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1 **Late Triassic - Late Jurassic subsidence analysis in Neuquén Basin central area**

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Abstract

11 This paper presents a detailed study of the tectonic subsidence evolution during the Late
12 Triassic - Late Jurassic period in the central area of the Neuquén Basin. The methodology
13 consisted of the integration of outcrop and subsurface data, in order to obtain tectonic
14 subsidence curves for the analyzed period in the study area. The origin of the basin was
15 linked to a lithospheric mechanical extension episode in the Late Triassic - Early Jurassic
16 that, once completed, gave rise to a post-rift stage. The post-rift stage, comprised between
17 Early Jurassic and Early Cretaceous, was classically assumed as dominated by thermal
18 subsidence. Results obtained in this paper show that there is a change in the geometry of the
19 tectonic subsidence curves, which depart considerably from the expected behavior for a
20 basin dominated by thermal subsidence. Therefore, the post-rift stage of the Neuquén Basin
21 for the study area would have had a more complex tectonic evolution than that determined
22 exclusively by the thermal subsidence, and that superposition of mechanisms must be
23 considered. From the available data, a shift from thermal to dynamic subsidence from the
24 Middle Callovian onwards seems to be the most plausible explanation for the subsidence
25 evolution observed in the study area.

26

27 **Keywords:** Subsidence analysis; 1D backstripping; Neuquén Basin; Lotena Group; post-rift.

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Even though the Neuquén Basin has been studied extensively for more than a century, both
30 from the scientific and industry point of view (Howell et al., 2005), its tectonostratigraphic
31 evolution is not yet fully understood. Its development begins in the Late Triassic and extends
32 to the Cenozoic, being classically divided into three different stages: syn-rift stage (Late
33 Triassic to Early Jurassic), post-rift stage (Early Jurassic to Early Cretaceous) and foreland
34 stage (Late Cretaceous to Cenozoic) (Legarreta & Uliana, 1996). The post-rift stratigraphic
35 record is characterized by a series of discontinuities and unconformities (Howell et al., 2005).
36 Many of these surfaces were considered as the product of eustatic variations (Legarreta &
37 Gulisano, 1989) however, during this stage various tectonic events have been recognized,
38 which led to consider tectonics as a transcendental control factor over the stratigraphic
39 evolution (Zavala, 1993; Vergani et al., 1995; Fernández Seveso et al., 1996; Limeres, 1996;
40 Burgess et al., 2000; Comínguez & Franzese, 2005; Ramos & Kay, 2006; Mescua et al.,
41 2008; Barredo et al., 2008; Barredo & Stinco, 2010; Spalletti, 2013). This allows supposing
42 that more complex tectonic processes than just the thermal subsidence could have operated
43 during that stage. The stages in which the Neuquén Basin evolution has been divided imply
44 different conditions of subsidence but the published papers about tectonic subsidence in this
45 basin are scarce (Maceda & Figueroa, 1995; Sigismondi, 2012; Horton & Fuentes, 2016).
46 Although the stratigraphy of the post-rift stage is consistent with documented eustatic cycles
47 from a regional point of view, local tectonic factors (Vergani et al., 1995; Vergani, 2005) would
48 have exercised a strong control over the stratigraphic evolution modifying sediment
49 generation and dispersion patterns in the central - western area (Schwarz et al., 2006; Veiga
50 et al., 2011). In addition, the Andean magmatic arc tectonics would have generated regional

51 slopes, modifying the geometry of the basin during its evolution (Spalletti et al., 2008). The
52 objective of this paper is to analyze the subsidence mechanisms between Late Triassic and
53 Late Jurassic for the central sector, in order to understand the tectonic evolution of the basin
54 during that period. This analysis is based on the pattern variations of the tectonic subsidence
55 curves.

56

57 2. Geological setting

58 The Neuquén Basin is located on the eastern side of the Andes in Argentina and central
59 Chile, between 32° and 40° S (Howell et al., 2005), covering nearly 120.000 km² (Yrigoyen,
60 1991). It has a roughly triangular shape limited by the North Patagonian Massif to the
61 southeast, the Sierra Pintada System to the northeast and the Andean cordillera to the west
62 (Vergani et al., 1995) (Figure 1). It contains a continuous stratigraphic record of up to 7.000
63 meters thick accumulated during at least 220 My (Vergani et al., 1995) and has been
64 described as an ensialic depression located in a back-arc position since the Early Jurassic
65 (Legarreta & Uliana, 1996). Its evolution can be divided into three different stages (Howell et
66 al., 2005), which have a close relationship with the processes occurred in the western margin
67 of Gondwana (Uliana et al., 1989; Legarreta & Uliana, 1996; Franzese & Spalletti, 2001;
68 Ramos & Folguera, 2005): I) Initial or rift stage (Late Triassic to Early Jurassic). During the
69 Late Triassic and the Early Jurassic, the Neuquén Basin was affected by an extensional
70 regime (Vergani et al., 1995; Franzese & Spalletti, 2001) in a context of active subduction in
71 the southwestern margin of Gondwana (Oliveros et al., 2015; González et al., 2018). The
72 extensional tectonic regime prevailing during this period has been interpreted as the
73 beginning of the rift stage in the basin (Vergani et al., 1995; Franzese & Spalletti, 2001) and
74 according to this, the stage has been considered to have been controlled by mechanical
75 subsidence with the consequent development of grabens and half-grabens (Figure 2a), with
76 lengths of up to 150 kilometers, widths of 50 kilometers and a thickness of more than 2000
77 meters (Legarreta & Gulisano, 1989; Uliana et al., 1989; Manceda & Figueroa, 1993; Vergani
78 et al., 1995; Legarreta & Uliana, 1996). The infill includes continental siliciclastic, volcanic and
79 volcanoclastic materials (Gulisano et al., 1984; Franzese et al., 2007; Pángaro et al., 2009;

80 Muravchik et al., 2011; D'Elia et al., 2012; D'Elia & Martí, 2013) grouped into the Precuyano
81 Cycle (Gulisano et al., 1984). II) Second or post-rift stage (Lower Jurassic to Lower
82 Cretaceous). According to Uliana et al. (1989), Franzese & Spalletti (2001), Ramos &
83 Folguera (2005) and Howell et al. (2005), the post-rift stage was characterized by the
84 predominance of thermal subsidence and the connection of initially isolated depocenters
85 (Figure 2b). At the same time, Jurassic and Early Cretaceous arc magmatism is well exposed
86 in the present-day Coastal Cordillera of Peru and Chile (Rossel et al., 2013) denoting an
87 active subduction for this period. During this stage a succession of marine and continental
88 deposits was accumulated under different paleogeographic scenarios with its thickness
89 controlled by eustatic variations (Legarreta & Gulisano, 1989). III) Third or foreland stage
90 (Late Cretaceous to Cenozoic). Characterized by the disconnection of the previous basin with
91 the proto-Pacific Ocean (Aguirre-Urreta et al., 2008), continental deposits and the
92 predominance of flexural subsidence (Howell et al., 2005) (Figure 2c). The growth of the
93 Andean fold and thrust belt in the western margin of the basin would have generated the
94 deformation and exposure of Mesozoic deposits as well as the inversion of preexisting normal
95 faults (Ramos & Folguera, 2005).

96 2.1 Study area

97 The study area is located in the eastern sector of the Neuquén Basin, including the southern
98 sector of the Mendoza province and the northern sector of the Neuquén province in the
99 Argentine territory. This area was defined on the basis of the presence of outcrops and on the
100 availability of subsurface data, allowing a physical correlation of the major stratigraphic units
101 (Figure 3). It is comprised between 36°30' and 37°2 0' south latitude and 69°00' and 69°50'
102 west longitude. It has a quadrangular geometry with sides of approximately 80 kilometers

103 length, covering about 6400 km². Its north-northeast limit corresponds to the Altiplanicie del
104 Payún region, while the south-western limit is represented by the Tromen volcano. The Sierra
105 de Chachahuén constitutes the southeast boundary (Figure 3). The most outstanding
106 morphostructural features within the study area are Sierra de Cara Cura and Sierra de Reyes
107 ranges. Both structures constitute west-vergent anticlines with a north-south orientation,
108 approximately parallel to the Andean chain. The origin of these structures would be
109 associated with Andean reverse faults (Pángaro et al. 2004; Giambiagi et al. 2008; Bechis,
110 2009).

