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The Nazca Drift System – palaeoceanographic significance of a giant sleeping on the SE Pacific Ocean floor

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1 **The Nazca Drift System – paleoceanographic significance of a giant sleeping**
2 **on the SE Pacific Ocean floor.**

3 Original Article

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19
20 **Short Title:** Nazca Drift System – SE Pacific Ocean paleoceanography

21
22 **Abstract**

23 The evolution and resulting morphology of a contourite drift system in the SE Pacific oceanic
24 basin is investigated in detail using seismic imaging and an age-calibrated borehole section.

25 The Nazca Drift System covers an area of 204,500 km² and stands above the abyssal basins of
26 Peru and Chile. The drift is spread along the Nazca ridge in water depths between 2,090 –
27 5,330 m. The Nazca Drift System was drilled at ODP Site 1237. This deep-water drift overlies
28 faulted oceanic crust and onlaps associated volcanic highs. Its thickness ranges from 104 to
29 375 m. The seismic sheet facies observed are associated with bottom currents processes. The
30 main lithologies are pelagic carbonates reflecting the distal position relative to South America
31 and water depth above the carbonate compensation depth during the Oligocene. The Nazca
32 Drift System developed under the influence of bottom currents sourced from the Circumpolar
33 Deepwater and Pacific Central Water, and is the largest yet identified abyssal drift system of
34 the Pacific Ocean, ranking third in all abyssal contourite drift systems globally. The plate has
35 subducted since the late Miocene and the excess of sediments and water associated with the
36 Nazca Drift System may have contributed to the Andean orogeny and associated
37 metallogenesis. The Nazca Drift System records the evolution in interactions between deep
38 sea currents and eastward motion of the Nazca Plate through erosive surfaces and sediment
39 remobilization.

40 **Keywords:** Nazca Ridge, Nazca Drift System, Contourite drift, Oligocene, SE Pacific Ocean,
41 paleoceanography

44 **1. Introduction**

45 The Nazca Ridge separates the Chile and Peru oceanic basins (Fig. 1a) (e.g. Kukowski et al.,
46 2008). These two adjacent basins have their shallowest closed bathymetric contour at 3,600 m
47 water depth and are separated by the Nazca Ridge (Fig. 1a). These basins are open at sills and
48 trenches where bottom water flow connects to the surrounding basins (Lonsdale, 1976; Harris
49 et al. 2014; Harris and Macmillan-Lawler, 2018). The Nazca Ridge is a bathymetric high
50 marked by numerous seamounts with elongated and rough morphology (Casalbore, 2018;
51 Harris et al., 2014). This aseismic ridge is being subducting under South American Plate
52 (Pilger, 1981) interacting with the active margin by increasing tectonic erosion (von Huene, et
53 al., 1996; Clift et al., 2003; Hampel, 2002; Hampel et al., 2004). Its influence is felt as far
54 inboard as the Andes (e.g. Gutcher et al., 1999; Rouse et al., 2003) and possibly the Amazon
55 foreland basin (Espurt et al., 2007). Two Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) sites, 1236 and
56 1237, have drilled this ridge, coring Oligocene to recent sediments with pelagic to
57 hemipelagic facies (Tiedemann and Mix, 2007; Fig. 1a).

58 This region of the SE Pacific Ocean is a key location for understanding the interplay between
59 plate tectonics and climate change because the oceanic domain is under the influence of
60 southern and equatorial atmospheric cells and is famous for the Humboldt Current that flows
61 along the coast of South America (von Humboldt, 1816; Shaffer et al., 2004; Chaigneau et al.,
62 2013). The moving water masses here are the intermediate water of the Pacific Central Water
63 (PCW; 1,500-3,000 m) which has a southward movement and the deep waters of the
64 Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW, also known as CPDW; >3,000 m) that flows northward
65 (Figs. 1b and 1c; Emery and Meincke, 1986; Tsuchiya and Talley, 1998; Talley, 2013). The

66 shallow water currents are the Peru Coastal Current (PCC) and the Peru Oceanic Current
67 (POC) (Fig. 1a). The deep-water currents are: the poleward Peru-Chile Undercurrent (PCUC),
68 and Peru-Chile Counter Current (PCCC), and the northward flowing Chile-Peru Deep Coastal
69 Current (CPDCC; Chaigneau et al., 2013). The flow of water from the Sub-Antarctic Mode
70 Water/Antarctic Intermediate Water (SAMW/AAIW) into the Chile Basin is characterized by
71 a total equatorward transport of about 7 Sv (Shaffer et al., 2004). The bottom waters within
72 the study area are dominated by the AAIW and the CDW (Fig. 1b). Oxygen concentration
73 along a hydrographic section from the southern ocean to the equator (ca.85°W) illustrates the
74 vertical and spatial organization of the water masses and the direction of the current flow (Fig.
75 1c). In the SE Pacific Ocean, the deeper water masses consist of 40 to 60% AABW and 20 to
76 30% NADW but it is important to note that the CDW has not been included in this analysis
77 (Johnson, 2008). The CDW is the bottom water in the SE Pacific north of the Chile Rise and
78 it is not affected by the AABW (Tsuchiya and Talley, 1998; Talley, 2013). The Peruvian
79 margin is strongly eroded by the bottom currents from the shelf to the base of slope (Calvès et
80 al., 2017). The influence of the Andes and its uplift on oceanic currents has been modeled
81 (Sepulchre et al., 2009) despite limited documentation of geological features (Lonsdale &
82 Malfait, 1974; Lonsdale, 1976) related to oceanic currents, such as the Humboldt Current.
83 The SE Pacific is under the influence of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), with a
84 dated onset of Oligocene age (e.g. Barker et al., 2007; Lyle et al., 2007; Scher et al., 2015).
85 This setting of oceanic basins and bathymetric highs bathed by moving water masses is prone
86 to mobilization of sediments by bottom water currents and the emplacement of contourite

87 drifts (Lonsdale & Malfait, 1974; Lonsdale, 1976; Esentia et al., 2018; Juan et al., 2018),
88 despite low predicted velocities at the seafloor (Thran et al., 2018). We document the first
89 regional compilation of surface and subsurface data to describe the Nazca Drift System in the
90 evolution of the southern hemisphere oceanic cell. More generally we seek to understand the
91 role that vertical motion of water masses and seafloor bathymetry has in shaping open ocean
92 contourite drift in the SE Pacific Ocean, since the Oligocene.

93 **2. Methods**

94 Data are sourced from various vintage seafloor bathymetric surveys and seismic reflection
95 acquisitions acquired since the 1960's (NOAA-NCEI;
96 <https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/mggd.html>). The main source of regional seismic profiles is
97 the analog seismic reflection profile databank at the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory
98 (LDEO) and single channel seismic (SCS) profiles: RC0904, RC0905, RC1306, RC1307,
99 RC1804 and RC2108 (<https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/seismicreflection/index.html>). A
100 more recent seismic reflection site survey (GENEO3RR, 1997) was acquired to plan drilling
101 sites for ODP Leg 202 (Fig. 1a; Tiedemann and Mix, 2007). The vintage SCS have a lower
102 vertical resolution compared to the modern SCS that have a peak frequency of 55-60 Hz.
103 ODP Site 1237 provides ages for calibrating the seven interpreted seismic reflections from the
104 acoustic basement to the seafloor (Tiedemann and Mix, 2007).
105 The seafloor has been mapped using multibeam bathymetric data (NOAA-NCEI multibeam
106 bathymetry; <https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/maps/autogrid/>) across the Nazca Ridge and
107 surrounding Peru and Chile basins (Fig. 2a). The regional bathymetry is sourced from the
108 General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans (GEBCO) compilation group (2019;
109 https://www.gebco.net/data_and_products/gridded_bathymetry_data/). The main lithologies
110 outcropping at the seafloor are calcareous oozes and other fine-grained calcareous sediments
111 overlying the Nazca Ridge igneous basement, and siliciclastic clay and diatom oozes in the

112 surrounding basins (Dutkiewicz et al., 2015;
113 ftp://ftp.earthbyte.org/papers/Dutkiewicz_et_al_seafloor_lithology/). The seafloor
114 geomorphology (Fig. 2b) follows the previous interpretation of Harris et al. (2014). The
115 seismic dataset over the Nazca Ridge and surrounding area covers most of the different
116 abyssal to trench settings (or features) identified by Harris et al. (2014). Seafloor depths range
117 from 1,550– 5,270 m in the SE Pacific Ocean, offshore Peru (Fig. 1a). The uninterpreted
118 seismic data are in the supplementary Figure S1 and S2. The seismic data displayed in this
119 study are zero phase and have the Society of Exploration Geophysicists (SEG) normal
120 polarity, i.e., black peak indicating an increase in acoustic impedance. With a dominant
121 frequency of 55-60 Hz and a velocity of 1,800 m/s, the seismic resolution, defined as a
122 quarter of the dominant wavelength, would be 7–9 m. We use a constant velocity (1,500 m/s)
123 for depth conversion of the seafloor from time to depth domain. Depth conversions of the
124 sediments are based on a velocity of $1,800 \pm 200$ m/s derived from the refraction profiles in
125 the eastern part of the study area (Hampel et al., 2004) and two sonobuoy solutions (C13-30
126 and C13-32; Fig. 1; Diebold, 1996). No velocity measurements on sediments or wireline logs
127 has been acquired within the study area.

128 The 2-D seismic data in this study have been interpreted using standard seismic stratigraphic
129 techniques (Mitchum et al., 1977; Vail et al., 1977) based on reflection terminations and
130 seismic facies reflection characteristics (amplitude, frequency). The seafloor reflection shows
131 concordance (no termination) or truncation (erosional or structural) and together with the
132 surrounding reflections is interpreted as a sequence boundary (Mitchum et al., 1977). A
133 megasequence is defined between the acoustic basement and the seafloor reflection. In the
134 focus study site near ODP Site 1237 a detailed analysis of the seismic units with age
135 calibration is possible (Fig. 1). The seismic facies are summarized in Figure 3. Two class of
136 seismic facies are observed, the first is associated with volcanic/oceanic crust features (e.g.
137 Calvès et al., 2011) and the second to bottom current-induced sedimentary features (e.g.

