





Uplift and denudation of the Antioquia Eastern Massif (Colombia) from fission-tracks thermochronology

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Abstract

Fission-track dating and thermochronology have been used to assess the low-thermal history of some plutonic rocks intruded into the Antioquia Eastern Massif as defined by Gerardo Botero. These techniques enable us to gain a better understanding of the orogenic process that shaped the northern Colombian Central Cordillera. Samples were collected from the Antioqueño Batholith, Sonsón Batholith, and the smaller igneous bodies: La Unión, San Diego, Altavista and Ovejas, all intruded during the Late Cretaceous. Zircon fission track ages vary from 46.4±1.1 Ma to 64.0±1.3 Ma. Mean track lengths are very homogeneous, with variations from $13.9\pm1.6 \,\mu\text{m}$ to $14.6\pm1.3 \,\mu\text{m}$. The results of thermal annealing modeling carried out with the AFTSolve program show three main segments: 1) Significant decrease in temperature from 240°C to ~50°C in the middle to late Eocene at maximum cooling rates of 50°C/Ma; 2) A period of thermal stability extending into the Middle Miocene; and 3) a final cooling segment through to surface temperature (20°C) at cooling rates of about $4^{\circ}C/Ma$. Results were interpreted as coincident with the Pre-Andean (middle Eocene) and the Eu-Andean (late Miocene-Pliocene) orogenies. This last pulse is related to the recent orogeny that exhumed the analyzed samples, occurring between 3 and 5 Ma ago, interpreted as the maximum time for the formation of the "Central Cordillera" erosion surface and its subsequent superimposed relief. The intermediate quiescent period did not record the Oligocene Proto-Andean orogeny. The tectonic phases produced episodes of uplift and denudational response at maximum rates of 2000 and 160 m/Ma, respectively, using an assumed geothermal gradient of 25°C/km.

Keywords: Morphogenesis; Andean orogeny; Antioqueño Plateau.

Levantamiento y denudación del Macizo Oriental Antioqueño (Colombia) a partir de termocronología por huellas de fisión

Resumen

Hemos utilizado dataciones y análisis termocronológicos por huellas de fisión para evaluar la historia del enfriamiento de algunas rocas plutónicas emplazadas en el Macizo Oriental Antioqueño definido por Gerardo Botero. Estas técnicas permiten aproximarnos al entendimiento del proceso orogénico que dio forma al actual segmento norte de la Cordillera Central de Colombia. Las muestras usadas provienen del Batolito Antioqueño, del Batolito de Sonsón y de los stocks de La Unión, San Diego,

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Altavista, Ovejas, todos emplazados durante el Cretácico tardío. Las edades en circones varían entre $46,4\pm1,1$ Ma y $64,0\pm1,3$ Ma. Las longitudes medias de las trazas son muy homogéneas, con variaciones de $13,9\pm1,6$ µm a $14,6\pm1,3$ µm. Los resultados del modelado de recocido térmico realizado con el programa AFTSolve muestran tres segmentos principales: 1) disminución significativa de la temperatura de 240° C a ~ 50° C en el Eoceno medio a tardío a velocidades máximas de enfriamiento de 50° C/Ma; 2) un periodo de estabilidad térmica que se extiende hasta el Mioceno medio; y 3) un segmento final de enfriamiento hasta la temperatura superficial (20° C) a velocidades de enfriamiento de unos 4° C/Ma. Los resultados se interpretan como coincidentes con las orogenias Preandina (Eoceno medio) y Euandina (Mioceno tardío-Plioceno). La última orogenia, que exhumó las muestras analizadas, se produjo hace 3-5 Ma, edad que se interpreta como la máxima para la formación de la superficie de erosión "Cordillera Central" y su relieve sobreimpuesto. El periodo de quiescencia intermedio no registró la orogenia Protoandina del Oligoceno. Estas fases tectónicas produjeron episodios de levantamiento y respuesta denudativa a tasas máximas de 2000 y 160 m/Ma respectivamente, utilizando un gradiente geotérmico supuesto de 25° C/km.

Palabras clave: Morfogénesis; Orogenia andina; Meseta antioqueña.

Introduction

Twenty years ago, the master thesis "Fission track thermochronology and denudational response to tectonics in the north of the Colombian Central Cordillera" (Saenz, 2003), was written. A pioneering research for thermochronological studies in the Colombian Andes and a good starting point for many subsequent studies. This thesis was never published, but it has always been a reference for subsequent works, so we believe that its presence in this special bulletin is justified and pertinent.

In recent years, there have been new and important contributions to the knowledge of both thermochronology and the exhumation of the area now called "Antioqueño Plateau" (e. g. Toro et al., 2006; Montes-Correa, 2007; Restrepo-Moreno, 2009; Restrepo-Moreno et al., 2009: Villagómez-Díaz, 2010; Noriega-Londoño, 2016; Noriega-Londoño et al., 2020). Reading these articles is essential for understanding the evolution of ideas after this work. In addition, new geochronological and geochemical data have contributed to the knowledge of geological evolution prior to the formation of the relief. For example, data provided by works such as those of Restrepo et al. (2011), Villagómez et al. (2011), García-Casco et al. (2020), Ibáñez-Mejía et al. (2020), and others are fundamental to our understanding.

Geological and Geomorphological Framework

Geological Setting

The study area is the Antioquia Eastern Massif (north of the Colombian Central Cordillera), shown in Figure 1, which is composed mostly of metamorphic rocks originated in different pre-cretaceous episodes (*e. g.* Restrepo and Toussaint, 1982; Vinasco *et*

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al., 2006; Restrepo et al., 2011; Villagómez et al., 2011), intruded by intermediate to acidic Mesozoic plutons (Aspden et al., 1987; Restrepo and Toussaint, 1990; Leal-Mejía, 2011). This massif represents the northern segment of the Tahamí allochthonous terrane (Restrepo and Toussaint, 2020) bounded at the western flank by ultrabasic rocks with ophiolitic characteristics obducted during Triassic times (e. g., Aspden and McCourt, 1986; Bourgois et al., 1987; García-Casco et al., 2020; Ibáñez-Mejía et al., 2020), and limited to the east by the Chibcha Terrane of continental basement and oceanic sedimentary cover. Thin Cretaceous marine sedimentary sequences and Neogene detritic rocks overlie small areas of the metamorphic and igneous basement. In Figure 2, we only show the studied igneous bodies surrounded by the metamorphic basement and the other units.

