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Renewed uplift of the Central Andes Forearc revealed by coastal evolution during the Quaternary 1 2

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19 Quaternary Uplift of the Central Andes Forearc

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32

21 *Abstract*

22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 Most of the Pacific coast of the Central Andes, between 15°S and 30°S, displays a wide (a couple of kilometres) planar feature, gently dipping oceanwards and backed by a cliff. This morphology, usually of marine orgin, is called *rasa,* and argues for a recent and spatially continuous uplift of the margin over the 1,500-km-long coastal region we describe. The cliff foot is found at a similar elevation $\left(\frac{10}{10} \text{ m ams}\right)$ all over the studied area, with the exception of peninsulas such as the Mejillones Peninsula. The compilation of published chronological data and the extrapolation of re-appraised uplift rates provide evidence for a common cliff foot age of around 400 ka (i.e., Marine Isotopic Stage MIS 11). This, together with other geological constraints, indicates a Quaternary renewal of uplift in the Central Andes forearc after a late Pliocene quiescence or subsidence.

33 34 **Key words**. Andes, Quaternary, Subduction, Rocky Coast, Geomorphology, Marine Terrace

35 *1 Introduction*

36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 How and when the Andes reached their current elevation is highly debated. Studies have mainly focused on the Oligo-Miocene uplift (see the review by Ehlers and Poulsen, 2009). There is clear evidence that the Central Andes forearc (Figure 1) was 1,000 m lower than today during mid-Miocene, as demonstrated by the occurrence of mid-miocene marine strata at \sim 1,000 m amsl (above mean sea level) (Huamán, 1985), and incision timing (e.g., Hoke et al., 2007; Schildgen et al., 2009; Schildgen et al., 2007; Thouret et al., 2007). Most of the uplift must have been achieved at the end of the Pliocene era, as indicated by a basalt flow we encountered at less than 250 m amsl near the bottom of the Ocoña valley, indicating that almost all the incision currently observed had already occurred; it has been dated some kilometres upstream, similarly near the valley bottom at 2.0 to 2.3 Ma (Schildgen et al., 2009;

46 47 48 49 50 51 Thouret et al., 2007). Despite this, the coast presents many sequences of marine terraces and beach ridges, attesting to Quaternary uplift (e.g., Darwin, 1846; Domeyko, 1848; Gonzalez et al., 2003; Goy et al., 1992; Hartley and Jolley, 1995; Hsu et al., 1989; Machare and Ortlieb, 1992; Marquardt et al., 2004; Ortlieb et al., 1996a; Ortlieb et al., 1996b; Ota et al., 1995; Paskoff, 1977; Quezada et al., 2007; Saillard et al., 2009). Nevertheless, marine terrace sequences are not continuous (cf. Marquardt, 2005; Saillard, 2008).

53

54 55 **Figure 1. Central Andes topography (SRTM data) with the extent of the study area: the central Andes forearc is hatched. The trench is shown; convergence velocity does not**

56 **vary much and the convergence vector is drawn for southern Peru, after Nuvel-1A**

⁵⁷ **model (DeMets et al., 1990).**

- 60 **Figure 2. Schematic and field illustrations of** *rasa* **surfaces. A** *rasa* **is a gently dipping**
- 61 **wave-cut surface, limited at its continent side by a cliff foot. A) General sketch of a** *rasa***,**
- 62 **which locally can be occupied by marine terraces. B) Landsat image of a** *rasa* **in**
- 63 **southern Peru. C) The** *rasa* **and cliff at Tanaka (northern limit of this study, 15.75°S,**
- 64 **photo V. Regard); the cliff foot is at ~300 m amsl. D) ~50-m** *rasa* **near Ite (Puerto Grau**
- 65 **and Punta San Pablo, 18.00°S, photo L. Audin). E)** *Rasa* **near caleta de Hornos**
- 66 **(29.61°S); cliff foot is at 200-250 masl. F) Google Earth view of Hornitos (22.85°S),**
- 67 **showing the continuity between Hornitos' sedimentary terraces and a wave cut** *rasa***; the**
- 68 **cliff foot is measured far from the colluvial wedge at 120 m amsl; the summit of the cliff**
- 69 **there is at ~1,400 m amsl. G. Relief view of Chala Bay (15.8°S) showing the transition**
- 70 **between the wave cut rasa and the terrace sequence.**
- 71 Another striking coastal feature of this region is defined by a morphology formed by a cliff
- 72 bounding a gently sloping oceanward landform (Figure 2). This landform corresponds to a
- 73 wave-cut landform with remnants of shore morphology such as seastacks or beach ridges
- 74 (e.g., Hartley and Jolley, 1995; e.g., Marquardt et al., 2004; Ortlieb et al., 1996b; Paskoff,
- 75 1970; Paskoff, 1977; Paskoff, 1978; Radtke, 1987; Saillard, 2008). It differs from a marine
- 76 terrace as its slope and relief are too high to constitute a simple terrace. However, it is
- 77 sometimes laterally connected to marine terrace sequences like in Chala (Peru, Goy et al.,
- 78 1992; Saillard, 2008)(Figure 2A). Similar features have been described along the northern
- 79 Spanish coast where it could be 1-2 Ma-old (Alvarez-Marron et al., 2008). There, the term
- 80 "*rasa*" was used to define a planation surface due to repeated highstands superimposed on an

