

1 Revised timing of Cenozoic Atlantic incursions and changing
2 hinterland sediment sources during southern Patagonian
3 orogenesis

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18 **ABSTRACT**

19 New detrital zircon U-Pb geochronology data from the Cenozoic Magallanes Basin in
20 Argentina and Chile ~51°S establish a revised chronostratigraphy of Paleocene – Miocene
21 foreland synorogenic strata and document the rise and subsequent isolation of hinterland sources
22 in the Patagonian Andes from the continental margin. The upsection loss of zircons derived from
23 the hinterland Paleozoic and Late Jurassic sources between ca. 60-44 Ma documents a major
24 shift in sediment routing due to Paleogene orogenesis in the greater Patagonian-Fuegian Andes.
25 Changes in the proportion of grains from hinterland thrust sheets, comprised of Jurassic
26 volcanics and Paleozoic metasedimentary rocks, provide a trackable signal of long-term shifts in
27 orogenic drainage divide and topographic isolation due to widening of the retroarc fold-thrust
28 belt. Youngest detrital zircon U-Pb ages confirm timing of Maastrichtian – Eocene strata, but
29 require substantial age revisions for overlying Cenozoic basinfill. The upper Río Turbio
30 Formation, previously mapped as Eocene in the published record, records a newly recognized
31 Oligocene (34-26 Ma) marine incursion along the basin margin. We suggest that these deposits
32 are genetically linked to the distal Oligocene-Miocene San Julián Formation along the Atlantic
33 coast via an eastward deepening within the foreland basin system that culminated in the *Juliense*

34 phase of the *Patagonian Sea* incursion in the Southern Andes. The overlying Río Guillermo
35 Formation records onset of tectonically generated coarse-grained detritus ca. 24.3 Ma and a
36 transition to the first fully nonmarine conditions on the proximal Patagonian platform since Late
37 Jurassic time, perhaps signaling a Cordilleran-scale upper plate response to increased plate
38 convergence and tectonic plate reorganization.

39 INTRODUCTION

40 Tectonics, climate, and eustasy in convergent plate settings control first-order
41 fluctuations between marine and terrestrial environments along continental margins and the
42 transfer of sediment from orogens to basin depocenters. With the emergence of a new paradigm
43 in the last three decades recognizing dynamic interactions and feedbacks between tectonics and
44 climate (Marshall et al., 1982; Beaumont et al., 1992; Willett, 1999), it is all the more essential to
45 differentiate between their signals in the stratigraphic record. For instance, enhanced tectonism in
46 foreland basin settings can cause crustal load-driven basin subsidence and deepening of marine
47 environments (Flemings and Jordan, 1989; Simpson, 2006). Climate variations and orography
48 influence precipitation and temperature gradients, which in turn effect erosion rates, vegetation
49 cover, and even the location of deformation and drainage divides (Bonnet and Crave, 2003;
50 Rehak et al., 2010; Cruz et al., 2011). Globally, climate modulates the growth and ablation of
51 continental ice sheets and sea level (Miller et al., 2005). Cenozoic marine transgressions are
52 well-studied in terms of sequence stratigraphic models for global sea level change (e.g., Miocene
53 US Atlantic history of Browning et al., 2006) and the dominant control of climatic optima are
54 suitable for passive continental margins. However, in tectonically active, shallow-marine basins
55 resolving the relative contributions of tectonic processes and global eustasy, driven by global
56 mechanisms must be carefully considered (Christie-blick, 1991). For example, work in the
57 Cretaceous interior seaway has demonstrated that tectonism is an important player in controlling

58 parasequence progradation and subsidence (Painter and Carrapa, 2013), in addition to eustatic
59 sea-level variations (Houston et al., 2000; Horton et al., 2004a).

60 An improved understanding of the controls on subaerial emergence or subsidence of
61 these landmasses is fundamental to evaluating potential linkages between mountain building and
62 climate (e.g., Roe et al., 2008), eustatic sea level changes (Browning et al., 2006), sediment
63 delivery to the oceans (Clift et al., 2001; Sommerfield and Wheatcroft, 2007), and biotic
64 responses to changing ecosystems (Marshall et al., 1982; Sepkoski, 1996; Acosta et al., 2014;
65 Palazzesi et al., 2014; Eronen et al., 2015). Moreover, better knowledge of the dynamic response
66 of sedimentary and tectonic systems is critical to scientific issues of our time, including long-
67 term climate change, biogeochemical fluxes to our lakes and oceans, and conservation of mineral
68 and energy resources. A central requirement to unravel these competing processes is detailed
69 chronology and provenance preserved in the sedimentary basin fill. The appearance of sediment
70 with a diagnostic lithology, age, and/or tectonic terrane association is commonly used to infer
71 timing of source area unroofing and to make paleogeographic, tectonic, or climatic
72 interpretations (e.g., Jordan et al., 1993; Barbeau et al., 2009; Nie et al., 2012). However, a
73 source's decline as a prominent sediment contributor to basin infill – potentially through
74 erosional removal, topographic blocking, or burial – is less commonly preserved in the
75 depositional record. Sediment recycling and weathering of source area can further complicate the
76 cause of a waning source signal (Johnsson and Basu, 1993; Cox et al., 1995; Fosdick et al., 2015;
77 Limonta et al., 2015).

78 The Patagonian Andes, a high-latitude convergent orogen in South America, provides
79 sediment to the genetically linked Magallanes Basin, which extends ~200 km from a retroarc

80 thrust front to the southern Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 1). This relatively narrow distance results in the
81 eastern Atlantic continental margin in Patagonia that is sensitive to sea level fluctuations driven
82 by dynamic and tectonic loading of the flexural foredeep (Fosdick et al., 2014), variations in
83 sediment flux across the coastal plain, eustasy, and global climate and far-field tectonics. The
84 proximal Patagonian foreland near 51°S remained predominantly deep marine from ca. 100-80
85 Ma (Natland et al., 1974; Biddle et al., 1986; Romans et al., 2011) followed by basin-filling and
86 shoaling to shallow-marine to marginal continental conditions ca. 78-60 Ma (Macellari et al.,
87 1989; Malumián and Caramés, 1997; Schwartz and Graham, 2015a; Manríquez et al., 2019).
88 This northwestern part of the Magallanes Basin coevolved with a structurally complicated
89 Cenozoic development of the southeastern Magallanes and Malvinas depocenters related to the
90 Fuegian orocline (Ghiglione et al., 2010, 2016) and opening of the Drake Passage between
91 Antarctica and South America (Lagabrielle et al., 2009). Deformation across the Patagonian
92 thrust-belt promoted a general eastward shift of deposition in Paleocene-Miocene time (Fosdick
93 et al., 2011).

94 Near ~51°S, the proximal Cenozoic Magallanes Basin preserves shelfal facies overlain by
95 near-shore and continental facies. Documented middle Cenozoic transgressions in Patagonia and
96 Tierra del Fuego have been linked to Cenozoic global sea level rise due to climate (Rodríguez
97 Raising, 2010; Malumián and Náñez, 2011) and phases of Andean orogenesis (Fosdick et al.,
98 2011; Bostelmann et al., 2013; Gutiérrez et al., 2017). Most notably, the Oligocene-Miocene
99 ‘Patagonian Sea’ is recorded as the *Juliense* and *Leonense* phases of shallow marine deposition
100 along much of the Atlantic coast and inland Patagonia (Ameghino, 1906; Parras et al., 2012;
101 Cuitiño et al., 2012). Previous work has suggested that the Patagonian Sea was largely
102 influenced by climate optima and eustatic transgressions (Parras et al., 2012) and tectonics (Dix

103 and Parras, 2014). It is yet undetermined (1) if the early (*Juliense*) inland sea reached the
104 proximal part of the Magallanes Basin, (2) how upland source areas changed during Cenozoic
105 foreland sedimentation, and (3) to what extent these marine phases were driven by tectonic
106 subsidence, changes in upland sediment routing/sediment flux, or eustasy. Differentiating among
107 the relative impacts of these large-scale factors is important for recognizing the effects of
108 external controls, such as global climate transitions, versus internal orogenic wedge dynamics
109 (Dahlen et al., 1984; Willett, 1999) and source to sink connections in the transfer of sediment to
110 the world's oceans.

111 We present new sediment provenance data and a new chronostratigraphy of Eocene –
112 Miocene strata in the Magallanes (Austral) Basin of southern Patagonia that (1) revise the age of
113 marine incursions and changes in orogenic paleogeography during the transition to nonmarine
114 conditions in southern Patagonia, (2) highlight the rise and subsequent isolation of a major
115 hinterland source area due to basinward development of younger orogenic topography, and (3)
116 suggest recycling of Mesozoic grains from Upper Cretaceous sedimentary rocks, rather than
117 direct sourcing from the Mesozoic batholith.

118 **TECTONIC SETTING & BASIN STRATIGRAPHY**

119 The Upper Cretaceous – Cenozoic Magallanes Basin (Fig. 1) records deposition during
120 structural growth of the Patagonian-Fuegian Andes (Ramos and Ghiglione, 2008; Ghiglione et
121 al., 2010; Romans et al., 2011). Following marine conditions that have generally persisted since
122 Late Jurassic time, the early foreland basin history was predominantly deep-marine, with
123 southward deepening from a narrow continental shelf in the north (Macellari et al., 1989;
124 Malkowski et al., 2013; Sickmann et al., 2018) to bathyal conditions in the south (Biddle et al.,

125 1986). Shoaling of the Upper Cretaceous marine depocenter led to shallow-marine and deltaic
126 sedimentation that persisted until Paleocene time (Macellari et al., 1989; Malumián and
127 Caramés, 1997; Romans et al., 2011; Schwartz and Graham, 2015b; George et al., 2019). Thrust
128 front advancement of the Patagonian retroarc thrust belt promoted an eastward shift of the
129 foreland deposition in Paleocene-Miocene time (Fosdick et al., 2011). The primary sediment
130 sources to the Magallanes Basin include the Mesozoic-Cenozoic Southern Patagonian Batholith
131 and related volcanics, Mesozoic basinal rocks of the Rocas Verdes Basin, and to a lesser extent,
132 Paleozoic metamorphic rocks (Fig. 1). The proximity of the basin to an active magmatic arc
133 throughout its history has resulted in intercalated volcanic ashes and abundant magmatically
134 derived zircons proven useful for assessing controls on sedimentation, with prior focus on the
135 Cretaceous strata (Fildani et al., 2003; Bernhardt et al., 2012; Schwartz et al., 2016; Sickmann et
136 al., 2018).