111

112 3. Stratigraphy

113 The stratigraphic record of the Neuquén Basin contains units belonging to the three stages
114 defined above. The syn-rift stage (Stage I) units were grouped under the Precuyano Cycle
115 and include pyroclastic, volcanic and epiclastic deposits of the initial filling in the Neuquén
116 Basin (Gulisano et al., 1984; Franzese et al., 2007; Pángaro et al., 2009; Muravchik et al.,
117 2011; D'Elia et al., 2012; D'Elia & Martí, 2013). These deposits exceed 2000 meters in
118 thickness and represent almost exclusively continental deposits contained within half-graben
119 structures forming isolated depocenters. The base of the unit is defined by a regional
120 unconformity named the Supratriassic unconformity while the top is limited by the Intraliassic
121 unconformity (Gulisano et al., 1984) (Figure 4). The post-rift stage (Stage II) begins with the
122 Cuyo Group (Sinemurian – Middle Callovian). The Cuyo Group (Dellapé et al., 1978) (Figure
123 4) represents the beginning of the post-rift stage in the entire Neuquén Basin (Veiga et al.,
124 2013). It is limited at base and top by the Intraliassic and Intracallovian unconformities,
125 respectively. The first one represents the first episode of marine ingression on volcanic
126 deposits of the pre-rift (Stipanovic et al., 1968) and/or deposits of the Precuyano Cycle. The
127 Cuyo Group deposits have a wide variability of facies, thickness and ages, resulting in
128 different lithostratigraphic units (Arregui et al., 2011). A variety of sedimentary environments
129 is also recognized, including deep marine (Los Molles Formation), marine platform (Bardas
130 Blancas Formation), deltaic (Lajas Formation), continental (Challacó Formation), carbonate
131 platform (Chachil Formation) and evaporitic (Tábanos Formation). Covering the Cuyo Group,
132 the Lotena Group (Middle Callovian – Late Oxfordian) (Leanza, 1992) (Figure 4) is limited at
133 the base and top by two unconformities that are called Intracallovian and Intramalmic,
134 respectively (Dellapé et al., 1979; Gulisano et al., 1984). The Lotena Group shows a lesser

135 thickness and a shorter regional span than the Cuyo Group. The lithostratigraphic units
136 involve continental sandy and platform facies named Lotena Formation (Weaver, 1931),
137 limestone of La Manga Formation (Stipanovic, 1966) and a thick evaporite sequence named
138 Auquilco Formation (Weaver, 1931) (Figure 4). Finally, the uppermost unit of the post-rift
139 stage is the Mendoza Group (Late Oxfordian / Kimmeridgian – Lower Barremian) (Stipanovic
140 & Rodrigo, 1968) (Figure 4). This unit is limited at the base and top by the Intramalmic and
141 Intrabarremian unconformities, respectively. It is composed of Kimmeridgian continental
142 clastic sediments of the Tordillo Formation (Stipanovic, 1966), marls, black shales and lime
143 mudstones of the Vaca Muerta Formation (Late Early Tithonian - Early Valanginian) (Weaver,
144 1931), continental and marine deposits of the Mulichinco Formation (Early Valanginian - Late
145 Valanginian) (Weaver, 1931) and claystones and limestones of the Agrio Formation (Late
146 Valanginian - Early Barremian) (Weaver, 1931) (Figure 4).

147

148 **4. Materials and methods**

149 Data used for this paper comes from the stratigraphic record of syn-rift and post-rift stages of
150 the basin (Stages I and II). Some of this data was collected in outcrop while the subsurface
151 data comes from the hydrocarbon industry. Field activities included the delimitation of the
152 formational units and systematic measurements of thickness, dip direction and dip and
153 fractures and faults in 207 points of interest. Furthermore, three stratigraphic logs [Cara Cura
154 Norte (CCN), Cara Cura Sur (CCS) and Reyes Sur (Reyes S)] were described in the study
155 area (Figure 5). The YPF S.A. company delivered subsurface data of reports and well logs of
156 33 exploration wells (Figure 5). Since the Precuyano Cycle has not petroleum interest in the
157 study area, only three wells (CG x-1, LB x-2 and EP x-3) reach the pre-rift deposits.
158 Therefore, the determination of tectonic subsidence for the syn-rift stage was carried out
159 using these wells together with sedimentological logs described in outcrops and bibliography
160 data (Rossi & Veiga, 1990; Naipauer et al., 2016; Drosina et al., 2017).

161 *4.1 1D backstripping*

162 The backstripping technique (Watts & Ryan, 1976) uses the stratigraphic record to
163 quantitatively estimate the basement (or any other unit) depth in the absence of sediment
164 and/or water loading over time. It applies corrections related to porosity and density of
165 sediments, bathymetry of accumulation and eustatic variations. Plotting these values across
166 time, tectonic subsidence curves can be obtained. In addition, by comparing with theoretical
167 subsidence curves, it is possible to infer the mechanisms of basin formation (Xie & Heller,
168 2009).

169 This operation was carried out using thickness, depth and lithology data obtained in the field
170 and from subsurface. Values of current porosity, lithology and density were determined from
171 well logs. The effect of sediment decompaction during the backstripping procedure was
172 calculated according to Sclater & Christie (1980) (Table 1). The determination of water depth
173 for a given stratigraphic horizon is generally far from easy. For the same rate of tectonic
174 subsidence, enormously different stratigraphic thicknesses can result, depending on the initial
175 and ensuing paleobathymetry (Allen & Allen, 2005), however for shallow water depths, up to
176 200 m, estimating the water depth is easier and the errors associated are smaller (Holt,
177 2012). In addition, any uncertainties due to water-depth assignments are reduced by working
178 with relatively thick stratigraphic successions (Xie & Heller, 2009). Information on
179 paleobathymetry comes from several sources such as benthic microfossils, other faunal and
180 floral assemblages, sedimentary facies and distinctive geochemical signatures (Allen & Allen,
181 2005). Paleobathymetry values (Table 2) were estimated from biostratigraphic reports
182 (Angelozzi & Ronchi, 1997; Ronchi & Angelozzi, 1998; Kielbowicz, 1992) based in the study
183 of calcareous microfossils, calcareous nannofossils and carbonaceous microfossils.
184 Estimations from sedimentary data were based in the sedimentary structures given that they
185 are restricted to a particular depth and quantitative techniques are available to constrain the
186 depth at which were formed (Allen, 1984; Immenhauser, 2009). For each unit, it is possible to
187 provide a palaeo-water depth uncertainty range (Berra & Carminati, 2010). Within these
188 ranges, we used the mean or the most likely bathymetry value. The use of different values of
189 palaeo-water depth (maximum, minimum and mean value) results in changes for the
190 calculated subsidence magnitude, but the geometry of the subsidence curves is the same
191 (Figure 6). Ages assigned to the units (Table 3) consist of approximations based on

192 bibliographic data collection (Franzese & Spalletti, 2001; Schwarz, 2003; Aguirre Urreta et al.,
193 2008; Palma & Kietzmann, 2008; Schiuma & Llambías, 2008; Kamo & Riccardi, 2009;
194 Spalletti et al., 2010; Arregui et al., 2011; Leanza et al., 2011; Spalletti et al. 2011; Naipauer,
195 2012, 2015). The use of eustatic level variation values from global eustatic curves is not a
196 reliable procedure and currently there is no consensus about its validity. Not only absolute
197 eustatic movements determine the height of sea level, but also local tectonic factors condition
198 the position of coastline (Kominz, 2001). Estimations made on a large temporal scale have a
199 greater probability to represent reality (Watts, 2001), but anyway can introduce a
200 considerable error in subsidence analysis. Therefore, in this paper, we decided not to apply
201 the eustatic sea level correction. Currently, 1D backstripping technique can be carried out
202 using different programs. The one used in this paper was *Backstrip* (Cardozo, 2015) which
203 was compiled to perform 1D Airy backstripping with exponential porosity reduction. This
204 program allows setting values of thickness, bathymetry, eustatic level and porosity of units to
205 obtain uncompacted thickness sediment load corrected and tectonic subsidence curves in
206 graphic and numerical form.

207 *4.2 Lithosphere flexure*

208 The long-term lithospheric response to geological loads can be satisfactorily modeled as an
209 elastic plate overlaying a weak substratum (Watts et al., 1982). While the flexural strength of
210 the lithosphere is strictly defined by its flexural rigidity (D) that it is commonly expressed in
211 terms of another variable, the effective elastic thickness (T_e):

$$D = \frac{E T_e^3}{12 (1 - \nu^2)}$$

212 where E is Young's modulus and ν is Poisson's ratio. The effective elastic thickness is a
213 notional parameter which describes the thickness of a perfectly-elastic layer with the same
214 flexural strength as the lithosphere (Roberts et al., 1998). The differential equation used to
215 obtain the plate deformation in some point of it is given by:

$$D \frac{d^4 w(x)}{dx^4} + (\rho_m - \rho_i) g y(x) = P(x)$$

216 where x is the distance along the surface before deformation, y is the deformation, ρ_m is the
217 average density of the asthenospheric mantle, ρ_i is the average density of the infill material
218 and g is the gravity acceleration value (Choudhuri & Nemčok, 2017). The software used in
219 this work to obtain the lithospheric flexion was *Flex2D* (Cardozo, 2016) which allows
220 visualizing, in plots and tables, the deformation profile produced by geological loads.

221

222 **5. Results**

223 1D backstripping technique was applied to wells and stratigraphic logs. Resulting tectonic
224 subsidence curves are presented in Figure 7. Classically, deposits associated with the
225 thermal subsidence stage of Neuquén Basin are assumed to be composed by Cuyo, Lotena
226 and Mendoza groups. However, tectonic subsidence patterns obtained in all curves show an
227 upwards convex geometry since the beginning of Lotena Group to the beginning of Mendoza
228 Group, indicating acceleration in the tectonic subsidence. This pattern differs absolutely from
229 the one expected for a purely extensional basin dominated by periods of mechanical and
230 thermal subsidence and it means that the basin was not characterized by cooling of a pure
231 extensional regime as the one that controls the rifting in an intracratonic area.

