole longitude; ω_{NS} ω , NS Euler pole angular velocity; *updip extent*, updip extent of the locked Nazca boundary; *down-dip extent*, down-dip extent of the locked Nazca boundary; Poisson's ratio, poisson's ratio used in the elastic dislocation modeling.



combines elastic half-space deformation due to slip on embedded discontinuities and the steady motion of rigid plates on a spherical earth [Bevis *et al.*, 2001; McCaffrey, 2002].

[8] To best reproduce the smoothly curving geometry of the subduction zone in this ~ 1000 km long stretch of the Andes we implement our calculations using triangular dislocation elements in an elastic half-space [Bevis *et al.*, 2001]. We find that elastic half-space models driven only by convergence at the Nazca boundary significantly underpredict velocity magnitude at all stations from the trench to the backarc (Figure 2, green vectors). This observation, combined with the evidence that the PC fold and thrust belt has accommodated more than 100 km of shortening during the most recent phase of Andean orogeny [Allmendinger *et al.*, 1990; Jordan *et al.*, 1993; Zapata and Allmendinger, 1996], suggests that a 2-plate model [Williams and McCaffrey, 2001] may be oversimplified, and so we add an independent microplate to the kinematic description of Nazca-South America convergence.

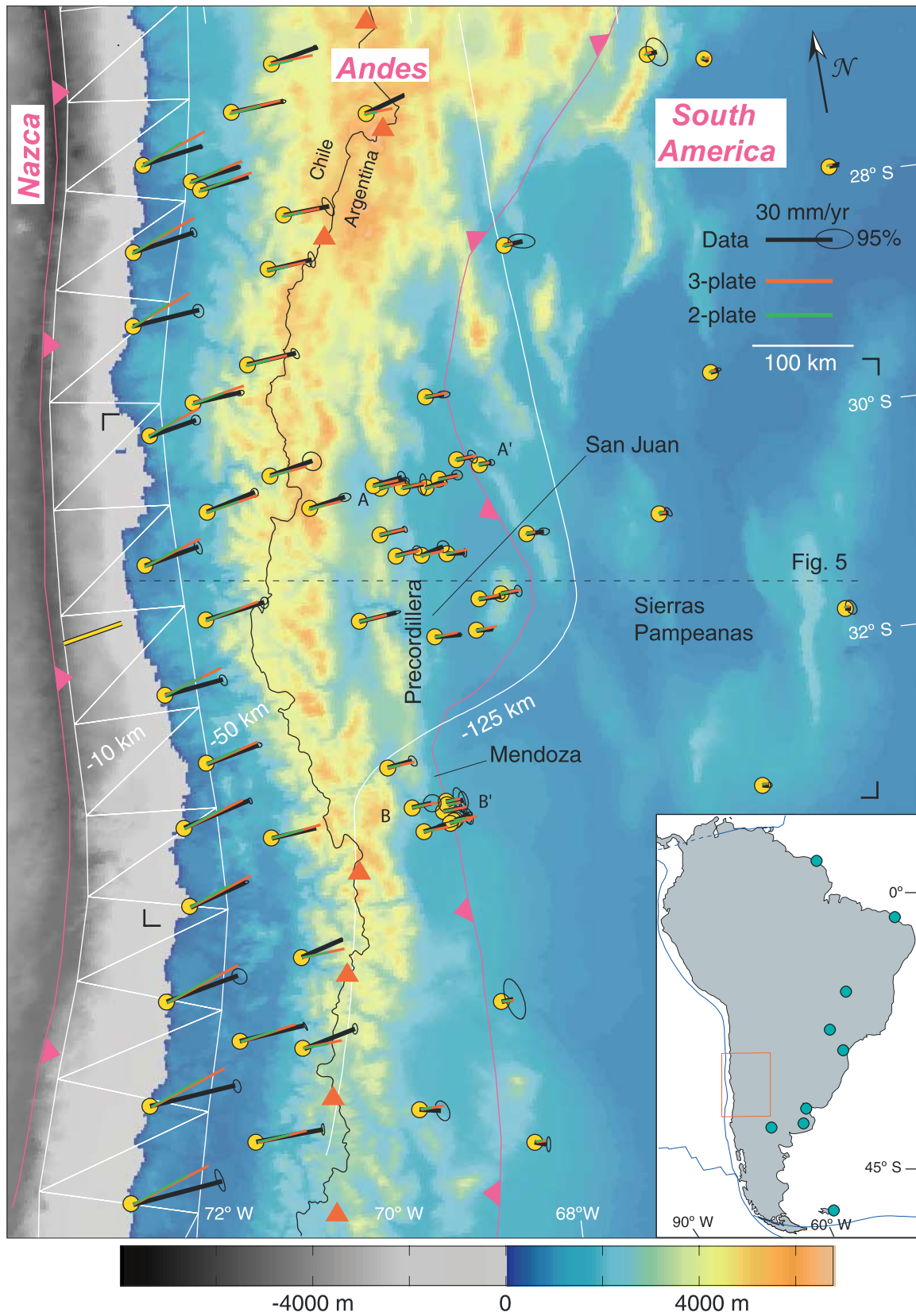
[9] Our preferred analysis employs a 3-plate model in which an Andean microplate (A) is located between the Nazca (N) and South America (S) plates (Figure 3). At timescales large compared with that of the earthquake cycle, relative plate motions are steady and can be described using Euler vectors (ω) [Cox and Hart, 1986] subject to the constraint that $\omega_{NS} = \omega_{NA} + \omega_{AS}$. We assume that the A-S boundary creeps continuously at a constant rate on what we envision as a sub-horizontal décollement rooted at deeper crustal levels beneath the Andean arc. The only explicit geometrical assumption we make about the A-plate is that the A-S surface trace is chosen to correspond with the geologically youngest structures of the thrust front (Figure 2). Where station spacing is