137 By middle Cenozoic time or earlier, most low-lying regions of eastern South America
138 were undergoing retreat of marine seaways during uplift of the Andes. In contrast, most of the
139 eastern Patagonian foreland remained largely submerged in shallow marine and transitional
140 depositional environments, with a structurally complicated development of the Magallanes and
141 Malvinas foreland depocenters related to the oroclinal curved plate boundary with the Scotia
142 plate (Ghiglione et al., 2010, 2016) and tectonic separation of Antarctica from South America
143 continents during opening of the Drake Passage (Lagabriele et al., 2009; Houben et al., 2013). In
144 the Última Esperanza District of the Magallanes Basin, (Chile), Cenozoic strata are
145 disconformable on Maastrichtian tide-influenced shelf-edge deltaic Dorotea Formation
146 (Hünicken, 1955; Biddle et al., 1986; Schwartz and Graham, 2015b; Manríquez et al., 2019).
147 However, the timing and extent of this unconformity and its geologic significance is poorly

148 understood given limited chronology and stratigraphic correlation along the basin axis. In our
149 study area (Fig. 1), the Dorotea Formation is unconformably overlain by the laterally
150 discontinuous Paleocene Cerro Dorotea Formation (Hünicken, 1955; Malumián and Caramés,
151 1997) and overlying Eocene estuarine and subaqueous deltaic Man Aike/ Río Turbio Formations.
152 (Hünicken, 1955; Otero et al., 2012; Ugalde, 2014; Schwartz and Graham, 2015a). Geological
153 observations in Brunswick Peninsula, Isla Riesco, and Río Figueroa shows that this Paleogene
154 stratigraphic separation decreases southward through Tierra del Fuego, where continuous
155 sedimentation occurred until Miocene time (Olivero and Malumián, 2008; Sánchez et al., 2010).

156 A key stratigraphic unit within our study area is the Río Turbio Formation, which is
157 characterized by glauconitic shallow-marine to lagoonal sandstone, siltstone, claystone, coquina,
158 and interbedded minable coal seams (Malumián and Caramés, 1997; Rodríguez Raising, 2010;
159 Nullo and Combina, 2011) and fossil assemblages of tropical flora, palynomorphs, and marine
160 invertebrates (Hünicken, 1955; Schweitzer et al., 2012). Debate persists on the depositional age
161 of the Río Turbio Formation, with early biostratigraphic studies reporting Eocene through
162 Miocene (Riccardi and Rolleri, 1980) or exclusively Eocene biozones (Malumián and Caramés,
163 1997; González Estebenet et al., 2016). This depositional unit records high-latitude organic-rich
164 shallow marine and transitional deposition. Therefore, its age is highly relevant for
165 understanding paleoenvironmental conditions and tectonic influences on sedimentation during
166 past climate optima.

167 The Río Turbio Formation is unconformably overlain by the Río Guillermo Formation, a
168 mostly fluvial sandstone, conglomerate, and coaly claystone with notable abundant silicified tree
169 trunks preserved in life position (Hünicken, 1955; Malumián and Caramés, 1997; Rodríguez

170 Raising, 2010; Leonard, 2017). Previous workers have proposed an upper Eocene to early
171 Oligocene age for the Río Guillermo Formation (Malumián et al., 2000; Ramos, 2005; Rodríguez
172 Raising, 2010; Vento et al., 2017). Fluvial sedimentation in the Magallanes Basin was briefly
173 interrupted by a shallow marine incursion, resulting in sandstone and mudstone deposits of the
174 Estancia 25 de Mayo Formation (Cuitiño and Scasso, 2010; Cuitiño et al., 2012) and coeval
175 informal units (“Estratos de Río del Oro”). This unit has been correlated to the distal Monte León
176 Formation along the Atlantic coast that, together, record, the *Leonense* marine incursion of the
177 *Patagonian Sea* at this latitude (Ameghino, 1906; Parras et al., 2008, 2012). The overlying Santa
178 Cruz Formation marks the last phase of major sedimentation and fluvial deposition in the
179 Patagonian Andes ca. 19-16 Ma, prior to regional surface uplift and incision of the foreland basin
180 (Furque and Camacho, 1972; Bostelmann et al., 2013; Cuitiño et al., 2016).

181 **DETRITAL U-Pb GEOCHRONOLOGY**

182 **Sampling and Analytical Methods**

183 We collected twelve sandstone samples from the Paleocene – Miocene outcrop belt
184 exposed near Cerro Castillo township, Chile, and Estancia Cancha Carrera, Argentina, townships
185 in Patagonia (Fig. 1) from previously studied stratigraphic sections (Malumián and Caramés,
186 1997; Rodríguez Raising, 2010; Leonard, 2017). Sample information and locations are outlined
187 in Table 1. Detrital zircons were extracted from ~5 kg medium-grained sandstone hand-samples
188 using standard mineral separation techniques, including crushing and grinding, fractionation of
189 magnetic minerals with a Frantz isodynamic magnetic separator, and settling through heavy
190 liquids to exclude phases with densities less than 3.3 g/cm³. Final zircon separates were mounted
191 in epoxy resin together with fragments of the Sri Lanka standard zircon. The mounts were

192 polished to a depth of ~ 20 μm , CL and BSE imaged, and cleaned prior to isotopic analysis. U-Pb
193 geochronology of zircons was conducted by laser ablation multicollector inductively coupled
194 plasma mass spectrometry (LA-MC-ICPMS) using a Photon Machines Analyte G2 excimer laser
195 using a spot diameter of 30 μm at the Arizona LaserChron Center (Gehrels et al., 2008; Gehrels,
196 2011). Analytical methods and data are available in the Data Repository.

197 Preferred calculated U-Pb ages use the ^{204}Pb corrected $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ratio for <900 Ma
198 grains and the ^{204}Pb corrected $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$ ratio for >900 Ma grains. Uncertainties shown in these
199 tables are at the 1σ level, and include only measurement errors. Analyses that are $>20\%$
200 discordant and 5% reverse discordant (by comparison of $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$ ages) were
201 excluded from provenance interpretations and maximum depositional age interpretations. Pb*/U
202 concordia diagrams (Fig. A1) and probability density plots (Figs. A2 and A3) were generated
203 using the routines in Isoplot (Ludwig, 2008). The age-probability diagrams show each age and
204 its uncertainty (for measurement error only) as a normal distribution, and sum all ages from a
205 sample into a single curve. Probability density plots for individual samples are presented in
206 Figures A2 and A3, and compiled formation-level datasets are shown in Figure 2. For samples
207 that yielded youngest age groups that could represent conceivable maximum depositional ages,
208 we calculated error-weighted mean ages based on the following criteria: age clusters contained at
209 least two overlapping concordant grains at 2σ uncertainty (Fig. 3; Table 1). For published
210 samples from the Punta Barrosa, Cerro Toro, Tres Pasos, and Dorotea Formations (Figs. 2 and
211 4), we recalculated relative probability density curves from published U-Pb geochronological
212 data (Fildani et al., 2003; Romans et al., 2010; Fosdick et al., 2011, 2015; Bernhardt et al., 2012).

213 **Results and Interpretations**

214 Detrital zircon U-Pb geochronology results (1,579 dated grains) from the Cerro Castillo –
215 Cancha Carrera area reveal distinctive age groups in variable proportions up-section (Fig. 2): (1)
216 Cenozoic age clusters that include early Miocene-Oligocene (20-30 Ma), Eocene (33-45 Ma),
217 and Paleocene (60-65 Ma) ages; (2) a range of Cretaceous ages with clusters at ca. 66-80 Ma,
218 and 80-136 Ma (3) a Late Jurassic – earliest Cretaceous age group (136-175 Ma), (4) smaller
219 proportions of Devonian-Permian ages (250-420 Ma), (5) early Paleozoic and Mesoproterozoic
220 ages (420-1600 Ma), and (6) few Mesoproterozoic and older grains. Cenozoic and Cretaceous
221 zircon grains are mostly large ($>100\ \mu\text{m}$), euhedral to subhedral, magmatically zoned zircons. In
222 contrast, Jurassic zircons are mostly small ($<60\ \mu\text{m}$ in width), subangular or broken fragments of
223 long and narrow volcanic crystals. Paleozoic and Proterozoic grains are mostly small ($<50\ \mu\text{m}$)
224 subrounded to rounded grains.

225 ***Cerro Dorotea Formation***

226 Detrital geochronology from four stratigraphic horizons (649 grains) within the mapped
227 Cerro Dorotea Formation yields major age groups between 60-66 Ma, 74-115 Ma, 123-160 Ma,
228 473-630 Ma, 960-1130 Ma, and fewer early Paleozoic and Proterozoic zircons. The lowest
229 sample (15LDC05) collected from the base of the formation yields an MDA of $65.8 \pm 1.3\ \text{Ma}$.
230 The middle samples (14AVDZ1 and 14AVDZ1), collected from thick trough cross-bedded tan
231 and orangish brown sandstone with interbedded siltstone and coal-bearing mudstone, yield
232 MDAs of $61.9 \pm 0.3\ \text{Ma}$ and 60.5 ± 0.8 , respectively (Fig. 3). The stratigraphically highest level
233 was sampled twice in the exact location, ~3 m below the top of the formation (14AVDZ3 +
234 15LDC02) yields a MDA of $60.2 \pm 1.3\ \text{Ma}$.

235 ***Lower member of the Río Turbio Formation***

236 Three samples (413 grains) collected from the overlying greenish gray and brown
237 glauconitic sandstone units, interpreted as subaqueous deltaic deposits, yield similar zircon U-Pb
238 age distributions with a pronounced Eocene peak, two Late Cretaceous age clusters, and few
239 Jurassic ages (Fig. 2). Estimation of MDAs from the youngest zircon population indicates
240 sedimentation of the basal glauconitic sandstone by ca. 47.1 ± 2.7 Ma (14LDC-DZ4) and the
241 overlying brown deltaic sandstone unit by 46.3 ± 1.3 Ma (14LDC-DZ2). The uppermost sample
242 collected from a glauconitic sandstone at the top of the exposed unit yields a youngest age cluster
243 with a MDA of 41.3 ± 0.3 Ma (17CCRT2-29).

244 ***Upper member of the Río Turbio Formation***

245 Three detrital zircon U-Pb geochronology samples (312 grains) from fossiliferous and
246 highly bioturbated marine strata of the upper member of the Río Turbio Formation yield robust
247 age populations between 29-45 Ma, 63-109, 113-137 Ma, 218-288 Ma, and few Late Jurassic
248 grains (Fig. 2). Proterozoic grains are noticeably lacking compared to underlying detrital age
249 distributions. Youngest age clusters from the bottom of the unit yield a MDA ca. 36.6 ± 0.3 Ma
250 (RT28DZ08) and 35.4 ± 0.2 Ma (RT28DZ07). At the top of the ~230 m thick succession,
251 organic-rich mudstones below the contact with the Río Guillermo Formation yield a MDA of ca.
252 26.6 ± 0.2 Ma (RT28DZ05).

253 ***Río Guillermo Formation***

254 Two samples (205 grains) collected from the base of the Río Guillermo Formation yield
255 U-Pb age peaks between 23-26 Ma, 33-36 Ma, a broad range of Mid to Late Cretaceous age
256 between 72-128 Ma, 149-154 Ma, 275-304 Ma, and lesser numbers of Proterozoic grains (Fig.

257 2). The youngest zircon age peak from the bottom of the formation gives a MDA of ca. 24.3 ±
258 0.6 Ma (RT28DZ06). A second sample collected from the top of the Río Guillermo Formation,
259 directly below a dated volcanic tuff (21.7 Ma zircon U-Pb SHRIMP-RG, Fosdick et al., 2011),
260 yields a MDA of 22.8 ± 0.2 Ma (JCF09-237B).