uplifting coast (Cueto y Rui Diaz, 1930; Hernandez-Pacheco, 1950). After its formation, a *rasa* can be degraded by depositional (e.g. fan deposition or reoccupation) or erosional (e.g. cliff degredation) processes, resulting in a less marked cliff-foot. Hereafter, we follow Paskoff (1970) and refer to the coastal landform that we find relatively continuously from Nazca, Peru to Valparaiso, Chile (Figure 1) as a *rasa* (Figure 2). 81 82 83 84 85

86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94 95 96 We present a compilation of the Southern Peru-Northern Chile *rasa* cliff-foot elevation. In the literature, cliff-foot is often named as a shoreline angle or inner edge. In the following, 'cliff-foot' refers to the foot of the main *rasa* cliff and 'shoreline angle' to the foot of the secondary cliffs of the marine terraces (cf. Figure 2A). As in Northern Peru and Ecuador, we consider that the *rasa,* and therefore its cliff-foot elevation, corresponds to repeated sea level highstands superimposed on a "stable" or slowly uplifting rocky coast. In other words, only a succession of different highstands can produce such a wide morphology. We discuss its elevation distribution all over the study area in terms of uplift. Then, we review the literature concerning Quaternary palaeoshore dating (and correlation to Marine Isotopic Stages (MIS)) and attempt to extrapolate it to date this shore platform formation and emersion. We finally discuss the timing of *rasa* formation and forearc uplift along the coast of the Central Andes.

97 *2 Study area and geological setting*

98 99 100 101 102 103 104 105 106 The study area extends for 1,800 km along the central Andean coast, from Tanaka to the north (southern Peru, 74.4°W, 15.7°S) to the La Serena area to the south (northern Chile, 71.3°W, 30°S). We chose this study area because, as shown in this work, this segment of the Andean coast is currently uplifting, and displays many uplifted geomorphologic features. Further north, between Tanaka and Pisco, coastal uplift is accelerated by subduction of the southward-migrating Nazca Ridge (Espurt et al., 2007; Hampel, 2002; Machare and Ortlieb, 1992; Regard et al., 2009; Wipf et al., 2008). In turn, north of Pisco, in the Lima area, the coast segment is currently subsiding (le Roux et al., 2000), possibly related to the transient response following the passage of oceanic ridge subduction.

107 108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123 Southward of La Serena, the morphological signal is harder to interpret, probably as a result of the combined effects of greater complexity, and a greater dissection by the wetter climate. The morphological complexity of the La Serena area could be interpreted as local uplift induced by the nearby subducting Juan Fernandez ridge and its associated flat subduction segment (Le Roux et al., 2005; Yañez et al., 2002). But, in contrast to the Nazca ridge, whose meeting point with the coast is migrating southwards (Hampel, 2002), the Juan Fernandez ridge has been subducting beneath the same coastal position since \sim 10 Ma (Yañez et al., 2001), long before the formation of Quaternary uplifted shorelines. This segment of Andean coast is usually marked by the Coastal Cordillera; it has relief in the order of $\sim 1,000$ m, except in the Arica bend between Ilo and Arica where the coast dips gently oceanwards. The coastal relief is particularly well expressed in northern Chile between Arica and Antofagasta, where the coastal geomorphology is described as an ocean-facing cliff (i.e., Gonzalez et al., 2003; Ortlieb et al., 1995). This relatively simple cliff-face coastal morphology is interrupted by peninsulas such as Ilo, Mejillones or the area south of Caldera, where some of the best preserved coastal sequences are preserved. Marine terraces and *rasas* developed over the coastal batholith, forming the Coastal Cordillera all along the study area (Gansser, 1973). Flat surfaces and depressions are located