This research was focused in the Late Cretaceous intrusives (mainly granodiorites) of which we highlight the Antioqueño Batholith (Feininger and Botero, 1982), whose large area (7221 km²), geochronological and geochemical variations suggest it is the superposition of different magmas (Leal-Mejía, 2011). Their ages obtained through different methods, vary throughout the Late Cretaceous and even the Paleocene (*e. g.*, Restrepo *et al.*, 2007; Ordóñez *et al.*, 2008; Leal-Mejía, 2011; Villagómez *et al.*, 2011). However, for practical purposes, in this research we will continue to use the term Batholith.

Other intrusives studied include small stocks near the Antioqueño Batholith, like Altavista, San Diego, Ovejas, La Unión, and Sonsón, all of them with Late Cretaceous ages (*e. g.*, Ordóñez-Carmona *et al.*, 2001; Correa *et al.*, 2006) except for the Sonsón Batholith with Paleocene to Early Eocene ages (Leal-Mejía, 2011).

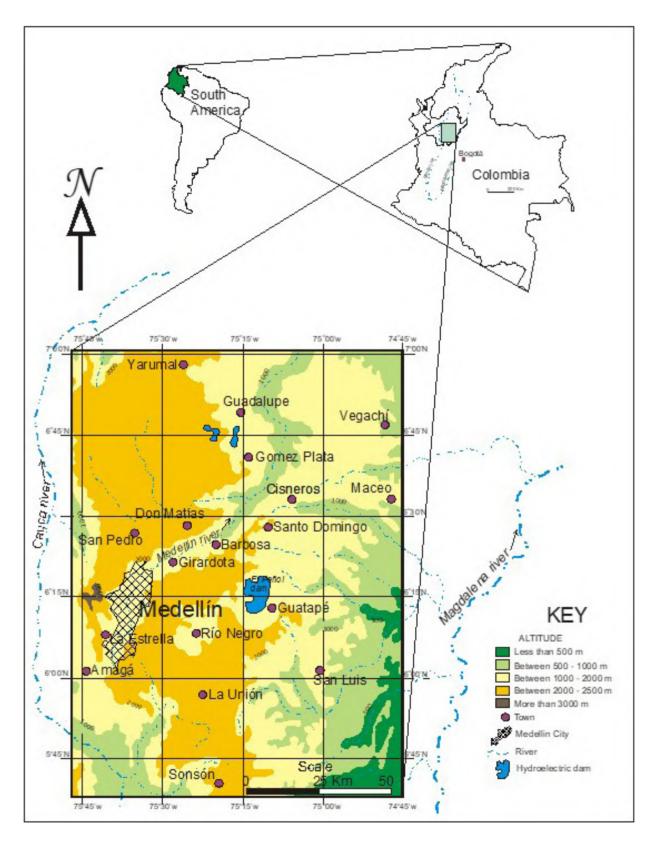


Figure 1. Study area. After SIGAC (2017).

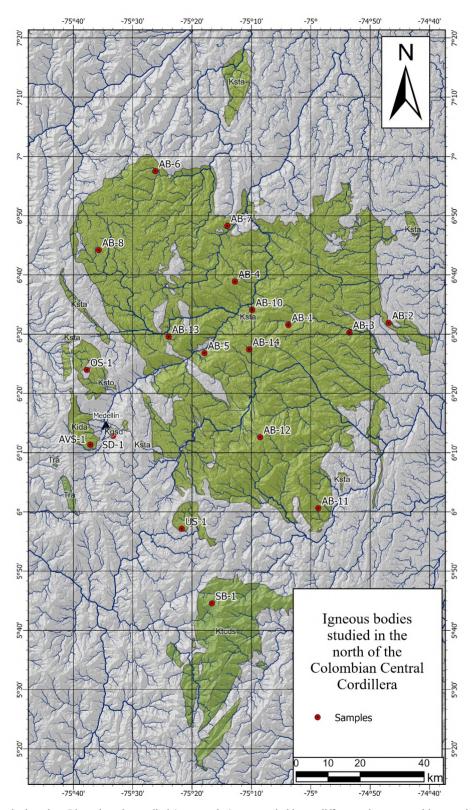


Figure 2. Geological setting. Plutonic units studied (green color) surrounded by undifferenced metamorphic complex (gray color).

Colombian Andes Uplift

The great geological differences among the Colombian cordilleras and their complex geotectonic evolution, as indicated by the exotic terranes theory, suggest a non-homogeneous uplift of the Colombian Andes. For example, the Eastern Cordillera exists as a continuous emerged mountain range only from between 11.8 and 12.9 Ma ago (*e. g.* Hoorn *et al.*, 1995), whereas sediments from an uplifted Central Cordillera have been deposited only since Maastrichtian times (Van der Hammen, 1958). In a complex compressive tectonic setting such as the Colombian Andes, several differential or "block uplifts" may have occurred, with different intensities and timing.

The main constraints on the paleogeographic evolution of the Colombian cordilleras have been provided by stratigraphic and paleontological studies, especially palynology. Few radiometric data have been used in the discussion, and geomorphologic features are poorly understood and have not been linked to the tectonic setting.

The first published ideas on the Colombian Andean orogeny (Oppenheim, 1941; Van der Hammen, 1958), concern the stratigraphic studies of the Eastern Cordillera. Van der Hammen concluded that tectonic "orogenetic movements" took place from the beginning of the Maastrichtian and continued at intervals during the Paleogene and Neogene. This gradually shaped the actual form and structure of the Colombian Andes. Table 1 shows the separate phases and subphases into which Van der Hammen divides the Andean orogeny from correlations between stratigraphic information and palynological analysis.

Although the question remains open, as to whether Van der Hammen's approaches are common to the Central and Eastern cordilleras, subsequent regional evolution models (*e. g.*, Irving, 1975; Restrepo and Toussaint, 2020) have introduced few variations to Van der Hammen's model.

Local morpho-tectonic features

To understand the uplift and denudation events that have affected the study area, it is also necessary to understand the "landscape registers" of the geological events. Antioquia Eastern Massif comprises mostly highlands of low relief, which can be recognized as different erosionsurface levels or etchplains separated by erosional scarp slopes and cut by deep canyons. The staggered relief of the northern Central Cordillera is a record of the uplift process, which can be subdivided into several rapid phases that generated the regional erosional scarp slopes and some deep canyons (Page and James, 1981; Arias-López, 1995; Toro et al., 2007). Quiescent phases of extremely low tectonic activity occurred in between the uplift phases. These allowed erosion surfaces to develop along with etchplanation near sea level (Büdell, 1982 in Migon, 2006).