261 The sampled section exhibits an upsection younging of zircons, increase in Cenozoic and
262 Late Cretaceous zircons, and decrease in all zircon age groups older than ca. 135 Ma (Fig. 2).
263 The most pronounced loss of Late Jurassic-Early Cretaceous (~20% to ~6%) and Paleozoic (40-
264 17% to 7%), and Mesoproterozoic-Archean (20% to 8%) is observed across the Paleocene Cerro
265 Dorotea Formation – middle Eocene Río Turbio Formation contact (Fig. 2 and Fig DZTREND).
266 Only the Río Guillermo Formation exhibits a slight covarying increase in both the Late Jurassic-
267 Early Cretaceous group and Paleozoic age group. These percentage trends persist, even when
268 accounting for the large influx of Cenozoic grains, as shown by the normalized zircon age groups
269 >66 Ma (Fig. 4).

270 **DISCUSSION**

271 **Revised Timing of Foreland Sedimentation**

272 New geochronological constraints on depositional ages in the Magallanes Basin suggest
273 significantly younger timing for middle Cenozoic inland sea transgressions and onset of
274 exclusively fluvial sedimentation in the study area (Fig. 5). These results redefine our
275 understanding of the genetic relationship between sedimentation and changes in relative sea
276 level, climate, and phases of deformation in the Andean orogenic belt (Fig. 6). Under the
277 prevailing view, there are four major Cenozoic Atlantic transgressions in the Magallanes Basin

278 of Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego: Maastrichtian-Danian, late Middle Eocene, Late Oligocene –
279 Early Miocene (*Juliense*), and late Early Miocene (*Leonense*) (Fig. 6; Malumián and Náñez,
280 2011; Parras et al., 2012; Perkins et al., 2012). In the proximal Magallanes Basin near Cerro
281 Castillo (Fig. 1), the Maastrichtian deltaic Dorotea Formation is overlain by the laterally
282 discontinuous Paleocene Cerro Dorotea Formation and overlying Eocene estuarine and deltaic
283 Río Turbio Formations (Fig. 5; Hünicken, 1955; Malumián and Caramés, 1997; Rodríguez
284 Raising, 2010). Debate persists on the age of the Río Turbio Formation (Malumián and Caramés,
285 1997; Rodríguez Raising, 2010; Schweitzer et al., 2012), with early biostratigraphic studies
286 reporting Eocene through Miocene (Riccardi and Rolleri, 1980) or exclusively Eocene biozones
287 (Malumián and Caramés, 1997; Guerstein et al., 2014). Based on such age assignments for these
288 strata, many workers have interpreted the upper Cerro Dorotea through Río Turbio deposits
289 within the paleoclimatic context of Paleogene climatic optima such as the Paleocene-Eocene
290 Thermal Maximum and Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (Fig. 6; e.g., Nullo and Combina,
291 2011). Our data support this age (65-60 Ma) and paleoclimatic interpretation for the Cerro
292 Dorotea Formation through *only* the basal portion of the lower Río Turbio Formation, which is
293 Lutetian (47-41 Ma) in age (Fig. 5). The Cerro Dorotea Formation is recognized in Argentina
294 and assigned to the Danian mostly based on the foraminiferal content (Malumián and Náñez,
295 2011), but our radiometric age suggest a later, Selandian, maximum depositional age, giving the
296 first formal confirmation of the occurrence of this Paleocene lithostratigraphic unit in Chile.

297 The subaqueous deltaic lower Río Turbio Formation contains detrital zircons that indicate
298 Eocene sedimentation starting at ca. 47 Ma and continued through at least ca. 41 Ma (Fig. 5).
299 These ages are compatible with Eocene leaf impressions, shark teeth, and marine invertebrate
300 fossils recovered from these deposits (Griffin, 1991; Otero et al., 2013; Panti, 2016). Moreover,

301 these strata show similar age, sedimentary facies, fossil content, and mineral composition to
302 those of the Man Aike Formation near Lago Argentino (Casadío et al., 2009) and Sierra
303 Baguales (Le Roux et al., 2010; Ugalde, 2014; Gutiérrez et al., 2017), pointing to stratigraphic
304 correlation of a regional, renewed depositional phase of foreland sedimentation across the
305 Paleocene unconformity surface.

306 In contrast, our findings from the upper Río Turbio Formation show substantially
307 younger ages ca. 37-26 Ma (Fig. 5), indicating that these deposits are not associated with
308 early/middle Eocene climatic events. Rather, they record latest Eocene through Oligocene
309 paleoenvironmental and tectonic conditions (Fig. 6). These ages are notably younger than the ca.
310 46-39 Ma (Lutetian-Bartonian) dinocyst biostratigraphic ages from nearby sections in the Río
311 Turbio Formation (Guerstein et al., 2014; González Estebenet et al., 2016), necessitating a
312 potential revision to the chronostratigraphy in this area in light of our new radiometric data. The
313 laterally discontinuous outcrops and lack of clear marker beds allow for the possibility that these
314 sections are not chronostratigraphically equivalent with our sites. Poor microfaunal preservation
315 within the Río Turbio Formation further challenges the comparison. We suggest that a latest
316 Eocene through Oligocene age (this work) for the upper Río Turbio Formation is more
317 compatible with paleobotanical data that suggest mesothermal conditions at high latitude, based
318 on the abundance and diversity of fossilized *Nothofagus* morphotype leaf impressions and wood
319 fragments (Hünicken, 1955). Whereas the warm early Eocene conditions in Patagonia favored
320 high tropical (megathermal) plant diversity (Wilf et al., 2003; Panti, 2016), the Eocene-
321 Oligocene transition ushered forth increased diversification of meso- and microthermal floral
322 elements across southern Gondwana, including the widespread dominion of genus *Nothofagus*
323 (Ortíz-Jaureguizar and Cladera, 2006; Acosta et al., 2014).

324 Our younger basin age model suggests that the deepening to offshore conditions in the
325 upper Río Turbio Formation ca. 37 Ma coincides with basin subsidence and deepening observed
326 in Tierra del Fuego concurrent with a late Eocene marine transgression (Fig. 6) and the
327 beginning of the Antarctic ice sheet expansion (Zachos et al., 2001; Francis et al., 2008).
328 Sustained shallow-marine conditions along the margin of the Magallanes Basin between ca. 37
329 and 26 Ma, despite Oligocene eustatic sea level fall suggests an additional tectonic mechanism
330 for marine conditions. More broadly, we suggest that the upper Río Turbio Formation marks a
331 phase of overall Oligocene basin deepening, eastward loading of the foreland, and diachronous
332 marine flooding driven by topographic loading from the fold-and-thrust belt (Fosdick et al.,
333 2011) and coeval transpression across the North Scotia Ridge (Lagabrielle et al., 2009) (Fig. 6).
334 It follows that the marine *Juliense* deposits along the Atlantic coast (Parras et al., 2012) – and the
335 subsurface marine sequence of the El Huemul Formation (Paredes et al., 2015) on the southern
336 extreme of the San Jorge Basin – could record the diachronous distal record of tectonically
337 driven basin flexure and marine flooding of Patagonia. Tectonic deepening in southern Patagonia
338 is consistent with increases in Nd isotope ratios that suggest deepening episodes in the Drake
339 Passage at 37 Ma and 34 Ma interpreted from increases in Nd isotope ratios (Livermore et al.,
340 2007). However, relative sea level highs around Antarctica due to near-field processes during
341 glaciation (e.g., Stocchi et al., 2013) may have also affected sea level in southeastern Patagonia
342 prior to a global sea level decrease through the Oligocene.

343 New geochronological data from the overlying fluvial Río Guillermo Formation suggest
344 its deposition took place between latest Chattian through Aquitanian time ca. 24-21 Ma (Fig. 5).
345 These radiometric results revise the previously accepted biostratigraphic upper Eocene to lower
346 Oligocene age (Malumián and Caramés, 1997; Vento et al., 2017) and the interpretation that the

347 Río Guillermo Formation predates a rejuvenated phase of Andean orogenesis. These coarse-
348 grained strata reflect the first Cenozoic fully continental conditions on the Patagonian foreland in
349 the area. The onset of fluvial deposition coincides with ca. 27-21 Ma fault motion on the Río El
350 Ríncon-Castillo thrusts (Fosdick et al., 2011), suggesting these deposits reflect increased supply
351 of tectonically generated sediment (c.f., Armitage et al., 2011) during structural uplift and
352 unroofing of the Patagonian orogen. This interpretation is consistent with published subsurface
353 data just to the south of our study area (Fig. 1) that record latest Eocene through early Miocene
354 prograding clastic strata south of our study area (Gallardo, 2015).

355 **REORGANIZATION OF SEDIMENT PROVENANCE AND ROUTING**

356 Detrital provenance data from the Upper Cretaceous – Miocene basin infill track changes
357 in relative proportions of zircon age groups for pre-Cenozoic age groups (Fig. 2). A comparison
358 with the Upper Cretaceous basin record and our new data show the upsection rise and subsequent
359 loss of Jurassic – Early Cretaceous (J-K1) grains (blue wedge), a progressive loss of Precambrian
360 and Paleozoic grains (browns and pink wedges), and an overall increase in Late Cretaceous and
361 Cenozoic igneous sources (gray and white wedges). Notably, the Paleocene Cerro Dorotea
362 Formation maintains similar provenance and gross depositional character to the underlying
363 Dorotea Formation. This similarity indicates little to no drainage divide reorganization nor
364 exposure of new sources during southward building of the continental shelf (Schwartz and
365 Graham, 2015a) from Maastrichtian to earliest Cenozoic time. Moreover, this observation is
366 noteworthy because of the discontinuous nature of the Cerro Dorotea Formation along the frontal
367 monocline, which has invited debate regarding its original lateral extent and subsequent erosion
368 versus heterogeneous depositional footprint (e.g., Fosdick et al., 2015). The Paleocene foreland

369 basin phase along this sector of the basin may have once been more geographically widespread
370 prior to erosional removal and resumed deposition with the middle Eocene Río Turbio Formation
371 that forms the Paleogene unconformity (Fig. 6).

372 The largest shift in sediment provenance signature occurred across the Paleocene Cerro
373 Dorotea and the middle Eocene Río Turbio Formation boundary, marked by a conspicuous
374 decline of Late Jurassic and Paleozoic zircons (Figs. 2 and 4). Zircons of these ages are sourced
375 from hinterland thrust sheets (Fig. 1) that expose the Upper Jurassic volcanic Tobífera Formation
376 (Pankhurst et al., 2000; Calderón et al., 2007) and Paleozoic basement (Hervé et al., 2003;
377 Lacassie et al., 2006; Pankhurst et al., 2006). The concurrent increase in Cenozoic zircons from
378 the Patagonian Batholith may act to swamp out the signal from these older zircon sources.
379 However, a comparison of relative proportion of pre-66 Ma age groups show similar trends in
380 the rise and decline of the Jurassic and Paleozoic age groups (Fig. 4). We interpret this initial
381 shift as likely a consequence of tectonic changes in sediment routing between ca. 60 and 44 Ma,
382 when the basin became topographically isolated from northwestern hinterland sources during
383 deformation and widening across the external thrust-belt.