124 125 126 to the east, between the Coastal and Main Cordilleras. They are often filled by Miocene or older clastic sediments (for example the Moquegua Group in southern Peru (Huamán, 1985), or El Diablo Formation in northern Chile (Tobar et al., 1968)). The marine origin of *rasas* is

127 128 attested by fossils found on them, the remains of sea stacks, the continuity with marine terrace deposits and the ages they yield close to that of the neighbouring marine terraces (Hartley and

- 129 Jolley, 1995; Marquardt et al., 2004; Ortlieb et al., 1996b; Paskoff, 1970; Paskoff, 1978;
- 130 Radtke, 1987).

131 *2.1 Cliff-foot*

132

133 134 135 136 137 **Figure 3. Example of profiles normal to the shore (the coordinates of the profiles at the coast are indicated). All the profiles have the same vertical scale (100 m between tickmarks) but the horizontal scale differs between top profiles (continuous line) and bottom ones (discontinuous line). Greater and smaller arrows indicate, respectively, the** *rasa* **cliff foot and other shoreline angles.**

138 139 140 141 142 143 Topographic analyses are based on Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) digital elevation models (DEMs) with a spatial resolution of 3 arc seconds (~90 m) and a vertical accuracy of \sim 10 m (Farr et al., 2007). We generated cross-sections normal to the shore where the cliff-foot is clearly visible (see examples in Figure 3), and basement rock outcrops, attested by the *rasa* surface shape and the presence of sea-stacks (cf. Figures 2B, 2C and 2D): the sediment cover is thus negligible. We recorded cliff-foot elevations for each cross-section

144 along the coast (Figure 4).

145

146 147 148 149 150 151 152 153 154 155 156 **Figure 4. Top: cliff foot elevation of the main planar levels vs. distance from Tanaka. The main** *rasa* **is indicated by black diamonds whereas other levels are indicated by white squares. A level at ~100 m amsl appears clearly between Atico and Caldera (kilometres 100 to 1500). Before and after, the surface elevation trend is less clear. An upper level is found in southern Peru at ~300 m amsl, and a lower one at ~50 m amsl is found discontinuously all over the area. The ~110-m main level and lower level are progressively uplifted from kilometre 100 (respective elevations of 110m and 70 m amsl) to kilometre 0 (respective elevations of 300m and 150 m amsl), probably due to the subduction of the Nazca Ridge underneath. White triangles, diamonds and circles indicate dating locations and the technique used (see caption). Bottom: main** *rasa* **width (same points as top graph).**

157 158 159 160 161 162 163 This exercise revealed one to three planar coastal features in the study area (Figure 4). Among these surfaces, the main one has a width of between 1 and 3 km on average, and in some places reaches 10 km (Figure 4). It lies at 110 ± 20 m amsl between Atico and Caldera. This feature corresponds to a *rasa*, and is almost continuous in southernmost Peru and northern Chile, from Iquique to Caldera. In southern Peru, to the north of Atico this level is a well developed *rasa*. Its elevation progressively becomes higher and reaches ~300 m amsl in the Chala area. Between Atico and Ilo, this level is discontinuous and less clear (Figure 4).

164 165 166 167 In southern Peru, a level higher than the \sim 110 m amsl one is found in some places between Tanaka and Ilo; it is not well preserved and stands mainly at ~300 m amsl. In Chile, planation levels higher than the \sim 110 m one are only present near (and within) the Mejillones Peninsula and southward from Caldera (Figure 4).