sparse, the precise location of the surface trace does not affect the model results. We treat locking of the Nazca boundary as an elastic perturbation superimposed on steady plate convergence [Savage, 1983]. The magnitude of this perturbation, the elastic loading field, is proportional to the degree of locking, L , at the N-A boundary. The velocity field in A is then a combination of elastic loading and steady A-S plate convergence, whereas in S all motion is due to elastic loading.

[10] Previous workers have attempted to model similar data sets by solving for the lower locking depth on the subduction interface [Klotz *et al.*, 2001] as well as solving for the down-dip and along-strike variations in coupling [McCaffrey *et al.*, 2000]. In preliminary analyses we found that inclusion of these added components to the model did not significantly improve model-data misfit while adding as many as 9 parameters to the inverse problem. Thus by assuming uniform along-strike and down-dip coupling and a lower locking depth of 50km we are able to describe our 3 plate model with only 4 parameters (L and the 3 parameters describing the euler vector, ω_{AS}).

[11] We find the best-fitting velocity model by repeatedly selecting L and ω_{AS} , calculating ω_{NA} , and minimizing misfit with an L_1 norm using a Nelder-Mead simplex algorithm. In order to do this we must adopt a value for ω_{NS} . We [Kendrick *et al.*, 2003] and others [Angermann *et al.*, 1999; Norabuena *et al.*, 1999] have used GPS velocities to find the modern Euler vector describing N-S plate convergence. These studies find convergence velocities significantly slower than the geologically averaged value predicted by the Nuvel-1A plate model [DeMets *et al.*, 1994]; thus, we choose to adopt a modern value as opposed to the other approaches [Ruegg *et al.*, 2002]. We use our estimate for ω_{NS} with a pole at 61.1°N , 93.6°W

Figure 2. (opposite) GPS velocity field with best 3-plate model (red vectors) and 2-plate model (green vectors) superimposed on Andean topography. Magenta lines denote the western and eastern boundaries of the proposed 'Andean' plate, with the hachures on the overthrusting plate (see Figure 3 for a description of the 3-plate model). White triangles are the dislocation elements used in the elastic portion of the model with the upper (-10 km) and lower (-50 km) boundaries constrained by earthquake catalogs [Cahill and Isacks, 1992]. Bold black angle marks contain the yellow stations in the velocity profile which is denoted by the black dashed line (Figure 5). A-A' and B-B' are the geologic cross-sections in Figure 7. All other annotation as in Figure 1.