This framework allows development of a landscape "relief stratigraphy" in which the main geomorphological features are associated with differential denudation processes that affect the surface in distinct way during episodes of tectonic activity and quiescence. An approximation of the location of these features is shown in Figure 3 and their main characteristics are described below.

Undefined remnants (pre S-I): The oldest flat erosive remnants in the Antioquia Eastern Massif are small areas on the top of the highest mountains. They form a discontinuous belt over the western side of the study area at altitudes between 3000 and 3150 m. Traditionally these have been interpreted as remnants of a poorly preserved etchplain, which has had prolonged exposure to denudation. Page and James (1981) called it Pre-Cordillera Central erosion surface or Pre-S-I and Arias-López (1995) termed it Ancient Highland. However, due to the differences in altitude between the isolated flat areas and the high local tectonic activity, it is not clear whether they were all formed during the same quiescence/ denudation morphogenetic episode. Thus, the name of "Undefined Remnants" for this set of morphological units has been suggested (Rendón, 2003).

Table 1. Tectonic orogenic phases of the Colombian Andes as described by Van der Hammen.

| Tectonic Phase | Epoch | Subphases |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | | IV - Base of the Pliocene |
| | | III - Base of the Tortonian |
| Eu Andean | Miocene and Pliocene | II - Base of the Middle Miocene |
| | | I – Base of the Lower Miocene |
| Proto Andean | Base of the Upper Oligocene | |
| | | II – Base of the Middle Eocene |
| Pre Andean | Lower and Mid. Eocene | I – Base of the Lower Eocene |

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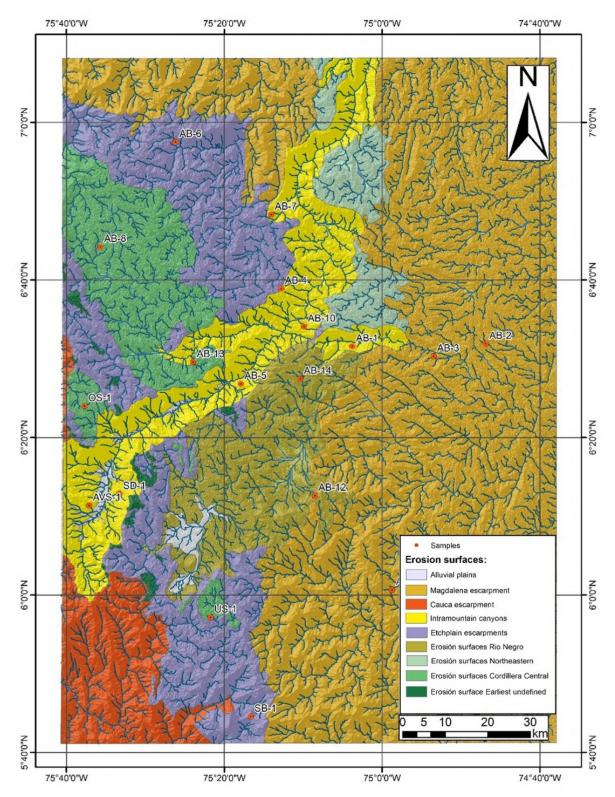


Figure 3. Main morphogenetic unis on the Antioquia Eastern Massif. After Page and James (1981).

Cordillera Central erosion surface (S-I): This feature occurs as low and rounded flat-topped mountains and hills which are wider and better preserved near the range axis. Page and James (1981) called it the Cordillera Central erosion surface or S-I and Arias-López (1995) the Intermediate Highland. These authors differ in their views about the pertinence of the wide Rio Negro area to this surface. Page and James (1981) considered that it corresponds to a different etchplain (S-II), while Arias-López (1995) regarded it as part of the Intermediate Highland. Although we support the first theory, this question remains a matter of debate among specialists.

Rio Negro erosion surface (S-II): The Rio Negro or S-II erosion surface appears as accordant rounded and flat-topped hills dissected by short streams, located 200 to 400 m below the Cordillera Central erosion surface, and better preserved (Page and James, 1981).

Northeastern erosion surface: This etchplain was defined by Arias-López (1995) in the northeast of the study area. He named it the Inferior Highland and divided it in three segments: Carolina-Gomez Plata, Anorí, and Amalfi-Yolombó highlands. It forms flat to rounded hills at an altitude of about 1500 m, with eastward dip.

Erosional scarp slopes: After each surface erosion uplift, the denudation process began to act over it. Denudation is initially more intense on the edges and gradually destroys the uplifted terrane to form a new erosion surface. While that process is being conducted, an intermediate zone forms between the newly created surface and the older one. That zone is an erosional scarp slope, at which there are deep streams, steep slopes, and older remnants, among others features of highly active denudation landscapes. In the study area at least two of them can be recognized between the above noted erosion surfaces.

High-active erosion escarpments (Cauca and Magdalena): The largest Colombian intermontane streams are the Cauca River, which separates the Western and Central Cordilleras, and the Magdalena River, which divides the Central and Eastern Cordilleras. Between their axis and the erosion surface edges there are intensive denudation flanks and erosion escarpments.

Intermontane Canyons: Sharp and deep canyons cut the older erosion surfaces and the etchplain escarpments. This development is associated with denudation and

tectonic movements. The Medellin-Porce River and Nus River canyons stand out in the study area. The former is especially interesting, since it contains a peculiar tectonic anomaly (Hermelin, 1982) called Aburrá Valley, probably with an associated pull-apart genesis (Rendón, 2003).

Fission-track Methods

Apatite Fission Tracks Analyses

Fission track analyses have proved to be a successful and sensitive thermochronometer to reconstruct the thermal histories of the geologic units studied. This technique is widely known in the literature as AFTT (Apatite fission track thermochronology) and reports the trajectory of the sample between the time it passed through the 110±10°C isotherm (normally the upper 4 km of the crust) and the surface. AFTT reveals the magnitude and timing of each thermal episode. Understanding of their nature and causes are the keys for any geological interpretation. Reheating over 120°C completely anneals the tracks, and the thermal history path shows information only about the last cooling. Overheating below 110°C can be detected, although the accuracy of those trends is poorer than in the case of simple cooling episodes (Gleadow and Brown, 1999). Therefore, the AFTT records cooling and quiescence episodes, most of which correspond to tectonic disturbances and their denudational responses.

