Stress field evolution above the Peruvian flat-slab (Cordillera Blanca, northern Peru)

Audrey Margirier, L. Audin, X. Robert, A. Pêcher, S. Schwartz

► To cite this version:

Audrey Margirier, L. Audin, X. Robert, A. Pêcher, S. Schwartz. Stress field evolution above the Peruvian flat-slab (Cordillera Blanca, northern Peru). *Journal of South American Earth Sciences*, 2017, 77, pp.58-69. 10.1016/j.jsames.2017.04.015 . insu-01677069

HAL Id: insu-01677069

<https://hal-insu.archives-ouvertes.fr/insu-01677069>

Submitted on 16 Feb 2018

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Stress field evolution above the Peruvian flat-slab (Cordillera Blanca, northern Peru)

A. Margirier¹, L. Audin¹, X. Robert¹, A. Pêcher¹, S. Schwartz¹

¹*Université Grenoble, Alpes, CNRS, IRD, ISTERRE, F-38000 Grenoble, France*

Abstract

In subduction settings, the tectonic regime of the overriding plate is closely related to the geometry of the subducting plate. Flat-slab segments are supposed to increase coupling at the plate interface in the Andes, resulting in an increase and eastward migration of the shortening in the overriding plate. Above the Peruvian flat-slab, a 200 km-long normal fault trend parallel to the range and delimits the western flank of the Cordillera Blanca. In a context of flat subduction, expected to produce shortening, the presence of the Cordillera Blanca normal fault (CBNF) is surprising. We performed a systematic inversion of striated fault planes in the Cordillera Blanca region to better characterize the stress field above the Peruvian flat-slab. It evidences the succession of different tectonic regimes. NE-SW extension is predominant in most of the sites indicating a regional extension. We suggest that the Peruvian flat-slab trigger extension in the Western Cordillera while the shortening migrated eastward. Finally, we propose that flat-slab segments do not increase the coupling at the trench neither the shortening in the overriding plate but only favor shortening migration backward. However, the stress field of the overriding plate arises from the evolution of plate interface properties through time due to bathymetric anomaly migration.

Key-works

Inversion of striated fault planes; crustal stress field; mountain building; Peruvian flat-slab;
Cordillera Blanca

1. Introduction

The western South American margin is segmented along-strike, with changing Andean topography and slab dip variations (*Barazangi and Isacks, 1976*). Two flat-slab segments have been identified by seismological data in northern Peru (3-15°S) and central Chile (28-32°S) (*Barazangi and Isacks, 1976*; Fig. 1). In such subduction settings, the tectonic regime of the overriding plate is closely related to the convergence direction, dip and geometry of the subducting plate (*Ramos and Folguera, 2009*). Around the world, flat-slab segments appear to increase coupling at the plate interface, resulting in both an increase and eastward migration of the shortening in the overriding plate (*Jordan et al., 1983*; *Ramos and Folguera, 2009*; *Martinod et al., 2010*).

Above the Peruvian flat-slab, a striking 200 km-long normal fault trending parallel to the range delimits the western flank of the Cordillera Blanca high peaks (*Bonnot, 1984*; *McNulty and Farber, 2002*; *Giovanni, 2007*). Those peaks (>6000 m) are abnormally higher than the average plateau altitude at this place (~4400 m). In such a context of flat subduction, expected to produce shortening, the joint presence of the Cordillera Blanca normal fault (CBNF) with high reliefs is surprising. Indeed, despite regional expected shortening related to the flat-slab subduction of the Nazca Plate beneath the South America, the Cordillera Blanca normal fault has been active during the Quaternary. Two models have been proposed to explain the occurrence of extension in this part of the high Andes: *Dalmayrac and Molnar (1981)* suggested an extensional collapse of a thickened crust, whereas *McNulty and Farber (2002)* involved oceanic ridge buoyancy under the Cordillera Blanca. Despite these models, the tectonic setting of the Cordillera Blanca emplacement is still debated: while *Petford and Atherton (1992)* suggested that the Cordillera Blanca batholith has emplaced in a dextral

wrench regime based on ductile deformation structures, *McNulty et al.* (1998) interpreted some magnetic susceptibility data from the batholith as the result of a sinistral wrench regime. As this opposition extension versus along strike shearing is a key issue for Andean geodynamics (e.g., *Dewey and Lamb*, 1992; *McNulty et al.*, 1998; *Taylor et al.*, 1998; *Scheuber and Gonzalez*, 1999; *Folguera et al.*, 2006, *Audin et al.*, 2008), the aim of this paper is to precise and constrain the stress field evolution through time in this region with new microstructural data. Indeed, analyzing the ductile and brittle tectonic deformation in the crust permits to describe the impact of flat subduction on the stress field in the overriding plate in northern Peru. Moreover, the knowledge of the regional stress field evolution could provide information on processes driving the Cordillera Blanca batholith exhumation. The stress field evolution above the flat-slab is mainly inferred from inversions of striated fault planes measured on different outcrops in the Cordillera Blanca region.

2. Geodynamic and tectonic context of northern Peru

2.1. Geodynamic setting

The Andes are the result of the long-lasting subduction of the Nazca Plate beneath the South America Plate. The subduction zone has been active since at least Cretaceous time, with convergence rates, obliquity and subduction dip changing through time (e.g., *Somoza*, 1998; *Ramos and Folguera*, 2009; *Martinod et al.*, 2010). These changes have been associated to different tectonic phases affecting the Andean range (e.g., *Jordan et al.*, 1983; *Pardo-Casas and Molnar*, 1987; *Somoza*, 1998) and influenced the magmatic activity along strike (*Kay and Kay*, 2002; *Ramos and Folguera*, 2009).

The northern Peruvian margin displays a present-day flat subduction zone where both, the geometry and timing of slab flattening are well constrained for the last 15 Ma (e.g., *Gutscher et al.*, 1999; *Hampel*, 2002; *Rosenbaum et al.*, 2005; *Antonijevic et al.*, 2015). *Gutscher et al.* (2000) suggested that the flat-slab has a ~20 km deep sag between the Nazca Ridge and the

Inca Plateau thickened parts (Fig. 1). The subduction of these two buoyant features have been proposed to induce the slab flattening in northern Peru (*Gutscher et al.*, 1999). Based on this hypothesis, several reconstructions of the timing and location of the initial Nazca Ridge subduction based on symmetric seafloor-spreading in a hotspot reference frame constrained the timing of the slab flattening (e.g., *Hampel*, 2002; *McNulty and Farber*, 2002; *Rosenbaum et al.*, 2005; *Antonijevic et al.*, 2015). However, all of these models rely on calculations of the motion of the Nazca Plate with respect to South America, which may induce considerable errors. *Rosenbaum et al.* (2005) presented a regionally refined plate circuit that suggests the initiation of the Nazca Ridge subduction at 15 Ma at 10°S and the arrival of the Inca Plateau at 13 Ma at 5°S. This reconstruction, in agreement with the timing of magmatism migration eastward, indicates that the slab flattening occur at the latitude of the Cordillera Blanca region from ~15 Ma.

2.2. Peruvian tectonic history

Several tectonic phases corresponding to short tectonic events that seems to have largely contributed to the Andean range building have been identified (*Mégard*, 1984). The first known major compressional event occurred in Late Albian, (113.0-100.5 Ma; *Mégard*, 1984). This tectonic phase, named Mochica, is recorded in the whole Western flank of the Central Andes (*Jaillard*, 1994) and is characterized by NE-SW compression (*Mégard*, 1984) likely associated with a dextral wrenching component (*Bussel and Pitcher*, 1985). It has been followed by a widespread episode of deformation in Peru, named the Peruvian phase, during the Santonian and the Campanian (86.3-70.6 Ma, NE-SW compression; *Steinmann*, 1929; *Mégard*, 1978; *Gayet et al.*, 1991, *Jaillard et al.*, 1993; *Jaillard and Soler*, 1996). An episode of uplift is likely contemporaneous with Peruvian phase in the Western Cordillera (*Mégard*, 1984). Then, from mid to late Eocene the main Andean shortening phase, the Incaic phase, caused extensive folding and reverse faulting in the Jurassic sediments of the Western

Cordillera and the formation of a fold and thrust belt along the Western Cordillera in Central Andes (48.6-33.9 Ma, NE-SW compression; *Mégard, 1984; Noble et al., 1990*).