138 Faugères et al., 1999; Dubois and Mitchell, 2012; Rebesco and Stow; 2001; Rebesco et al.,
139 2014 and references within; Bailey et al., 2021). A regional cross section and isopach map of
140 the megasequence allows identification of the main depocenters (Fig. 4). Oceanographic data
141 (temperature, salinity, oxygen) are sourced from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
142 Administration (NOAA) World Ocean Database (WOD13) (Boyer et al., 2013).

143

144 **3. Results**

145 3.a Seafloor morphology

146 The Nazca Ridge divides the study area along a SW-NE axis and separates the Chile and Peru
147 Basins (Fig. 2a). Within the study area we have identified, seaward of the Peru-Chile Trench,
148 the transition of seafloor types/morphologies from faulted oceanic crust type morphology (α ,
149 Fig. 2a), volcanic mound/seamount (β , Fig. 2a), to smooth seafloor associated to hemipelagic
150 sedimentation and contourite drifts (γ , Fig. 2a). The faulted oceanic crust seafloor shows
151 various sedimentary cover, with very thin drape toward the spreading centre of the East
152 Pacific Rise to thicker sedimentary cover and smoother seafloor toward the trench. The
153 oceanic crust around the Nazca Ridge is linked to fast accretion at ca.100 mm/yr (Wright et
154 al., 2016), as expressed by the numerous faults observed at the seafloor (Fig. 2a - inset α) that
155 mark the abyssal hills and abyssal plains (Cormier and Sloan, 2018). Near the trench the
156 oceanic crust and overlying sediments are affected by normal faults caused by the bending of
157 the plate by subduction (Kukowski et al., 2008). The SW Nazca Ridge shows numerous
158 volcanic mounds and seamounts (Figs. 2a inset β and 2b). Towards the northeast, the seafloor
159 of the Nazca Ridge shows fewer bathymetric highs related to volcanic features compared to
160 the southwestern part (Fig. 2b; Hampel et al., 2004). The Nazca Ridge shows the seafloor
161 geomorphology of an oceanic plateau (Harris et al., 2004; Fig. 2b), is narrow in the SW (156
162 km) and wider towards the northeast (296 km). The seafloor is smoother in the same direction
163 (Figs. 2a - inset γ , and 2b). The smooth seafloor is affected by incisions that are perpendicular
164 to the Nazca Ridge axis (Fig. 2a, inset γ) and that mark abyssal erosion linked to bottom

165 currents (Lonsdale, 1976; Land et al., 1999; Gomes and Viana, 2002; Dubois and Mitchell,
166 2012; Mitchell and Huthnance, 2013; Rebesco et al., 2014; Juan et al., 2018). The relative
167 importance of physical erosion and carbonate dissolution below the carbonate compensation
168 depth (CCD) cannot be clearly resolved (Lonsdale, 1976).

169 3.b Seismic facies

170 Two main seismic facies classes are observed within the study area. The first class comprise
171 reflectors interpreted as volcanic features, such as volcanic mounds, volcanic sills and the
172 oceanic basement itself (Fig. 3). The second class is interpreted as deep-water sedimentary
173 facies linked to the bottom currents observed to flow along the upper slopes of seamounts
174 towards abyssal basins (Fig. 3).

175 The oceanic basement facies is encompassed by a single high amplitude reflection with minor
176 to major offset related to faults (Fig. 3). This regional facies is locally affected by topographic
177 highs that are associated with volcanic mounds (Fig. 3). The mounds have a variety of heights
178 and slopes with steep or steepened flanks. These volcanic mounds have very low amplitude
179 chaotic internal facies with rare high amplitude reflections. Most of these mounds are partially
180 or completely buried under the concordant to onlapping parallel seismic facies described
181 below. A cross-cutting high amplitude facies is present in the sedimentary cover above the
182 acoustic basement. This high amplitude, saucer-shaped facies is interpreted to be indicative of
183 volcanic sills (Fig. 3). The other observed facies are all within the seismic sequence spanning
184 between the acoustic basement/oceanic crust and the seafloor. The most extensive facies
185 developed regionally above the oceanic crust is the sheeted-abyssal drift (Figs. 3 and 4) that is
186 characterized by parallel-concordant low to high amplitude reflections. The drift is mainly
187 present in the two oceanic basins of Peru and Chile and in the Peru-Chile Trench where it is
188 cut by faults (Fig. 4a). This facies was drilled at DSDP Site 321/ODP Site 1231 in the
189 northern Peru Basin (Fig. 1) where it was found to comprise fine grained sediments, such as
190 hemipelagic clay rich in siliceous fossils, discrete tephra horizons and dispersed volcanic ash,

191 as well as nannofossil ooze interbedded with iron-rich nannofossil ooze (Shipboard Scientific
192 Party, 1976 and 2003b).

193 Four other facies are observed in shallower layers of the SE Pacific Ocean. The first has low
194 amplitude reflections in seismic data, with edges marked by a moat and wavy to parallel
195 reflections. This facies is typical of a plastered drift (Fig. 3; e.g. Faugères et al., 1999) and is
196 mainly observed on the edge of the Nazca Ridge (Fig. 4b and 4c). On the edge of some
197 volcanic mounds, this facies has a mounded morphology, with low internal amplitudes that
198 show an aggrading stack towards the flank of the topographic highs and thinning towards the
199 external part of the mound. Parallel reflections are observed at the base of the mound and
200 wavy reflections towards its upper surface. A small depression is observed along the contact
201 of the mound edge with the lower structure it is supported by. This feature is associated with a
202 moat (Fig. 3). These mounded features, isolated from the main feature (separated), showing
203 basal termination that are onlap or downlap and when aside of a bathymetric high shows a
204 depressed upper surface ('moat' or contourite channel), is aggrading, and shows upslope
205 migration. Therefore, so based on Faugères et al (1999), it is then awe interpret this as a
206 mounded separated/isolated drift. Where two topographic/basement highs are present,
207 mounded features with low to high amplitude, parallel to wavy internal reflection, are
208 observed with moats in seismic data at their edges. These types of structures are typical of a
209 confined drift (Fig. 3; e.g. Faugères et al., 1999; Bailey et al., 2021). The thickest and most
210 extensive facies is typical of mounded-wedge sediments with low seismic amplitude, a moat
211 along the edge of the mound and with parallel to subparallel internal reflections. This facies is
212 identified as a fault/scarp-controlled drift (Fig. 3; e.g. Rebesco and Stow, 2001 and references
213 within) and is present from the Nazca Ridge top to the edge of the ridge (Fig. 4). This facies
214 transitions away from the ridge into thinner bedded facies such as the sheeted abyssal drift
215 (Fig. 4). In the following section the facies related to bottom currents are identified on a

216 regional section (Figs. 4a, b and c) and combined with a thickness map of the sedimentary
217 pile to define the Nazca Drift System (Fig. 4d).

218 3.c Nazca Drift System

219 Various seismic facies are observed within the complete sedimentary column between the top
220 of the oceanic crust and/or Nazca Ridge (top basement) and the seafloor (Figs. 4a-c). The
221 Nazca Drift System extends over the whole study area, with thickness varying from ca.104 to
222 375 m (Fig. 4d). Within this sequence the main depocenter is located in the northeast part of
223 the Nazca Ridge (north of 18°S) and extends from SW to NE (Figs. 4a and 4d), reaching a
224 maximum thickness in the Peru-Chile Trench. From the Nazca Fracture Zone to the Peru
225 Basin, the sequence thickens above the Nazca Ridge (Figs. 4b and d). The minimum thickness
226 of this sequence is observed in the northern part of the Peru Basin (Figs. 4c and d). Locally
227 the sequence is very thin, especially on the slopes of seamounts and volcanic mounds (Figs.
228 4a, b and c). The oceanic crust in the study area spans an age of 45 Ma on the edge of the
229 Peru-Chile Trench to younger than 32 Ma southwest of the Nazca Ridge (Hampel, 2002;
230 Müller et al., 2008). At ODP Site 1237 the oldest strata cored are Oligocene, with an age of
231 ca.31 Ma (Shipboard Scientific Party, 2003; King and Wade, 2017). The basement was not
232 reached at that location.

233 We interpret the Nazca Drift System based on the occurrence of facies related to bottom
234 currents, the thickness of the entire sequence and seafloor geometry. Its southwest extent is
235 presently not well defined because of the absence of regional seismic profiles in this part of
236 the study area. Confined drift facies between and along the slopes of volcanic mounds in the
237 southwest of the study area are observed at ODP Site 1236, but we have decided to limit the
238 Nazca Drift System northwest of this area because a connection is not possible to establish at
239 present because of the barrier created by the seamount southwest of the Nazca Ridge (Figs.
240 4a, and 4d). The Nazca Drift System is pear-shaped in plan-view, with its widest part located
241 at the Peru-Chile Trench (Fig. 4d). The facies mapped along the three regional cross sections
242 (Fig. 4a-c) show the dominant types related to extensive fault scarp-controlled drift

243 sedimentation. In transition to the sheeted abyssal drift facies in the abyssal deepest part of the
244 oceanic bounding basins, plastered drift facies are observed on slopes on both side of the
245 Nazca Ridge (Figs. 4b and 4c).

246 The Nazca Drift System presently sits in water depths of 2,090–5,330 m (Fig. 5a). Erosional
247 surfaces at the seafloor marked by toplaps and erosional truncations are observed on 2D
248 seismic profiles at water depths of ca.2,200–4,095 m (Fig. 5b). This range of water depths
249 leaves most of the upper surface of the Nazca Drift System exposed to the present day Pacific
250 Central Water (PCW) and Circumpolar Deepwater (CDW) (Fig. 5c). The asymmetric
251 thickness of the Nazca Drift System, i.e. thinner in the Chile Basin compared to the Peru
252 Basin, could be explained by northward movement of the CDW (Lonsdale, 1976). The Nazca
253 Drift System covers an area of 204,500 km². It represents the largest yet identified abyssal
254 drift system in the Pacific Ocean. Globally it is only surpassed by the Zapiola Drift in the
255 western South Atlantic and the Mozambique Channel contourite in the Indian Ocean (Flood
256 and Shor, 1988; Kolla et al., 1980; Rebesco et al., 2014). The volume of this giant
257 sedimentary body is ca.51,445 ± 5,715 km³ (Fig. 4d). If the Nazca Drift System is no older
258 than Oligocene, the average long-term accumulation rate is 0.7 ±0.08 km³/ky.