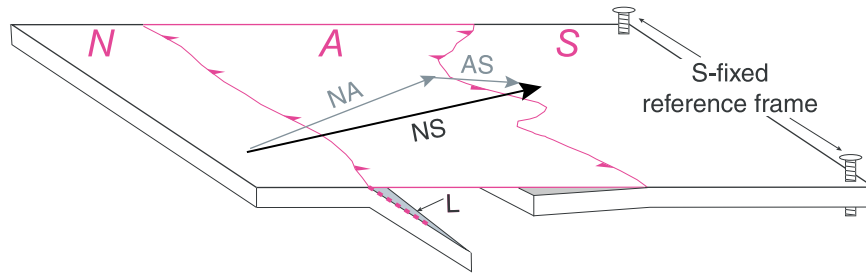


Figure 3. Cartoon of the three plate model in a South America fixed reference frame. Magenta lines and symbols as in Figure 2. Dashed magenta line is the locked portion of the subduction zone with degree of locking, L .

and a rate of $0.57^\circ/\text{Myr}$. At a latitude of 31°S , N–S plate convergence is $\sim 63 \text{ mm/yr}$ and is rotated $\sim 10^\circ$ anticlockwise from the normal to the Peru–Chile trench (Figure 2).

3. Results and Discussion

[12] The best model, with an RMS velocity misfit of just 1.7 mm/yr (Figure 2), depicts an Andean orogenic system whose boundaries are asymmetrically coupled: the N boundary is 100% locked while the A plate creeps continuously over the S plate with a horizontal velocity of $\sim 4.5 \text{ mm/yr}$. To assess the robustness of our findings, for the

range of L values, we ran a series of 100 inversions with independent and randomly chosen starting points (Figure 4). The results clearly illustrate that the RMS misfit of the best-fitting models steadily decreases as L is increased toward full locking (Figure 4).

[13] The elastic loading component (green vectors, Figure 2; blue line, Figure 5) controls the velocity field’s cratonward decay and clockwise rotation [Bevis and Martel, 2001], and it can be recovered by future seismic or aseismic [Dragert *et al.*, 2001; Miller *et al.*, 2002] slip events at the Peru–Chile trench. This component explains $\sim 70\%$ or more of the velocity magnitude for stations throughout

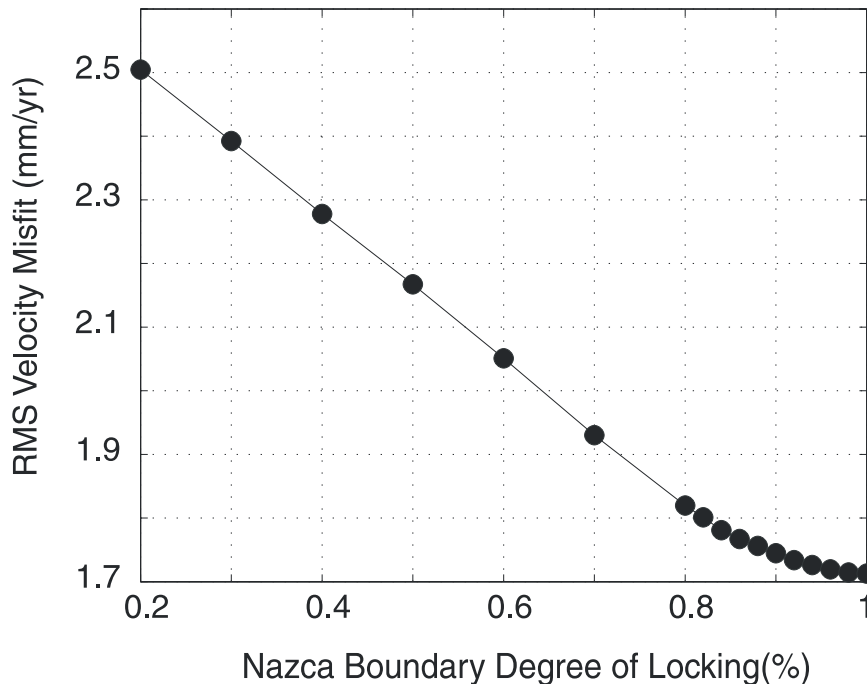


Figure 4. Plot of RMS velocity misfit versus Nazca boundary locking rate. Fully locked = 1. Each data point represents the minimum value from 100 inversions with independent and randomly chosen starting points.