168 A lower surface, usually located between 40 and 60 m amsl (cf. Marquardt, 2005), is

169 present discontinuously all over the area, but without major variations in its elevation except

170 in the northernmost part, north of Atico. There, its elevation increases northward, similarly to the \sim 110-m main level, and reaches 150 m amsl at the northern end of the study area

- 171 172 (Figure 4). This level is sometimes cut into the main *rasa* (see Figure 2C for example).
- 173 In the southernmost 300 km of the study area, the extensive *rasa* displays a wide range of

174 elevations (100-250 m) with no clear trends. We find this wide range to be typical in

175 uncommonly large rasas (i.e., greater than 4 km wide, Figure 3), such as around Mejillones or

176 177 Ilo, areas whose Quaternary uplift is known to be complex (Marquardt et al., 2004; Ortlieb et al., 1996a).

178 *2.2 Chronological Constraints*

179 180 A significant number of studies have been conducted to date the Quaternary sequence of shorelines (and particularly the marine terrace deposits). Dating was performed using amino

181 acids racemisation, electron spin resonance (ESR), U-Th, cosmogenic nuclide dating, or the

182 faunal content of the terrace (for shorelines related to MIS 11) (see references in Table 1).

183 184 Chrono-stratigraphic interpretations for each site (detail of individual dates are described in additional material) allow us to determine an uplift rate based on the

185 paleoshorelines. Assuming that this uplift rate is representative of uplift since the

186 187 abandonment of the *rasa* surface final abandonment, we used this uplift rate to extrapolate the age of the upper *rasa* cliff foot. We present the methodology and dates used and then discuss

188 the validity of our extrapolation.

189 **2.2.1 Methodology and dates used**

190 The age of the *rasa* could be evaluated using the following equation, assuming a constant

uplift rate over geologic times: $Age_{ESP} = \frac{S_{CF} - S_{CF}}{Z_t - sL}$ *Agez* $\hat{A} g e_{\text{ESP}} = \frac{z_{cf} A g e_{\text{Terrace}}}{z_t - s l}$ where z_{cf} and z_t are the elevations of 191

the cliff foot and the terrace shoreline angle respectively, on which the extrapolation is made; and *sl* is the highstand sea level. This hypothesis will be discussed below, because it has been 192 193

shown previously to be erroneous in the case of Altos de Talinay where the uplift rate varied 194

in time (Saillard et al., 2009). This exercise gives results for 16 sites (2 of them can each be 195

divided into sub-sites) for the age of the \sim 110 m amsl and upper levels (Figure 5 and Table 1). 196

The maximum distance between two evaluations is \sim 500 km (Figure 4). The dating results 197

found in the literature are compiled for each terrace of each site (details are in Table in the additional material). 198 199

200 It is now widely accepted that terrace inner edges correspond to sea level highstands,

201 202 which are correlated to odd Marine Isotopic Stages (i.e. MIS 5, 7, 9 in Table 1)(e.g., Bradley and Griggs, 1976; Keller and Pinter, 2002; Lajoie, 1986). Highstands are generally complex

203 with second order variations referred to as sub-stages (for example 5a, 5b, etc.). Each sub-

204 stage represents a long enough still-stand in sea level that can result in significant

205 morphogenesis, but generally interglacial maxima (or peaks) corresponding to the highest

206 highstands (e.g. MIS 5e) are best expressed in the landscape (Bull, 1985; El-Asmar, 1997;

207 Lajoie, 1986; Muhs, 1983; Pedoja et al., 2006b; Pirazzoli et al., 1993). Thus authors typically

- 208 relate terrace formation to one of the sea level highstands (column 'MIS' in Table 1), which
- 209 generally offer much more precise timing constraints than the reported dating results. In our

210 study we similarly preferred a correlation of shoreline angle to the peaks of past interglacials

211 (in Obispito for example, Table 1 and additional material). These highstands (MIS or sub-

212 stages) are relatively well known, at least in terms of timing, if not in terms of elevation of

213 214 past sea levels relative to the modern one (e.g., Siddall et al., 2006) (see Table 1). Moreover, assigning the dates to an MIS allows taking into account the global sea level (*sl*) at this time:

215 this is reported in Table 1 and used in the aforementioned equation to calculate the age of the

216 *rasa* at the cliff foot. The associated error indicated in Table 1 is a result of propagation of the

217 218 errors on Age_{MIS} the MIS (or substage) age, sl, the MIS sea level, z_{cf} , and z_t . Its complete expression is:

219
$$
\frac{\Delta(Ag e_{ESP})}{Ag e_{ESP}} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta(z_{cf})}{z_{cf}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta(Ag e_{MIS})}{Ag e_{MIS}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta(z_t) + \Delta(sl)}{z_t - sl}\right)^2}
$$
 where $\Delta(x)$ is the error on x.