259 3.d Chronological framework

260 Unconformities are observed at the seafloor and within the subsurface of the Nazca Drift
261 System (Figs. 5b and 6). The seafloor is affected by erosion and the underlying Plio-
262 Pleistocene strata are also marked by erosional truncation at various water depths (Figs. 5b
263 and 6). The seafloor water depth at which the transition from southward migrating PCW and
264 northward migrating CPW occurs is correlative of these erosional truncations (Fig. 4b). These
265 erosive surfaces in the northeast part of the Nazca Drift System have scoured geometries, with
266 orientations suggesting they were produced by SE to NW flow (Figs. 2 and 6). These
267 subsurface unconformities are localized in areas where the sedimentary section is draping
268 fault scarps that offset the basement and have significant heave (>125 ms TWT). The
269 projected ages measured at ODP Site 1237 allows calibration of the duration of the oldest

270 unconformities observed in the southeast part of the drift (Fig. 6a-b). The older age is
271 estimated at the depth of the mid to upper Miocene and the youngest sediment above this
272 truncation is associated to the intra upper Miocene. The top of the unconformity is bracketed
273 in a depth of 149–170 m below seafloor, based on P wave velocity ranging 1,600–1,800 m/s.
274 The youngest calibrated age from the shipboard age model of ODP Site 1237 is from ca.7.7 to
275 9.4 Ma (Shipboard Scientific Party, 2003).

276 The unconformities do not seem to be associated to mass wasting because there is no scarp
277 up-dip or chaotic/transparent seismic facies diagnostic of mass transport deposits identified
278 down slope. The high carbonate content of sediment described at ODP Site 1237 excludes
279 strong dissolution as a cause of the unconformities due to sedimentation below the CCD
280 (Berger, 1978; Berger et al., 1982), thus making the erosional truncations likely to have been
281 caused by remobilization of the exposed parts of the Nazca Drift System because of intense
282 bottom current scouring, potentially active over long periods of time (Southard et al., 1971).
283 No bottom current velocity has been measured at the Nazca Ridge, but instead further north at
284 the Carnegie Ridge (Lonsdale & Malfait, 1974) and south of it in the Chile Basin (Shaffer et
285 al., 1995; 2004), where bottom water is flowing at mean speeds from 3 to 7.8 cm/s. Lonsdale
286 (1976) suggested the presence of rather slow currents east and west of the Nazca Ridge, in the
287 sill and trench where water moving from the Chile to the Peru Basin is flowing at depths
288 deeper than the adiabatic bottom layer. Furthermore, the measured tidal currents (15–20 cm/s)
289 at the Carnegie Ridge are superimposed with slow speed drift (3 cm/s). This abyssal tidal
290 current is effective at driving erosion of fine particles (Lonsdale & Malfait, 1974). By analogy
291 with the Carnegie Ridge the study area would be prone to being influenced by the same
292 processes, tidal forcing and strong bottom currents, causing erosion at the seafloor surface.
293 Experimental erosion of calcareous ooze by currents showed that the critical speed for erosion
294 to start is ca.7–10 cm/sec (Southard et al., 1971), thus corresponding to the observed values of
295 near bottom currents in the SE Pacific.

296

297 **4. Discussion**

298 4.a Initiation of the Nazca Drift System in the regional oceanic gateways framework

299 The Nazca Drift System extends from the SW of the Nazca Ridge to the Peru-Chile Trench

300 (Fig. 4). The eastward motion of the Nazca Plate since the emplacement of the drift is well

301 constrained (e.g. Hampel, 2002). Before the Nazca Ridge reached the trench normal, low-

302 relief oceanic crust was subducting. The trench-slope of South America and the oceanic

303 barrier formed by the Nazca Ridge against bottom waters moving from the Southern Ocean to

304 the equatorial domain results in a funnel for sediment transport. The oldest sediments cored at

305 ODP Site 1237 (ca.31 Ma, King and Wade, 2017) indicate carbonate sedimentation until 15

306 Ma (Fig. 7a). The basement was not reached by drilling at ODP Site 1237 but the sediment

307 column between the total drilled depth and the acoustic basement is thin (0.016 s TWT ca.15

308 m; Fig. 6), implying a maximum age of ca.36.8 Ma at the base (sedimentation rate of 2.55

309 m/m.y.; King and Wade, 2017), which is younger than the initiation of the opening of the

310 Drake Passage (41 Ma; Scher and Martin, 2006). The initiation of the Nazca Drift System

311 could be related to the opening of the Drake Passage and the northward branch bifurcation of

312 the ACC along the Pacific margin of South America.

313 Productivity of the main fraction of the sediments comprising the Nazca Drift System is

314 related to water masses and current evolution. As a result the sedimentation rate should also

315 partly reflect the signal of the current intensity, as well as sediment supply rate. The clastic

316 input is the result of the proximity of the ridge to terrestrial sources, mainly dust – eolian

317 siliciclastic, while migrating towards South America (Tiedemann and Mix, 2007). The

318 averaged 1 Myr sedimentation rate at OPD Site 1237 (Fig. 7a) in the eastern portion of the

319 Nazca Drift System increased during the period when the discontinuity is recorded 9.4–7.0

320 Ma. The thickness of the drift is higher to the north of the unconformity (Fig. 6) because the

321 bottom current related to the CPW sweeps sediments towards ODP Site 1237. About 70% of

322 the Nazca Drift System is above the CCD at present day (Figs. 4 and 5c). Reconstructions

323 based on a typical oceanic subsidence curve (Stein and Stein, 1992) indicate that ODP Site

324 1237 on the Nazca Ridge would have been above the regional CCD until 21.7 Ma (Fig. 7, Rea
325 and Leinen, 1985; Pälike et al., 2012). DSDP Site 321 in the abyssal Peru Basin north of the
326 study area descended below the CCD after 24 Ma (Fig. 7b, Rea and Leinen, 1995). ODP Site
327 1237 is shallower and crossed the CCD during the early Miocene. The CaCO₃ mass
328 accumulation rates had been stable for over ca.2 m.y. before decreasing after 20 Ma and
329 increasing towards the end of the middle Miocene at ca.12 Ma (Figs. 7a-b). This framework
330 excludes a major role for carbonate dissolution in the generation of unconformities within or
331 above the Nazca Drift System. The CCD could have been locally depressed by high
332 deposition rates, as observed at the equator (Pälike et al., 2012).

333 4.b Intensity of bottom water flow and building the Nazca Drift System

334 The thickness variation and identification of internal and superficial unconformities within the
335 Nazca Drift System shows that bottom water currents have played a key role in the evolution
336 of the sedimentary record in this part of the Pacific Ocean.

337 Framed within the last 30 m.y., the study area has been under the influence of Southern Ocean
338 evolution, as well as solid earth and hydrosphere interaction (e.g. Scher et al., 2015; Wright et
339 al., 2016) (Fig. 7c). Similar to the Eastern New Zealand Oceanic Sedimentary System which
340 is made of abyssal drift deposits (Carter et al., 1996), the Nazca Drift System has been
341 emplaced in an abyssal domain since the Oligocene under the influence of the AAC and the
342 associated Circumpolar Deepwater (CDW). The oldest sequences drilled at ODP Site 1237
343 record alternating fine-scale variation and changes in sedimentation rates that started with the
344 lowest rate operating over periods of ca. 3.6 m.y. and higher rate during shorter periods of 1.6
345 m.y. (King and Wade, 2017). These changing rates could reflect the intensity of productivity
346 and or variation in the intensity of bottom currents.

347 A widespread erosional event associated with the establishment of the ACC and the Deep
348 Western Boundary Current (DBWC) has been identified in the record of the Bounty Trough –
349 SW Pacific Ocean (Horn and Uenzelmann-Neben, 2015). A major ca.5 m.y. hiatus separates
350 the middle Miocene ca.10.4 Ma from the lower Pliocene at ODP Site 1122 (Shipboard

351 Scientific Party, 1999; Carter et al., 1999). This erosional event correlates with the
352 intensification caused by a more vigorous ACC, synchronous with the build-up of the West
353 Antarctic Ice Sheet (Carter et al., 2004). In the Drake Passage, the identified South Falkland
354 Slope Drift also contains unconformities of the same age, ca.9 Ma (Koenitz et al., 2008). The
355 thickness of the drift is a function of the evolution of sediment supply and current intensity.
356 High sedimentation rates in the early Miocene were followed by a decreasing rate during the
357 late Miocene to Pleistocene period. The identified unconformity within the Nazca Drift
358 System is dated within this middle Miocene period of intensified bottom currents, ca.7.7–9.4
359 Ma. We therefore attribute this unconformity to the same process. Geochemical analyses at
360 ODP Site 1237 show a change in nutrient burial preservation from oxygenated to more
361 reduced conditions at ca.162 mcd (8.8 Ma; Chun and Delaney, 2006). This change
362 corresponds to the depth at which the late Miocene unconformity was identified on seismic
363 reflection profiles and could be attributed to bottom water chemistry and currents' variations
364 in this part of the SE Pacific Ocean. The ACC strength has been documented further south,
365 with initiation dated to have occurred during the late Oligocene to late Miocene (Lyle et al.,
366 2007).

367 4.c Tectonic and contourite drift in the subduction channel

368 A significant part of the Nazca Ridge has been subducted since at least the end of the middle
369 Miocene ca.11.2 Ma (Hampel, 2002). Because ridge construction and the sedimentary drift
370 accumulation are older than the initiation of Nazca Ridge subduction, a potentially large
371 volume of deep sea sediments and polymetallic accumulations could have contributed to
372 orogenesis and mineralization in the Andes.