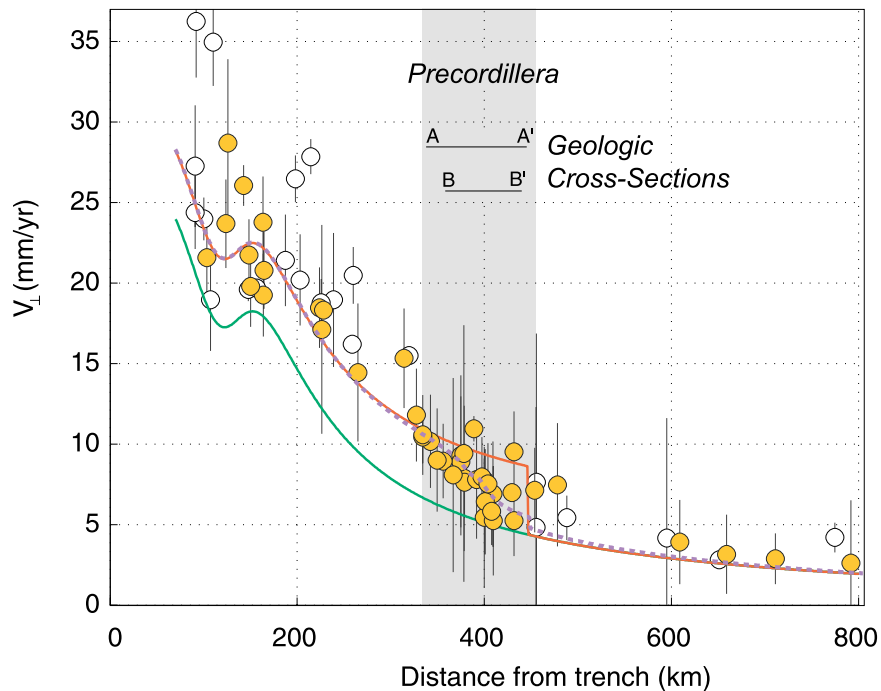


Figure 5. Velocity profile taken along the dashed line in Figure 2 plots trench-normal distance vs. trench-normal velocity, V_{\perp} . Yellow circles are stations within the corner marks on Figure 2, white circles are stations outside of the marks. Error bars are 95% confidence. Smooth curves are profiles for the elastic loading component, the best 3-plate model, and the corrected 3-plate model. The green line is the elastic component of the best 3-plate model (red line). The elastic component is equivalent to a “2-plate” model. Dashed magenta line is the corrected best model.

most of the A plate; far from the trench, it accounts for essentially the entire velocity field in the S plate including the seismically active Sierras Pampeanas region [Costa and Vita-Finzi, 1996] (Figure 5). The ω_{AS} (56.5°N, 113.9°W, 0.087°/Myr) Euler pole and ω_{NS} are only slightly non-coaxial; thus, A–S convergence is rotated $\sim 10^{\circ}$ clockwise from N–S plate convergence. The microplate motion contributes a nearly uniform velocity increase for all stations on the A plate and accounts for the steady state portion of the velocity signal. To the extent that we may compare data sets with temporal scales differing by 6 orders of magnitude, the ~ 4.5 mm/yr magnitude of the steady signal agrees very well with the post ~ 2.7 Ma shortening rate of ~ 5 mm/yr determined for the structures in the eastern PC [Zapata and Allmendinger, 1996].

[14] The excellent agreement between data and model warrants serious consideration of the notion that, at least over the decadal timescale reported here, the Andean region (the “A” plate) does not accrue significant permanent strains and behaves as

a “microplate” overthrusting the stable South American craton. In support of this, a plot of epicenters of shallow crustal earthquakes (depth < 30 km) from a nearly complete catalog of earthquakes with $M_w > 5.2$ [Engdahl *et al.*, 1998] is consistent with the idea of a stable, largely aseismic, Andean region accruing permanent strains only at its narrow boundary zones (Figure 6). In apparent contrast to the Andes, the region associated with the India-Asia collision and the Himalayan orogen exhibits a diffuse pattern of seismicity distributed throughout the Tibetan plateau (Figure 6) in a manner more consistent with a continental region deforming as a continuum [England and Molnar, 1997]. That the Andean region currently behaves as an independent block whose kinematics can be well-modeled as a microplate, however, does not imply that it has done so consistently during this most recent orogenic phase lasting close to 20 Myrs [Mpodozis and Ramos, 1989]. Proper assessment of the longer-term deformational comportment of the interior Andean region will require significantly more high