220 221 222 223 224 Rarely, *rasa* deposits or the erosion surface itself have been dated in a site close to the cliff foot (Table 1: Saillard et al. 2009 for Ilo and Altos de Talinay; Leonard et al. 1994, Marquardt et al. 2004, and Quezada et al. 2007 at Caldera/Bahia Inglesa). In these cases, there is no need to extrapolate the age; consequently, we derived these ages through direct dating and we regard them as particularly reliable (highlighted in Figure 5 and Table 1).

225 **2.2.2 Results: extrapolated cliff foot ages**

226

227 **Figure 5a. Extrapolation of terrace ages to cliff foot for the main, ~100 m amsl level.**

228 **Each datum comes from a different study (see Table 1). The calculated uplift rates are**

229 **reported at the bottom. For each site (from north to south), the different evaluations are**

230 **shown (see Table 1). Extrapolations that seem more reliable than others are highlighted**

231 **in larger and bolder symbols (see text for why they are more reliable). Most of the**

232 **extrapolated ages fall in the range, 400±100 ka.**

233

234 235 **Figure 5b. Same as Figure 5a, for the upper level. Most of the extrapolated ages fall in the range 800±200 ka, but they are more scattered than for the ~110-m main level.**

236 237 238 239 240 241 242 243 244 245 246 247 The \sim 110 m level age has been evaluated with our technique to \sim 400 \pm 100 ka (Figure 5a) and Table 1). A couple of sites display a different age, but they are located around the Mejillones Peninsula (Abtao and north Mejillones) and the Coquimbo-Tongoy Bay, areas already known for their tectonic complexity (Marquardt, 2005; Ortlieb et al., 1996b; Paskoff et al., 1995). Some sites yield different uplift rates depending on the terrace used, such as in Altos de Talinay and possibly at Abtao in the Mejillones Peninsula. In these two cases, we used the dated terrace with elevation closest to that of the cliff foot as being most representative (cf. Figure 5a and Table 1). Other sites display relatively similar uplift rates, regardless of the level of the dated terrace (sites Caldera/Bahia Inglesa, Chacaya/Hornitos, Ilo and possibly Abtao and the Coquimbo Bay, Figure 5a and Table 1). These sites give evidence for a constant (or slightly changing) uplift rate, different from the highly variable one calculated for the Altos de Talinay by Saillard et al. (2009).

248 249 250 251 252 253 254 For the 150 to 450-m upper level, in a similar way, we extrapolated uplift rates derived from dated terraces found at lower levels, or chose the closest terrace from which to derive uplift rates if there was evidence for variability. Despite a greater uncertainty, the data highlight a possible common cliff foot age for the different sites at around 800 ± 200 ka (cf. Table 1 and Figure 5b). We believe this age estimate is reasonable since this result is close to direct dating of the *rasa* at the cliff foot (Figure 5b) in Altos de Talinay (678±51 10Be kyr, Saillard et al., 2009) and in Caldera (860±110 21Ne kyr, Quezada et al., 2007).

255 *3 Discussion*

256 257 258 259 260 261 262 This work aims at defining Quaternary *rasa* development in the study area, before placing this story in the framework of Andean Cenozoic growth and rise. The study area displays some *rasas* between ~16°S and 30°S. These probably represent a period with steady sea level highstands, reaching quite the same level (Siddall et al., 2010), long enough to cut a high coastal cliff. This period was followed by uplift during which repeated highstands allowed for extensive wave-cut platform (*rasa*) development or terrace deposition probably in function of the palaeogeography and tectonics, as illustrated by the peninsulas (Marquardt, 2005;