384 Our age control of the Paleogene unconformity improves upon the work of Fosdick et al.
385 (2015) who compared provenance and burial histories of the Dorotea Formation with the upper
386 Río Turbio Formation, but lacked higher provenance resolution from intervening deposits.
387 Evidence of coeval basin burial thermal heating (Fosdick et al., 2015; Süssenberger et al., 2017)
388 in the central thrust belt and development of a basin-wide foreland unconformity is consistent
389 with this timeframe. New provenance data sheds light on the timing of Tenerife thrusting (Fig. 6)
390 and further supports an Eocene phase of orogenesis that is well-documented in the Fuegian

391 Andes (Barbeau et al., 2009), but remains enigmatic in the Southern Patagonian Andes. This
392 finding suggests that, rather than being an inactive foreland basin during this time (Sachse et al.,
393 2015; Horton and Fuentes, 2016), a more continuous fold-thrust belt and basin depocenter
394 connected the Patagonian and Fuegian Andes during development of the Fuegian orocline
395 (Ghiglione et al., 2010).

396 These upsection trends continue into Oligocene time when sediment provenance of the
397 upper Río Turbio Formation reflects predominantly Cretaceous and younger age peaks.
398 Prominent Eocene and Late Cretaceous age clusters include two new populations – denoted here
399 as K4 (ca. 80-66 Ma) and P2 (ca. 20-35 Ma) – that are not recognized in batholith geochronology
400 datasets (Hervé et al., 2007) and extend the record of pulsed activity of arc magmatism (Fig. 2).
401 By ca. 26 Ma and the end of the marine sedimentation at this latitude, detrital zircons derived
402 from the Late Jurassic Tobífera thrust sheets (Fig. 1), which were once a dominant sediment
403 source to the Cenomanian-Paleocene basin, are virtually absent in the basin fill. Synchronous
404 with this change in depositional environment is a marked provenance shift to increased mafic
405 volcanic and recycled sedimentary sources, suggesting the change in environment is linked to
406 upland tectonic/climate changes with a lesser control from low-stand in global sea level
407 (Leonard, 2017). This timing of transition to fully continental sedimentation coincides with
408 deformation in the fold-and-thrust belt at Río El Rincón thrust and related structures (Fosdick et
409 al., 2011). We suggest the Río Guillermo Formation represents tectonically generated sediment
410 (e.g., Horton et al., 2004; Armitage et al., 2011) associated with this phase of deformation.

411 Fluvial sedimentation was temporarily disrupted by flooding of the foreland basin by the
412 *Leonense* marine incursion (Ameghino, 1906; Parras et al., 2012; Cuitiño et al., 2012), which

413 may have been further enhanced by subsidence loading during Toro thrust faulting (Fig. 6).
414 Resumed fluvial deposition of the Santa Cruz Formation is classically cited as the molasse
415 deposits of the main phase of Miocene Andean orogenesis and surface uplift (e.g., Blisniuk et al.,
416 2005; Ramos, 2005; Bostelmann et al., 2013; Cuitiño et al., 2016), Published detrital
417 geochronology from the overlying middle Miocene Santa Cruz Formation yields dominantly
418 (>70%) Late Cretaceous zircons (Fosdick et al., 2015). Based on modeling of detrital zircon U-
419 Pb-He thermochronological data, Fosdick et al. (2015) suggested these grains were recycled
420 from the Upper Cretaceous clastic wedge rather than direct sourcing of the Mesozoic batholith.
421 Our data from underlying strata corroborate this interpretation and capture a more complete
422 transition of provenance loss of the Jurassic and Paleozoic age groups.

423 ***General provenance and sediment recycling***

424 The rise and subsequent isolation of diagnostic sediment sources or detrital zircon age
425 groups bears on resolving complexities from sediment recycling (Schmitt and Steidtmann, 1990;
426 Dickinson et al., 2009) and variability in zircon fertility (Moecher and Samson, 2006). As such, a
427 geologically diagnostic age source – especially one with smaller and/or more fragile grains (e.g.,
428 volcanics) – is a useful tracer for identifying primary versus recycled sources and constraints on
429 movement of orogenic drainage divides during changes in orogenic wedge behavior. The
430 Eocene-through Oligocene upsection depletion of Jurassic and Paleozoic sources near 51°S,
431 concurrent with sustained dominance of plutonic arc-derived Cretaceous zircons (Fig. 4),
432 suggests recycling of the Cretaceous strata in the Río Turbio Formation and winnowing of the
433 smaller and more fragile Jurassic volcanic and Paleozoic zircons during sediment transport.
434 Moreover, the isolation of hinterland and primary Cretaceous batholith sources requires a

435 cratonward shift in the drainage divide by ca. 44 Ma. This change in sediment routing was
436 followed by subsequent hinterland shift some time after ca. 18 Ma deposition of the final
437 foreland basin phase of sedimentation and development of the Chile Ridge slab window beneath
438 Patagonia (Fig. 6). Today, the hinterland high peaks constitute the Patagonian Andes drainage
439 divide; upland sources to rivers (Pepper et al., 2016) and glacial valleys drain both sides of the
440 Andes and Tobífera thrusts (Fig. 1).

441 **SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS**

442 In summary, new estimates of maximum depositional ages from detrital geochronology
443 data require a revised chronostratigraphy of the middle Cenozoic strata. Our study confirms a
444 Selandian maximum depositional age for the Cerro Dorotea Formation, previously constrained
445 by biostratigraphy to the Danian. Sediment provenance data from the Cenozoic Magallanes
446 Basin at 51°S track the decline of once prominent hinterland sources between ca. 60-44 Ma. We
447 suggest a major change in sediment routing and paleogeography during this time that we
448 attribute to a phase of Eocene orogenesis and uplift of a topographic barrier that isolated the
449 basin from Paleozoic and Late Jurassic-Early Cretaceous sources (Fig. 6). We also identify a
450 previously unrecognized early Oligocene period of marine deposition from ca. 36 to 26 Ma in the
451 proximal foredeep depozone (upper Río Turbio Formation), followed by a major change to
452 nonmarine sedimentation ca. 24 Ma. Here, we propose that the upper Río Turbio and Río
453 Guillermo Formations, together, reflect a genetically linked stratigraphic pair that show early
454 Oligocene basin deepening and subsequent latest Oligocene – Early Miocene deposition of
455 coarse-grained sediments derived from the Patagonian hinterland (Fig. 6).

456 Moreover, an eastward incursion of an embayed foredeep trough may link the upper Río
457 Turbio Formation to the distal San Julián, suggesting a tectonic loading origin for the *Juliense*
458 phase of the Patagonian Sea. Additional stratigraphic correlation to the Atlantic margin is needed
459 to test this hypothesis. The late Oligocene – early Miocene synchronicity of (1) proximal fluvial
460 facies (Río Guillermo Formation) and distal marine facies (*Juliense* and *Leonense*), (2) active
461 orogenic deformation (Río El Rincon and Toro thrust faults), and (3) sustained global sea level
462 highstand, taken together, indicates high sediment supply during shortening of the thrust-belt
463 (Fig. 6). In the case of the Oligocene – middle Miocene Patagonian record, we suggest that the
464 combined effects of tectonics – flexural loading of the upper plate and increased sediment supply
465 from actively exhuming orogenic sources – are primary drivers for marine transgressions.

466 Rejuvenated Late Oligocene through middle Miocene retroarc foreland sedimentation in
467 southern Patagonia – and elsewhere along the Andean margin (e.g., Carrapa et al., 2005; Perez
468 and Horton, 2014; Horton and Fuentes, 2016; Fosdick et al., 2017) – may signal a Cordilleran-
469 scale upper plate transition to a dominantly compressional margin and active retroarc foreland
470 basin systems (Horton, 2018; Chen et al., 2019) that include the southern Patagonian Andes
471 sector. This response was likely due to increased plate convergence (Somoza and Ghidella,
472 2012) and initiation of the Nazca plate subduction regime (e.g., Barckhausen et al., 2008). In
473 Patagonia, regional retroarc deformation and basin development may have been enhanced by
474 three-dimensional stress from transpressional tectonics along the North Scotia Ridge (Bry et al.,
475 2004; Ramos and Ghiglione, 2008; Lagabrielle et al., 2009). These findings underscore central
476 requirements of detailed chronology and provenance to develop basin age models and
477 understanding of long-term changes in sources that reflect orogen-scale responses to tectonics,
478 climate, and eustasy.

479 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

480 Research was supported by the U.S. National Science Foundation Award EAR-1649585
481 to JCF, the Robert R. Shrock Foundation at Indiana University, and Project Anillo de
482 Investigación en Ciencia Antártica (ATC-105). T. Schwartz, S. Casadío, and A. Parras
483 contributed to discussions on Patagonian geology. La Cumbre Baguales Geo-Paleontological
484 Park, Hotel Remota, the Torres del Paine Municipality, Hielos Patagónicos and Mountain Travel,
485 at Puerto Natales, and N. Raffer provided logistical support. We thank S.F Alvarez for
486 permission to conduct fieldwork at the Estancia Cancha Carrera. The Arizona LaserChron Center
487 (NSF Award EAR-1338583) provided expert analytical assistance. Reviews on a previous
488 version of the manuscript by David Barbeau, George Dix, Nicholas Perez, and Andrea Stevens
489 Goddard improved the scope and clarity of the work.

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876 TABLE CAPTIONS

877 **Table 1.** Sample information and calculated maximum depositional ages from the Magallanes
878 Basin for detrital zircon U-Pb LA-ICP-MS geochronology.

879 FIGURE CAPTIONS

880 **Figure 1.** (A) Tectonic setting of the Magallanes Basin and other Cenozoic depocenters (yellow)
881 in relation to key southern plate boundary features (after Galeazzi, 1998; Ghiglione et al., 2010;
882 Fosdick et al., 2011). Global Multi-Resolution Topography (GMRT) base map from
883 GeoMapApp©. Black stars denote stratigraphic areas discussed in the text: CC – Cerro Castillo,
884 SJ – San Julian. NP – Nazca plate; NSR – North Scotia Ridge; MFFZ – Magallanes-Fagnano
885 Fault Zone; SFZ – Shackleton Fracture Zone. (B) Location of the Cerro Castillo – Cancha
886 Carrera study area within the Cenozoic Magallanes-Austral Basin outcrop belt along the eastern
887 margins of the Patagonian thrust belt. Geologic map compiled from Malumián et al. (2000),
888 SERNAGEOMIN (2003), and Fosdick et al. (2011). Zircon crystallization ages are summarized
889 from igneous and recycled sediment sources (Fosdick et al., 2015 and references therein).