232

233 6. Discussion

234 Currently, there is a broad consensus about the extensional origin of the Neuquén Basin
235 (Vergani et al., 1995; Franzese & Spalletti, 2001). Both in subsurface as well as in outcrops,
236 grabens and half-grabens can be recognized with more than 2000 meters of sediments infill
237 (Cristallini et al., 2009). The post-rift stage would have begun in Hettangian or Pliensbachian
238 times and would have extended up to the Early Cretaceous. However, subsidence curves
239 obtained in this stage show substantial differences with those expected for a basin under
240 thermal subsidence (Figure 8). In all analyzed wells and stratigraphic logs, the tectonic
241 subsidence curves depart from the theoretical evolution of extensional basins and show a
242 similar geometric pattern. The geometric description by intervals of the tectonic subsidence
243 curves can be done as follows (Figure 8):

- 244 1) Initial interval with a linear and high negative slope.
- 245 2) Interval from horizontal to slightly upwards concavity and asymptotic tendency.
- 246 3) Interval with convex upwards geometry.

247 The interval 1 (200 - 190 My) shows a linear geometry and high negative slope (Figure 8).
248 These particularities are characteristic of mechanical extension episodes (Allen & Allen,
249 2005), with fast accommodation space generation rate by means of normal faulting structures
250 (grabens and half-grabens). This interval represents the syn-rift stage of the basin, during
251 which the Precuyano Cycle accumulated.

252 The interval 2 (190 - 164.6 My) shows a slightly upwards concave geometry, during which the
253 Cuyo Group accumulated. In conjunction with the interval 1, they would form the typical
254 geometry for basins with an extensional origin (Allen & Allen, 2005) in which a high

255 subsidence generation rate is followed by a long period of thermal subsidence with upwards
256 concave geometry (McKenzie, 1978).

257 The interval 3 (164.6 to 153 My) presents an upwards convex geometry and represents the
258 interval of Lotena Group accumulation (Figure 8). The upwards convex geometry in tectonic
259 subsidence curves is associated with basins dominated by the flexure of the lithosphere
260 (Allen & Allen, 2005). In this interval, subsidence departs from the thermal subsidence
261 behavior observed towards the end of the Cuyo Group. Furthermore, tectonic subsidence
262 shows an increasing rate. This means that the beginning of the Lotena Group would be
263 marked by a change in the dominant subsidence mechanism.

264 *6.1 Tectonostratigraphic analysis*

265 The tectonostratigraphic analysis consists in the study of relationships between large
266 lithostratigraphic units and tectonic settings at the time of their accumulation (Watkinson et
267 al., 1977). A tectonostratigraphic unit comprises all lithostratigraphic units accumulated under
268 the same tectonic conditions and may include one or more chronostratigraphic units.
269 Following, a tectonostratigraphic analysis will be carried out based on the interpretation and
270 association of tectonostratigraphic units.

271 1. Extensional basin stage: This stage includes Interval 1 and 2 of the tectonic
272 subsidence curves (Figure 8), which are consistent with the expected behavior for the
273 McKenzie extensional model (1978), even in a context of active subduction in the
274 southwestern margin of Gondwana (Oliveros et al., 2015; González et al., 2018). This
275 model predicts an asymptotic decrease in thermal subsidence after an episode of
276 extension of the lithosphere (Joy, 1993). Within this framework, the Precuyano Cycle

277 can be considered as composed by deposits associated with the extensional stage of
278 the basin. The Cuyo Group can be described as a shallowing supersequence that
279 begins with a flood event over the Precuyano Cycle deposits and ends with the
280 continentalization of the deposits in the Middle Callovian (Legarreta & Uliana, 1996;
281 Arregui et al, 2011). This vertical arrangement is consistent with the geometry
282 expected for a thermal subsidence stage, in which basins progressively lose the
283 capacity to generate accommodation space. The stratigraphic evolution of the Cuyo
284 Group in the study area, represented by Los Molles, Lajas and Bardas Blancas
285 formations, could represent the progradation of shallow accumulation systems that fill
286 up the basin.

287 2. Flexural stage: This stage corresponds to interval 3 of the tectonic subsidence curves
288 (Figure 8). It involves Lotena, La Manga and Auquilco formations, forming the Lotena
289 Group. The upwards convex geometry of the tectonic subsidence curves for this
290 interval means that exists an acceleration in the subsidence generation rate, thus it
291 could be thought that the accumulation of the Lotena Group was controlled by a
292 flexural subsidence mechanism (Allen & Allen, 2005). More representative flexural
293 dominated basins are known as foreland basins, which is the case of Andean retroarc
294 basins (Ramos, 1978; DeCelles & Giles, 1996; Franzese et al., 2003, 2011; D'Elía et
295 al., 2016). However, characteristics of the subsidence curves of this interval in the
296 study area do not allow us to classify this stage as a foreland basin, because they do
297 not agree with the "Duration of subsidence / Tectonic subsidence rate" ratio
298 established for this kind of basins (Allen & Allen, 2005). The infill thickness of the
299 foreland basins reaches tenths of kilometers (Allen & Allen, 2005), while the Lotena

300 Group in the study area reaches a maximum of 200 meters. Even in depocentral
301 sectors of the Neuquén Basin it reaches about 1000 meters thick (Arregui et al., 2011).
302 Foreland basins have a duration between 20 and 80 million years and a maximum rate
303 of subsidence generation between 0.05 and 0.5 mm/y (Naylor & Sinclair, 2008;
304 Sinclair, 2012), while the Lotena Group has a duration of about 11 million years and,
305 for the study area, it has a subsidence generation rate one order of magnitude less
306 than the aforementioned minimum. On the other hand, discontinuities within the
307 Lotena Group have not been documented, as well as other characteristics of foreland
308 basin deposits. For the Callovian - Oxfordian period there is evidence of a growth of a
309 volcanic arc in the current Chilean Cordillera de la Costa (Figure 1), which would have
310 acted as a source of clastic and volcanic material during that period (Charrier et al.,
311 2007; Nasi, 2010). As it has been demonstrated, the load produced by the height
312 growth of volcanic buildings over the lithosphere can cause its flexure (Collier & Watts,
313 2001; Turcotte & Schubert, 2002). Therefore, the mentioned volcanic arc could have
314 generated the flexural subsidence that allowed the accumulation of the Lotena Group.
315 The hypothesis that the load generated by volcanism in the Cordillera de la Costa
316 could generate the subsidence observed for this period was tested. For this, the
317 lithospheric flexure produced by a volcanic arc was calculated. The load was set with a
318 density of 2700 Kg / m³, over a lithosphere with an estimated elastic thickness of 5, 10
319 and 25 kilometers [although values close to 5 km should be as expected for a rift basin
320 once finished the extension episode (Watts, 2001), and current values are close to 10
321 km in Chos Malal area (Sigismondi, 2012) (Figure 1)], and was located 250 kilometers
322 away from the study area. The results indicate that it is not possible to generate the

323 subsidence observed in the study area regardless the height of the load. Loads of 500,
324 1000 and 1500 meters in height, only produce different subsidence values close to the
325 load, but in none case they generate vertical movements in the study area (Figure 9).
326 Furthermore, the volcanic arc was also active during the deposition of the Cuyo Group
327 (Vergara et al., 1995; Charrier et al., 2007) with no influence on the subsidence during
328 its accumulation. Therefore, this hypothesis was ruled out. Another possible
329 mechanism would correspond to the slow flexure. The slow flexure response has been
330 described as exponentially positive (Thorne & Watts, 1989). It is commonly associated
331 with strike-slip faulting of varying magnitudes, depending on proximity to the driving
332 force (Williams, 1995). Although the existence of strike-slip faulting systems for the
333 Neuquén Basin has been recognized (Mosquera et al., 2006), the time involved to
334 generate this kind of subsidence pattern is much greater than the observed for the
335 accumulation of Lotena Group. Also, strike-slip faulting cannot be demonstrated in all
336 basins where this curve type is seen. Thus, the slow flexure mechanism could be
337 discarded. Another relevant event for the Neuquén Basin was the uplift of the Huincul
338 High (Figure 1). This structure of 300 kilometers in length with an east-west orientation
339 was the result of the intraplate deformation associated with the convergent margin.
340 The Jurassic - Tertiary tectonic activity of the Huincul High controlled the
341 sedimentation in the south of the Neuquén Basin (Mosquera et al., 2011) and its uplift
342 produced the erosion of up to 2000 meters of deposits (Orchuela & Ploszkiewicz,
343 1984; Ploszkiewicz et al., 1984; Legarreta & Uliana, 1996). Several episodes of
344 Jurassic - Cretaceous deformation have been recognized in the Huincul High region
345 (Bettini, 1984; Zavala, 1993; Vergani et al., 1995) which would have begun in the Early