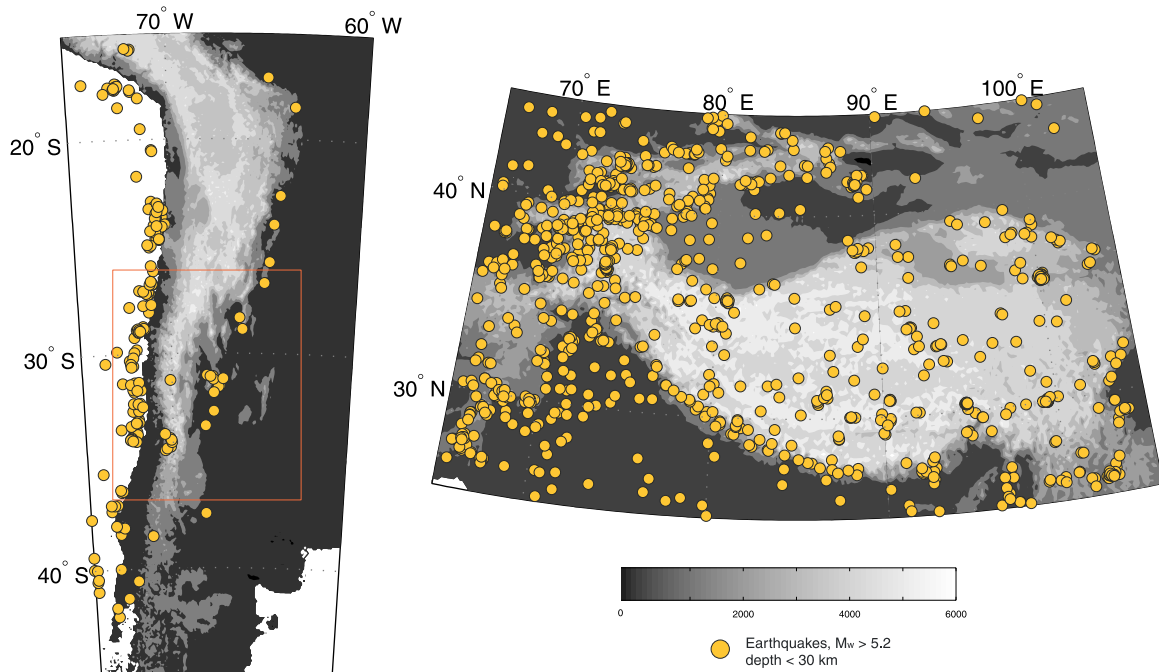


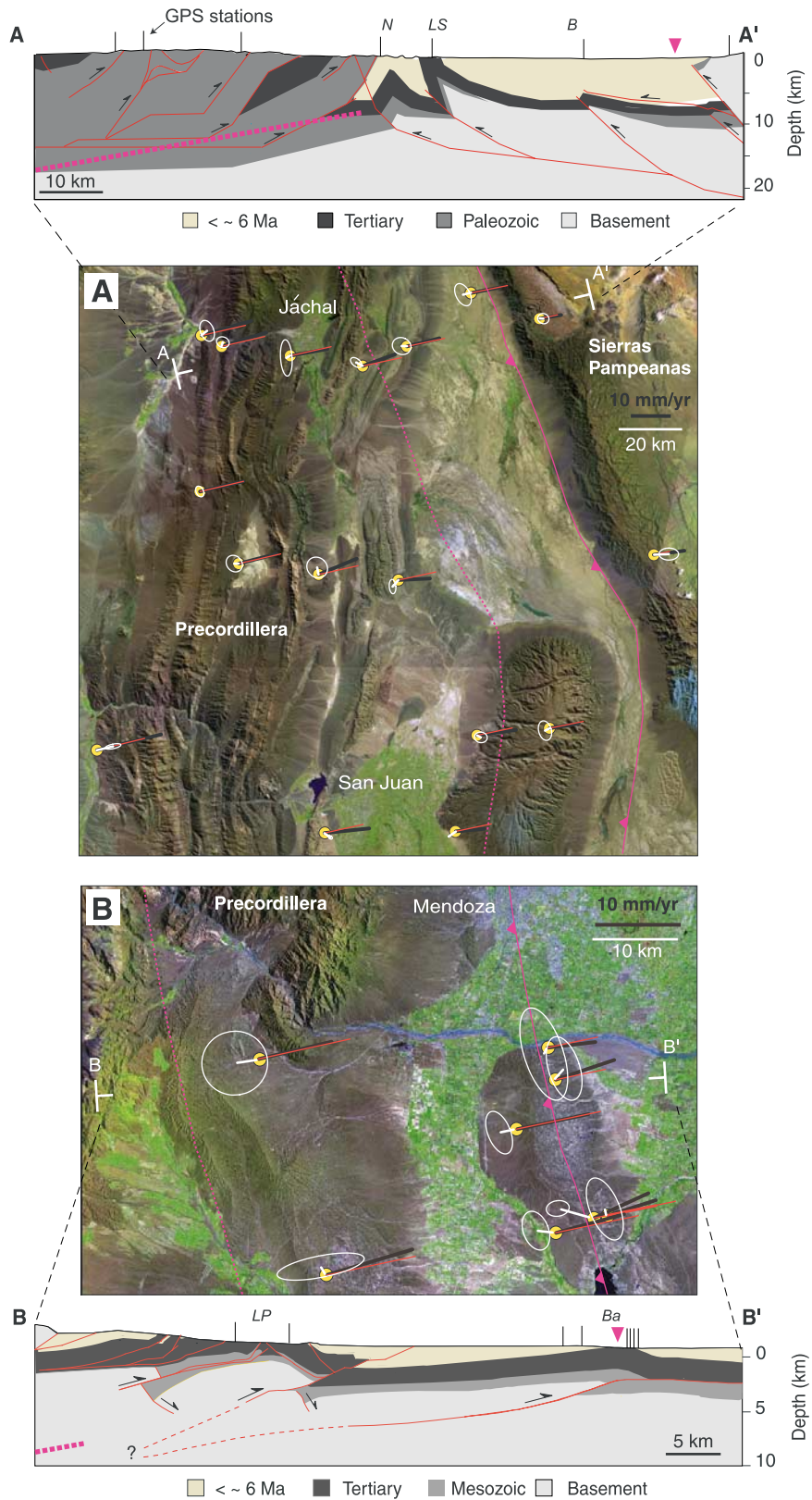
Figure 6. Topography and shallow crustal seismicity (<30 km) from **A**, the Andes and **B**, the Tibetan plateau taken from the catalog of Engdahl [Engdahl *et al.*, 1998].

resolution studies of quaternary faulting throughout the Andes [Siame *et al.*, 2002, 1997].

[15] In the northern- and southern-most sections of the study area, model vectors nearest the trench tend to be rotated slightly to the north of the data vectors, whereas those closest to the volcanic arc tend to be rotated to the south (Figure 2). These regions of poorer conformance to the 3-plate model are spatially correlated with sections of the mountains where the volcanic arc is currently active and subduction is steep, in contrast to the central portion of the study area where there has been no active arc volcanism for the past 6 Ma and subduction is flat [Isacks, 1988]. We speculate that the active arc may be associated with a thermally weakened zone that leads to this second-order deviation from the 3-plate model.

[16] Although the velocity data do not require that intracontinental subduction [Bally and Snelson, 1980] is the active backarc process (similar data from other active orogenic environments such as New Zealand, for example, are explained differently [Beavan *et al.*, 1999]) the kinematics defined by the 3-plate model is consistent with the notion that intracontinental subduction occurs at the A–S boundary. In support of this, there is substantial evidence from balanced cross-sections from the study area that continental crust has been underthrust beneath the contractional wedge during the past ~20 Ma of Andean orogenesis [Allmendinger *et al.*, 1990; Ramos *et al.*, 1996; Zapata and Allmendinger, 1996]. Additionally, further north, seismological data indicate that the Brazilian craton currently underthrusts the Andean region as far west as the Bolivian Eastern