The Neogene tectonic phase named the Quechua phase is divided in three discrete phases (e.g., *McKee and Noble, 1982; Mégard, 1984*). The Quechua 1 phase (20-12.5 Ma) is characterized by NW-SE shortening and by reactivation of structures inherited from the Incaic phase in northern Peru, from the Western Cordillera to farther east. It seems that the deformation associated with the Quechua 1 phase reached the Eastern Cordillera (*Mégard, 1984*). The Quechua 2 is bracketed between 9.5 and 8.2 Ma in central Peru (*Mégard et al., 1984*). This phase is characterized by dextral strike-slip along NW-SE structures likely caused by N-S compression (*Soulas, 1977*). Finally, the Quechua 3 phase identified in the subandean fold and thrust belt (~6 Ma; *Mégard, 1984*) is characterized by E-W compression (*Soulas, 1977*).

2.3. Geologic and Quaternary tectonic settings of the Cordillera Blanca region

The Cordillera Blanca and the Cordillera Negra are located in the northern Peruvian Andes, in the Western Cordillera (Fig. 1). The Cordillera Blanca is a Miocene granitic pluton (14-5 Ma; *Mukasa, 1984; McNulty et al., 1998; Giovanni, 2007*) emplaced in deformed Jurassic sediments of the Chicama Formation at pressures ranging from 100 to 200 MPa (*Petford and Atherton, 1992; Margirier et al., 2016*). The Cordillera Blanca batholith and associated magmas, the Fortaleza and Yungay ignimbrites emplaced respectively around 7.4 Ma (*Wipf, 2006*) and between 8 and 3 Ma (*Wise and Noble, 2003; Giovanni, 2007; Giovanni et al., 2010*), correspond to the last magmatic activity before the cessation of magmatism associated to the slab flattening in northern Peru (*Petford and Atherton, 1992*).

The high summits of the Cordillera Blanca correspond to the footwall of the CBNF. The elongated shape (trending parallel to the Andean range) and the internal fabric of the batholith suggest its emplacement along a pre-existing lithospheric fault structure, in a strike-slip

context (Cobbing *et al.*, 1981; Petford and Atherton, 1992; McNulty *et al.*, 1998). However, there is no consensus about the kinematics: dextral (based on ductile sub-solidus fabric in the granite and on en-echelon structure in pegmatites; Petford and Atherton, 1992) versus sinistral (from unclear AMS fabric; McNulty *et al.*, 1998).

Preliminary studies addressed the Cordillera Blanca brittle tectonic history with microtectonic data and stress reconstructions from fault slip dataset inversion (Bonnot, 1984; Sébrier *et al.*, 1988). Bonnot (1984) proposed the succession of the following tectonic phases: (I) Pliocene E-W extension (σ_3 sub-horizontal N285, σ_1 sub-vertical), (II) Quaternary E-W compression (σ_1 sub-horizontal N080, σ_3 sub-vertical) and N-S compression (σ_1 sub-horizontal N150, σ_3 sub-vertical), (III) N-S extension from the Pleistocene to present day (σ_3 sub-horizontal N0, σ_1 sub-vertical). Sébrier *et al.* (1988) only focused on the last fault slip and suggested N-S extension in the Cordillera Blanca. Neither the Quaternary compression nor the N-S extension they evidenced in the Cordillera Blanca is in agreement with present day extensional microseismicity (Deverchère *et al.*, 1989).

The general trend of the Cordillera Blanca fault zone is N140° dipping 35-45°SW. Variations of the scarp heights and en echelon faulting in the southern part of the fault show that the CBNF is segmented (Fig. 2; Giovanni, 2007). Field studies evidence discontinuous NW-SE striking scarps that displace Quaternary glacial moraines as well as plutonic rocks (Fig. 3; e.g., Bonnot, 1984; Schwartz, 1988). Along the fault zone, repeated displacements imprinted the landscape, with ~2 to >100 m-high scarps, corresponding to vertical displacements cumulated during the Quaternary (Fig. 3B, C) and ~1 km-high triangular facets (Fig. 3A). In total, considering the emplacement depth of the Cordillera Blanca batholith, the scarps height and the basin sedimentary filling thickness, the CBNF shows at least 4500 m of vertical displacement in its central part since ~5 Ma (Bonnot, 1984; Giovanni, 2007; Margirier *et al.*, 2016).

Based on thermochronologic data (apatite fission-tracks and apatite (U-Th)/He), Giovanni

(2007) and *Hodson* (2012) gave estimation of exhumation rate at ~ 2 mm/yr and >1 mm/yr respectively on the central part of the CBNF and decreasing exhumation rates toward the South for the last 3 Ma. For the last 4 Ma, *Margirier et al.* (2015), based on the same thermochronologic systems, suggest lower exhumation rate (1 mm/yr) for the central part of the Cordillera Blanca. Even if modeling of thermochronologic ages did not indicate a well-defined north-south trend in erosion rate (*Margirier et al.*, 2016) the total exhumation since the batholith emplacement decreases in the southern part of the Cordillera Blanca (*Margirier et al.*, 2016). Based on the CBNF morphology and the Cordillera Blanca geology *Bonnot* (1984) estimated vertical slip rates of ~ 0.7 mm/yr on the CBNF between 3 and 0 Ma. On a more recent time scale (30-0 ka), the CBNF displacement rates have been constrained by ^{10}Be dating of scarps (*Siame et al.*, 2006) and geomorphic features (moraines) displaced by the fault (Fig. 3B, C; *Schwartz*, 1988; *Farber and Hancock*, in prep). The vertical slip rates decrease from north to south ranging from 5.1 ± 0.8 mm/yr to 0.6 ± 0.2 mm/yr (Fig. 2B; *Schwartz*, 1988; *Siame et al.*, 2006; *Farber and Hancock*, in prep).

In terms of seismic activity, no historical earthquake has been reported for the CBNF (*Silgado*, 1992). However, some microseismicity occurs in the Cordillera Blanca region. The focal mechanisms indicated present-day NE-SW extension in adequacy with Quaternary offsets along the CBNF (*Deverchère et al.*, 1989). The most significant coseismic surface faulting has been reported in 1946 along the Quiches normal fault ($M_w = 6.8$; *Doser*, 1987; *Bellier et al.*, 1991), 50 km north-east from the CBNF trace. No significant seismic event ($M_w > 4$) has been reported South of the CBNF segments neither along the Cordillera Huayhuash neither farther South (Neotectonic Open Database¹).

West of the Cordillera Blanca, the Callejón de Huaylas, an elongated range-parallel intra-mountain basin (150 km long), builds the hanging wall of the CBNF and separates the Cordillera Blanca and the Cordillera Negra. The sedimentary series filling this intra-mountain

¹ neotec-opendata.com

basin recorded its subsidence associated to the CBNF initiation and activity (*Bonnot, 1984*). Indeed, at the base of the series some ignimbrites dated at 5.4 ± 0.1 Ma suggest that normal faulting initiated at least at ~ 5.4 Ma (*Giovanni, 2007, Giovanni et al., 2010*). Westward, the Cordillera Negra consists of Cretaceous and Paleogene plutons (73-48 Ma; *Mukasa, 1984; Beckinsale et al., 1985*) intruded in the Chicama formation. Neogene volcano-sedimentary deposits capped the older formations in the southern part of the Cordillera Negra.