346 Jurassic (Vergani et al., 1995; Gómez Omil et al., 2002) with major uplift events in the
347 Toarcian, Kimmeridgian and Valanginian (Silvestro & Zubiri, 2008). In the same way
348 that the Cordillera de la Costa, the height and distance of the Huincul High (emplaced
349 over a lithosphere with the aforementioned characteristics) along with its uplift
350 chronology are not consistent with an important flexural subsidence during the
351 Callovian. Therefore, the Huincul High uplift could not have exerted an important
352 control over the subsidence during the Late Callovian - Late Oxfordian period in the
353 study area. At the same time, it should be considered that more than one subsidence
354 mechanism may be acting simultaneously during basin evolution. This situation is
355 common in Andean type convergent boundaries (Allen & Allen, 2005). In these
356 regions, the dynamic topography associated with the subduction of an oceanic
357 lithosphere acts in a significant way (Painter, 2013) and its influence could extend
358 more than 1000 kilometers from the trench towards the interior of the continent (Allen
359 & Allen, 2005). Therefore, the hypothesis that the action of the dynamic subsidence
360 associated with the subduction in the southwestern margin of Gondwana could have
361 generated the lithospheric flexure that allowed the accumulation of Lotena Group was
362 tested. The measurement of dynamic topography behind trenches is problematic,
363 since the dynamic topography must be separated from other forms of subsidence. A
364 first approach to the estimation of dynamic topography behind ancient subduction
365 zones is to use an expression for the geometric form by assuming that it is made of
366 two components: (i) an exponential component with an exponent λ and maximum
367 deflection f_m ; and (ii) a linear tilt with a maximum gradient α in $m\ km^{-1}$ and a

368 maximum distance from the trench at which tilting occurs η . Combining these
369 components gives:

$$f(x) = fm (e^{-x/\lambda}) + \alpha(\eta - x)$$

370 where x is the horizontal orthogonal distance from the trench (Allen & Allen, 2005).
371 Using different parameters, we can obtain the dynamic topography values (Figure 10).
372 Considering that the study area was located 400 kilometers away from the subduction
373 zone, the dynamic topography calculated using $fm = 500$ km, $\lambda = 200$ km, $\alpha = 0.2$, and
374 $\eta = 1000$ km is consistent with the subsidence values obtained for the Lotena Group.
375 Therefore, the dynamic topography associated with the subduction in the southwestern
376 margin of Gondwana could have been the principal subsidence mechanism from
377 Middle Callovian to Late Oxfordian.

378

379

380 **7. Conclusions**

381 Based on results and discussion presented in this paper, it is proposed that Late Triassic -
382 Late Jurassic tectonic evolution of the Neuquén Basin for the study area has two clearly
383 differentiated stages. An initial one, between Late Triassic - Early Jurassic and Middle
384 Callovian with characteristics of extensional basin. In this stage, the Precuyano Cycle
385 tectonostratigraphic unit would represent deposits accumulated during a mechanical
386 extension episode and the Cuyo Group tectonostratigraphic unit would represent those
387 accumulated during thermal subsidence domain. The tectonic subsidence curves for this
388 stage present a good fit with theoretical and empirical models for this kind of basins, even in
389 an active subduction context for the southwest margin of Gondwana. So, strictly, only the
390 Cuyo Group deposits would constitute the post-rift deposits of the Neuquén Basin in the study
391 area. From Middle Callovian to Late Oxfordian, a second stage would have started due to the
392 influence of the dynamic topography associated with the subduction of oceanic lithosphere
393 beneath the southwestern Gondwana margin. During this stage, the lithospheric tilting would
394 have been the predominant subsidence mechanism.

395

396

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722 **Figure captions**

723

724 **Figure 1:** Schematic map showing location, limits, major morphostructures and
725 study area of the Neuquén Basin. Modified of Howell et al. (2005).

726 **Figure 2:** Tectonic evolution of the Neuquén Basin. a) Rift stage: Mechanic subsidence
727 domain, isolated depocenters with siliciclastic, volcanic and volcanoclastic infill. b) Post-rift
728 stage. Thermal subsidence domain, connection of isolated depocenters, continental and
729 marine infill. c) Foreland stage. Flexural subsidence domain, fold and thrust belt develop and
730 continental infill. Based in Howell et al. (2005).

731 **Figure 3:** Location map showing study area (yellow rectangle), fold and thrust belt
732 region (orange) and major morphostructures.

733 **Figure 4:** Chronostratigraphy, tectonic evolution and major unconformities of the
734 Neuquén Basin. Based in Howell et al. (2005).

735 **Figure 5:** Location map of stratigraphic logs (yellow squares) and wells logs (red points) in
736 the study area.

737 **Figure 6:** The use of different values of palaeo-water depth (maximum = 100 m, minimum
738 = 0 m and mean = 50 m) and its influence on the calculated subsidence magnitude and
739 subsidence curves geometry. Example for the CG x-1 and PR x-1 wells.

740 **Figure 7:** Tectonic subsidence curves for wells for: a) ADP x-3, AN x-2, BEH x-2,
741 BjDC x-1, BSPe-4, Cam-18 and CCN. b) BSP e-4, CG x-1, CuC x-1, EPn x-1, EPS x-
742 1, CMN x-1. c) CCS, ChBS x-1, ChC x-1, CLN x-1, CoN e-3 and CoNS x-1. d) Pb x-1,

743 LPe x-2, Emo x-1, EP x-3, ETe x-1 and GN x-1. e) ECh x-1, EI x-1, Reyes S, LED x-2,
744 LRm X-1 and P x-2. f) LB x-2, P x-3, PBN xp-11, PCa x-1, PM-36 and PR x-1.

745 **Figure 8:** Tectonic subsidence curve calculated for the CG-x1 well (black line),
746 differences respect to the theoretical subsidence curve for an extensional basin
747 (dotted red line) and intervals considered for its description.

748 **Figure 9:** Flexural subsidence calculated using loads of 500, 1000 and 1500
749 meters height and density of 2700 kg/m^3 over a lithosphere with a) $T_e = 5 \text{ km}$, b)
750 $T_e = 10 \text{ km}$ and c) $T_e = 25 \text{ km}$; and its effect in the study area.

751 **Figure 10:** Dynamic subsidence calculated using different parameters and its
752 theoretical values to the study area.

753 **Table captions**

754

755 **Table 1.** Superficial porosity, compaction coefficient and density values. From
756 Sclater & Christie (1980) and Sawyer et al. (1982).

757 **Table 2.** Bathymetry values used for each lithostratigraphic unit.

758

759 **Table 3.** Base and top ages used for each lithostratigraphic unit in the study area.

760

Lithology	Superficial porosity (%)	c (km ⁻¹)	Density (kg/m ³)
Clay	63	0.51	2720
Sand	49	0.27	2650
Gypsum	70	0.71	2710
Wackes	25.6	0.39	2680
Limestone	45	0.54	2700

Table 1. Superficial porosity, compaction coefficient and density values. From Sclater & Christie (1980) and Sawyer et al. (1982).

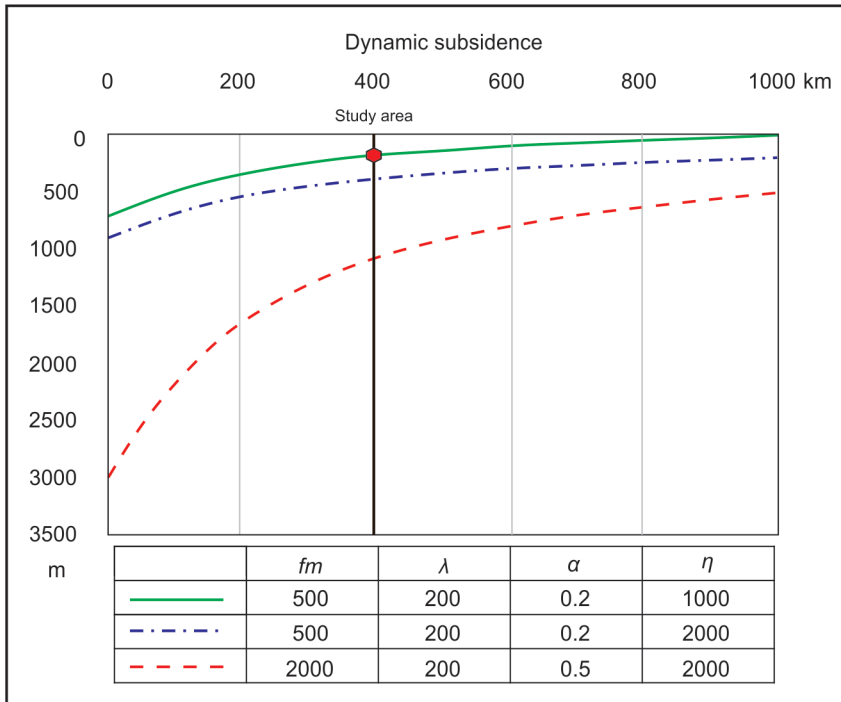
Formation/Group	Mean Bathymetry (m)	Min. Bathymetry (m)	Max. Bathymetry (m)
Tordillo Fm.	0	0	0
Auquilco Fm.	5	0	10
La Manga Fm.	10	0	20
Lotena Fm.	25	0	50
Cuyo Gr. (shallow facies)	25	0	50
Cuyo Gr. (deep facies)	75	50	100
Precuyano	0	0	0