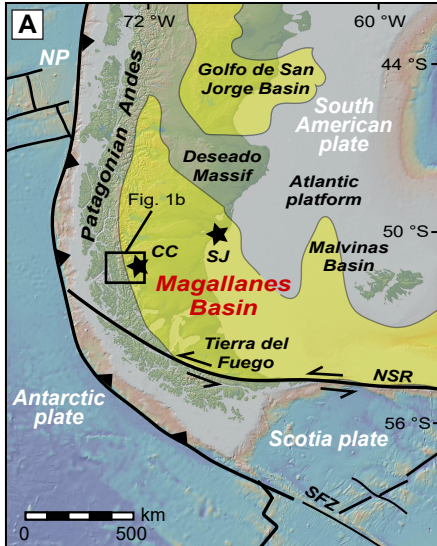
890 **Figure 2.** Detrital zircon U-Pb geochronology data compiled by formation (<600 Ma only),
891 showing probability density plots of Upper Cretaceous through lower Miocene stratigraphy. For
892 each formation, N refers to the number of individual samples included in the formation, followed
893 by number of total grains analyzed. Published data from the Santa Cruz, Dorotea, Tres Pasos,
894 and Punta Barrosa Formations are included for comparison (Fildani et al., 2003; Romans et al.,
895 2010; Bernhardt et al., 2012; Fosdick et al., 2015). Note break in scale at 360-600 Ma and
896 change of scale after 600 Ma. Intrusive age groups after Hervé et al. (2007): N = Neogene, P =
897 Paleogene, K1 = Cretaceous I, K2 = Cretaceous II, K3 = Cretaceous III, and J = Jurassic. PZ =
898 Paleozoic. We identify ‘K4’ and ‘P2’ age groups in our detrital datasets.

899 **Figure 3.** Maximum depositional ages (MDA) interpreted from the youngest detrital zircon U-Pb
900 data from each sample (individual analyses shown at 2σ uncertainty). MDA are the error-
901 weighted mean age ($\pm 2\sigma$ uncertainty) of all grains (n) that define the youngest age cluster
902 represented by the horizontal gray bars.

903 **Figure 4.** Changes in relative proportions of zircon age groups for pre-Cenozoic age groups.
904 Results show upsection rise and subsequent loss of Jurassic – Early Cretaceous (J-K1) grains, a
905 progressive loss of Paleozoic grains, and an overall increase in Paleogene igneous sources. The
906 largest shift in provenance signature occurred across the Paleocene Cerro Dorotea Formation -
907 middle Eocene Río Turbio Formation boundary.

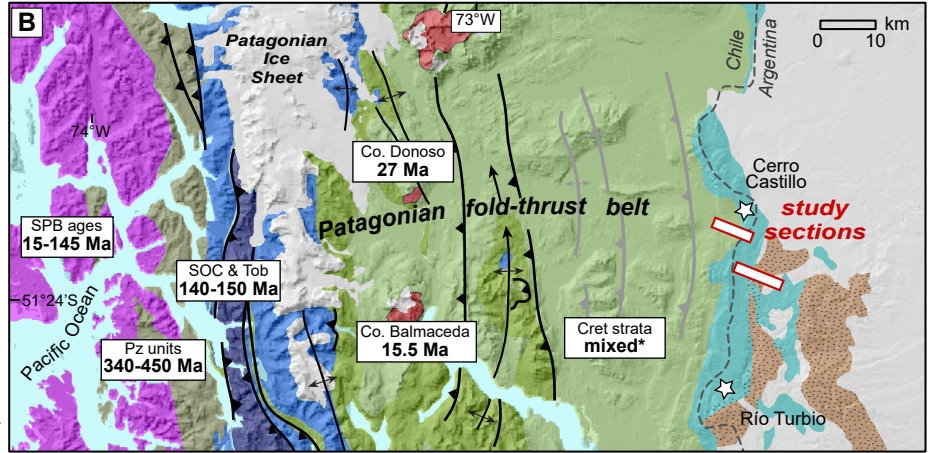
908 **Figure 5.** Summary of new depositional age constraints and paleoenvironmental context in the
909 Magallanes Basin near 51°S. Cenozoic stratigraphy and revised timing of sedimentation based
910 on new maximum depositional ages (MDA) calculated from youngest detrital zircon U-Pb age
911 cluster from each sample.

912 **Figure 6.** Implications for revised timing of sedimentation of the middle Cenozoic Magallanes-
913 Austral Basin strata compared to changes in regional tectonics (Breitsprecher and Thorkelson,
914 2009; Lagabrielle et al., 2009; Fosdick et al., 2011), plate convergence rate (Somoza and
915 Ghidella, 2012), global climate (Zachos et al., 2008), and eustatic sea level (Miller, 2008).
916 Published chronostratigraphy of proximal foothills compiled from Malumián et al. (2000),
917 Malumián and Nández, (2011), Perkins et al. (2012), and references therein. Chronostratigraphy
918 of the San Julián sector of the Atlantic coast from Parras et al. (2008) and (2012). New age
919 estimates and sediment provenance highlight (1) isolation of Jurassic and Paleozoic zircon
920 sources and disruption of the foreland basin system across the Paleogene foreland unconformity,
921 (2) a potential foreland younging transgression caused by flexural deepening during Tenerife
922 thrusting and synchronous basin subsidence in Tierra del Fuego, and (3) accelerated sediment
923 supply of the Río Guillermo Formation linked to retroarc deformation and unroofing along the El
924 Ríncon thrusts.



CC - Cerro Castillo (proximal)
 SJ - San Julián (distal)
 NP - Nazca plate
 NSR - North Scotia Ridge

Trench
 Transform faults



← Batholith → ← Hinterland → ← External fold-thrust belt → ← Proximal basin (Cenozoic) →

Geologic Units and Map Symbols

- Jurassic-Neogene intrusives
 - Jurassic ophiolitic rocks
 - Jurassic silicic synrift volcanics
 - Paleozoic metamorphic rocks
 - Cenozoic continental deposits
 - Cenozoic marine deposits
 - Upper Cretaceous marine deposits
 - Lower Cretaceous post-rift deposits
 - Thrust faults
 - Structures (post 21 Ma)
 - International border
- SPB ages 15-145 Ma zircon U-Pb ages of potential sources

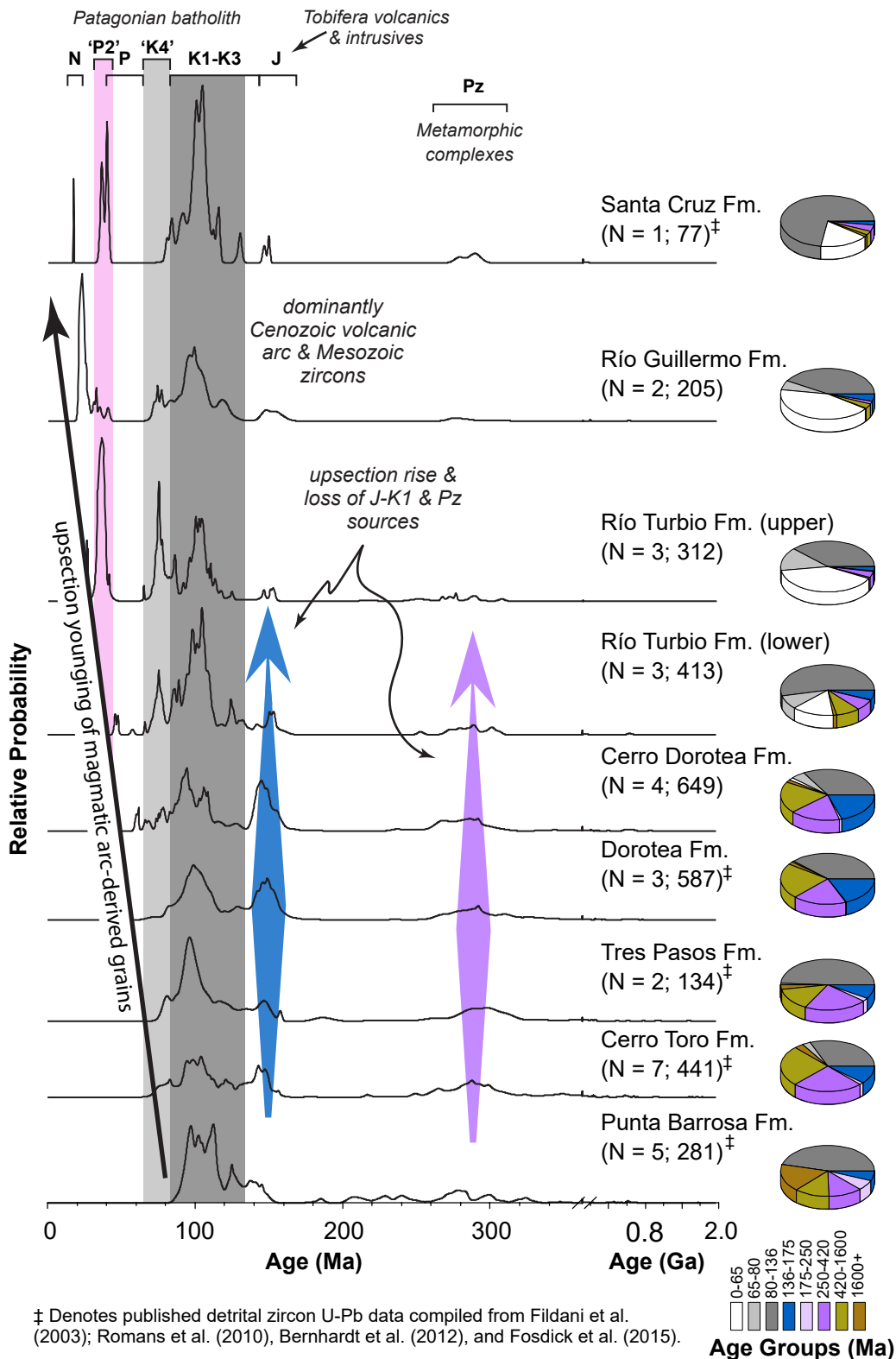


Figure 2. Detrital zircon U-Pb geochronology data compiled by formation (<600 Ma only), showing probability density plots of Upper Cretaceous through lower Miocene stratigraphy. For each formation, N refers to the number of individual samples included in the formation, followed by number of total grains analyzed. Published data from the Santa Cruz, Dorotea, Tres Pasos, and Punta Barrosa Formations are included for comparison (Fildani et al., 2003; Romans et al., 2010; Bernhardt et al., 2012; Fosdick et al., 2015). Note break in scale at 360–600 Ma and change of scale after 600 Ma. Intrusive age groups after Hervé et al. (2007): N = Neogene, P = Paleogene, K1 = Cretaceous I, K2 = Cretaceous II, K3 = Cretaceous III, and J = Jurassic. PZ = Paleozoic. We identify 'K4' and 'P2' age groups in our detrital datasets.