Thermal histories modelling

Modeling of time-Temperature paths of five samples from the Antioqueño Batholith and one sample from the Sonsón Batholith was carried out using the AFTSolve (version $1.2.2^{\circ}$ 2001 Donelick Analytical, Inc. and Richard A. Ketcham) program which provides thermal histories considering the variability of apatite fission tracks annealing kinetics (Carlson *et al.*, 1999; Donelick *et al.*, 1999; Ketcham *et al.*, 1999). To run it, for each grain used it was necessary to input: age, standard deviation, track length, angle with the c-axis, and Cl content.

The annealing model (multikinetic), the kinetic parameter (Cl), the modeling scheme (Montecarlo), the half segments (*i. e.*, divisions of the t-T paths, 5), and the number of paths to generate randomly (30000) were selected. The AFTSolve program takes each candidate t-T path and generates its respective track-length distribution, which is compared to the measured distribution. The goodness of fit was evaluated with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) statistical test, which determines the probability that a set of samples taken

randomly from the known distribution would have a greater maximum separation from it on a cumulative distribution function plot (an ordering of track lengths) than is observed for the sample distribution being tested.

AFTSolve solutions present a best-fit t-T path with two envelopes, the wider envelope in green (acceptable fit) contains all t-T paths that have a K-S of at least 0.05 (5%), and the second purple envelope (good fit) marks the limit of statistical precision, containing all t-T paths that have a merit function value of at least 50%. The goodness of fit for the age (Age GOF) is determined in an analogous way, if the measured age and standard deviation describe a normal distribution. Again, the limit of statistical precision is 50% (Age GOF=0.5).

Samples

Nineteen samples from plutonic rocks were collected and analyzed. These were taken from insitu outcrops of roads and rivers to obtain non-altered material. Table 2 and Figure 2 show their position.

| Code | Geological body | Description | Latitude North | Longitude East | Altit. (m) |
|-------|-------------------------|--|-------------------|-------------------|------------|
| AB-1 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained hornblende-biotite-granodiorite with phaneritic texture | 6°32'16" | 75°04'43" | 1025 |
| AB-2 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained biotite-granodiorite with seriate texture | 6°33'12" | 74°47'28'' | 980 |
| AB-3 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained biotite-granodiorite with phaneritic texture | 6°30'48'' | 74°54'48'' | 870 |
| AB-4 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained biotite-hornblende-granodiorite with seriate inequigranular and graphic textures | 6°39'58" | 75°13'31'' | 1850 |
| AB-5 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained biotite-hornblende tonalite with phaneritic texture | 6°27'30" | 75°18'18'' | 1280 |
| AB-6 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained hornblende-biotite granodiorite with seriate inequigranular texture | 6°58'36" | 75°26'13'' | 2100 |
| AB-7 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained biotite-granodiorite hiatal inequigranular texture | 6°48'05" | 75°13'15'' | 1027 |
| AB-8 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained biotite-hornblende granodiorite with large grains, most of them of hypidiomorphic texture | 6°44'14'' | 75°35'55" | 2650 |
| AB-9 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained hornblende-biotite granodiorite Locally shows myrmekitic and flow textures | 6°24'40" | 75°24'40" | 1500 |
| AB-10 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained biotite-granodiorite with seriate inequigranular texture | 6°37'08'' | 75°09'24" | 1050 |
| AB-11 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained hornblende granodiorite with granophyric, local myrmekitic and graphic textures | 6°02'41'' | 75°00'09'' | 1075 |
| AB-12 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained monzogranite with seriate inequigranular texture | 6°13'31'' | 75°09'00" | 1950 |
| AB-13 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained biotite-hornblende tonalite Alteration is common as well as fractures due to weathering | 6°30'53'' | 75°24'53" | 2200 |
| AB-14 | Antioqueño batholith | Coarse-grained hornblende granodiorite with seriate grain distribution | 6°30'06'' | 75°13'35" | 1900 |
| SB-1 | Sonsón batholith | Coarse-grained hornblende-biotite granodiorite with phaneritic inequigranular texture | 5°46'10" | 75°18'05" | 2250 |

Table 2. Sample's location.

| Code | Geological body | Description | Latitude North | Longitude East | Altit. (m) |
|------|-----------------|--|-------------------|-------------------|------------|
| US-1 | La Unión Stock | Coarse-grained biotite tonalite with alteration and tectonic texture | 5°56'00" | 75°18'25'' | 2420 |
| SD-1 | San Diego Stock | Pegmatitic hornblende gabbro | 6°13'02" | 75°33'38" | 1850 |
| AV-1 | Altavista Stock | Fine-grained granodiorite with inequigranular texture | 6°12'23'' | 75°40'13" | 1840 |
| OS-1 | Ovejas Stock | Coarse-grained biotite-granodiorite | 6°21'56'' | 75°36'16" | 2450 |

Continued Table 2.

Results

Zircons Fission Tracks dating

The external detector method for fission track dating was followed in this project. Analyses were made using a geometry factor of 1/2, and the chi-squared (x^2) test was applied to determine the degree to which individual grain ages belong to a simple population age (Galbraith, 1981). The ages were determined using the zeta (ζ) calibration method (Hurford and Green, 1983)

with a value of 374.36±4.76, weighted according to uncertainties on six individual z-values. Zircon ages are summarized in Table 3 as central ages (Galbraith and Laslett, 1993) with a $\pm 1\sigma$ error. Information displayed in the tables also includes the densities of the spontaneous (ρ s), induced (ρ i) and glass monitor (ρ_M) tracks. Ns, Ni and N_M are the number of tracks counted. The software TrackKey version 4.1[®] (Dunkl, 2002), was used for data processing.