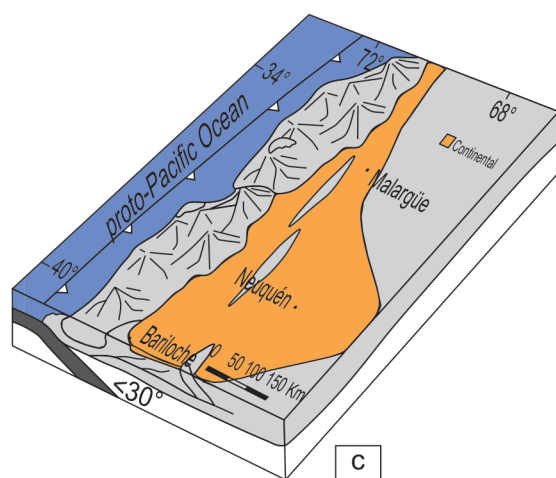
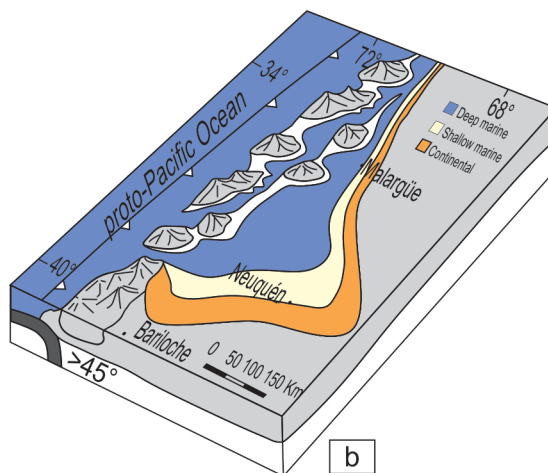
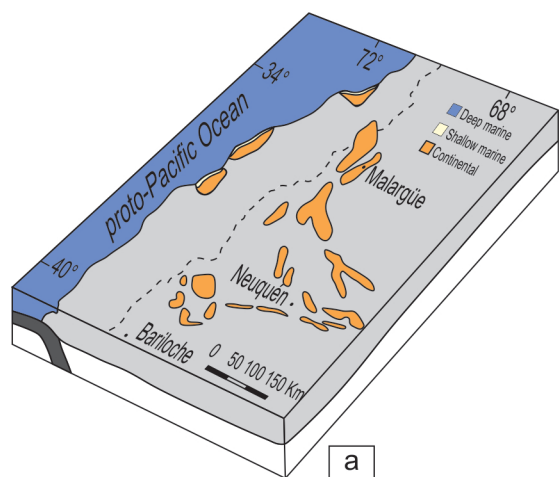
Table 2. Bathymetry values used for each lithostratigraphic unit.

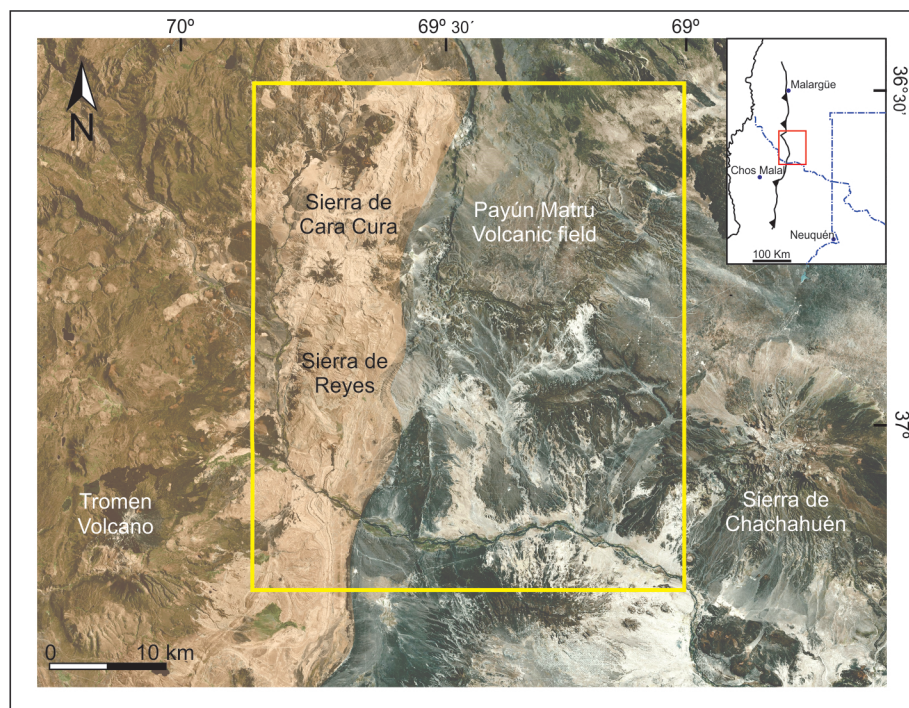
Unit	Interval	Age (My)	
		Base	Top
Tordillo Fm.	Kimmerdigian - Tithonian	153	144
Auquilco Fm.	Late Oxfordian	157	153
La Manga Fm.	Early to middle Oxfordian	159	157
Lotena Fm.	Middle Callovian	164.6	159
Cuyo Gr.	Hettangian / Sinemurian – Middle Callovian	190	164.6
Precuyano Cy.	Upper Triassic / Hettangian / Sinemurian	200	190

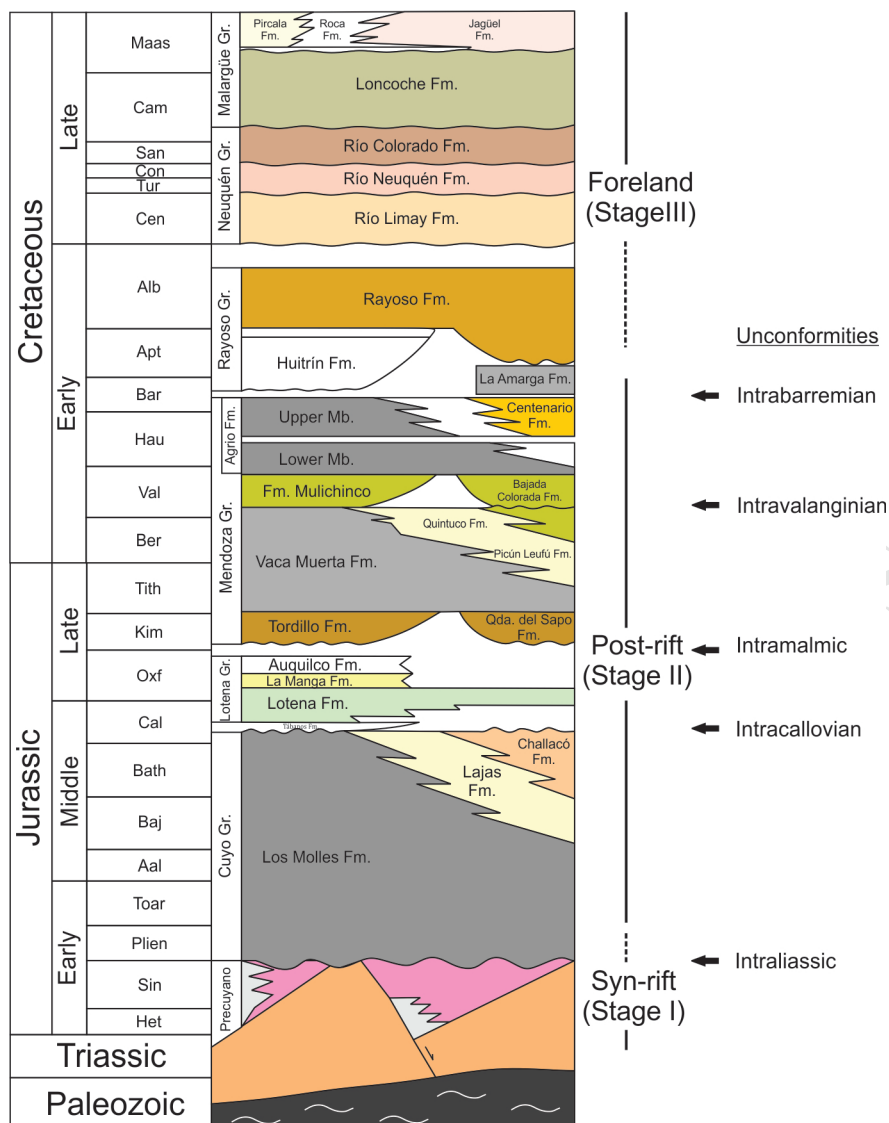
Table 3. Base and top ages used for each lithostratigraphic unit in the study area.