3. Methods

3.1. Satellite image analysis

In mountain ranges, the landscapes are largely controlled by the lithology and tectonic structures. Fracturing favors chemical weathering and weaken the rocks. Satellite imageries can be used to map fractures at up to kilometers scale in rocky landscapes/areas. Here, we analyzed satellite images (Google Earth, Landsat images, 2001-2002, visible band with a space resolution of 15 m) to map the main faults at regional/km scale (Fig. 2). Mapping displacements along active faults is based on displacement of surfaces or geomorphic markers such as moraines or Quaternary pediment surfaces. For each lineament we checked if it corresponds to a fault and not to a fold axis or a stratigraphy boundary (Fig. 2). To discuss the contradictory conclusions of previous works on the ductile deformation in the Cordillera Blanca (*Petford and Atherton, 1992; McNulty et al., 1998*), we also collected ductile deformation data in the field and from satellite image (Google Earth, Landsat images; Fig. 4).

3.2. Tectonic stress inversion

3.2.1. Principe

Several methods, based on sets of fault planes and slickenlines, permit to estimate paleostress tensors (e.g., *Angelier and Mechler, 1977; Angelier, 1984*). The reduced stress tensor, obtained from faults-slickenlines pairs inversion, provides the orientation of the principal

stress axes σ_1 , σ_2 , σ_3 (with $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \sigma_3$ and compression being positive) and a shape parameter that we defined here as $\Phi = (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)/(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$ (e.g., *Angelier, 1984; Delvaux and Sperner, 2003*). These inversion methods rely on three assumptions: (a) the stress is uniform in the volume of rock considered, (b) the stress tensor is equivalent to the incremental deformation tensor as obtained from the slip data, and (c) the slip vector on a fault plane (given by the slickenlines) is parallel to the maximum shear stress along the plane as deduced from the stress tensor (*Bott, 1959*). These assumptions imply careful choice of the measurement stations, and brittle deformation measurements.

3.2.2. Fieldwork

We measured more than 400 couples fault-slickenline on 38 sites in the Cordillera Blanca region (Table 1). For each site we measured between 2 and 34 striated fault planes (supplementary tables A1 and A2, for all the planes we measured dip direction and dip angle) on outcrops no larger than 50 m with homogenous lithology. We measured all the striated planes we have been able to see on the outcrops without selection. We constrained the displacement direction and sense on each fault plane with classical tectoglyphs (fibers, striations, steps...). For each measurement we attributed a qualitative confidence level for the sense of the displacement found on the field (supplementary table A2). We kept only the striated planes with unambiguous displacement sense. For “natural” outcrops, fault planes are weathered and the slickenlines are not well preserved, leading to too few measurements to be able to use them for analysis. Most of our sites are located along roads for quality of outcroppings: it is constituted of fresh rocks and most of the faults-planes and slickenside striae sets can be measured (orientation and dip). Measurement sites are mostly located in the Cordillera Blanca but few stations are in the Cordillera Negra and the Callejón de Huaylas (Fig. 2). This heterogeneous sampling is related to difficulties to find sites with competent, fractured and low weathered rocks in the Cordillera Negra.

3.2.3. Inversion methods

Different computer softwares are available to determine the reduced stress tensor that best explains the slip distribution on a set of fault planes (e.g., TectonicsFP, FaultKinWin, TENSOR, WinTensor, Mim; *Marrett and Allmendinger, 1990; Sperner et al., 1993; Yamaji, 2000; Ortner et al., 2002; Delvaux and Sperner, 2003; Delvaux, 2012*). As they are based on the same physical concepts, all these methods are expected to give similar results (*Delvaux and Barth, 2010; Lacombe, 2012*). The inversion of the data was here performed using the software WinTensor (*Delvaux, 2012*) which inverts a dataset with the right dihedral method (*Angelier and Mechler, 1977*) and the PBT method (*Angelier, 1984*). In the right dihedral method an auxiliary plane is defined, orthogonal to the striated plane and to the striae. The striated plane and the auxiliary plane define 4 right dihedrals and 2 half spaces: a shortening half-space and an extensional half-space, defined by the kinematic of the striae. All results are then superimposed and a statistical outline is used to calculate a tensor with σ_1 in dihedra in compression and σ_3 in dihedra in extension. This initial result is used by the “Rotational Optimisation” procedure that minimizes, by an iterative grid search, the misfit angle (*Delvaux and Sperner, 2003*). Based on *Wallace (1951)* and *Bott (1959)* principles, the PBT method considers that the slip vector on a fault plane is parallel to the maximum shear stress along the plane. For each striated plane, compression and extension axis (P and T-axis) are constructed, both lying in the plane given by the shear plane normal and the slickenline. In homogeneous materials, σ_2 lies in the fault plane, and σ_1 and σ_3 in the plane containing the fault-plane normal and the striae.

The inversion requires at least 5 fault-slickenline pairs. A higher number of data better constrains the solution. Here, we used at least 6 pairs of fault-slickenline for an inversion. The angular misfit between the measured slickenline and the theoretical slickenline predicted from the calculated tensor is used as a quality indicator of the inversion (Fig. 5).

We processed the data following a multistep approach (*Zeilinger et al., 2000*). A random tensor search was performed for each site (or grouped sites). The data is rejected when the

misfit between the slickenline and the theoretical slickenline predicted from the calculated tensor is $>30^\circ$. Then, all the rejected striated planes are recovered and the same procedure was applied. Populations of less than 6 striated planes were considered not significant. For each valley when our sites are close to each other (stations distributed in an area smaller than 10 km), we group the sites located in tectonically homogeneous units to process them as single sites and average the regional stress field (Zeilinger *et al.*, 2000; Pêcher *et al.*, 2008). The larger number of fault-slickenline pairs for grouped sites permits a more robust determination of tensors.

4. Results

4.1. Ductile deformation and local cooling ages of the Cordillera Blanca batholith

We analyzed punctual ductile deformation evidences during the fieldwork and from satellite images to discuss the tectonic context during the Cordillera Blanca batholith emplacement. The granitic veins developed in the sediments close to the batholith contact are good deformation markers ranging from field to satellite scale. Their ductile deformation provides a reliable constraint of the upper plate regional strain axes contemporary of their emplacement. Along the eastern limit of the Cordillera Blanca batholith, some deformed dykes intruded the Jurassic sediments and indicates a dextral sense of shearing along the batholith (Fig. 2 and 4A). The surrounding granite is dated at ~ 8 Ma (zircon U-Pb and muscovite Ar-Ar; Giovanni, 2007).

In the Cordillera Blanca batholith a penetrative foliation and S-C structures indicates normal top to SW sense of shearing. In addition, in the Canyon del Pato close to the contact between the batholith and sediments, a dyke complex intrudes sedimentary rocks of the Chicama Formation. Its ductile deformation indicates normal top to SW sense of shearing and NE-SW extension (shearing plane = $N145\ 30SW$, stretching lineation = $N50\ 20SW$; Fig. 4B). Close to this outcrop, the Cordillera Blanca batholith cooling is younger, ages range from 5 to 3.6 Ma (muscovite Ar-Ar and K-Ar; Stewart *et al.*, 1974; Giovanni, 2007).

288

289 **4.2. Brittle deformation**

290 **4.2.1. The Cordillera Blanca normal fault**

291 Along strike the fault displays a well-defined scarp developed either in the bedrock, in
292 Quaternary alluvial fan, moraines or debris-flow deposits attesting of repeated displacements.
293 Field surveys evidence cumulative scarp height decreasing in lower and younger deposits, it
294 suggests multiple Holocene faulting events preserved on each sites. Southwards, the Holocene
295 fault scarp varies from a well-defined single scarp tens m-high to several sub-parallel en
296 echelon faulting of about 1 m-high. Punctually, the fault trace splits down in the Callejon de
297 Huaylas into small graben and antithetic scarps, adjacent to the main scarp (Fig. 2).
298 Northwards, the Quaternary scarp (strike N140°) displays an impressive and constant
299 westward dip of ~35 to 45°.