| | | Spont. trac | | Ind. tracks Glas | | | Glass monitor | | Central |
|---------------|-----------------|---|-------|---|------|--|----------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| Sample No. of | No. of crystals | ρs (10 ⁵ cm ⁻²) | Ns | ρi (10 ⁵ cm ⁻²) | Ni | $\frac{\rho_{\rm d}}{(10^4{\rm cm^{-2}})}$ | N _d | P(x ²) % | age±1σ (Ma) |
| AB-1 | 20 | 30.81 | 9875 | 18.08 | 5795 | 15.28 | 6683 | 23.6 | 46.4±1.1 |
| AB-2 | 16 | 54.88 | 9955 | 27.78 | 5039 | 15.28 | 6683 | 21.7 | 53.8±1.2 |
| AB-3 | 21 | 38.03 | 5343 | 21.42 | 3009 | 15.28 | 6683 | 96.2 | 48.3±1.2 |
| AB-4 | 19 | 35.35 | 13953 | 18.41 | 7266 | 15.28 | 6683 | 27.7 | 52.3±1.0 |
| AB-5 | 23 | 35.64 | 7081 | 20.48 | 4070 | 15.28 | 6683 | 95.8 | 47.4±1.1 |
| AB-6 | 14 | 50.26 | 20248 | 21.26 | 8566 | 15.28 | 6683 | 6.3 | 64.0±1.3 |
| AB-7 | 19 | 47.20 | 11867 | 20.14 | 5064 | 15.28 | 6683 | 98.7 | 63.7±1.3 |
| AB-8 | 20 | 54.74 | 10849 | 26.62 | 5277 | 15.28 | 6683 | 17.0 | 55.9±1.2 |
| AB-9 | 21 | 46.03 | 18753 | 24.49 | 9979 | 15.28 | 6683 | 37.8 | 51.1±0.9 |
| AB-10 | 21 | 33.10 | 10384 | 16.45 | 5160 | 15.28 | 6683 | 77.6 | 54.7±1.2 |
| AB-11 | 13 | 51.11 | 6537 | 22.49 | 2876 | 15.28 | 6683 | 90.6 | $61.8{\pm}1.6$ |
| AB-12 | 16 | 56.17 | 9004 | 27.54 | 4414 | 15.28 | 6683 | 73.4 | 55.5±1.2 |
| AB-13 | 20 | 40.93 | 8367 | 26.60 | 5437 | 18.85 | 7659 | 92.9 | 51.7±1.1 |
| AB-14 | 20 | 43.15 | 11426 | 24.80 | 6566 | 15.28 | 6683 | 33.5 | 47.4±0.9 |
| SB-1 | 22 | 44.77 | 15713 | 25.13 | 8822 | 15.28 | 6683 | 12.6 | 48.6±1.0 |
| US-1 | 21 | 120.80 | 5643 | 56.70 | 2648 | 15.28 | 6683 | 24.8 | 58.0±1.7 |
| SD-1 | 7 | 61.02 | 7121 | 28.05 | 3273 | 15.28 | 6683 | 36.3 | 59.3±1.5 |
| AV-1 | 7 | 178.90 | 4151 | 103.40 | 2398 | 18.85 | 7659 | 13.6 | 58.5±2.0 |
| OS-1 | 20 | 72.04 | 12088 | 34.22 | 5742 | 15.28 | 6683 | 98.1 | 57.3±1.2 |

Table 3. Zircon Fission Track Ages.

All zircon data pass the $P(x^2)$ -test at the 5% criterion, indicating that the variability in the track count data is limited to the inherent variability of the fission decay process. Nineteen samples have Paleogene ages ranging from 46.4±1.1 Ma to 64.0±1.3 Ma.

Thermal history analyses

Time-temperature (T-t) paths were generated for the six representative samples shown in Figure 5 to Figure 10. They were generated between two constrained points: the present surface temperature at 20°C, and the zircon fission track age, which has a closure temperature of 240 ± 50 °C (*e. g.*, Hurford, 1986).

For thermal history analysis, only the use of apatites is applicable. Unfortunately, not all the samples contained enough confined tracks for the length measurements studies, only nine samples had suitable apatites for measurement. Of these, six samples were modeled.

Chemical Composition: To determine the variability of the annealing kinetics and evaluate the dependency of single grain age and length distribution on the chemical variation, the chemical composition was determined both for each grain where a confined track was detected, and for each grain where the age was calculated. The analyses were made with an electron probe microanalyser (EPMA) JEOL JXA-8800, using carbon coating, accelerating voltage of 15 kV, probe current 2.5×10^{-8} A and a probe diameter of 20 µm. Durango apatite was used as a standard to determine the fluorine content, and chlorine-rich potassium hastingsite from Ongul Island (Suwa *et al.*, 1987) was used to determine the chlorine content. The other major chemical components of the apatites were determined using synthetic standards. The results for each sample are summarized in Table 4, showing the average, maximum and minimum value in wt% for its major components, taking into account the generic composition Ca₅(PO₄)₃(OH,F,Cl).

Chlorine content (Cl wt%) was the kinetic parameter employed to determine the difference in annealing resistance due to its negligible variations within samples; this can be appreciated in the CaO vs Cl (Figure 4) variation diagrams. The kinetic population used in each analysis is the arithmetic mean of the individual measurements per sample. Fluorine contents are much greater than chlorine and display wider variation.

| Sample | # of Grains | | Na,O | SiO, | Al,O, | CaO | FeO | Cl | F | P_2O_5 | Total |
|--------|-------------|---------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|----------|---------|
| Sample | " of of and | | | | 2 5 | | | | | | |
| | | Average | 0.070 | 0.012 | 0.007 | 51.499 | 0.027 | 0.127 | 3.661 | 41.611 | 97.015 |
| AB-1 | 60 | Max | 0.389 | 0.150 | 0.066 | 53.399 | 0.105 | 0.294 | 3.852 | 43.075 | 99.119 |
| | | Min | 0.009 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 48.406 | 0.000 | 0.086 | 3.485 | 39.504 | 93.071 |
| | | Average | 0.041 | 0.048 | 0.004 | 51.791 | 0.040 | 0.220 | 3.657 | 42.051 | 97.845 |
| AB-6 | 83 | Max | 0.179 | 0.130 | 0.041 | 53.896 | 0.149 | 0.676 | 3.799 | 43.011 | 99.771 |
| | | Min | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 49.668 | 0.000 | 0.151 | 3.476 | 39.984 | 93.636 |
| | | Average | 0.089 | 0.083 | 0.007 | 50.733 | 0.121 | 0.610 | 3.586 | 41.403 | 96.682 |
| AB-7 | 82 | Max | 0.152 | 0.267 | 0.090 | 53.265 | 0.282 | 0.918 | 3.797 | 42.614 | 99.136 |
| | | Min | 0.029 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 48.063 | 0.013 | 0.413 | 3.303 | 38.511 | 91.992 |
| | | Average | 0.036 | 0.088 | 0.005 | 52.414 | 0.024 | 0.129 | 3.660 | 41.031 | 97.388 |
| AB-9 | 52 | Max | 0.140 | 0.176 | 0.040 | 54.607 | 0.083 | 0.259 | 4.290 | 42.340 | 100.661 |
| | | Min | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 48.325 | 0.000 | 0.019 | 2.601 | 37.228 | 90.274 |
| | | Average | 0.037 | 0.160 | 0.014 | 51.520 | 0.042 | 0.392 | 3.569 | 41.433 | 97.167 |
| AB-13 | 92 | Max | 0.443 | 0.684 | 0.250 | 54.430 | 0.170 | 0.502 | 3.806 | 43.519 | 101.724 |
| | | Min | 0.000 | 0.007 | 0.000 | 44.911 | 0.000 | 0.210 | 2.758 | 35.036 | 84.129 |
| | | Average | 0.084 | 0.111 | 0.003 | 51.328 | 0.067 | 0.166 | 3.673 | 41.593 | 97.025 |
| SB-1 | 73 | Max | 0.349 | 0.359 | 0.027 | 52.239 | 0.159 | 0.405 | 3.974 | 42.427 | 98.192 |
| | | Min | 0.010 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 48.507 | 0.000 | 0.092 | 3.112 | 39.395 | 93.178 |

Table 4. Chemical composition of the analyzed apatites (wt%).