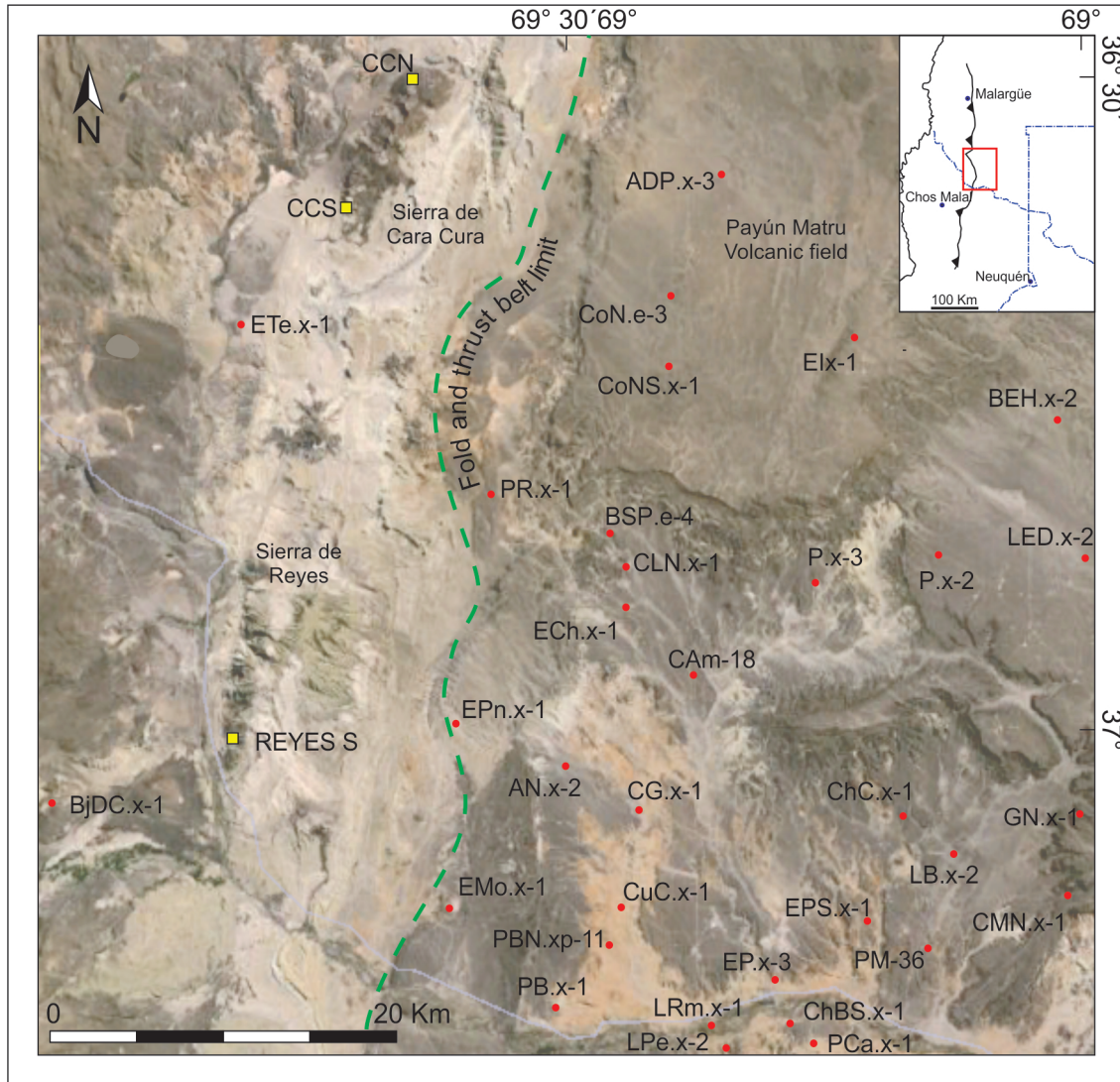


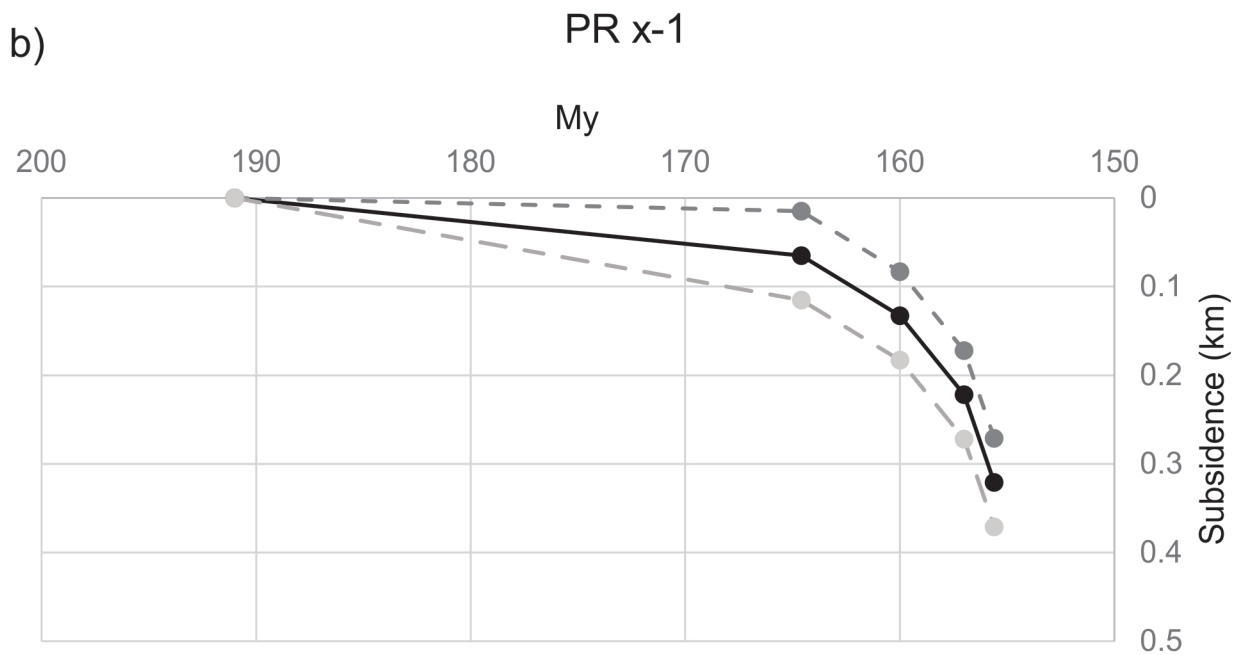
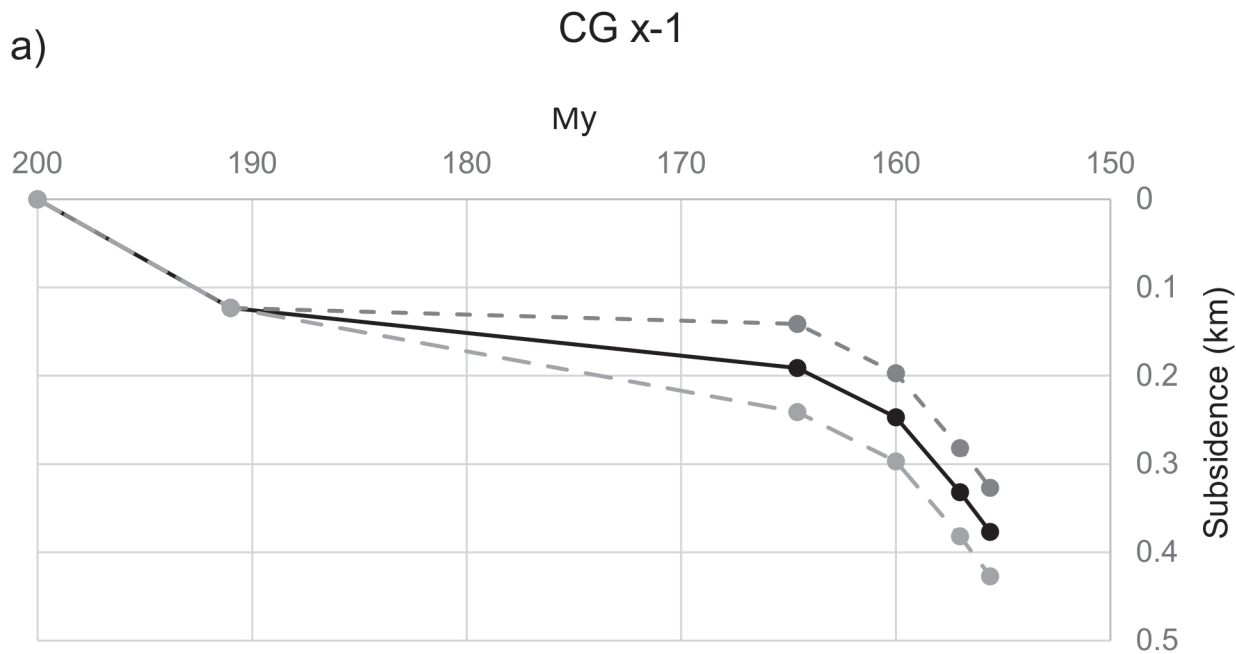