263 264 265 266 267 268 269 270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 Marquardt et al., 2004; Saillard, 2008; Saillard et al., 2009). This platform emerged and is preserved through fossilization of the abandoned cliff foot (Figure 6). In this scenario, the *rasas* in southern Peru and northern Chile can be regarded as evidence for a stage without uplift (platform underwater development) preceding an uplift period lasting until modern times. The coast shows a record of Quaternary uplift along more than 1,500 km, as indicated by the \sim 110-m main level. The lowermost level (\sim 50m) is more continuous, in particular in areas not known for displaying emerged coastal features like northernmost Chile. This uplift, after a period of relative stability or subsidence, started at 400±100 ka, based on our extrapolated age for the major *rasa* surface identified at ~110 m amsl. The age probably corresponds to MIS 9 and/or 11 (321 or 404 ka, respectively, the latter value being considered more representative). A higher shore platform, found only in Peru and in the Chilean peninsulas, could have an age extrapolated to around 800-1000 ka. This stage has possibly left remnants, not only in southern Peru and on the peninsulas, but also in northern Peru and southern Ecuador. Indeed, extensive marine landforms, locally called tablazos, are present there at \sim 300 m amsl with an age similarly estimated to be older than 700 ka by Pedoja et al.

278 (2006a; 2006b).

time 279

280 281 **Figure 6.** *Rasa* **development in relation to uplift. Top: initial stage resulting from a long period without uplift and shore platform underwater development. Bottom: emergence**

282 283 **because of uplift. Glacio-eustatic cycles could be recorded by small features within the** *rasa***.**

284 285 286 287 288 289 290 291 292 293 294 Indeed, our data emphasizes the particular setting of the peninsulas. The peninsula areas generally have a well-developed rasa of "standard" age (ca 400 ka), but they also have higher well-developed surfaces (possibly clustered around 800 ka). These observations correlate with other information regarding the MIS 11 sea level highstand. Observations from Siddall et al. (2006) indicate global, long-standing (at least 30 ka) high sea-levels during MIS 11. This could have driven extensive platform development. The question of why the peninsulas behave differently from the main onshore forearc remains open. They are all affected by Quaternary normal faults, whether they are shore-perpendicular as in Ilo (Audin et al., 2008), shore-parallel as in Mejillones (Delouis et al., 1998; Hartley and Jolley, 1995) or Tongoy (Ota et al., 1995), or slightly oblique to the coastline as in Caldera (Marquardt et al., 2004). On one hand, this observation supports the scenario proposed by Delouis et al. (1998), that the

peninsulas are active horsts which will subside when subduction erosion counterbalances the uplift. On the other hand, our observations show no evidence for subsiding zones along the coast, indicating that either the model is incorrect or that tectonic erosion does not yet balance uplift. 295 296 297 298

299 300 301 302 303 304 305 306 307 308 309 310 311 312 313 314 315 316 317 318 319 320 321 322 323 324 325 326 327 A similar renewal of uplift was deduced by Clift and Hartley (2007) on the basis of offshore sedimentation. They suggested that the renewal took place after the upper Miocene-Pliocene subsidence at around 2 Ma, with low accuracy on their timing constraints. In northern Chile, the data compilation by Le Roux et al. (2005) indicates that except when the Juan Fernandez Ridge passed into subduction, the Coquimbo area underwent slight subsidence during late Miocene and Pliocene. The Andean forearc uplift was quantified in Northern Chile to ~ 0.1 mm/vr in the precordillera between 26 and 8 Ma, dropping to ~ 0.02 mm/yr on average for the last 8 Ma (Farías et al., 2005). More accurate dating indicates uplift and canyon incision between \sim 10 and \sim 5 Ma (Hoke et al., 2007; Schildgen et al., 2009; Schildgen et al., 2007), with no more than 250 m postdating the 2.0 to 2.3 Ma-old Ocoña basalt in southern Peru (Schildgen et al., 2009; Thouret et al., 2007). Similarly, near Arica, the 2.55-2.7 Ma Lauca tuff is present at $~60$ m amsl in the Lluta river, and between the Lluta river and the Arica airport (Garcia et al., 2004; Wörner et al., 2000), whereas Quaternary marine sediments crop out at a higher elevation, indicating Pliocene subsidence followed by uplift. Our observations are more precise, both in timing and in the spatial extent of deformation. Our estimated uplift rate is quite rapid (0.25-0.3 mm/yr), and cannot reasonably be extrapolated in the Pliocene (1,000 m of uplift can be produced in less than 4 Ma), implying a recent renewal or acceleration of uplift. Our observations also indicate that during the last 400 ka, the uplift is quite homogeneous all along our study area, with the exception of peninsulas and the area where the Nazca Ridge is subducting. This argues for regional forearc uplift instead of local effects that should show some segmentation along the studied coastline. These data seem to require a mechanism of uplift (and preceding subsidence) operating at deep crustal or lithospheric levels, such as subduction processes or lithospheric mantle dynamics under the Central Andes. Proposed causes are multiple. It could be the result of a changing Benioff zone dip, as proposed by Folguera et al. (2006) for the southern Andes (36- 39°S) and modelled by Guillaume et al. (2009). This would imply a slab steepening during the Pliocene (subsidence) followed by Quaternary slab flattening: this remains to be proved. Otherwise it could be caused by temporal changes in climate-driven trench-fill leading to modifications in plate coupling (Lamb and Davis, 2003). Currently, no data support the