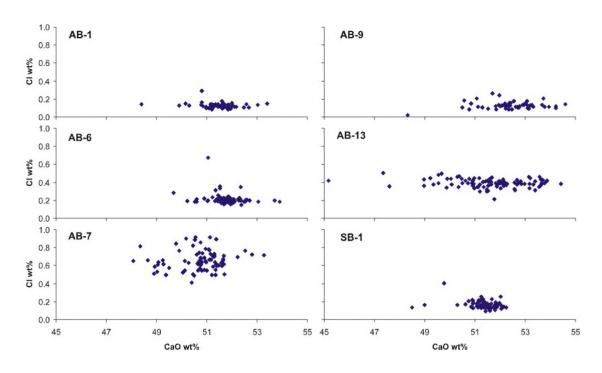


Figure 4. Harker diagram showing variation of Cl according to CaO (wt%).

Thermal history modeling: The thermal history figures are schematically complemented with U-Pb zircon ages of 82 ± 8 to 98 ± 27 Ma for the Antioqueño Batholith (Ordóñez-Carmona and Pimentel, 2001) and 73 ± 9 to 55.8 ± 1.0 Ma for the Sonsón Batholith (Ordóñez-Carmona *et al.*, 2001; Leal-Mejía, 2011). An additional constraint is given by K/Ar-biotite ages for samples AB-7, AB-13, and SB-1. Samples from the same sites as those in this study were dated with that method, yielding respective ages of 70.6 ± 3.1 Ma to 80.8 ± 3 Ma (Botero-Arango, 1963; Pérez-Ángel, 1967). These data were recalculated using constants of Steiger and Jager (1977). K/Ar-biotite dating represents a closure temperature of $300\pm 50^{\circ}$ C (Hurford, 1986).

Modeling of the six samples (Figure 5 to Figure 10) generated segmented time-temperature histories of similar shapes, characterized by marked decrease in temperature at the beginning of the cooling path, a stage of thermal stability, and final cooling until the surface temperature. These paths have been derived of homogeneous mean-track lengths, which vary from $13.9\pm1.6 \mu m$ to $14.6\pm1.3 \mu m$, ss shown in the histogram that accompanies each of the cooling curves. Characteristics of the model generated for each sample are described below.

Determination of the denudation rates: According with the local geotectonic history, the non-linear thermal histories of the samples (Figure 5 to Figure 10) are a direct consequence of the denudation and uplift processes that affected the study area. Estimation of denudation rates based on apatite fission track thermochronology is a long-term approach. A complete study to define rates of erosion and uplift requires interdisciplinary research that also would include tectonics, stratigraphy, geomorphology, geophysics, lowtemperature thermochronometers (e. g. as cosmogenic rays) and numerical modeling. The solutions presented herein are only a part of such work.

Conversion of cooling rates to denudation rates requires knowledge of the geothermal gradient over time and the geological environment in which the samples cooled. Denudation rates are here calculated from the ratio *Cooling rate/Geothermal gradient*, which provides a long-scale solution for the different segments of the cooling paths revealed by the apatite fission track annealing model.

No information on heat flow or temperature variations with depth is available for the study area, therefore a sensitivity analysis was performed. Table 5 lists the denudation rates calculated according to the different geothermal gradients that could be expected (20, 25, 30 and 35°C/km).

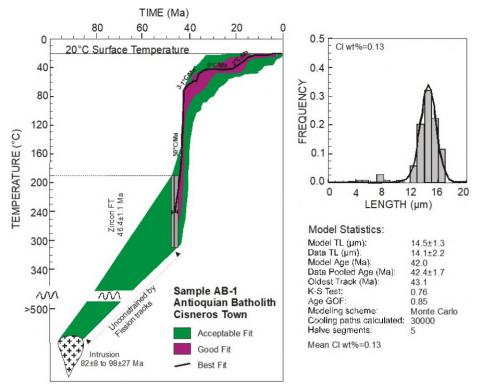


Figure 5. T-t path for sample AB-1.

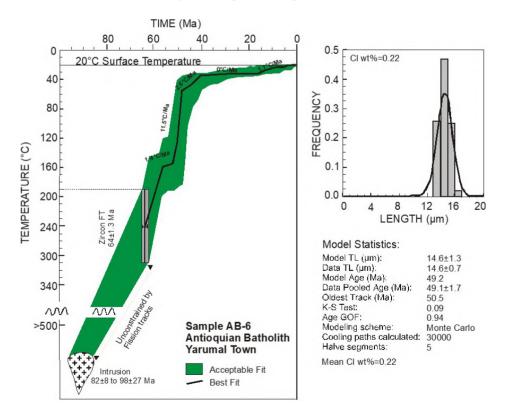


Figure 6. T-t path for sample AB-6. Here the software did not find an area of good fit.

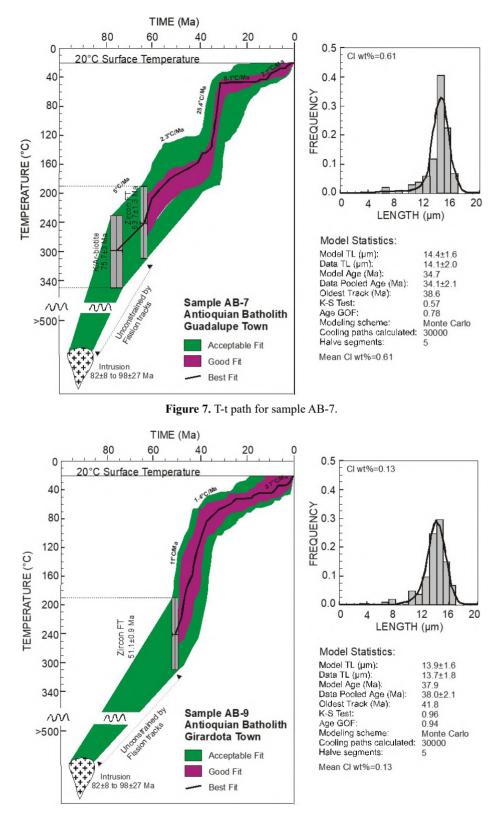


Figure 8. T-t path for sample AB-9.