373 Water is widely recognized to be a key ingredient in the generation of magmas in subduction
374 zones, making these zones efficient carbon burial (Grove et al., 2012; Plank and Manning,
375 2019). Geodynamic reconstructions indicate that metallogenic activity has followed the
376 southward movement of the Nazca Ridge along the coast of South America (Rosenbaum et
377 al., 2005). This migration is associated with an increase in emplacement of Cu, Au and Zn

378 deposits from 8 to 6 Ma (Rosenbaum et al., 2005). The area of the Nazca Ridge subducted
379 since 11.2 Ma is estimated to represent a surface of ca. $420 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$. This subducted part of
380 the plate was covered by sediments, similar to the remaining western part of the Nazca Ridge.
381 We estimate, based on the present day thickness of Oligocene-middle Miocene strata (Figure
382 6A, 0.225 sTWT) that the maximum subducted sediment thickness was 180–200 m. This
383 results in a figure of $80 \pm 5 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^3$ of sediments that may have contributed to Andean
384 mineral evolution. The porosity of this sedimentary sequence can be high at 60–90 % (Velde,
385 1996; D'Hondt et al., 2003; Yu et al., 2020), leading to a higher than normal amount of water
386 entering the subduction channel (Bray and Karig, 1985), especially considering that
387 subduction of Nazca Ridge increased subduction erosion along the Andean margin, adding
388 even more sediment and water from any pre-existing accretionary prism. This higher volume
389 of water at the Nazca Ridge could have increased the amount of melting.

390

391 **5. Conclusions**

392 Based on seafloor bathymetry, seismic reflection data and scientific drilling sites, we can
393 draw the following conclusions:

394 (a) The Nazca Drift System has been identified in the SE Pacific Ocean. The Nazca Drift

395 System spans from the Chile Basin, across the Nazca Ridge into to the Peru Basin,

396 (b) this major paleoceanographic sedimentary feature of the SE Pacific Ocean

397 accumulated on top of the Nazca Ridge since the Oligocene,

398 (c) the Nazca Drift System represents the largest identified abyssal drift system yet in the

399 Pacific Ocean,

400 (d) the main present-day bottom currents winnowing the seafloor sediments of the Nazca

401 Drift System are related to the Pacific Central Water (PCW) and Circumpolar

402 Deepwater (CDW),

403 the initiation of the Nazca Drift System could be related to the opening of the Drake Passage

404 and the northward branch bifurcation of the ACC along the Pacific margin of South America,

405 (e) the currents have been sculpting this giant sedimentary body experienced fluctuating
406 intensities as recorded by internal unconformities identified by acoustic
407 discontinuities. The calibrated age of the oldest unconformity in the SE part of the
408 Nazca Drift System is Late Miocene (Tortonian) and can be correlated to the change
409 of bottom water conditions recorded at ODP Site 1237 from oxygenated to more
410 reduced conditions. Evidence of younger discontinuities shows that the bottom
411 currents have been varying in response to southern hemisphere climatic change and
412 the eastward motion of the Nazca Plate,
413 and a significant part of the Nazca Drift System that has already subducted has
414 contributed to the subduction channel. This spatially is further related onshore to subduction
415 magmatism and mineralization, as well as the Andean orogenic cycle since the Late Miocene
416 (ca.11.2 Ma).
417 Further analyses such as grain size and geochemistry should be able to constrain the paleo
418 bottom-current intensity, variation and the detailed emplacement of this sedimentary drift.
419 Future studies comparing these findings to drift systems occurring along other deep-water
420 fold and thrust belts in active margins will lead to an increasing number of new drift system
421 provinces.

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435 **Conflict of Interest:**

436 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

437 **Figures:**

438 Figure 1: (Colour online) (a) Bathymetry and topography of the SE Pacific locating the Nazca
439 Drift System with a blue outline (black lines; data from: single channel seismic lines from
440 Marine Geoscience Data System, www.marine-geo.org; R/V Sonne cruise SO146-GEOPECO
441 (green lines; Hampel et al., 2004) and GENE03RR (orange lines; Mix, 1997)). Sonobuoy
442 data C13-30 and C13-32 are located near ODP Site 1237 (Diebold, 1996). Arrows indicate
443 general flow directions of surface currents (black short dots bold line; PCC: Peru Coastal
444 Current; POC: Peru Oceanic Current) and subsurface currents (black long dots bold line;
445 PCCC: Peru-Chile Countercurrent; CPDCC: Chile-Peru Deep Coastal Current; PCUC: Peru-
446 Chile Undercurrent) (e.g., Chaigneau et al., 2013) along the Peru-Chile margin. Drilling sites
447 are from DSDP and ODP Legs 112, 138 and 202 (Shipboard Scientific Party, 1988; 1992;
448 2003a). STRATUS mooring is located west of the study area

449 (<https://www.pmel.noaa.gov/co2/story/Stratus>). (b) Temperature-salinity diagram at CTD
450 station 7546483(C) (Yellow triangle in Figure 1A; 15.373°S; 76.751°W), (c) Hydrographic
451 section of the SE Pacific sector, oxygen concentrations showing major water masses and
452 boundaries. AAIW: Antarctic Intermediate Water; CDW: Circumpolar Deep Water; ESPIW:
453 South Pacific Intermediate Water; ESSW: Equatorial Subsurface Water. Ridges: Sala y
454 Gomes Ridge (SyGR), Nazca Ridge (NR) Carnegie Ridge (CR).

455 Figure 2: (Colour online) Seafloor bathymetry and geomorphology of the Nazca Drift System
456 and the surrounding basins. (a) Multibeam (in color, NOAA-NCEI;
457 <https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/maps/autogrid/>) and GEBCO (gray scale;
458 https://www.gebco.net/data_and_products/gridded_bathymetry_data/) bathymetry of the
459 study area. Insets: examples of three different seafloor geomorphologies: (α) faulted oceanic
460 crust, (β) volcanic seamount, and (γ) smooth seafloor/drift (CI: contour interval). (b) Seafloor
461 typology from interpretation of Harris et al. (2014).

462 Figure 3: (Colour online) Seismic facies observed in the study area between the acoustic
463 basement (top basement: TB) and the seafloor. Two main seismic facies classes: volcanics
464 and sedimentary, are observed within the study area and interpreted based on Calvès et al.
465 (2011) and Dubois and Mitchell (2012) and Rebesco et al. (2014), respectively. TWT: two-
466 way time.

467 Figure 4: (Colour online) Regional line drawing of seismic reflection lines (single channel
468 seismic: SCS, LDEO) across the Nazca Ridge and the Nazca Drift System. (a) From
469 seamount SW of Nazca Ridge to the Peru-Chile Trench (SW-NE). (b) From Peru Basin across
470 the Nazca Ridge to the Chile Basin and the Nazca Fracture Zone (NW-SE). (c) From the Peru
471 Basin to the Chile basin and Peru-Chile Trench (W-E). D. Isopach map of megasequence
472 above acoustic basement.

473 Figure 5: (Colour online) Hypsometry of Nazca Drift System present day drift with
474 paleoceanography framework and present day water masses. (a) Scatter plot of Nazca Drift
475 System thickness as a function of water depth, (b) Nazca Drift System erosional truncation
476 relative frequency by water depth range, and (c) Nazca Drift System water depth relative
477 frequency. Present day, paleo carbonate compensation depth (CCD) and lysocline in the
478 South Pacific Ocean (Rea and Leinen, 1985). Pacific Central Water (PCW) and Circumpolar

479 Deepwater (CDW) (Tsuchiya and Talley, 1998). Depths of DSDP and ODP sites are present
480 day water depth at each site (Shipboard Scientific Party, 1976, 2003a).

481 Figure 6: (Colour online) Eastern Nazca Drift System seismic framework. (a) WSW-ENE
482 seismic profile across ODP Site 1237 with stratigraphy (Shipboard Scientific Party, 2003a),
483 (b) NW-SSE seismic profile from the Nazca Ridge to the Chile Basin, and (c) SW-NE
484 seismic profile along the long axis of the Nazca Ridge with volcanic mounds and varying
485 thickness of the Nazca Drift System. Note the volcanic sill intruding the Nazca Drift System.
486 Location map of the profiles is in the bathymetry inset map. Water masses and currents
487 directions are layered above the acoustic seafloor. Pacific Central Water (PCW) and
488 Circumpolar Deepwater (CDW) (Tsuchiya and Talley, 1998).

489 Figure 7: (Colour online) (a) Sedimentation rate at ODP Site 1237 (Shipboard Scientific
490 Party, 2003a) and (b) Subsidence at three DSDP and ODP sites with CCD and lysocline
491 depths over the last 40 m.y. in two domains of the Pacific Ocean (Rea and Leinen, 1985;
492 Pälike et al., 2012). (c) Paleoceanography, geodynamic and climatic context sourced from
493 Zachos et al. (2001), Lamb and Davies (2003), and Scher and Martin (2006).