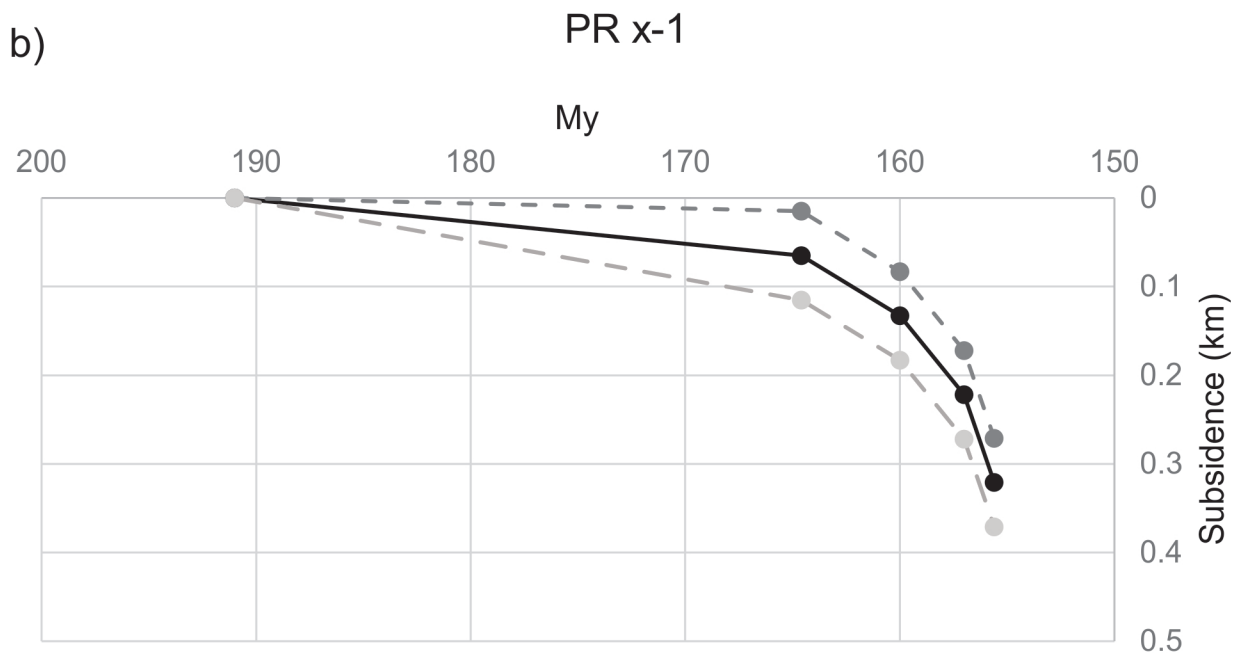
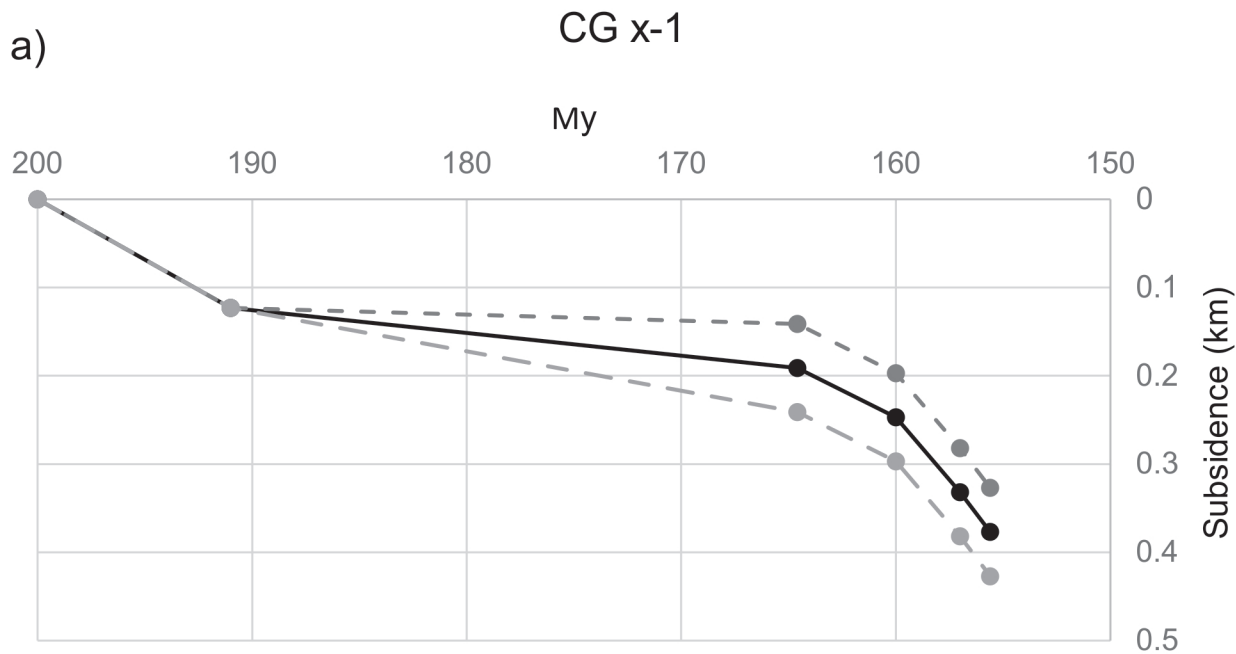


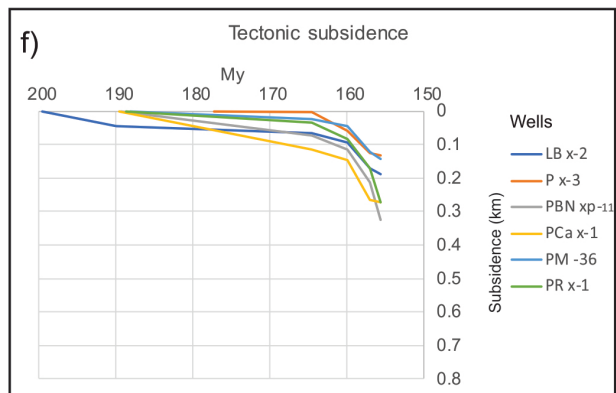
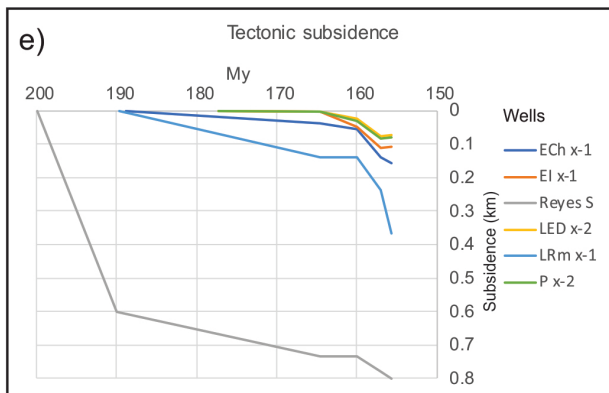
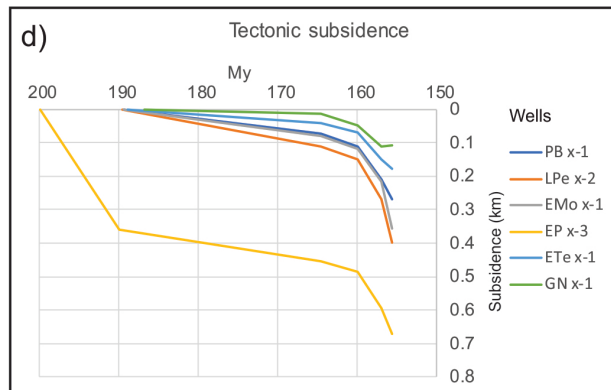
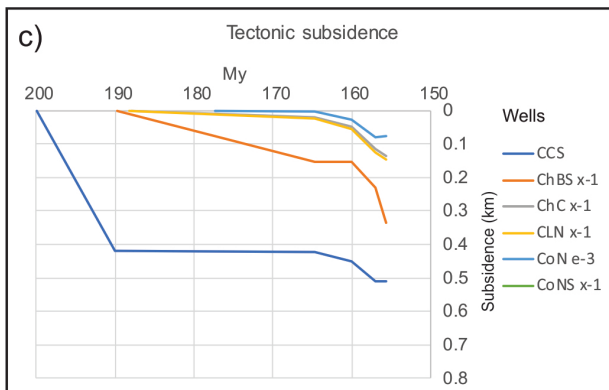
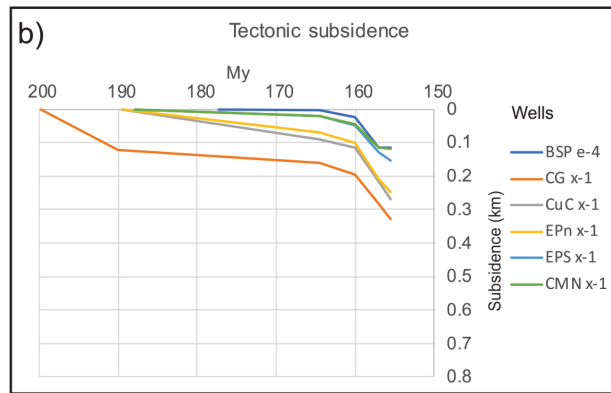
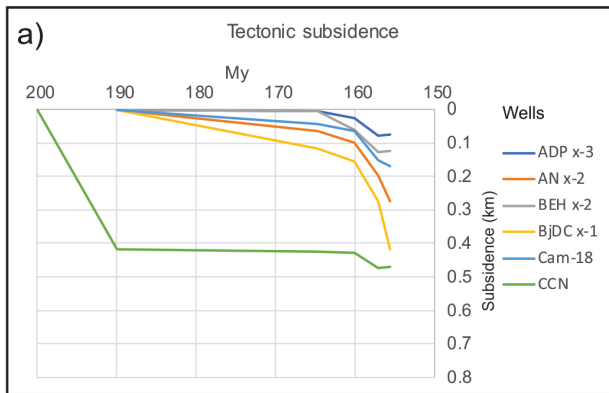