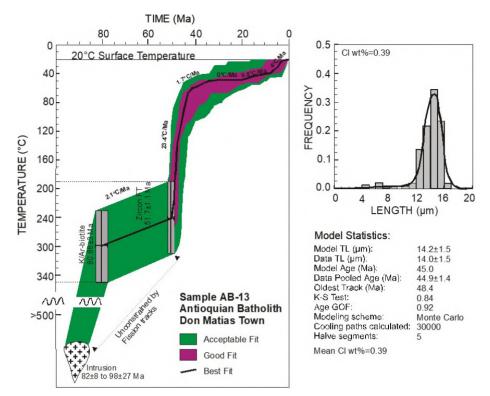


Figure 9. T-t path for sample AB-13.

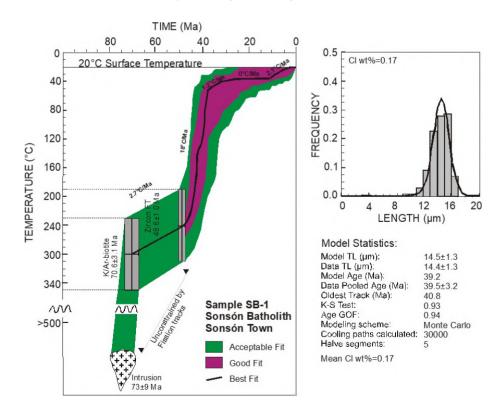


Figure 10. T-t path for sample SB-1.

| | Sta | ges of consta | nt cooling | Denudation rate (m/Ma) | | | |
|--------|-------------------|---------------|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Sample | Beginning (Ma) | End (Ma) | Cooling rate (°C/Ma) | Using 20°C/km | Using 25°C/km | Using 30°C/km | Using 35°C/km |
| | 46.4 | 43 | 50.0 | 2500 | 2000 | 1667 | 1429 |
| | 43 | 34 | 3.1 | 155 | 124 | 103 | 89 |
| AB-1 | 34 | 22 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 22 | 12 | 2.0 | 100 | 80 | 67 | 57 |
| | 12 | 5 | 0.3 | 15 | 12 | 10 | 9 |
| | 64 | 48 | 11.5 | 575 | 460 | 383 | 329 |
| | 48 | 41 | 2.6 | 130 | 104 | 87 | 74 |
| AB-6 | 41 | 17 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 17 | 5 | 1.1 | 55 | 44 | 37 | 31 |
| | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 63.7 | 53 | 5 | 250 | 200 | 167 | 143 |
| | 53 | 35.5 | 2.3 | 115 | 92 | 77 | 66 |
| AB-7 | 35.5 | 32 | 25.4 | 1270 | 1016 | 847 | 726 |
| | 32 | 12 | 0.1 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| | 12 | 3 | 2.7 | 135 | 108 | 90 | 77 |
| | 51.1 | 37 | 11.0 | 550 | 440 | 367 | 314 |
| AB-9 | 37 | 9 | 1.4 | 70 | 56 | 47 | 40 |
| | 9 | 0 | 2.7 | 135 | 108 | 90 | 77 |
| | 51.7 | 43 | 23.4 | 1170 | 936 | 780 | 669 |
| | 43 | 34 | 1.7 | 85 | 68 | 57 | 49 |
| AB-13 | 34 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 20 | 8 | 0.8 | 40 | 32 | 27 | 23 |
| | 8 | 3 | 4.0 | 200 | 160 | 133 | 114 |
| | 48.6 | 38 | 18.0 | 900 | 720 | 600 | 514 |
| SB-1 | 38 | 27 | 1.2 | 60 | 48 | 40 | 34 |
| 30-1 | 27 | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | 12 | 4 | 2.1 | 105 | 84 | 70 | 60 |

 Table 5. Denudation rates according to the geothermal gradient.

Discussion

Interpretation of Zircon FT ages

All Zircon FT dates show statistical homogeneity and can be interpreted as cooling ages, indicating the time at which the sample passed through its closure temperature, estimated to be about $240^{\circ}\pm50^{\circ}$ C (*e. g.*, Hurford, 1986).

The Antioqueño Batholith occupies most of the study area, and the 14 ages determined range from 46.4 ± 1.1 Ma to 64.0 ± 1.3 Ma. A plot of these data against their present altitude (Figure 11) shows that there is no relationship between the zircon FT ages and topographic position of the samples. Therefore, these

ages are not dependent on surface processes such as denudation or block faulting.

Instead, it is apparent that the younger ages are in the center of the body, and ages increase gradually toward the edges of the pluton, as shown in Figure 12 from a simple linear interpolation done by the Surfer software, with the equal age band. This suggests that the zircon fission track ages are linked to normal conductive heat loss of the Antioqueño Batholith, following a radial pattern from inside outwards, between early Paleocene and middle Eocene. This relaxed setting could result from two causes: a tectonically undisturbed quiescent period or a slow and homogeneous surface uplift of the mountain range during those times.

For the other plutons studied, statistical homogeneity of the data and topographic independence of the ages is also clear. The zircon FT age of 48.6 ± 1.0 Ma for the Sonsón batholith is the youngest of the studied plutons. That sample was collected from the northern edge of the pluton, and thus could represent the endpoint of the zircon fission track decay system of that unit. This date supports that the Sonsón Batholith is somewhat younger than the Antioqueño Batholith (Ordóñez-Carmona *et al.*, 2001; Leal-Mejía, 2011). Zircon FT ages of the Ovejas $(57.3\pm1.2 \text{ Ma})$, San Diego $(59.3\pm1.5 \text{ Ma})$, Altavista $(58.5\pm2.0 \text{ Ma})$ and La Union $(58.0\pm1.7 \text{ Ma})$ stocks are similar, with values close to the average age of the Antioqueño Batholith. Interpretation in terms of cooling ages is difficult, since the small size of these units would permit faster heat loss relative to the main Antioqueño Batholith body.