494 **Supplementary Material**

495 Figure S1: uninterpreted and interpreted single-channel seismic data related to Figure 4. Data
496 source: <https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/seismicreflection/index.html>

497 Figure S2: uninterpreted seismic data related to Figure 6. Data source: IODP Site Survey Data
498 Bank, <https://ssdb.iodp.org/index.php>

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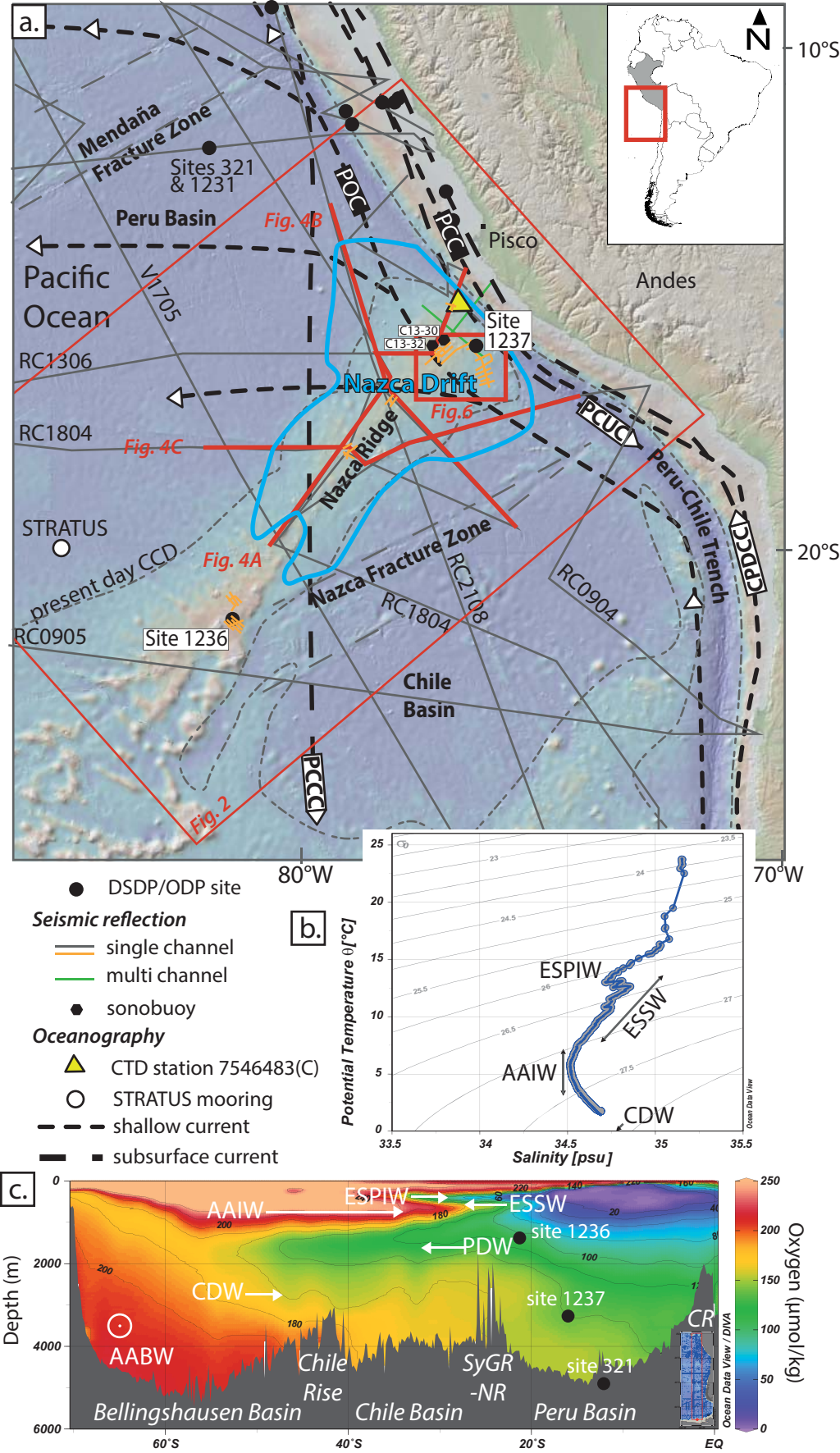
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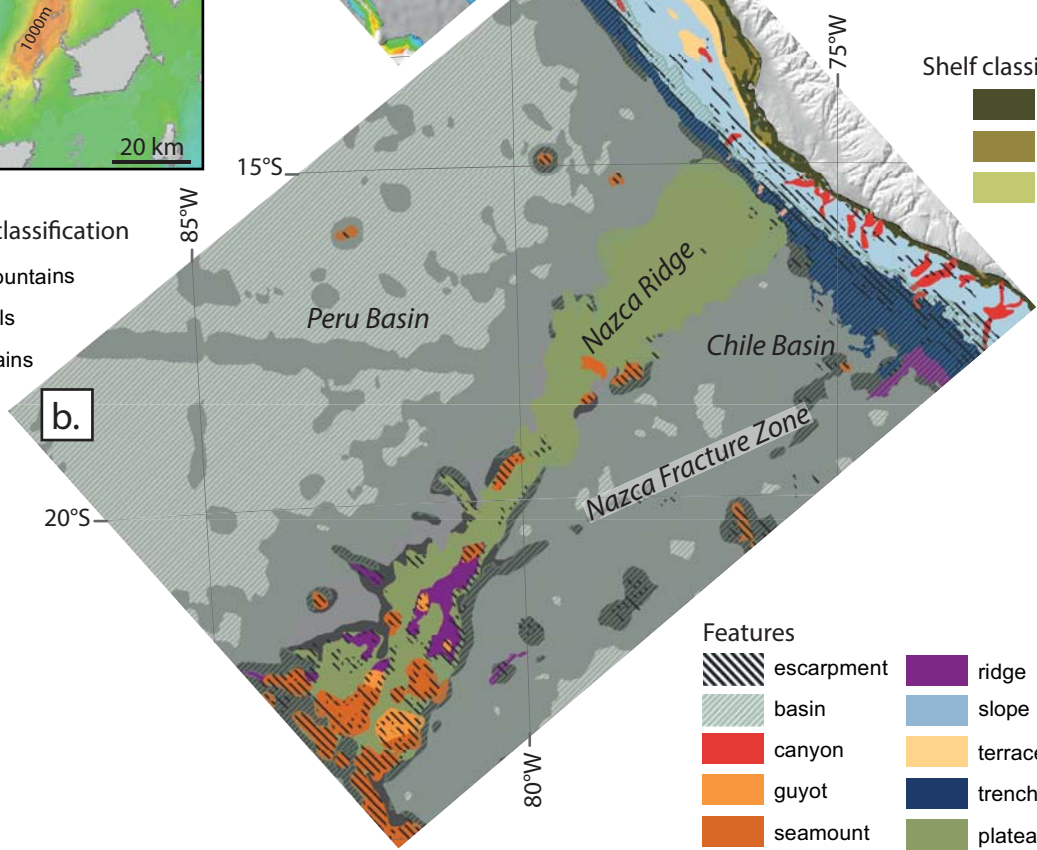
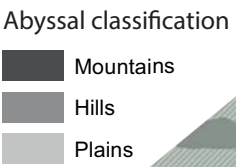
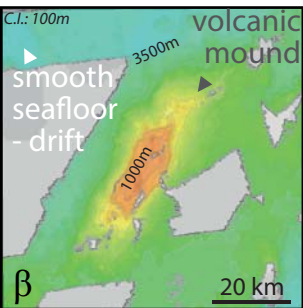
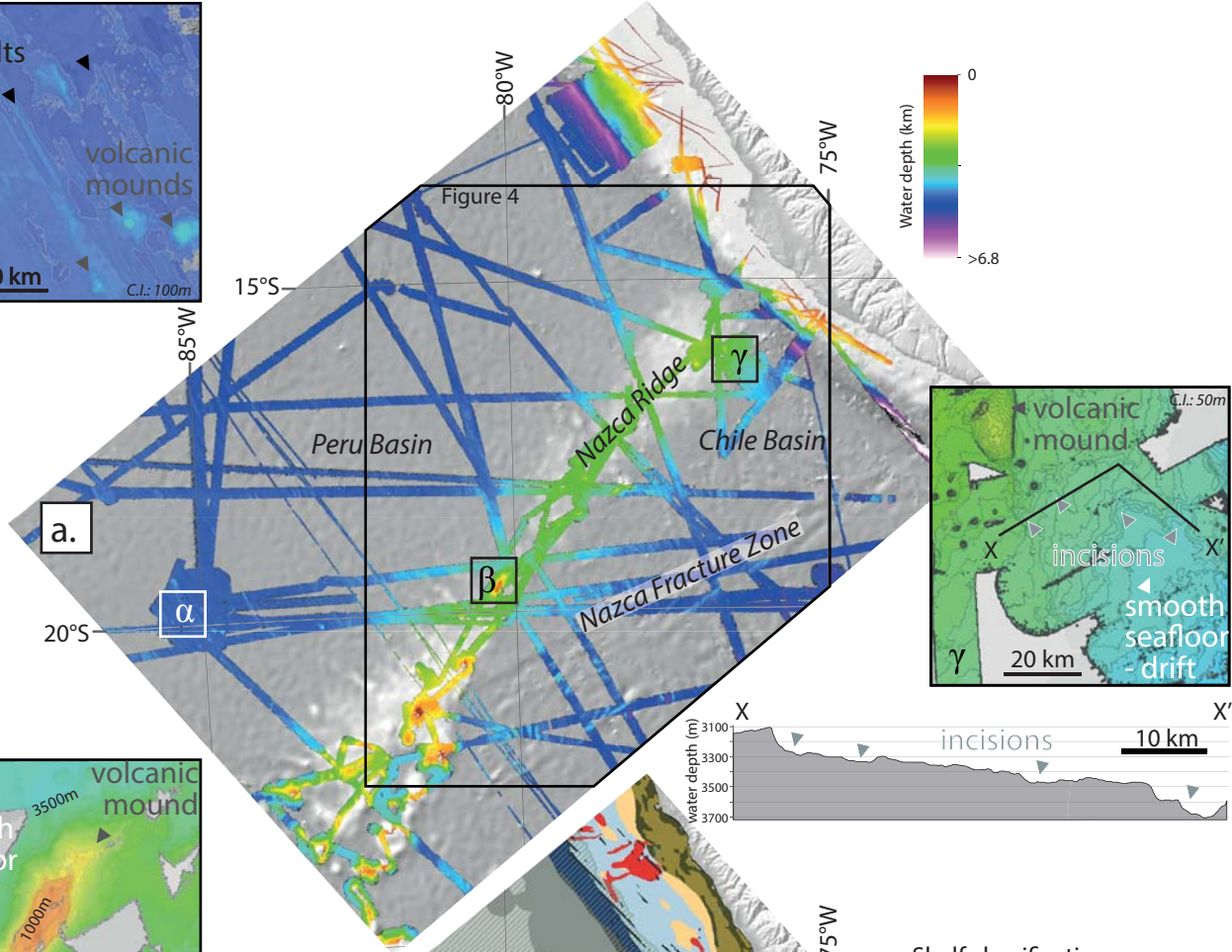
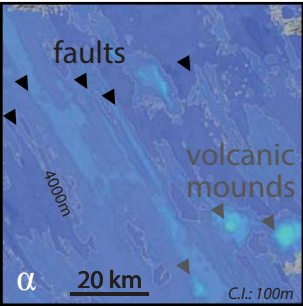
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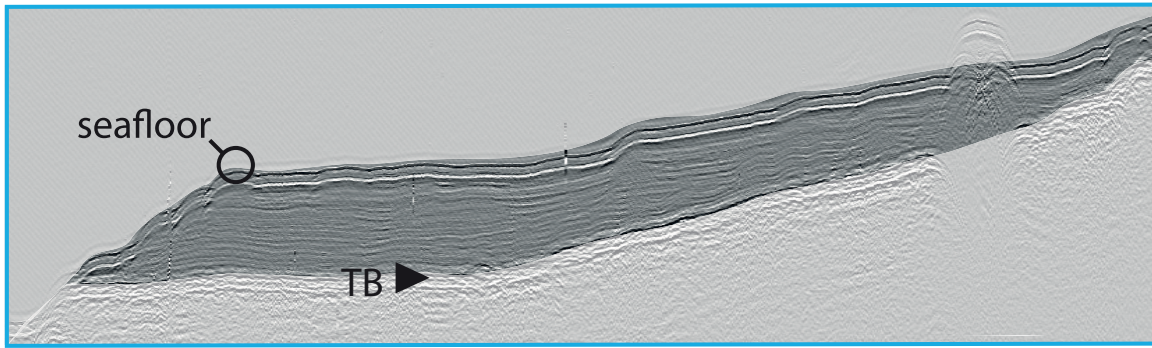
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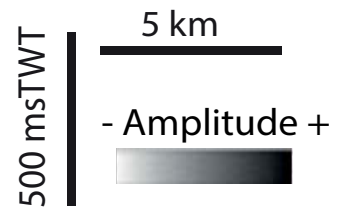