Figure 7. (opposite) Geologic cross-sections and Precordillera velocity field with model and residuals (white vectors) for Figure 7a, the region near San Juan and Figure 7b, the region near Mendoza superimposed on a Land Sat 5 Thematic Mapper mosaic. Symbols as in 1A, error ellipses (95% confidence) referred to residuals. Magenta triangle on cross-sections is location of A-plate boundary. Cross-sections compiled from references in the text and an unpublished section from the Mendoza area. N, Niquivil Anticline; LS, Las Salinas Anticline; B, Bermejo Anticline; LP, La Pilona Anticline; Ba, Barrancas Anticline. In both cross-section and map view the dashed magenta line is the continuously creeping, down-dip extent of the locked zone used as a correction to the preferred model (Figure 5).





Cordillera [Beck and Zandt, 2002]. We do not, however, intend to suggest that intracontinental subduction has progressed to the point that continental material is being subducted into the mantle beneath the Andean arc - a process that may or may not be physically unlikely [Molnar and Gray, 1979].

[17] Our analysis places strong constraint on the mechanical behavior of the backarc contractional wedge by demonstrating that permanent deformation is currently accommodated at the front of the PC fold and thrust belt and not distributed throughout its width. This is consistent with the narrow band of seismicity described above (Figure 6) and also with post-20 Ma geological reconstructions demonstrating eastward migration of the PC through active deformation near its tip [Jordan et al., 1993; Zapata and Allmendinger, 1996]. In the context of an orogenic wedge whose kinematics are forced by the competition between tectonics and erosion [Dahlen and Suppe, 1988], it is also illustrative to consider mountain belt scale geomorphic indices demonstrating that the eastern margin of the Andes between $\sim 17^\circ$ and 36° S is a regime of relatively low erosional intensity [Montgomery et al., 2001]. The combined geodetic, geologic, and geomorphic analyses suggest that the PC has not attained a steady state balance of erosion and tectonics, but rather, that it continually widens through accretion of new material at its toe.

[18] Our modeling is carried out at the plate tectonic scale and is not intended to be precise at the scale of individual structures. For instance, though the model provides an excellent fit to the data as a whole, residual examination demonstrates a small, but systematic velocity overprediction near the A-S boundary (Figures 2 and 7). The spatial coherence suggests this signal is significant, albeit second-order, even though individual residual vectors are rarely larger than their associated uncertainty. We can account for this anomaly by modifying our model: we assume that the A-S boundary dips westward at 10° and is locked from its tip to a down-dip length of ~ 50 km (Figure 7). (Here, we model backarc

locking using the backslip formalism in the same way as at the Nazca boundary.) This simple (and probably non-unique) correction is sufficient throughout the PC despite the fact that the structures comprising the locked zone differ in the north and south [Brooks et al., 2000; Jordan et al., 1993; Zapata and Allmendinger, 1996] (Figure 7). In the north, the west-vergent Niquivil, Las Salinas, and Bermejo anticlines comprise the locked zone and the Sierra de Valle Fertil thrust fault, the westernmost expression of the Sierras Pampeanas basement uplifts, abuts the A-S boundary (Figure 7a). In the south, the zone is composed of only two, east-vergent structures, the La Pilona and Barrancas anticlines, and the thrust front is separated from the westernmost expression of the Sierras Pampeanas by ~ 200 km of undeformed foreland basin strata (Figure 7d). Discerning the details of deformation in the frontal zone, such as activity, strain accumulation, and seismic hazard of individual structures, will require finer velocity resolution through longer measurement time spans.

[19] That we find the décollement below the A-plate to be continuously creeping does not imply that it is “freely” slipping in the sense that it is shear traction-free. On the contrary, we envision this boundary to be viscously coupled, a configuration that allows both continuous motion and stress transmission across the boundary. Thus we speculate that transmission of stresses across the fully locked oceanic subduction boundary drives microplate motion and deformation at the intracontinental boundary. If the stress drop associated with major subduction earthquakes is small compared to the failure stress, then creep at the A-S boundary should vary only slightly during the earthquake deformation cycle at the Nazca boundary.

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