300 Along the CBNF several sites display striaes on the fault plane: from North to South, in
301 Pachma Bajo, Quebrada Llaca and Quebrada Querococha (Fig. 2B). Striae on the fault have a
302 down dip direction (N249-39SW). Tectoglyphs indicate a normal sense displacement (Fig. 5)
303 consistent with the Quaternary displacement of the moraines along the CBNF (*Dalmayrac*
304 *and Molnar*, 1981; *Bonnot*, 1984). This normal fault accommodates an ENE-WSW extension.
305 *Bonnot* (1984) also reports bedrock slickensides along the fault scarp between Chiquian and
306 Huaraz. He suggested that there might have been a sinistral component to the Quaternary slip
307 on the fault segments striking N110 to N155. The en-echelon faults striking N140 in the
308 southern part of the CBNF also suggest a sinistral component (*Bonnot*, 1984). However, the
309 cumulated amount of such strike-slip component must be negligible because lateral offsets of
310 moraine axes are not observed on the field.

311

312 **4.2.2. Example of a multistep deformation history in the Canyon del Pato**

313 In the Canyon del Pato, we collected data from 5 sites spread along a 5 km-distance. All the
314 sites are located in the Cordillera Blanca batholith close to the CBNF (Fig. 2). We measured

in this area 128 fault-slickenline pairs in the Neogene bedrock (Fig. 6). Here, a single stress tensor cannot explain our data; the angular deviation is $> 50^\circ$ for $\sim 50\%$ of the data. The important dispersion of fault orientations (Fig. 6) suggests a multistep brittle deformation history. Following this hypothesis, we obtained 3 stress tensors from faults-slickenlines inversion. Labeling T1, T2 and T3 refer only to the number of striated planes associated to each tensor and didn't imply a chronology. The predominant tensor (T1, 66 faults) corresponds to NE-SW pure extension (Fig. 6). The second stress tensor (T2, 12 faults) is related to E-W transpression with a component in sinistral strike-slip. The less well-defined third stress tensor (T3, 11 faults) corresponds to E-W pure extension. None of the T3 axes is vertical indicating that this tensor has been tilted while T1 and T2 seem not tilted. It could indicate that T3 is the older tensor.

4.2.3. Regional stress fields

Most of our measurements were taken in the Cordillera Blanca batholith. In addition, five sites are located in the southern part of the Cordillera Blanca (Quebrada Pastoruri), in sedimentary and volcanic rocks, one is in the Callejón de Huaylas (Caraz) and two sites are located in the Cordillera Negra (Fortaleza Valley and Pueblo Libre). The results of stress tensors for grouped sites are presented in the Table 1. For the best-defined tensor (T1) most of the misfit are lower than 15° demonstrating the quality of the inversion, for the other tensors (T2 and T3) most of the misfit are lower than 20° .

The Cordillera Blanca brittle deformation reflects the recent stress field that is superimposed on ductile deformation acquired during the Cordillera Blanca emplacement and early exhumation. In most of the sites we found up to two tensors with different characteristics (extension, wrenching and compression). The wide range of tensors suggests a multistep brittle deformation history in the Cordillera Blanca region. The best-expressed stress tensor corresponds to NE-SW extension (80% of the 38 sites; Figs. 7, 8A). The extension is not restricted to the Cordillera Blanca. Indeed, the Pueblo Libre and the Fortaleza sites recorded

respectively E-W extension and transtension with horizontal E-W σ_3 axis. The stress inversion also indicates wrenching (50% of the sites), N-S extension (in Quebradas Uta, Querococha and Pastoruri, 30% of the sites) and E-W compression (in Quebradas Laca and Uta, 15% of the sites) (Figs. 7, 8). The E-W compression tensors indicate that a compressional phase affect the Cordillera Blanca region after the Cordillera Blanca emplacement. Therefore, after ~8 Ma several tectonic regimes followed one another in the Cordillera Blanca region.

5. Discussion

5.1. Tectonic context for the Cordillera Blanca emplacement

Our ductile deformation data indicates two different strain regimes: a dextral strike-slip in the eastern part of the Cordillera Blanca (Fig. 4A, see Fig. 2 for site location) and an E-W extension close to the CBNF, in the northern part of the Cordillera Blanca (Fig. 4B). As the Cordillera Blanca batholith displays different ages in these two sites and as the deformation indicates two different strain regimes, these two regimes may result from different tectonic phases.

First, the granite emplaced in a dextral strike-slip regime (~8 Ma, Fig. 4A). Our data are here in agreement with the ductile deformation evidenced by *Petford and Atherton* (1992). This dextral strike-slip likely corresponds to a late stage of the Quechua 2 tectonic phase (9.5-8.5 Ma) which is characterized by strike-slip movements on NW-SE faults resulting from N-S compression (*Mégard*, 1984; *Mégard et al.*, 1984).

Close to the CBNF the ductile deformation recorded NE-SW extension (Fig. 4B). In this area the batholith is young ~4.5 Ma (*Stewart et al.*, 1974; *Giovanni*, 2007); this NE-SW extension exists at least since the Cordillera Blanca batholith emplacement and is consistent with the initiation of the Callejón de Huaylas subsidence at ~5.4 Ma associated to the CBNF activity (*Bonnot*, 1984; *Giovanni*, 2007).

5.2. Chronology of the different stress field imprinted in the Cordillera Blanca batholith

The Cordillera Blanca region recorded two steps of ductile deformation and a multistep brittle deformation history. The identified stress fields are: NE-SW extension, N-S extension, E-W compression and ~E-W transtension (Table 1, Figs. 6, 8). Despite numerous markers of superposed movements on fault planes their relative chronology was unclear. It is not possible to reconstruct the chronology of stress field based on field criteria. Therefore, we compare calculated stress tensor with tectonic phases documented by *Mégard* (1984) in northern Peru and with the present day stress field inferred from microseismicity (*Deverchère et al.*, 1989). The ductile deformation indicates a dextral strike-slip at ~8 Ma in the eastern part of the Cordillera Blanca. This deformation could be related to the Quechua 2 period, which has produced dextral strike-slip on NW-SE trending faults in Ayacucho basin between 9.5 and 8.5 Ma (*Mégard et al.*, 1984). Then, the ductile NE-SW extension observed in the Canyon del Pato (~5 Ma) likely corresponds to the earlier brittle deformation NE-SW extensional tensors. This extension posterior to ~4.5 Ma is in agreement with the initiation of the CBNF at ~5.4 Ma (*Bonnot*, 1984). Moreover, this NE-SW extension is similar to the regional stress tensor deduced from a microseismicity survey (*Deverchère et al.*, 1989). Thus, we suggest that these ductile and brittle deformation phases are related to a state of stress identical to state of stress observed at the present day in the Cordillera Blanca region. This state of stress was effective regionally at least for the last ~5 Ma. The extensional stress tensors are not restricted to the Cordillera Blanca. It likely corresponds to a large-scale process driving extension in the overriding plate.

In addition, the less-expressed stress tensors indicate locally some anomalies in the stress field. Indeed the brittle deformation also indicates that E-W compression episode in the Cordillera Blanca batholith. This compressional episode is also recorded in the Callejón de Huaylas basin (*Bonnot*, 1984). It could be related to the Pliocene Quechua 3 compressional phase (*Mégard*, 1984) which could have trigger a brief compressional phase during the CBNF activity (since ~5.4 Ma). Finally, the brittle deformation also recorded multidirectional

extension ($\Phi < 0.5$) in the Cordillera Blanca (Quebrada Paron, Quebrada Querococha, Quebrada Pastoruri). This stress field could be related to the Quaternary rapid exhumation of the central part of the Cordillera Blanca (Margirier *et al.*, 2016).