328 329 hypothesis of a wetter climate during the Pliocene, although a wetter climate would allow for an increase in trench fill and subsidence due to diminished plate coupling.

330 *4 Conclusion*

331 332 333 334 335 Marine morphologies along the central Andes coast reveal that the forearc was uplifted relatively continuously during the late Quaternary, apart from the peninsulas. This uplift is attested by abandoned *rasa* surfaces found along the coast, and corresponds to a renewal of uplift since at least 400 ka (MIS 11), after Pliocene quiescence or subsidence. For the moment, no cause has been identified for this uplift renewal.

336 337 338 339 340 In the peninsulas, a higher level is found, with a proposed age of $\sim 800-1,000$ ka, with lower certainty. This indicates that peninsulas have been rising for a longer period of time, allowing for a longer glacial-interglacial history to be traced in the geomorphic record. In particular, they highlight that the MIS 11 sea-level highstand is important for coastal morphogenesis, probably due to its long duration (Siddall et al., 2006).

341 *5 Acknowledgements*

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347 *6 Bibliography*

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543 *Tables*

544 **Table 1.**

545 546 547 548 549 550 551 552 553 554 555 556 557 Extrapolation of terrace ages to cliff foot ages. Data are a compilation taken from single works (and papers); all the data are presented in the additional Table. Each datum is assigned to a Marine Isotopic Stage (MIS); accuracy of this assignment is evaluated: 1: age is that of cliff foot (bold-faced extrapolated ages); 2: good, assignment must be to the correct MIS substage; 3: medium, the numerical age corresponds to a different substage to the one the data are assigned to; 4: lower: the uncertainty is of the order of one interglacial; 5: low, the uncertainty is of the order of a couple of hundred thousand years. The ancient sea level is taken from relevant studies (Andersen et al., 2008; Shackleton et al., 1990; Siddall et al., 2006). Data references are: 1-Saillard (2008); 2- Radtke (1987; 1989) ; 3-Leonard and Wehmiller (1992) ; 4-Quezada et al. (2007); 5-Marquardt et al. (2004); 6-Leonard et al. (1994); 7- GEOTOP, in Ortlieb et al. (1995); 8-Gonzalez, in Marquardt (2005); 9-Ortlieb et al. (1996b); 10-Leonard and Wehmiller (1991); 11-Labonne and Hillaire-Marcel (2000); 12- Ortlieb et al. (1992); 13-Ortlieb et al. (1996a).

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Table ADDITIONAL MAT 1.

560 561 562 563 564 565 566 567 568 Terrace age data from literature. The column sample/MIS indicate if the age is the one of the sample(s) analyzed (sample) or if it was adjusted to an interglacial highstand (MIS); when many samples are available for any specific locality, they are numbered in order to follow dates performed on one sample (frequent when ESR, U-Th or A/I are used) or dates coming from different sample associations. 'inf' in '+' uncertainty indicates minimum values. When many dates are available for one single place, an average value is calculated by weighting with the inverse of uncertainty (the minimum values are not taken into account). Reference to relevant papers are indicated; nevertheless, most of the data earlier than 1995 are reproduced in Ortlieb et al. (1995) and Paskoff et al. (1995).

Upper level