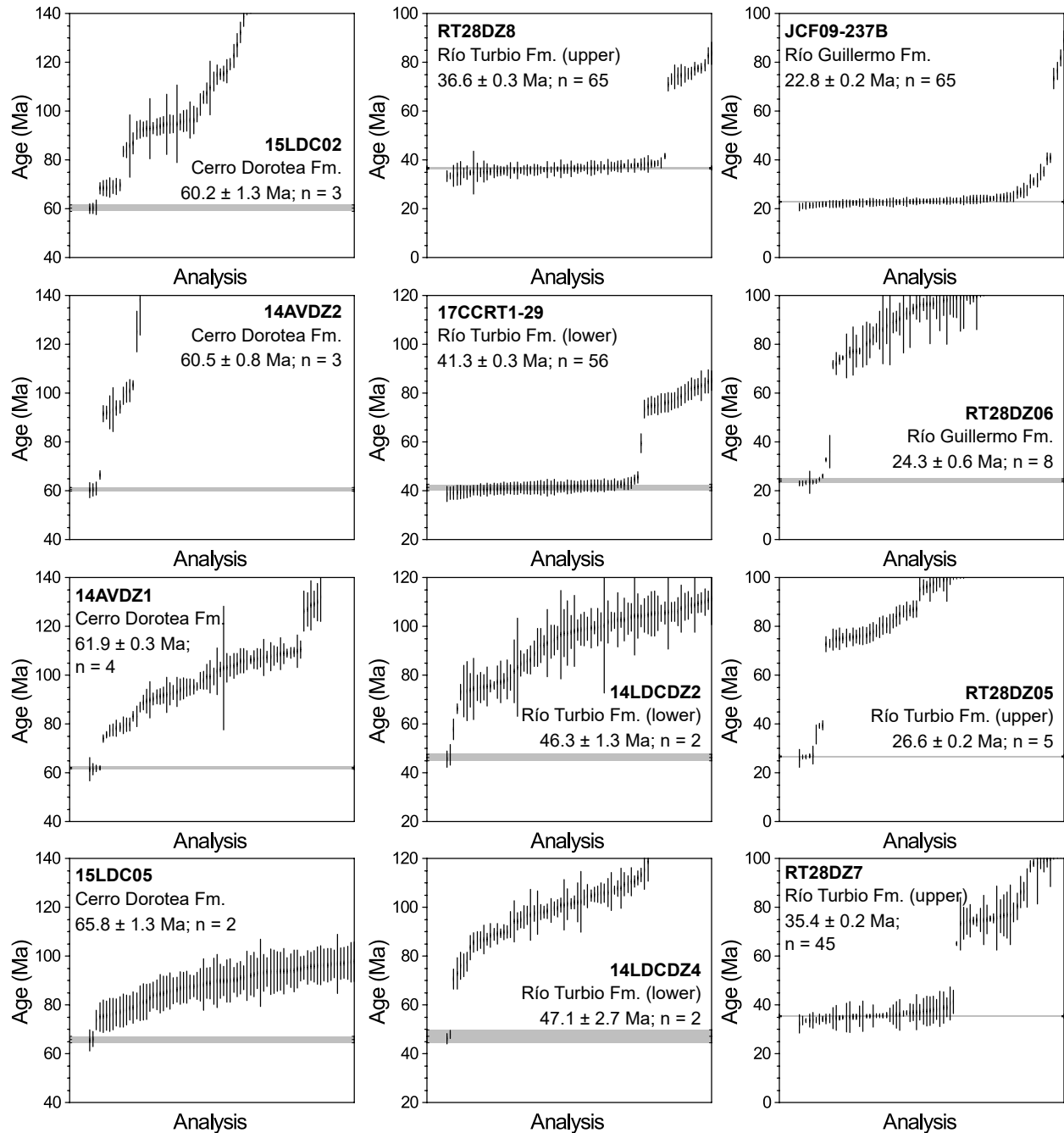


Figure 3. Maximum depositional ages (MDA) interpreted from the youngest detrital zircon U-Pb data from each sample (individual analyses shown at 2σ uncertainty). MDA are the error-weighted mean age ($\pm 2\sigma$ uncertainty) of all grains (n) that define the youngest age cluster represented by the horizontal gray bars.

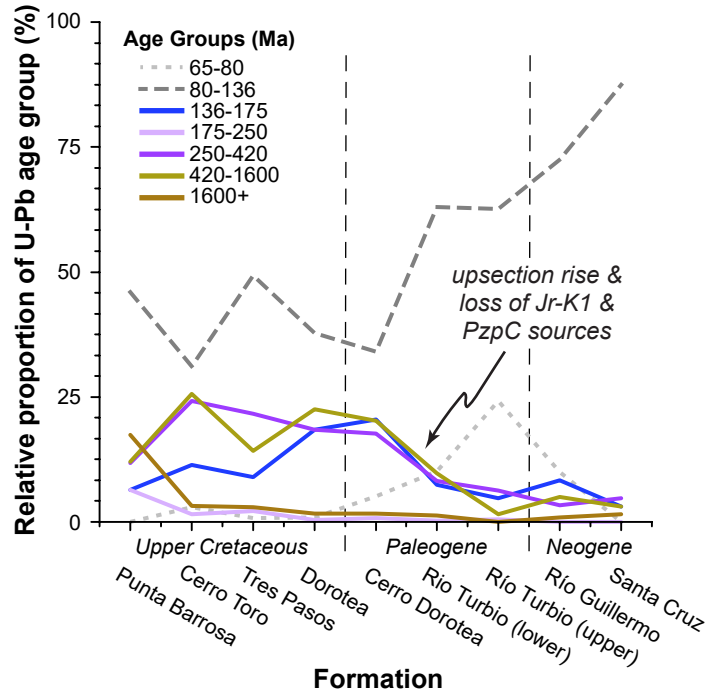


Figure 4. Changes in relative proportions of zircon age groups for pre-Cenozoic age groups. Results show upsection rise and subsequent loss of Jurassic – Early Cretaceous (J-K1) grains, a progressive loss of Paleozoic grains, and an overall increase in Paleogene igneous sources. The largest shift in provenance signature occurred across the Paleocene Cerro Dorotea Formation - middle Eocene Río Turbio Formation boundary.

Chronostratigraphy and composite section at Cerro Castillo and Cancha Carrera

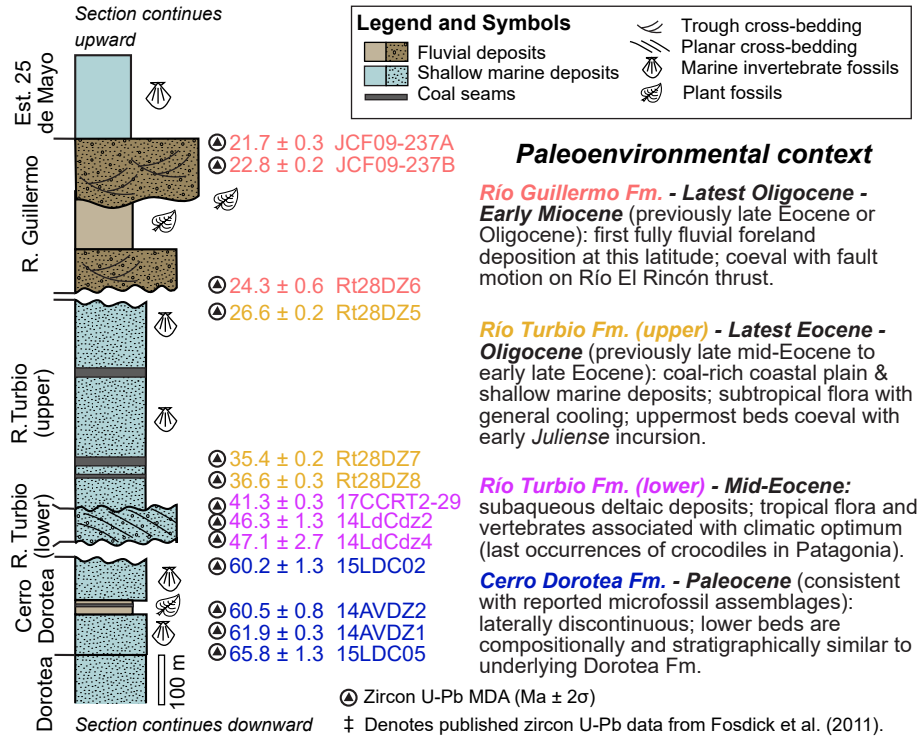


Figure 5. Summary of new depositional age constraints and paleoenvironmental context in the Magallanes Basin near 51°S. Cenozoic stratigraphy and revised timing of sedimentation based on new maximum depositional ages (MDA) calculated from youngest detrital zircon U-Pb age cluster from each sample.