5.3. Different tectonic phases above the Peruvian flat-slab

This study evidence the occurrence of several tectonic phases above the Peruvian flat-slab segment during the past 8 Myr in agreement with Bonnot (1984). These successive tectonic phases and the occurrence of predominant extension perpendicular to the trench suggest that flat-slab segments do not always induce compression in the upper plate as previously suggested (Jordan *et al.*, 1983; Ramos and Folguera, 2009; Martinod *et al.*, 2010). The tectonic regime changes may be associated to other parameters as plates velocities, plates directions, the absolute movement of the trench, the age of the oceanic plate, the presence of sediments or the geometry of the oceanic plate (e.g., Ruff and Kanamori, 1983; Heuret *et al.*, 2007; Schellart, 2008). As the tectonic regime change occurs in a short period of time it could be linked to a local process (versus a large scale geodynamic process). The Peruvian flat slab geometry includes two thickened parts, the Nazca Ridge and the Inca Plateau, and a sag between these two features (Gutscher *et al.*, 1999). Plate reconstructions indicated that the Nazca Ridge subduction initiate at $\sim 10^\circ\text{S}$ at ~ 15 Ma and then the ridge migrate southward (Hampel, 2002; Rosenbaum *et al.*, 2005; Antonijevic *et al.*, 2015). The subduction of the Nazca Ridge below the Cordillera Blanca could have induced an increase of the coupling (e.g., Gutscher *et al.*, 2000; McNulty and Farber, 2002; Martinod *et al.*, 2010) and triggered compressional stress field in this area. After the migration of the ridge toward the South when the sag arrived below the Cordillera Blanca, the coupling could have decreased and permitted extension in the overriding plate. Indeed, Nocquet *et al.* (2014) demonstrated that the subduction segments of northern Peru show a low to weak interseismic coupling contrasting with the southern Peru region. Similarly, above the Mexican flat-subduction, Grault *et al.* (2015) suggested the control of the mantle dynamic and of a weak subduction interface in the

“neutral” state of stress. Finally, all flat slab segments do not trigger extension. For example, no extension have been reported above the Pampean flat-slab in Chile (e.g., *Ramos et al.*, 2002), whereas the Nazca Plate have the same age and dip in these two segments (*Barazangi and Isacks*, 1976; *Müller et al.*, 2008). The presence of an over-thickened crust (~50 km, *James*, 1971) in Peru could favor extension independently of subduction properties (*Froidevaux and Isacks*, 1984). In addition, the amount of sediments on the oceanic plate is different in Peru and Chile: The sediment thickness reaches ~500 m in Peru, in Chile there is no sediments (*Divins*, 2006). The presence of sediment can change the plate interface properties (*Ruff*, 1989). Indeed, in Peru GPS survey suggest the subduction interface is not homogeneously coupled along-strike with the existence of a ~500 km-long uncoupled segment in northern Peru whereas in southern Peru and Chile the subduction interface is characterized by highly coupled asperities separated by narrower zones of low interseismic coupling (*Nocquet et al.*, 2014; *Saillard et al.*, 2017).

6. Conclusions

Our data suggest a complex tectonic history in the Cordillera Blanca region. The analysis of ductile deformation in the eastern part of the Cordillera Blanca batholith (8 Ma) suggests that the batholith emplaced in a dextral strike-slip context according to *Petford and Atherton* (1992) observations. In a younger part of the Cordillera Blanca batholith (~4.5 Ma) the ductile deformation indicates NE-SW extension. Then, the multistep deformation recorded in the Cordillera Blanca indicated the succession of different tectonic regimes (dextral strike-slip, NE-SW extension, E-W compression and NE-SW extension) above the Peruvian flat-slab. The presence of the crustal-scale CBNF and our NE-SW extensional stress tensor suggest that flat subduction can trigger extension in the Western Cordillera while in the Eastern Cordillera the shortening migrate eastward (*Mégard*, 1984). The extension may be facilitated by the presence of a thickened crust in Peru (*Froidevaux and Isacks*, 1984), an absolute movement of the overriding plate toward the trench or by a decrease of the convergence rate and a low

coupling at the plate interface (Somoza, 1998; Nocquet *et al.*, 2014). In the context of the long-lasting subduction of the Nazca Plate, we suggest that the change of tectonic regime in the overriding plate (from compression to extension) and the extension along the CBNF are likely associated to a decrease of the coupling at the plate interface at the trench and below the Western Cordillera while the shortening migrates eastwards. Finally, considering the occurrence of extension along the CBNF since 5.4 Ma and the predominant NE-SW extension regime, we suggest that flat-slabs do not always favor shortening in the overriding plate. The Peruvian flat-slab seems to not increase the coupling at the trench but only increase the coupling eastward and favor shortening migration in the subandean region.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by a grant from LabEx OSUG@2020 (Observatoire des Sciences de l'Univers de Grenoble, Investissements d'Avenir, ANR10 LABX56), and SMINGUE. We thank the SERNAMP for allowing access to the Cordillera Blanca National Park. We acknowledge the editor, C. Costa and the anonymous reviewer for their constructive comments of this manuscript.

References

- Angelier, J. (1984), Tectonic analysis of fault slip data sets, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 89(B7), 5835–5848.
- Angelier, J., and P. Mechler (1977), Sur une methode graphique de recherche des contraintes principales également utilisables en tectonique et en séismologie: la méthode des dièdres droits, *Bulletin de la Société Géologique de France*, 19(6), 1309–1318.
- Antonijevic, S. K., L. S. Wagner, A. Kumar, S. L. Beck, M. D. Long, G. Zandt, H. Tavera, and C. Condori (2015), The role of ridges in the formation and longevity of flat slabs, *Nature*, 524(7564), 212–215, doi:10.1038/nature14648.
- Audin, L., P. Lacan, H. Tavera, and F. Bondoux (2008), Upper plate deformation and seismic barrier in front of Nazca subduction zone: The Chololo Fault System and active tectonics along the Coastal Cordillera, southern Peru, *Tectonophysics*, 459 (1-4) 1, 174-185, doi:10.1016/j.tecto.2007.11.070.
- Barazangi, M., and B. L. Isacks (1976), Spatial distribution of earthquakes and subduction of

481 the Nazca plate beneath South America, *Geology*, 4(11), 686–692.

482 Beckinsale, R. D., A. W. Sanchez-Fernandez, M. Brook, E. J. Cobbing, W. P. Taylor, and N.
483 B. Moore (1985), Rb-Sr whole rock isochron and K-Ar determination for the Coastal
484 Batholith of Peru, in *Magmatism at a Plate Edge: The Peruvian Andes*, edited by W. S.
485 Pitcher, M. P. Atherton, E. J. Cobbing, and R. D. Beckinsale, pp. 177–202, Blackie
486 Halstead press, Glasgow.

487 Bellier, O., J. F. Dumont, M. Sébrier, and J. L. Mercier (1991), Geological constraints on the
488 kinematics and fault-plane solution of the quiches fault zone reactivated during the 10
489 November 1946 Ancash earthquake, northern Peru, *Bulletin of the Seismological Society*
490 *of America*, 81(2), 468–490.

491 Bonnot, D. (1984), Néotectonique et tectonique active de la Cordillère Blanche et du Callejon
492 de Huaylas (Andes nord-péruviennes), *Thèse présentée pour obtenir le grade de docteur*,
493 *Université de Paris-Sud, Centre d'Orsay*, 1–202.