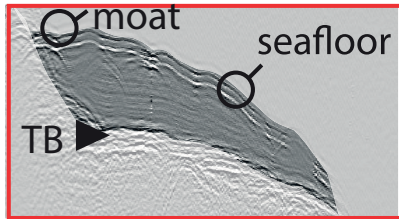
a) Plastered drift



Length: 10-25 km
Height: 10-280 msTWT

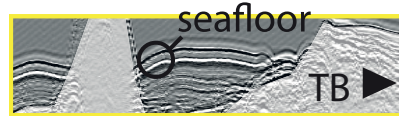


b) Mounded separated/isolated drift



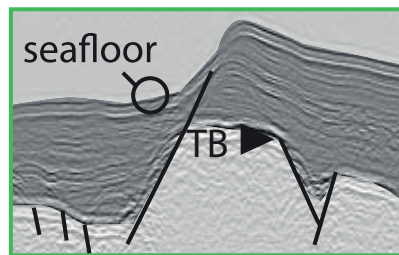
Mound / low amplitude
Moat on the edge of high
Background: parallel to wavy
Height: 0-250 msTWT
Length: 5-10 km

c) Confined drift



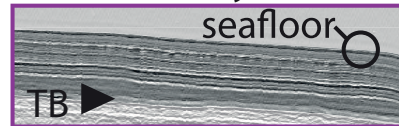
Mound / low to high amplitude
Moat on the edges of highs
Background: parallel to wavy
Length: 10->100s km
Height: 10-100 msTWT

d) Fault/scarp controlled drift



Mound-wedge / low amplitude
Moat on the edge of highs
Background: parallel to subparallel
Length: 10->70s km
Height: 10->400 msTWT

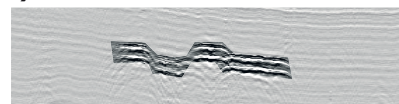
e) Sheeted/abyssal drift



Sheet / low to high amplitude
Background: parallel to subparallel
Length: 10->100s km
Height: 10-100 msTWT

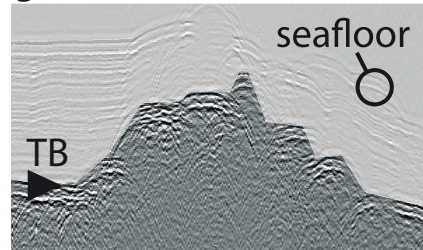
Vertical exaggeration in sediments ~x11 and in volcanics ~x4,4

f) Volcanic sill



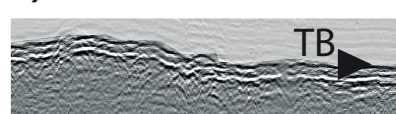
Single event / high amplitude
Cross-cutting reflection
Background: parallel to subparallel
Length: 0,5-5,5 km
Height: 0,2-0,4 sTWT

g) Volcanic mound

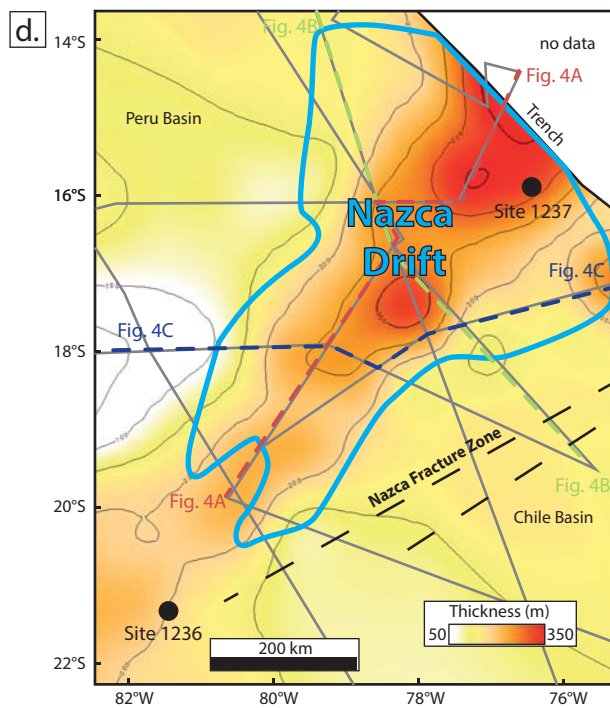
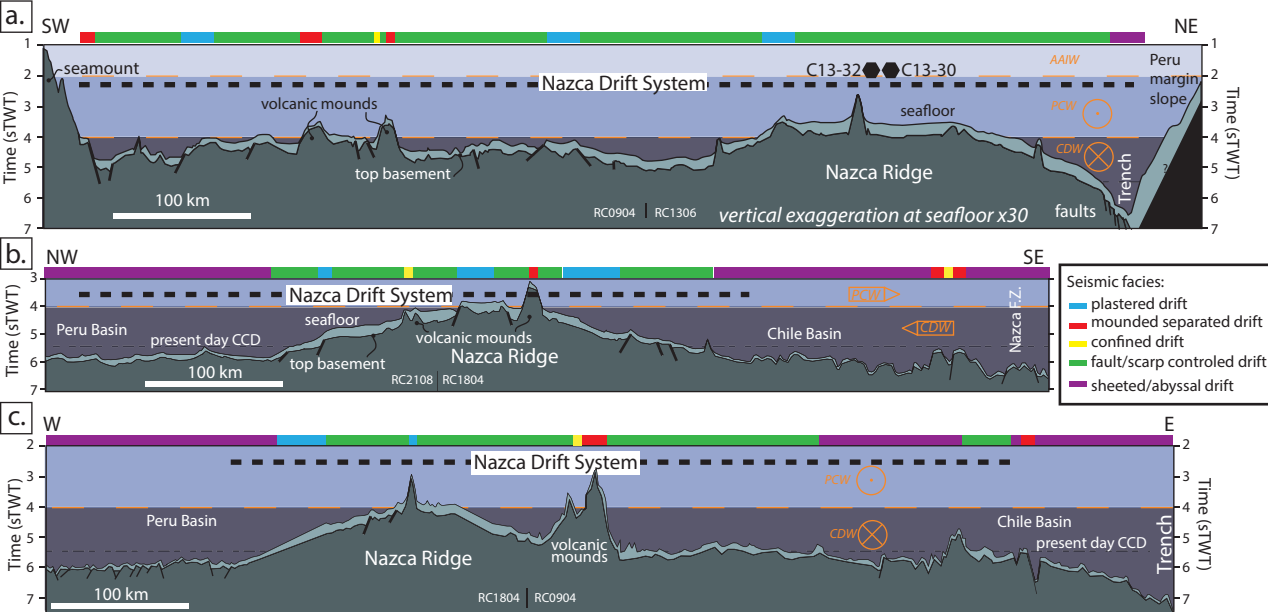