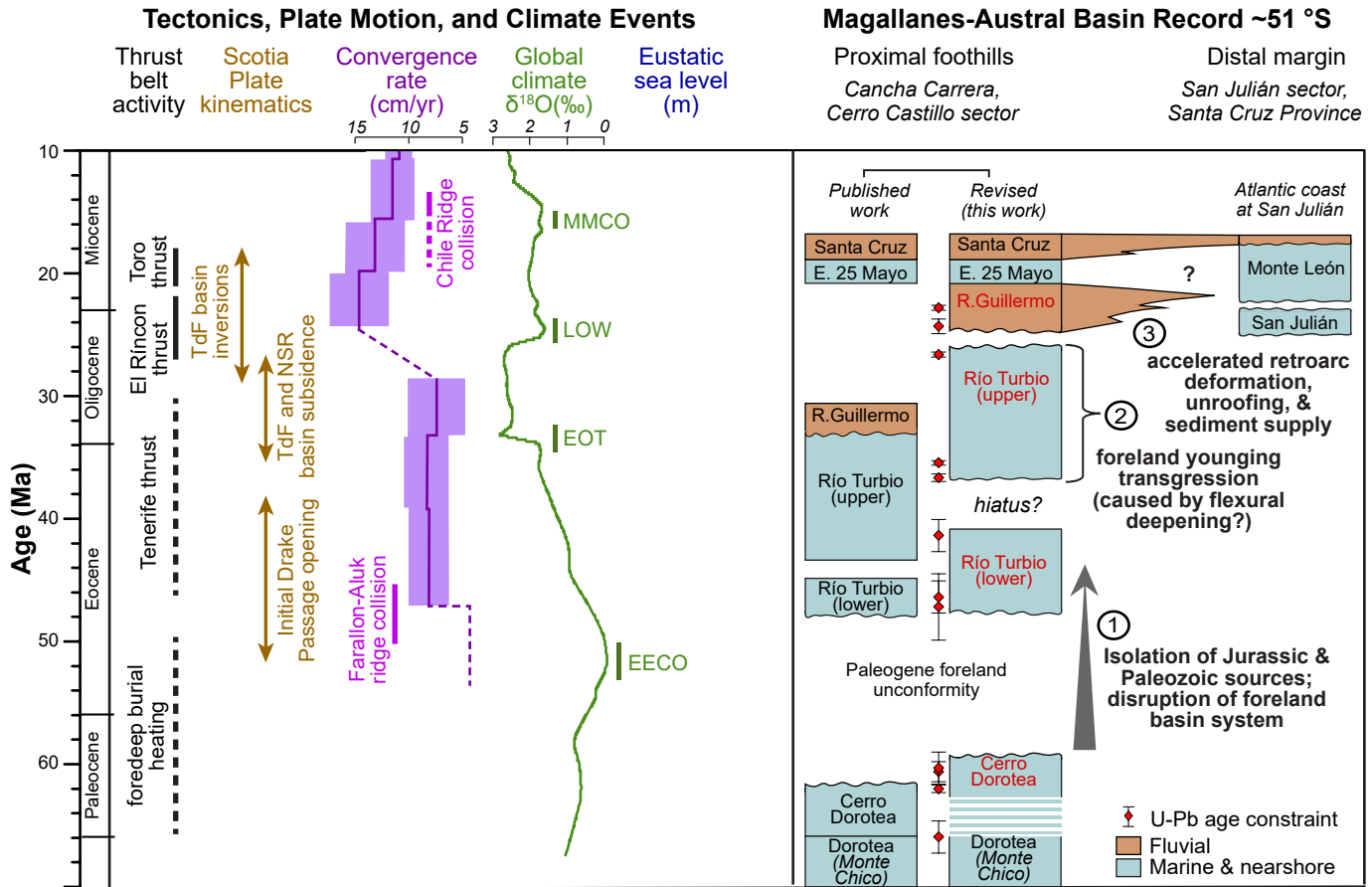


Figure 6. Implications for revised timing of sedimentation of the middle Cenozoic Magallanes-Austral Basin strata compared to changes in regional tectonics (Breitsprecher and Thorkelson, 2009; Lagabrielle et al., 2009; Fosdick et al., 2011), plate convergence rate (Somoza and Ghidella, 2012), global climate (Zachos et al., 2008), and eustatic sea level (Miller, 2008). Published chronostratigraphy of proximal foothills compiled from Malumián et al. (2000), Malumián and Nández, (2011), Perkins et al. (2012), and references therein. Chronostratigraphy of the San Julián sector of the Atlantic coast from Parras et al. (2008) and (2012). New age estimates and sediment provenance highlight (1) isolation of Jurassic and Paleozoic zircon sources and disruption of the foreland basin system across the Paleogene foreland unconformity, (2) a potential foreland younging transgression caused by flexural deepening during Tenerife thrusting and synchronous basin subsidence in Tierra del Fuego, and (3) accelerated sediment supply of the Río Guillermo Formation linked to retroarc deformation and unroofing along the El Rincón thrusts.

TABLE 1. SAMPLE INFORMATION AND CALCULATED MAXIMUM DEPOSITIONAL AGES FROM THE MAGALLANES BASIN FOR DETRITAL ZIRCON U-Pb LA-ICP-MS GEOCHRONOLOGY

Sample	Formation	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°W)	Elevation (m)	# grains analyzed	Interpreted maximum depositional age ($\pm 2\sigma$)
JCF09-237B	Río Guillermo	-51.30338	-72.18670	389	115	22.8 \pm 0.2 Ma (n = 65)
Rt28DZ6	Río Guillermo	-51.31163	-72.22042	346	94	24.3 \pm 0.6 Ma (n = 8)
Rt28DZ5	Río Turbio (upper)	-51.31373	-72.21932	323	103	26.6 \pm 0.5 Ma (n = 5)
Rt28DZ7	Río Turbio (upper)	-51.29761	-72.23581	349	101	35.4 \pm 0.2 Ma (n = 45)
Rt28DZ8	Río Turbio (upper)	-51.29667	-72.23819	282	110	36.6 \pm 0.3 Ma (n = 65)
17CCRT2-29	Río Turbio (lower)	-51.31735	-72.29126	464	157	41.3 \pm 0.3 Ma (n = 56)
14LdCd2	Río Turbio (lower)	-51.28071	-72.28936	443	106	46.3 \pm 1.3 Ma (n = 2)
14LdCd4	Río Turbio (lower)	-51.27997	-72.28916	411	108	47.1 \pm 2.7 Ma (n = 2)
15LDC02/14DZ3	Cerro Dorotea	-51.28001	-72.28927	351	227	60.2 \pm 1.3 Ma (n = 3)
14AVDZ2	Cerro Dorotea	-51.28475	-72.30764	433	107	60.5 \pm 0.8 Ma (n = 3)
14AVDZ1	Cerro Dorotea	-51.28473	-72.30828	434	103	61.9 \pm 0.3 Ma (n = 4)
15LDC05	Cerro Dorotea	-51.27793	-72.31254	312	212	65.8 \pm 1.3 Ma (n = 2)

Revised timing of Cenozoic Atlantic incursions and changing hinterland sediment sources during southern Patagonian orogenesis

Data Repository

U-Pb geochronologic analyses of detrital zircon (Nu HR ICPMS)

Detrital zircons were extracted from ~5 kg medium-grained sandstone hand-samples using standard mineral separation techniques at the ZirChron, LLC. (Tucson, Arizona), including crushing and grinding, fractionation of magnetic minerals with a Frantz isodynamic magnetic separator, and settling through heavy liquids to exclude phases with densities less than 3.3 g/cm³. Final zircon separates were mounted in epoxy resin together with fragments of the Sri Lanka standard zircon. The mounts are polished to a depth of ~20 μm, imaged, and cleaned prior to isotopic analysis.

U-Pb geochronology of zircons is conducted by laser ablation multicollector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-MC-ICPMS) at the Arizona LaserChron Center (Gehrels et al., 2008; Gehrels, 2012). The analyses involve ablation of zircon with a Photon Machines Analyte G2 excimer laser using a spot diameter of 30 μm. The ablated material is carried in helium into the plasma source of a Nu HR ICPMS, which is equipped with a flight tube of sufficient width that U, Th, and Pb isotopes are measured simultaneously. All measurements are made in static mode, using Faraday detectors with 3x10¹¹ ohm resistors for ²³⁸U, ²³²Th, ²⁰⁸Pb-²⁰⁶Pb, and discrete dynode ion counters for ²⁰⁴Pb and ²⁰²Hg. Ion yields are ~0.8 mv per ppm. Each analysis consists of one 15-second integration on peaks with the laser off (for backgrounds), 15 one-second integrations with the laser firing, and a 30 second delay to purge the previous sample and prepare for the next analysis. The ablation pit is ~15 μm in depth.

For each analysis, the errors in determining ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U and ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb result in a measurement error of ~1-2% (at 2σ level) in the ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age. The errors in measurement of ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁷Pb and ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb also result in ~1-2% (at 2σ level) uncertainty in age for grains that are >1.0 Ga, but are substantially larger for younger grains due to low intensity of the ²⁰⁷Pb signal. For most analyses, the cross-over in precision of ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U and ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁷Pb ages occurs at ~1.0 Ga. ²⁰⁴Hg interference with ²⁰⁴Pb is accounted for measurement of ²⁰²Hg during laser ablation and subtraction of ²⁰⁴Hg according to the natural ²⁰²Hg/²⁰⁴Hg of 4.35. This Hg correction is

not significant for most analyses because our Hg backgrounds are low (generally ~150 cps at mass 204). Common Pb correction is accomplished by using the Hg-corrected ^{204}Pb and assuming an initial Pb composition (Stacey and Kramers, 1975). Uncertainties of 1.5 for $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ and 0.3 for $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ are applied to these compositional values based on the variation in Pb isotopic composition in modern crystal rocks. Inter-element fractionation of Pb/U is generally ~5%, whereas apparent fractionation of Pb isotopes is generally <0.2%. In-run analysis of fragments of a large zircon crystal (generally every fifth measurement) with known age of 563.5 ± 3.2 Ma (2σ error) is used to correct for this fractionation. The uncertainty resulting from the calibration correction is generally 1-2% (2σ) for both $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$ and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ages. Concentrations of U and Th are calibrated relative to Sri Lanka zircon, which contains ~518 ppm of U and 68 ppm Th.

The analytical data are reported in Table A1. Preferred calculated U-Pb ages use the ^{204}Pb corrected $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ratio for <1.0 Ga grains and the ^{204}Pb corrected $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$ ratio for >900 Ma grains. Uncertainties shown in these tables are at the 1σ level, and include only measurement errors. Analyses that are >20% discordant or >5% reverse discordant (by comparison of $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$ ages) were excluded from provenance interpretations and maximum depositional age calculations. Pb*/U concordia diagrams (Fig. A1) and probability density plots (Figs. A2 and A3) were generated using the routines in Isoplot (Ludwig, 2008). The age-probability diagrams show each age and its uncertainty (for measurement error only) as a normal distribution, and sum all ages from a sample into a single curve. For samples that yielded youngest age groups that could represent conceivable maximum depositional ages, we calculated error-weighted mean ages (Table 1) based on the following criteria: age clusters contained at least 2 overlapping concordant grains at 2σ uncertainty. For published samples from collected within the latitude of our study area from the Punta Barrosa, Cerro Toro, Tres Pasos, Dorotea, and Santa Cruz Formations (Fig. 2 and Fig. 4), we recalculated relative probability density curves from published detrital zircon U-Pb geochronological data (Fildani et al., 2003; Romans et al., 2010; Bernhardt et al., 2012; Fosdick et al., 2015): Punta Barrosa Formation samples included in data comparison are: *Pb0104*, *2/21-3*, *2/6-3*, *3/5-3*, and *3/11-3* (Fildani et al., 2003). Cerro Toro Formation samples included in data comparison are: *CC* and *VC* (Romans et al., 2010) and *SS-Ndskld*, *CB-C*, *SdT-Co*, *SdT-Wc*, *SS_PehoeA* (Bernhardt et al., 2012). Tres Pasos Formation samples included in data comparison are: *F04* and *F05-1* (Romans et al., 2010).

Dorotea Formation samples included in data comparison are: *CCS-01* and *CM-1* (Romans et al., 2010) and *JCF09-226* (Fosdick et al., 2015). Santa Cruz Formation samples included in data comparison are: *JCF09-235* (Fosdick et al., 2015).

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TABLES

Table A1. Zircon U-Pb LA-MC-ICPMS geochronological data.

FIGURES

Figure A1. Zircon U-Pb concordia diagrams for individual samples. Ellipses show 2σ uncertainty. n denotes the total number of analyzed grains per sample.

Figure A2. Relative probability plots of detrital zircon U-Pb ages for individual samples (0 to 2500 Ma). n denotes the total number of analyzed grains per sample.

Figure A3. Relative probability plots of detrital zircon U-Pb ages for individual samples (0 to 600 Ma).