494 Bott, M. (1959), The mechanics of oblique slip faulting, *Geol. Mag.*

495 Bussel, M.A. and W. S. Pitcher (1985), The structural control of batholith emplacement. In
496 *Magmatism at a Plate Edge, the Peruvian Andes*, edited by W.S. Pitcher, M.P. Atherton,
497 E. J. Cobbing and R.D. Beckinsale, pp. 167–176, Blackie Halstead Press, London.

498 Cobbing, J., W. Pitcher, J. Baldock, W. Taylor, W. McCourt, and N. J. Snelling (1981),
499 Estudio geológico de la Cordillera Occidental del norte del Perú, *Instituto Geologico*
500 *Minero y Metalurgico, Serie D. Estudios Especiales*, 10(D), 1–252.

501 Dalmayrac, B., and P. Molnar (1981), Parallel thrust and normal faulting in peru and
502 constraints on the state of stress, *Earth and Planetary Sciences Letters*, 55, 473–481.

503 Delvaux, D. (2012), Release of program Win-Tensor 4.0 for tectonic stress inversion:
504 statistical expression of stress parameters, *EGU General Assembly Conference Abstracts*.

505 Delvaux, D., and A. Barth (2010), African stress pattern from formal inversion of focal
506 mechanism data, *Tectonophysics*, 482, 105–128, doi:10.1016/j.tecto.2009.05.009.

507 Delvaux, D., and B. Sperner (2003), New aspects of tectonic stress inversion with reference to
508 the TENSOR program, *Geological Society, London, Special Publications*, 212(1), 75–
509 100, doi:10.1144/GSL.SP.2003.212.01.06.

510 Deverchère, J., C. Dorbath, and L. Dorbath (1989), Extension related to a high topography:
511 results from a microearthquake survey in the Andes of Peru and tectonic implications,
512 *Geophysical Journal International*, 98(2), 281–292.

513 Dewey, J. F., and S. H. Lamb (1992), Active tectonics of the Andes, *Tectonophysics*, 205(1),
514 79–95.

515 Divins, D. L. (2006), Total sediment thickness of the world's oceans and marginal seas,

516 Doser, D. I. (1987), The Ancash, Peru, earthquake of 1946 November 10: evidence for low-
517 angle normal faulting in the high Andes of northern Peru, *Geophysical Journal of the*
518 *Royal Astronomical Society*, 91, 57–71.

519 Farber, D. L., G. S. Hancock (in prep), Tectonic and glacial forcing of motion along an active
520 detachment fault.

- 521 Folguera, A., T. Zapata, and V. A. Ramos (2006), Late Cenozoic extension and the evolution
522 of the Neuquén Andes, *Geological Society of America special papers*, 407, 267–285.
- 523 Froidevaux, C., and B. L. Isacks (1984), The mechanical state of the lithosphere in the
524 Altiplano-Puna segment of the Andes, *Earth and Planetary Science letters*, 71(2), 305–
525 314.
- 526 Gayet, M., L. G. Marshall, and T. Sempéré (1991), The Mesozoic and Paleocene vertebrates
527 of Bolivia and their stratigraphic context: a review, in *Fósiles y Facies de Bolivia*, edited by
528 R. Suárez, 12(3-4), 393–433.
529
- 530 Gérault, M., L. Husson, M. S. Miller, and E. D. Humphreys (2015), Flat - slab subduction,
531 topography, and mantle dynamics in southwestern Mexico, *Tectonics*,
532 doi:10.1002/(ISSN)1944-9194.
- 533 Giovanni, M. K. (2007), Tectonic and Thermal Evolution of the Cordillera Blanca
534 Detachment System, Peruvian Andes: Implication for Normal Faulting in a
535 Contractional Orogen, 1–255 pp. University of California, Los Angeles.
- 536 Giovanni, M. K., B. K. Horton, C. N. Garzione, B. McNulty, and M. Grove (2010),
537 Extensional basin evolution in the Cordillera Blanca, Peru: Stratigraphic and isotopic
538 records of detachment faulting and orogenic collapse in the Andean hinterland, *Tectonics*,
539 29(6), TC6007, doi:10.1029/2010TC002666.
- 540 Gutscher, M. A., J. Malavieille, S. Lallemand, and J.-Y. Collot (1999), Tectonic segmentation
541 of the North Andean margin: impact of the Carnegie Ridge collision, *Earth and Planetary
542 Science letters*, 168(3), 255–270.
- 543 Gutscher, M.-A., W. Spakman, H. Bijwaard, and E. R. Engdahl (2000), Geodynamics of flat
544 subduction: Seismicity and tomographic constraints from the Andean margin, *Tectonics*,
545 19(5), 814–833.
- 546 Hampel, A. (2002), The migration history of the Nazca Ridge along the Peruvian active
547 margin: a re-evaluation, *Earth and Planetary Science letters*, 203(2), 665–679.
- 548 Heuret, A., F. Funiciello, C. Faccenna, and S. Lallemand (2007), Plate kinematics, slab shape
549 and back-arc stress: A comparison between laboratory models and current subduction
550 zones, *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 256(3), 473–483.
- 551 Hodson, K. R. (2012), Morphology, exhumation, and Holocene erosion rates from a tropical
552 glaciated mountain range: the Cordillera Blanca, Peru, 1–94 pp. McGill University
553 Masters of science.
- 554 Jaillard, E. (1993), L'évolution tectonique de la marge péruvienne au Sénonien et Paleocène et
555 ses relations avec la géodynamique. *Bulletin-Société Géologique de France*, 164, 819–
556 819.
- 557 Jaillard, E. (1994), Kimmeridgian to Paleocene tectonic and geodynamic evolution of the
558 Peruvian (and Ecuadorian) margin, In *Cretaceous tectonics of the Andes*, edited by J. A.
559 Salfity, pp. 101–167, Vieweg, Teubner Verlag.
- 560 Jaillard, E., and P. Soler (1996), Cretaceous to early Paleogene tectonic evolution of the
561 northern Central Andes (0–18°S) and its relations to geodynamics, *Tectonophysics*,

562 259(1), 41–53.

563 James, D. E. (1971), Plate tectonic model for the evolution of the Central Andes, *Geological*
564 *Society of America Bulletin*, 82, 3325–3346.

565 Jordan, T. E., B. L. Isacks, R. W. Allmendinger, J. A. Brewer, V. A. Ramos, and C. J. Ando
566 (1983), Andean tectonics related to geometry of subducted Nazca plate, *Geological Study*
567 *of America Bulletin*, 94, 341–361.

568 Kay, R. W., and S. M. Kay (2002), Andean adakites: three ways to make them, *Acta*
569 *Petrologica Sinica*.

570 Lacombe, O. (2012), Do fault slip data inversions actually yield “paleostresses” that can be
571 compared with contemporary stresses? A critical discussion, *Comptes Rendus*
572 *Geoscience*, 344(3-4), 159–173, doi:10.1016/j.crte.2012.01.006.

573 Margirier, A., X. Robert, L. Audin, C. Gautheron, M. Bernet, S. Hall, and T. Simon-Labric
574 (2015), Slab flattening, magmatism and surface uplift in the Cordillera Occidental
575 (northern Peru), *Geology*, 1–4, doi:10.1130/G37061.1.

576 Margirier, A., L. Audin, X. Robert, F. Herman, J. Ganne and S. Schwartz (2016), Time and
577 mode of exhumation of the Cordillera Blanca batholith (Peruvian Andes), *Journal of*
578 *Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, 121, doi:10.1002/2016JB013055.

579 Marrett, R., and R. W. Allmendinger (1990), Kinematic analysis of fault-slip data, *Journal of*
580 *Structural Geology*, 12(8), 973–986.

581 Martinod, J., L. Husson, P. Roperch, B. Guillaume, and N. Espurt (2010a), Horizontal
582 subduction zones, convergence velocity and the building of the Andes, *Earth and*
583 *Planetary Science letters*, 299(3-4), 299–309, doi:10.1016/j.epsl.2010.09.010.