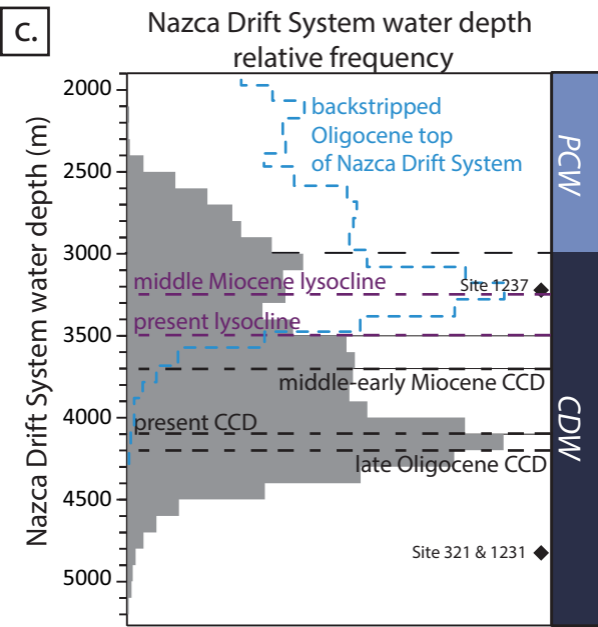
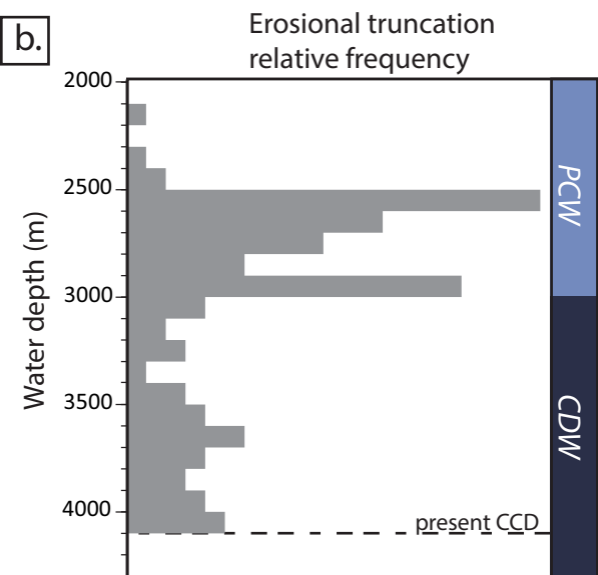
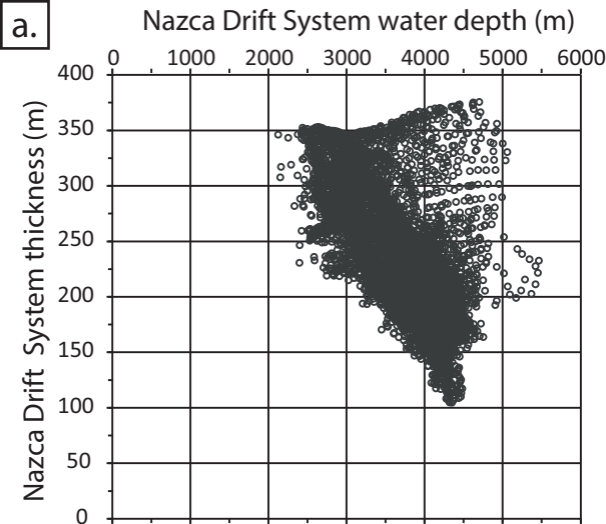
Mound / Top: high amplitude, disrupted.
Overlying: onlap or concordant
No base
Length: 1->10s km
Height: 0,2->1,4 sTWT

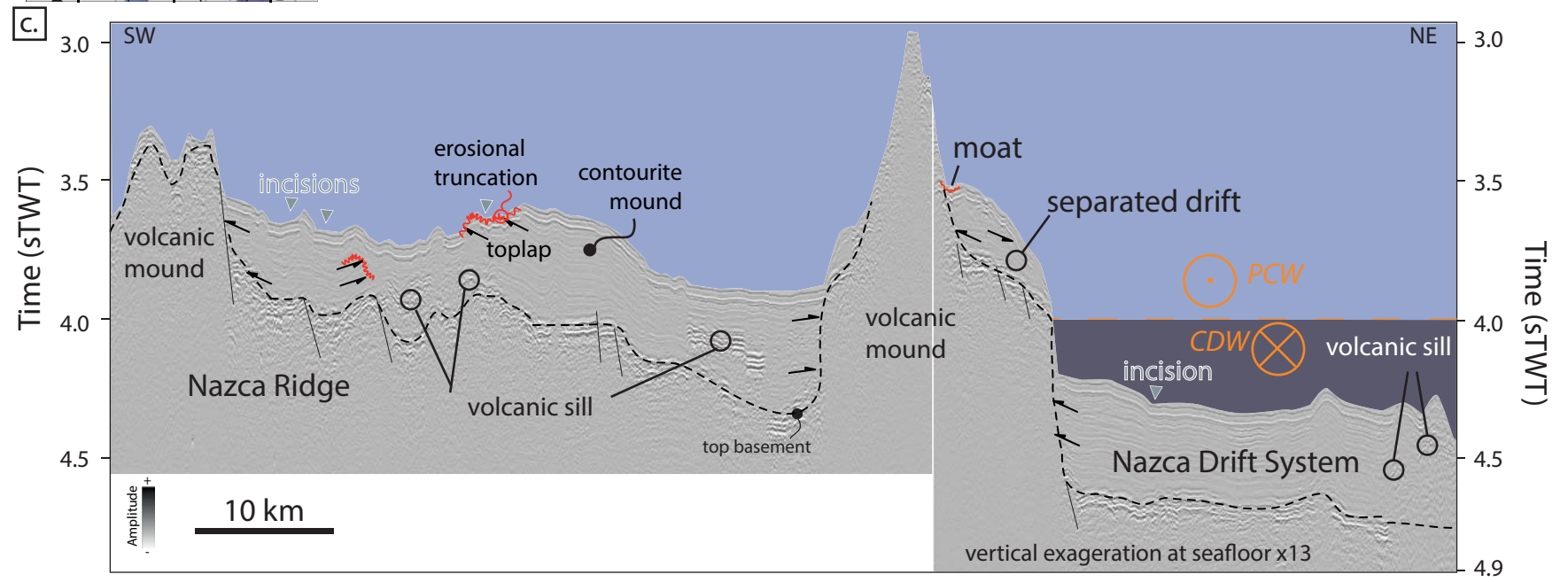
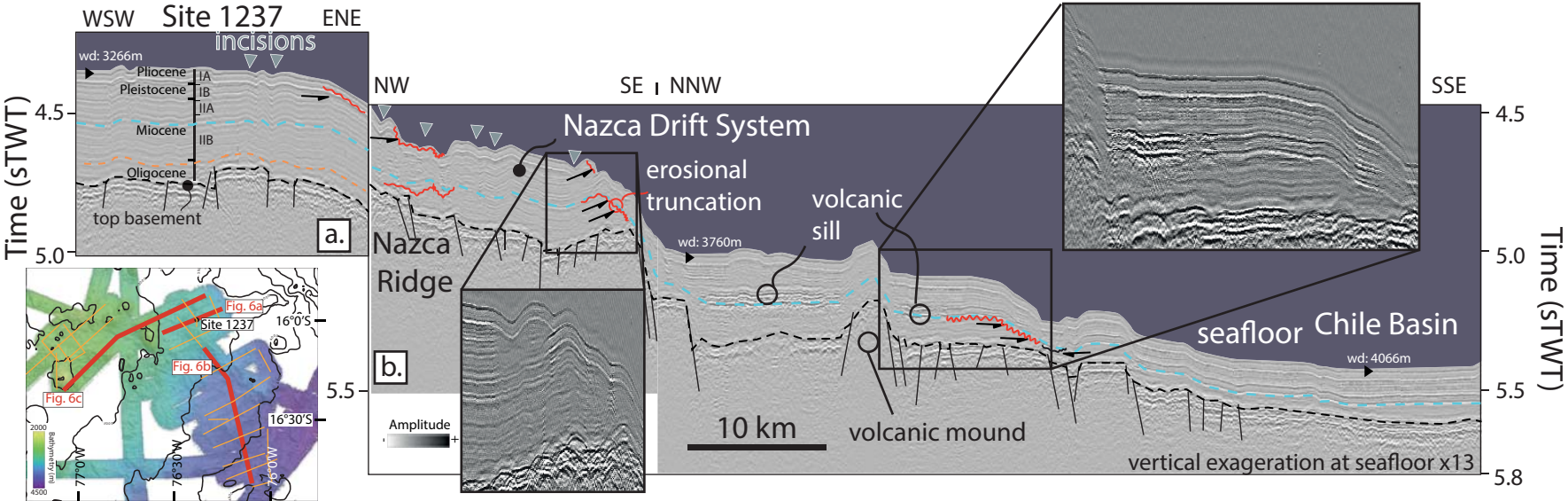
h) Oceanic crust / acoustic basement