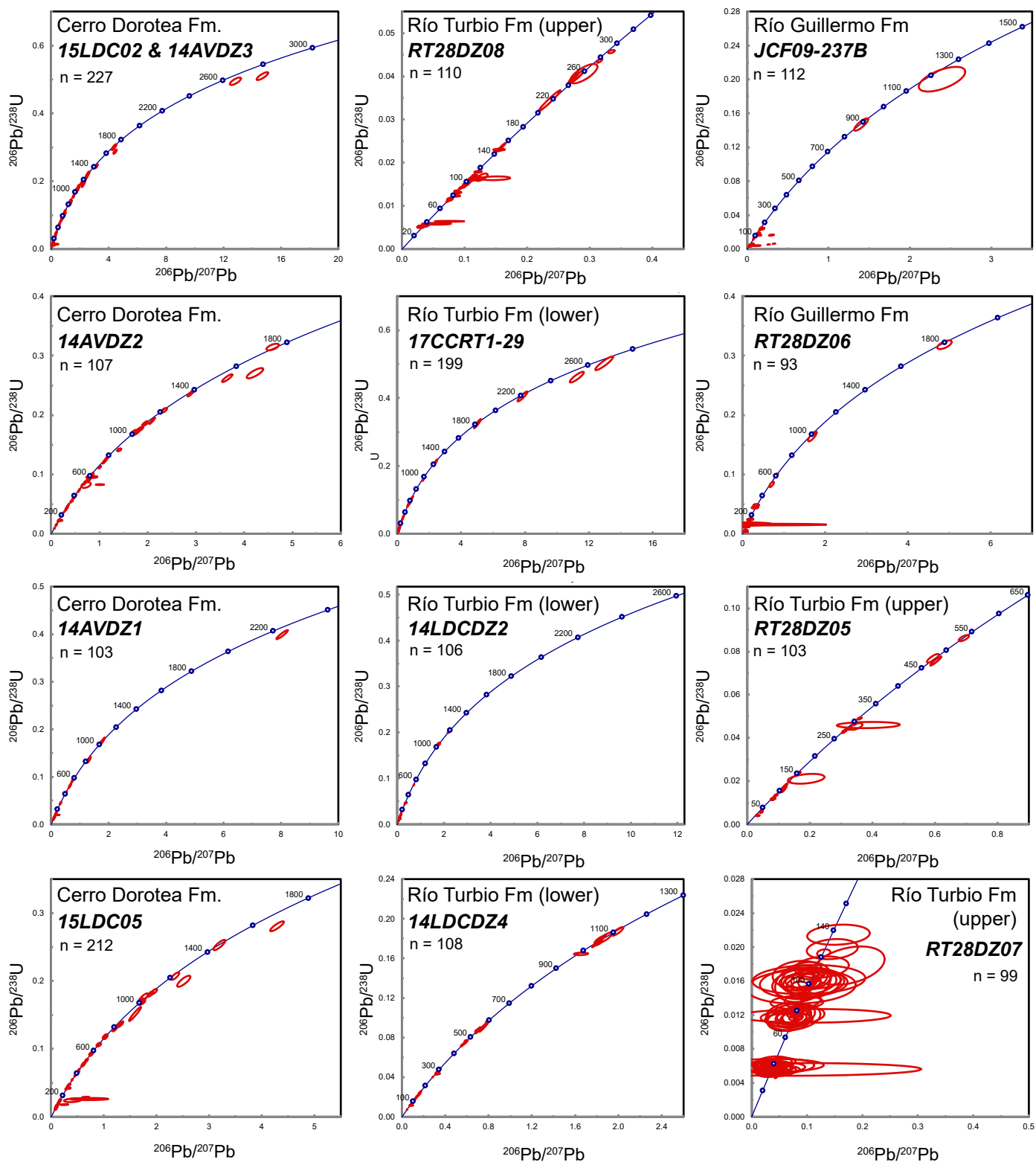


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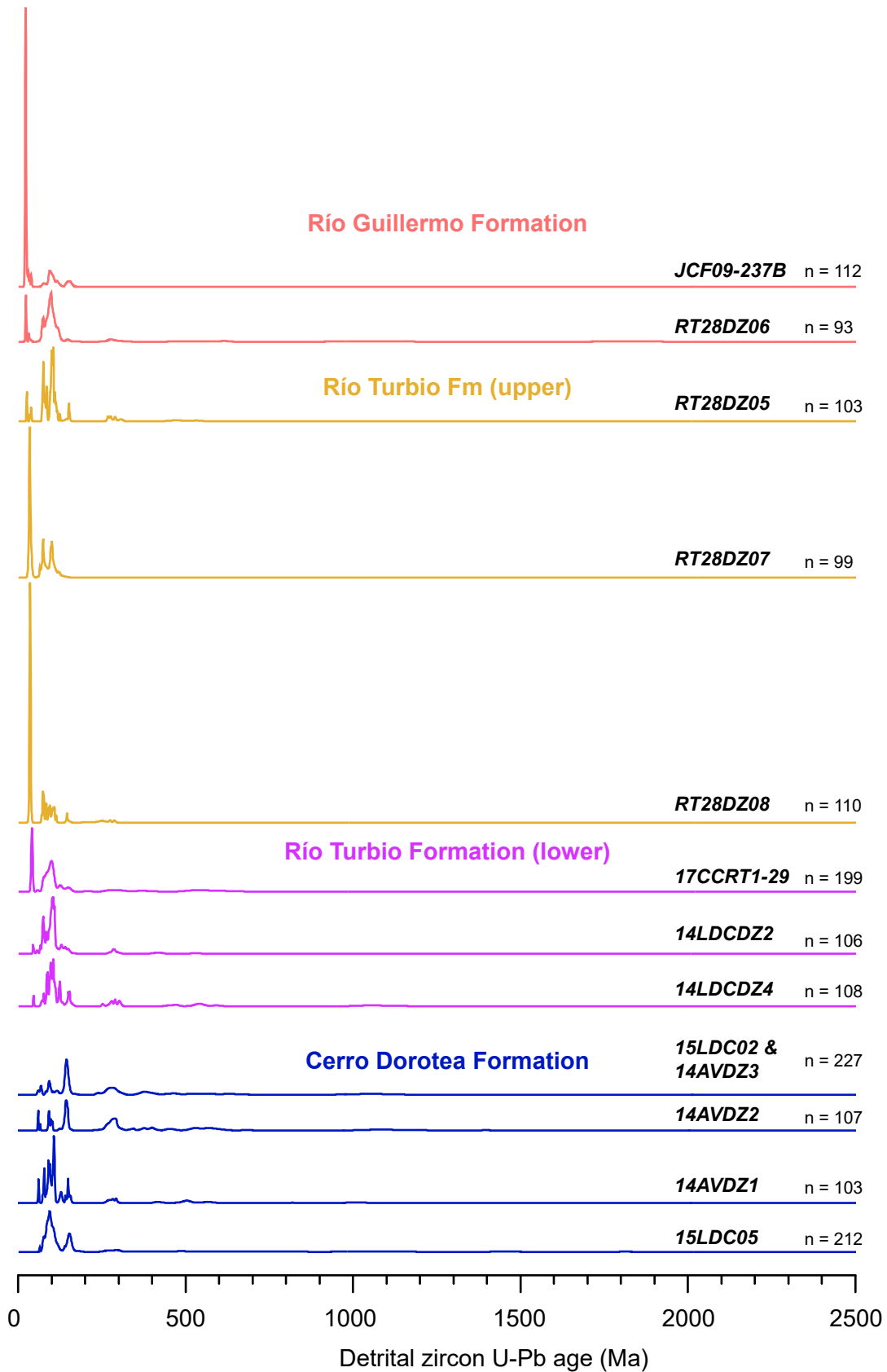


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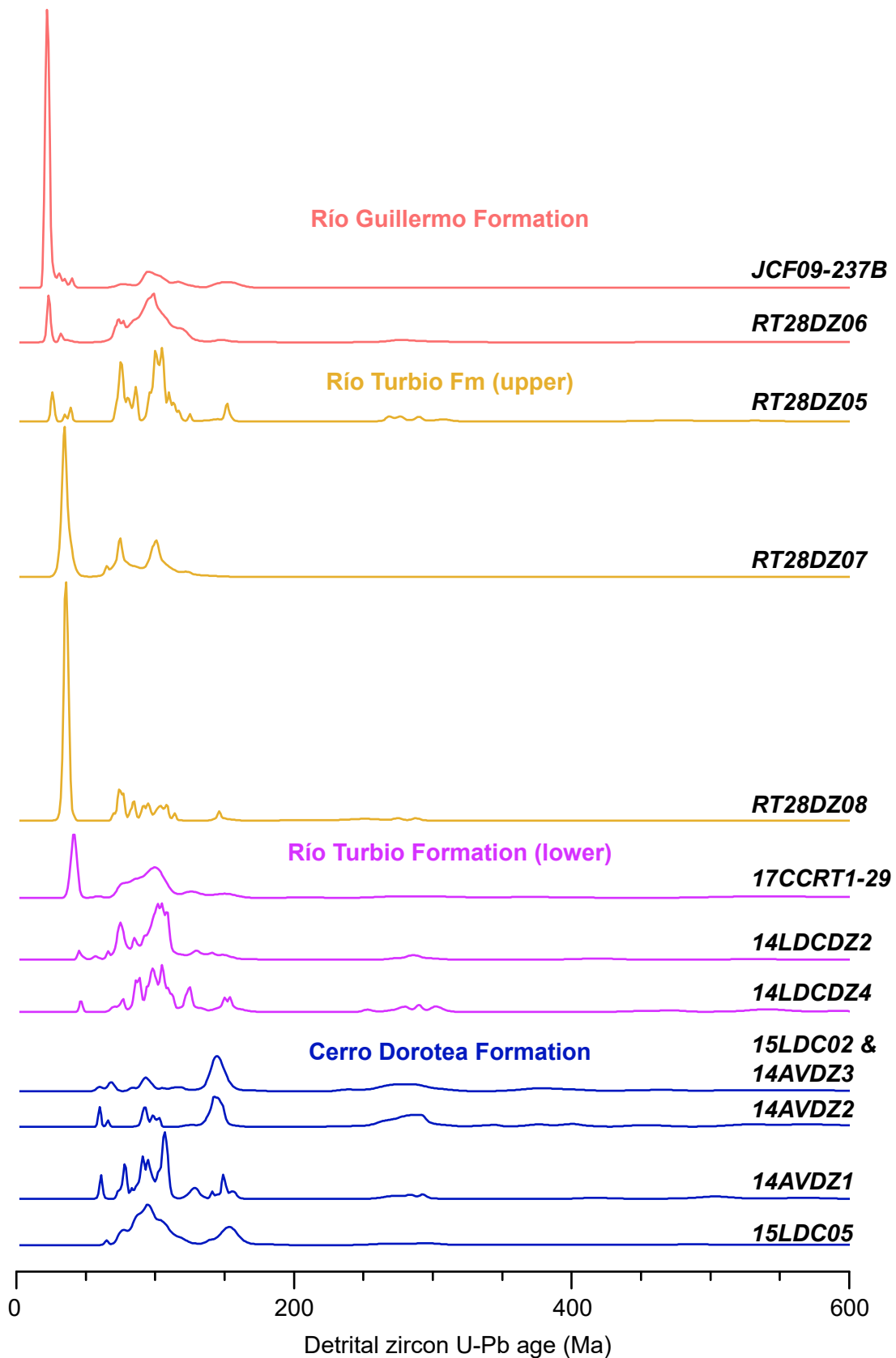


Figure A3. Relative probability plots of detrital zircon U-Pb ages for individual samples (0 to 600 Ma).