584 McKee, E. H., and D. C. Noble (1982), Miocene volcanism and deformation in the western
585 Cordillera and high plateaus of south-central Peru, *Geological Society of America*
586 *Bulletin*, 93(8), 657–662.

587 McNulty, B. A., and D. L. Farber (2002), Active detachment faulting above the Peruvian flat
588 slab, *Geology*, 30(6), 567–570.

589 McNulty, B. A., D. L. Farber, G. S. Wallace, R. Lopez, and O. Palacios (1998), Role of plate
590 kinematics and plate-slip-vector partitioning in continental magmatic arcs: Evidence from
591 the Cordillera Blanca, Peru, *Geology*, 26(9), 827–830.

592 Mégard, F. (1978), Etude géologique des Andes du Pérou central: Mémoire ORSTROM, 86.

593 Mégard, F. (1984), The Andean orogenic period and its major structures in central and
594 northern Peru, *Journal of the Geological Society*, 141(5), 893–900.

595 Mégard, F., D. C. Noble, E. H. McKEE, and H. Bellon (1984), Multiple pulses of Neogene
596 compressive deformation in the Ayacucho intermontane basin, Andes of central Peru,
597 *Geological Society of America Bulletin*, 95(9), 1108–1117.

598 Mukasa, S. B. (1984), Comparative Pb isotope systematics and zircon U-Pb geochronology
599 for the Coastal, San Nicolás and Cordillera Blanca Batholiths, Peru, PhD thesis,
600 University of California, Santa Barbara.

601 Müller, R. D., M. Sdrolias, C. Gaina, and W. R. Roest (2008), Age, spreading rates, and
602 spreading asymmetry of the world's ocean crust, *Geochem. Geophys. Geosyst.*, 9(4), 1–
603 19, doi:10.1029/2007GC001743.

604 Noble, D. C., E. H. McKee, T. Mourier, and F. Mégard (1990), Cenozoic stratigraphy,
605 magmatic activity, compressive deformation, and uplift in northern Peru, *Geological*
606 *Society of America Bulletin*, 102(8), 1105-1113.

607 Nocquet, J.-M. et al. (2014), Motion of continental slivers and creeping subduction in the
608 northern Andes, *Nature Geoscience*, 7(4), 287–291, doi:10.1038/ngeo2099.

609 Ortner, H., F. Reiter, and P. Acs (2002), Easy handling of tectonic data: the programs
610 TectonicVB for Mac and TectonicsFP for Windows™, *Computers & Geosciences*,
611 28(10), 1193–1200.

612 Pardo-Casas, F., and P. Molnar (1987), Relative motion of the Nazca (Farallon) and South
613 American plates since Late Cretaceous time, *Tectonics*, 6(3), 233–248.

614 Petford, N., and M. P. Atherton (1992), Granitoid emplacement and deformation along a
615 major crustal lineament: the Cordillera Blanca, Peru, *Tectonophysics*, 205(1), 171–185.

616 Pêcher, A. et al. (2008), Stress field evolution in the northwest Himalayan syntaxis, northern
617 Pakistan, *Tectonics*, 27(6), n/a–n/a, doi:10.1029/2007TC002252.

618 Ramos, V. A., and A. Folguera (2009), Andean flat-slab subduction through time, *Geological*
619 *Society, London, Special Publications*, 327(1), 31–54, doi:10.1144/SP327.3.

620 Ramos, V. A., E. O. Cristallini, and D. J. Pérez (2002), The Pampean flat-slab of the Central
621 Andes, *Journal of South American Earth Sciences*, 15(1), 59–78.

622 Rosenbaum, G., D. Giles, M. Saxon, P. G. Betts, R. F. Weinberg, and C. Duboz (2005),
623 Subduction of the Nazca Ridge and the Inca Plateau: Insights into the formation of ore
624 deposits in Peru, *Earth and Planetary Science letters*, 239(1-2), 18–32,
625 doi:10.1016/j.epsl.2005.08.003.

626 Ruff, L. J. (1989), Do trench sediments affect great earthquake occurrence in subduction
627 zones? *Subduction Zones Part II*, 129(1-2), 264–282.

628 Ruff, L. J., and H. Kanamori (1983), Seismic coupling and uncoupling at subduction zones,
629 *Tectonophysics*, 99(2-4), 99–117.

630 Saillard, M., L. Audin, B. Rousset, J. P. Avouac, M. Chlieh, S. R. Hall, L. Husson, and D. L.
631 Farber (2017), From the seismic cycle to long-term deformation: linking seismic coupling
632 and Quaternary coastal geomorphology along the Andean megathrust, *Tectonics*, 36(2),
633 241–256, doi:10.1029/2002JB002072.

634 Schellart, W. P. (2008), Overriding plate shortening and extension above subduction zones: A
635 parametric study to explain formation of the Andes Mountains, *Geological Society of*
636 *America Bulletin*, 120(11-12), 1441-1454.

637 Scheuber, E., and G. Gonzalez (1999), Tectonics of the Jurassic- Early Cretaceous magmatic
638 arc of the north Chilean Coastal Cordillera (22°-26°S): A story of crustal deformation
639 along a convergent plate boundary, *Tectonics*, 18(5), 895-910.

640 Schwartz, D. P. (1988), Paleoseismicity and neotectonics of the Cordillera Blanca fault zone,

- 641 northern Peruvian Andes, *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 93(B5), 4712–4730.
- 642 Sébrier, M., J. L. Mercier, J. Macharé, D. Bonnot, J. Cabrera, and J. L. Blanc (1988), The
643 state of stress in an overriding plate situated above a flat slab: The Andes of Central Peru,
644 *Tectonics*, 7(4), 895–928.
- 645 Siame, L. L., M. Sébrier, O. Bellier, and D. Bourles (2006), Can cosmic ray exposure dating
646 reveal the normal faulting activity of the Cordillera Blanca Fault, Peru? *Revista de la*
647 *Asociación Geológica Argentina*, 61(4), 536–544.
- 648 Silgado, E. F. (1992), *Investigaciones de sismicidad histórica en la América del Sur en los*
649 *siglos XVI, XVII, XVIII y XIX*, Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología, Lima.
- 650 Somoza, R. (1998), Updated Nazca (Farallon)—South America relative motions during the
651 last 40 My: implications for mountain building in the central Andean region, *Journal of*
652 *South American Earth Sciences*, 11(3), 211–215.
- 653 Soulas, J. P. (1977), Las fases tectónicas del Terciario Superior en Peru-corte Ayacucho-
654 Pisco, *Boletín Sociedad Geológica del Perú*, 57-58.
- 655 Sperner, B., L. Ratschbacher, and R. Ott (1993), Fault-striae analysis: a Turbo Pascal program
656 package for graphical presentation and reduced stress tensor calculation, *Computers &*
657 *Geosciences*, 19(9), 1361–1388.
- 658 Steinmann, G. (1929), Geologie von Peru, In *Heidelberg*, edited by K. Winter, pp. 448.
- 659 Stewart, J. W., J. F. Evernden, and N. J. Snelling (1974), Age determinations from Andean
660 Peru: a reconnaissance survey, *Geological Society of America Bulletin*, 85(7), 1107–1116.
- 661 Taylor, G. K., J. Grocott, A. Pope, and D. E. Randall (1998), Mesozoic fault systems,
662 deformation and fault block rotation in the Andean forearc: a crustal scale strike-slip
663 duplex in the Coastal Cordillera of northern Chile, *Tectonophysics*, 299(1), 93–109.
- 664 Wallace, R. E. (1951), Geometry of shearing stress and relation to faulting, *The journal of*
665 *Geology*, 118–130.
- 666 Wipf, M. (2006), Evolution of the Western Cordillera and Coastal Margin of Peru: Evidence
667 from low-temperature Thermochronology and Geomorphology, 1–163 pp. Swiss Federal
668 Institute of Technology Zürich, 7 March.
- 669 Wise, J. M., and D. C. Noble (2003), Geomorphic evolution of the Cordillera Blanca,
670 Northern Peru, *Boletín de la sociedad Geologica del Peru*, 96, 1–21.
- 671 Yamaji, A. (2000), The multiple inverse method: a new technique to separate stresses from
672 heterogeneous fault-slip data, *Journal of Structural Geology*, 22(4), 441–452,
673 doi:10.1016/S0191-8141(99)00163-7.
- 674 Zeilinger, G., J. P. Burg, N. Chaudhry, H. Dawood and S. Hussain (2000), Fault systems and
675 Paleo-stress tensors in the Indus Suture Zone (NW Pakistan), *Journal of Asian Earth*
676 *Sciences*, 18, 547-559.