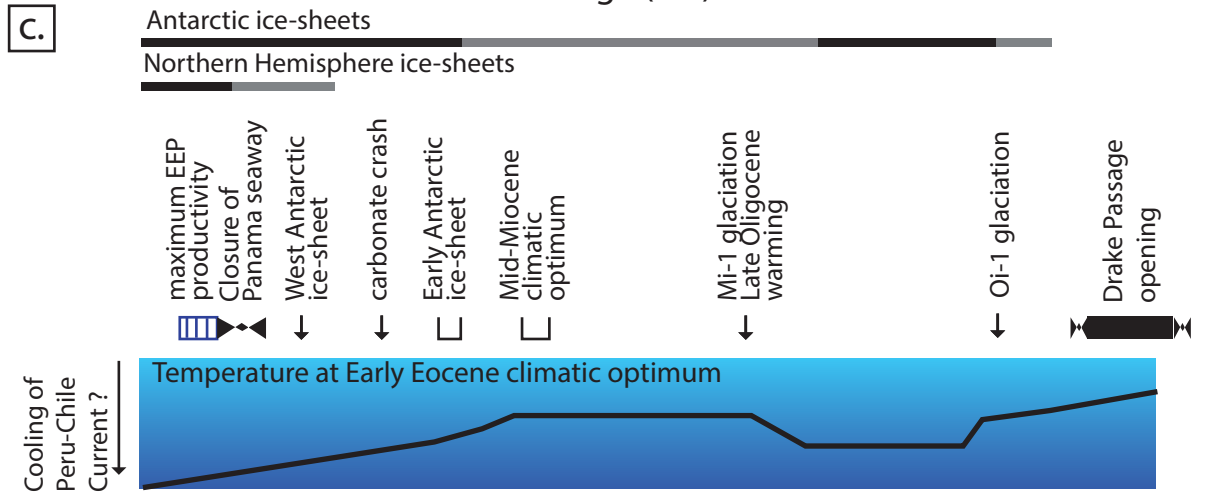
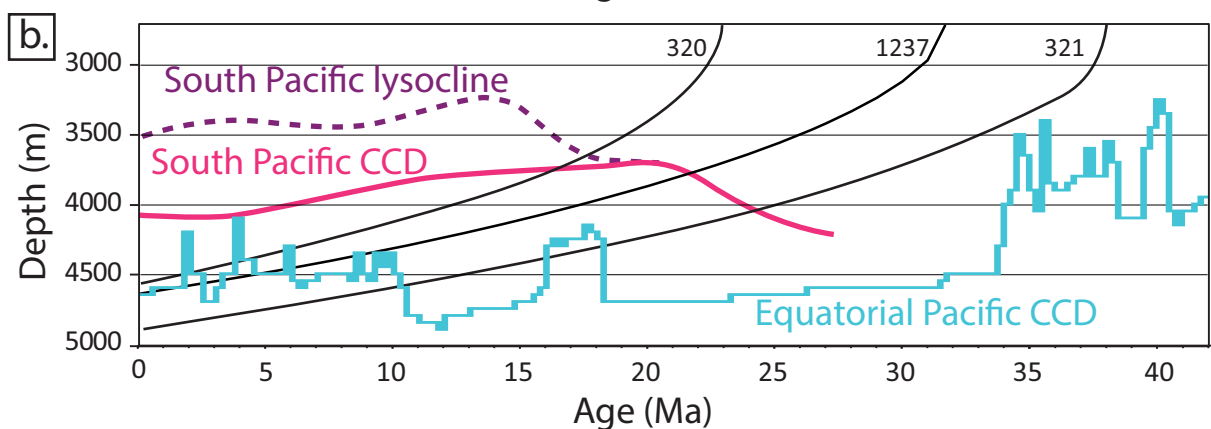
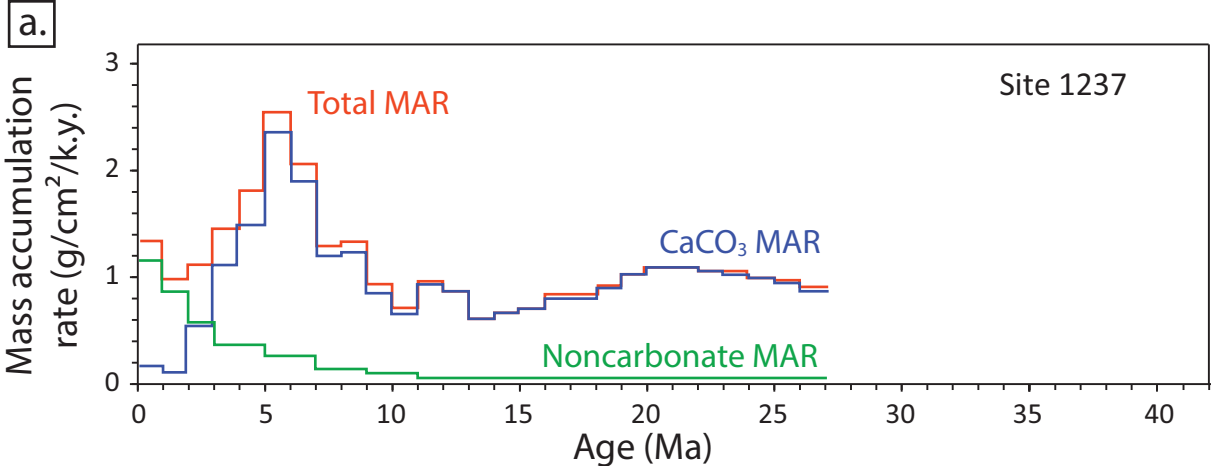


Single event / high amplitude
Overlying: onlap or concordant
Background: parallel to subparallel









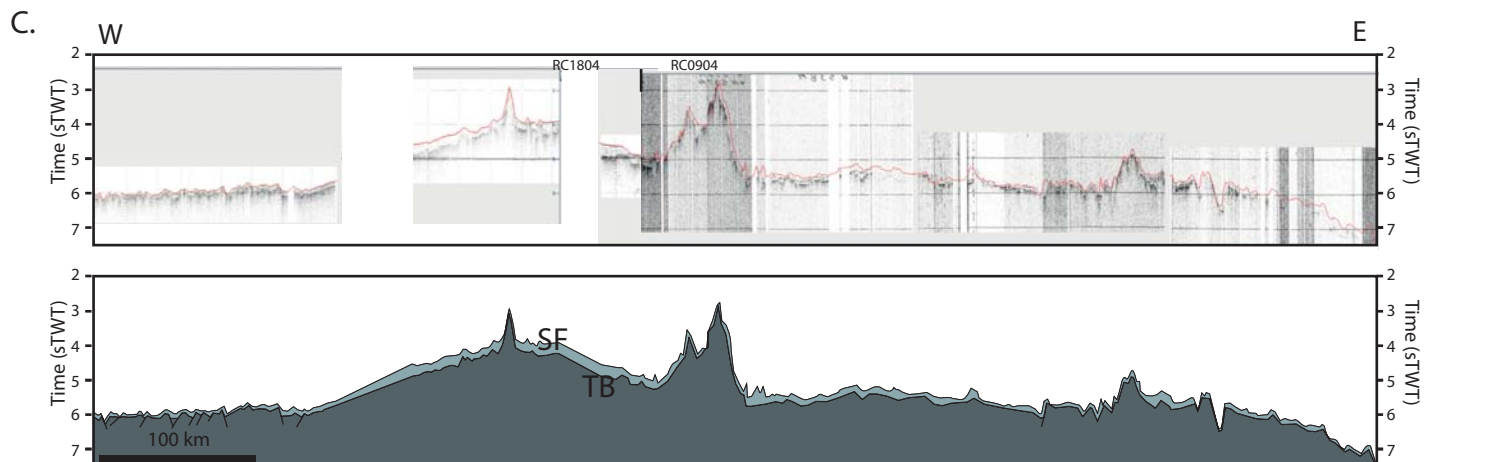
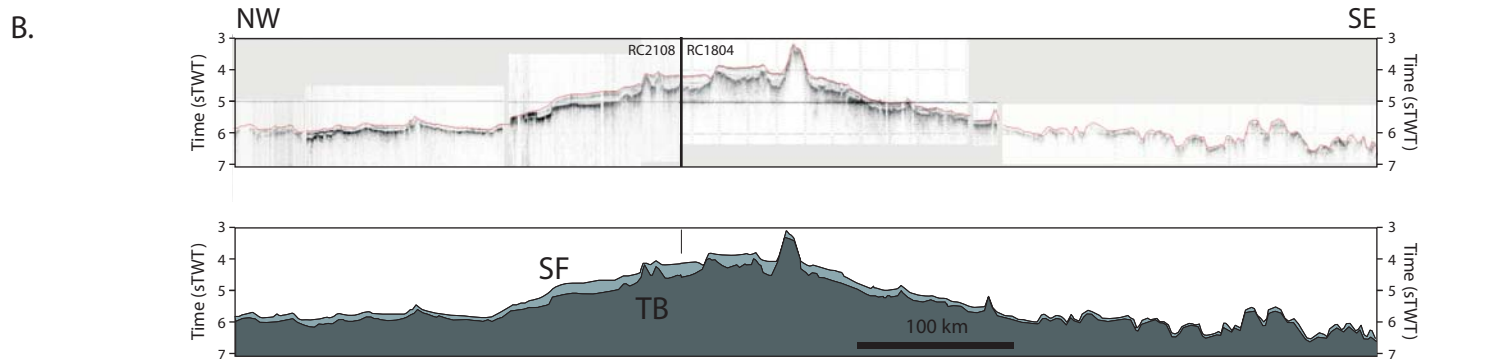
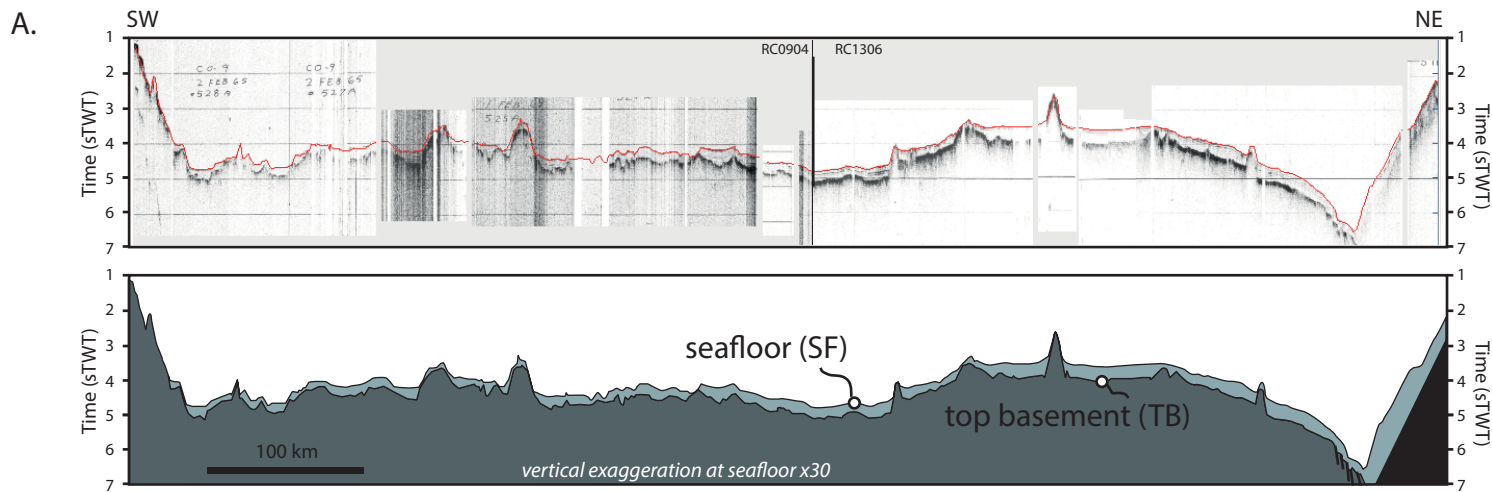


Figure S1: uninterpreted and interpreted single-channel seismic data related to Figure 4. Data source: <https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/seismicreflection/index.html>