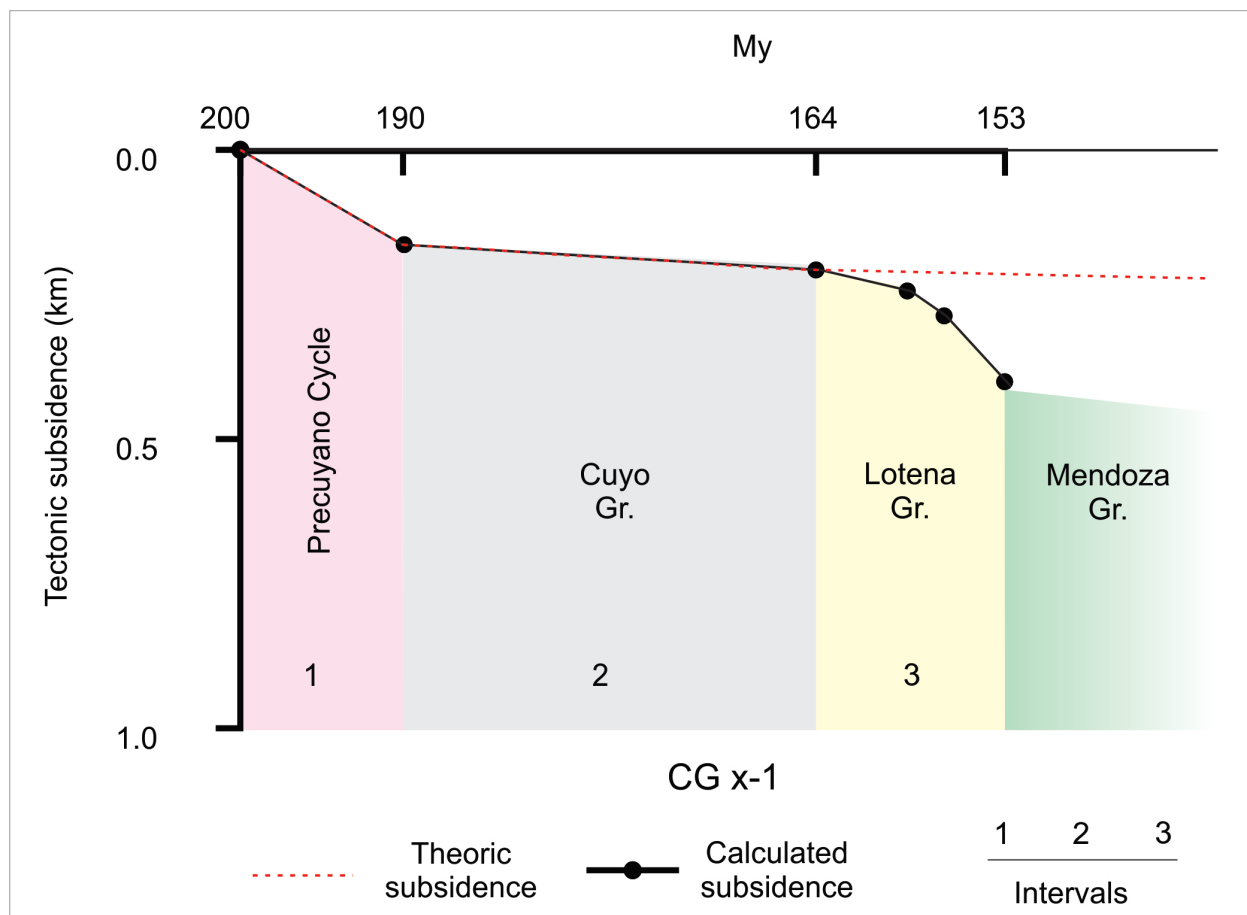


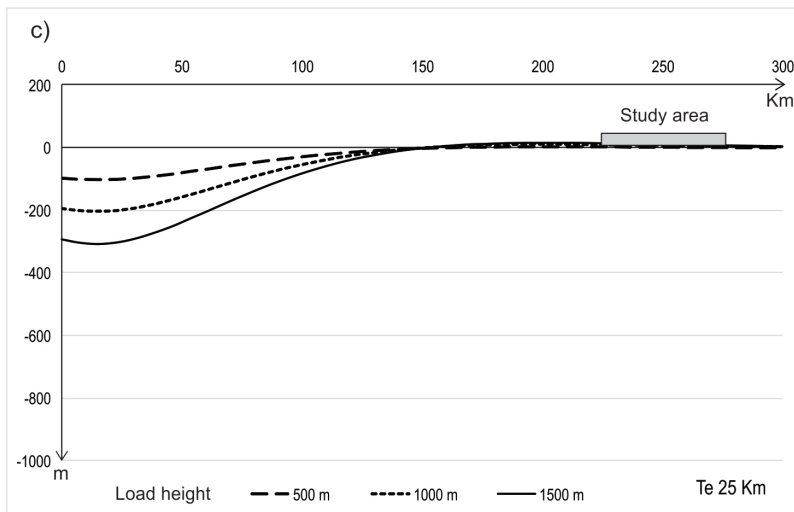
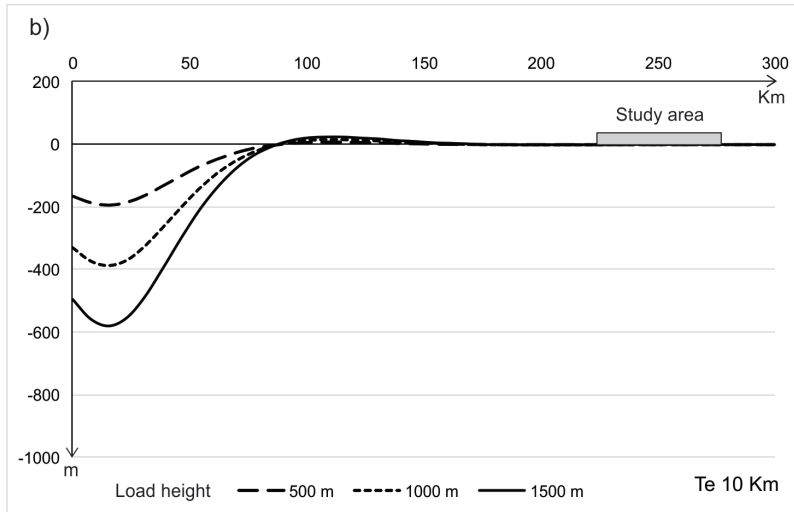
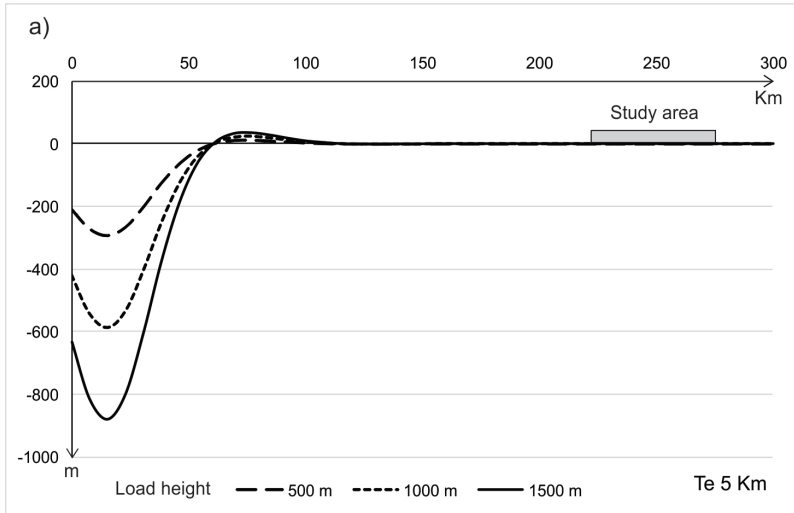












Highlights

Backstripping was applied for Late Triassic - Late Jurassic period of Neuquén Basin.

Obtained tectonic subsidence curves differs from thermal subsidence models.

The accumulation of Lotena Group could have been controlled by dynamic subsidence.