677

678 Figure 1: A) Topographic map of the Andes (SRTM data) including flat slab segments and
 679 bathymetric features as the Nazca Ridge (NR) and the Inca plateau (IP; Inca Plateau location
 680 after *Gutscher et al. (1999)*). The study area is indicated by the red rectangle. B) Topographic
 681 cross-section of the Peruvian Andes at the latitude of the Cordillera Blanca showing the
 682 Cordillera Blanca (CB), the Cordillera Negra (CN), the Western Cordillera and the Eastern
 683 Cordillera.

Figure 2: Geological maps of the study area. A) Map showing the active faults mapped in this study (black lines) and from Neotectonic Open Database (grey lines), the measurement stations (white dot), the grouped sites and the sites where ductile deformation was analyzed (red dot). Inset shows a rose diagram of the fault segments azimuth B) Zoom on the CBNF with Quaternary vertical slip-rates from ¹Farber and Hancock (in prep), ²Schwartz (1988) and ³Siame et al. (2006) and location of bedrock slickensides measurement sites along the CBNF (Pachma Bajo, PB; Quebrada Llaca, QL and Quebrada Querococha, QQ).

692

693

694

695

696

Figure 3: Photographs of the CBNF. See the Figure 2B for locations. A) Triangular facets in the northern part of the Cordillera Blanca (1000 m high). B) Moraine offset at the outlet of the Quebrada Huaytapallana (offset ~100 m). C) Quaternary scarp in the Lloclla Formation (southern Cordillera Blanca) (offset ~4 m).

Figure 4: Ductile deformation in the Cordillera Blanca (see Figure 2 for location). A) Google Earth Landsat image with dextral strike-slip in the eastern Cordillera Blanca, about 20 km East from the CBNF. B) Photograph of the ductile deformation of dykes in the cliffs of the Canyon del Pato, in the CBNF zone.

703

704 Figure 5: Cordillera Blanca fault planes and striaes orientation and dip, Wulff lower

705 hemisphere stereographic projection. Measurements were done in Pachma Bajo (PB; blue),

706 Quebrada Llaca (QL; black) and Quebrada Querococha (QQ; red), see figure 2B for the

707 location of the sites.

708

709 Figure 6: Faults in the Canyon del Pato (Cordillera Blanca), Wulff lower hemisphere
 710 stereographic projection. A) All faults measurements and associated tensor calculation (PBT
 711 method) the angular deviation is shown by the histogram, n corresponds to the number of
 712 fault measurements for each tensor, Φ corresponds to a shape parameter defined here as Φ
 713 $= (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)/(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$. B-D) Tensors T1, T2, T3 and related fault-slickenline pairs (see text for
 714 tensor determination method).

Figure 7: Stress orientation for grouped sites in the Cordillera Blanca region. Stress tensors were calculated using all the fault-slickenline pairs available in one region. Ellipses represents the stress (σ_1 in black, σ_3 in white), the direction of the ellipse great axis corresponds to the azimuth of the stress axis; the shape of the ellipse gives the plunge. The two best stress tensors are shown on the maps. A) Stress tensors T1, B) Stress tensors T2.

Figure 8: Stress tensors for grouped stations. A) Stress tensors corresponding to the present day regional stress tensor (NE-SW extension) inferred from microearthquakes survey (Deverchère et al., 1989). B) Other stress tensors recorded by the brittle deformation.

Figure 9: Schematic table that summarizes the northern Peru geodynamic events, regional geology and results of stress field analyzes for the past 20 Ma. The table includes the mean convergence rate (Somoza, 1998), subduction geometry (Barazangi and Isacks, 1976; Gutscher et al., 1999; Rosenbaum et al., 2005; Margirier et al., 2015), magmatism age (e.g., Cobbing et al., 1981; Mukasa, 1984; Beckinsale et al., 1985), tectonic phases (e.g., Mégard, 1984) and our ductile and brittle deformation results.

Table 1
Stress tensors from grouped sites.

Site	Tensor	Number of couples fault/striation	PBT				Right diedra			
			Phi	Sigma 1	Sigma 3	Maximum angular deviation (°)	Phi	Sigma 1	Sigma 3	Maximum angular deviation (°)
Canyon del Pato		128								
	T1	66	0.53	85/146	01/234	30	0.51	77/149	00/058	30
	T2	12	0.44	04/095	15/005	28	0.42	15/090	11/357	32
	T3	11	0.50	38/171	14/068	29	0.64	42/181	25/066	25
Caraz		34								
	T1	9	0.53	53/108	31/251	33	0.67	54/106	33/259	24
	T2	10	0.58	66/295	20/086	34	0.55	62/328	19/099	34
	T3	8	0.70	07/265	74/165	42	0.69	00/264	67/174	30
Pueblo Libre		12								
	T1	12	-	-	-	-	0.62	61/197	02/103	30
Laguna Paron		60								
	T1	15	0.48	72/117	12/245	33	0.32	65/124	17/255	27
	T2	16	0.45	12/201	31/103	34	0.44	10/194	31/098	30
	T3	6	0.51	56/085	14/197	26	0.67	60/081	17/202	26
Quebrada Llanganuco		58								
	T1	23	0.50	65/045	25/235	34	0.56	59/104	17/226	43
	T2	8	0.50	52/010	06/109	32	0.56	58/006	07/108	32
Quebrada Ulta		63								
	T1	27	0.50	70/275	17/061	33	0.56	66/282	17/053	35
	T2	13	0.49	12/252	62/011	30	0.46	07/258	79/027	32
	T3	6	0.50	52/112	10/011	29	0.50	61/103	10/355	37
Quebrada Honda		15								
	T1	9	0.44	50/026	32/240	31	0.25	43/033	39/254	26
Quebrada Llaca		14								
	T1	6	0.50	32/256	50/036	27	0.67	01/123	56/031	44
Quebrada Rajucolta		21								
	T1	7	0.50	76/223	14/057	24	0.57	69/225	21/058	35
	T2	7	0.56	16/305	04/212	24	0.57	13/303	09/211	19
Quebrada Querococha		70								
	T1	15	0.50	59/025	24/163	30	0.47	68/032	18/251	39
	T2	16	0.44	59/130	19/005	32	0.34	67/146	16/013	32
	T3	8	0.61	05/346	27/080	30	0.62	12/346	28/083	25
	T4	6	0.54	07/041	10/133	33	0.67	04/229	22/137	31
Quebrada Pastoruri		89								
	T1	25	0.57	57/171	11/061	34	0.60	52/162	12/056	31
	T2	16	0.46	50/264	18/015	33	0.50	35/258	29/011	33
	T3	6	0.63	46/125	29/232	28	0.75	50/123	30/257	21
Fortaleza Valley		14								
	T1	7	0.55	17/326	00/230	35	0.50	31/312	06/046	38