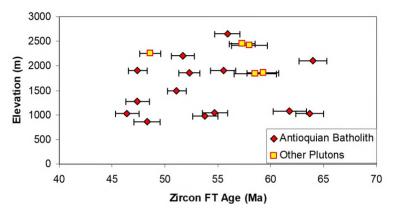


Figure 11. Variation of zircon FT age relative to the elevation of the sample.

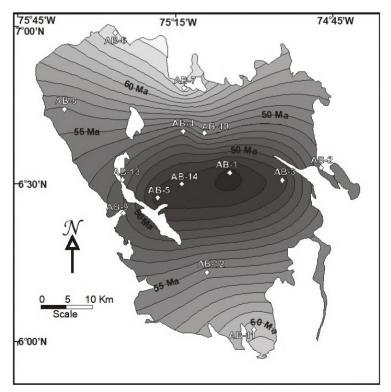


Figure 12. Distribution and variation of zircon FT ages in the Antioqueño Batholith.

Interpretation of the thermal history modeling

The t-T paths generated herein (Figure 5 to Figure 10) are strongly linked to those orogenic phases, especially to those which occurred during the middle Eocene, late Miocene, and Pliocene. The Oligocene phase (proto-Andean) was not captured by the apatite fission track thermochronology modeling probably because the intensity and duration of that episode was insufficient to affect the track length distribution, or simply because the uplift produced in the study area during Oligocene was negligible. Paleogeographic models at that time (e.g., Villamil, 1999) suggest stronger southern uplift and northern collapse of the Central Cordillera. The study area is located near the midway point; thus, the second explanation may be more appropriate. In any case, it must be emphasized that apatite AFTT is an isolated tool that should be used in conjunction with many other disciplines to derive accurate models for the Andes development.

For all t-T paths generated, the stronger cooling episode shows marked coincidence with the pre-Andean orogeny, which reached its climaz in the middle Eocene. This uplift caused a pronounced regional angular unconformity in the Magdalena Valley and Eastern Cordillera, with an important decrease in the regional accommodation space (*e. g.*, Duque-Caro, 1980). The presence of isolated pockets of molasse units in the Magdalena Valley (such as the Pocará and Hoyón Formations) derived from the Central Cordillera suggest an accelerated uplift rate of this Cordillera during the middle Eocene orogenic event (Villamil, 1999).

Eastward migration of the Eastern Cordillera depocenter during the middle Eocene suggests that the deformation front of the orogeny propagated eastward, affecting the western regions more abruptly than the eastern side (Villamil, 1999). The t-T paths modeled also confirm this observation. A plot of the cooling paths from west to east shows that the western samples cooled earlier than the eastern ones. Figure 13 clearly shows such migration in relation to the climax of the pre-Andean phase. The westernmost sample (AB-6) was affected by an earlier pulse before the orogenic peak, whereas the easternmost sample (AB-7) registered the uplift almost 15 Ma later. The relation among these samples is only erosive, as they belong to the same tectonic block and lack intervening faults that could obscure the analysis.

After the pre-Andean orogeny, the sedimentary record of the Magdalena Valley and Eastern Cordillera record a quiescent period that allowed subsidence and marine transgression. During the late Eocene, these sites received sediments from the Central Cordillera (*e. g.*, Anderson, 1972), until interruption by the Oligocene uplift (proto-Andean orogeny).

The middle Miocene and Pliocene epochs are times of major uplift phases in the building of the Colombian Andes and other regions of the world. One of the peaks of the Eu-Andean orogeny coincides with the major worldwide NH3 hiatus dated at 12.9 to 11.8 Ma (Keller and Barron, 1987), and with dramatic paleogeographic changes in the history of the northern Andes (*e. g.*, Hoorn *et al.*, 1995). Other peaks could support the idea for final closure of the Panama isthmus between 7 and 3.1 Ma (Duque-Caro, 1990). The Eu-Andean orogeny is well represented in the generated cooling paths; however, this case, there is no trend in relation with the deformation front (Figure 13).

Implications for the local geomorphology

The late Miocene to Pliocene Eu-Andean orogeny brought all samples to the surface temperature (20°C) between 5 and 3 Ma according to the best-fit line. However, considering the 50% goodness of fit (the limit of the statistical precision), exhumation could have occurred after the last 11 Ma. These ages can be interpreted as maximums for the formation of the current geomorphological features of the Antioquia Eastern Massif.

The late Miocene-Pliocene ages determined here contradict those proposed by Page and James (1981). Based on indirect extrapolations of ¹⁴C and paleomagnetic data combined with geomorphological observations, those authors suggest a late Oligocene or early Miocene age for the S-I erosion surface.

The prolonged period of stability between the late Eocene and the middle Miocene revealed by the cooling paths, must have allowed a prolonged planation. The resultant erosion surface after that planation was uplifted during the Eu-Andean orogeny and was destroyed by the intense climatic and tectonic activity which followed. The question if the highest geomorphologic expressions that crop out in the study area (termed here *undefined remnants*) were formed during that planation period, or if they are the result of isolated uplifted blocks, must be solved with additional information, problem also addressed by Noriega-Londoño *et al.* (2020).

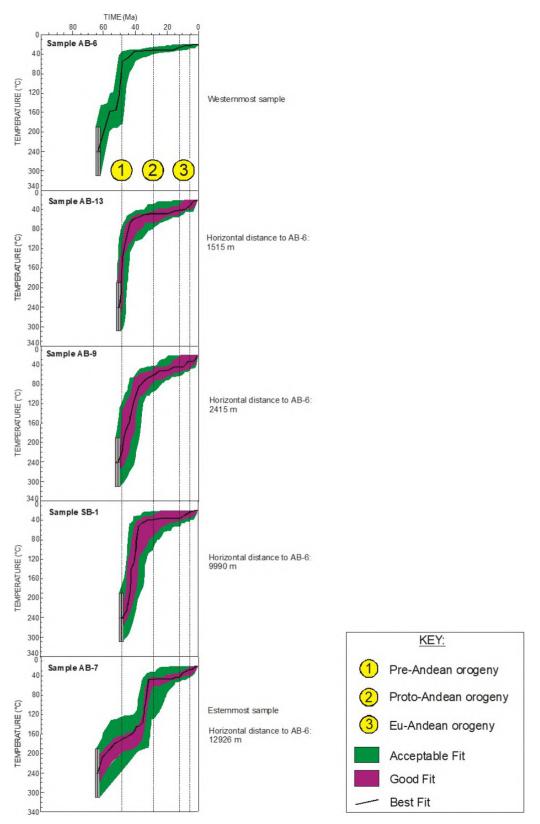


Figure 13. Relation between the generated t-T paths and the orogenic phases.

Comparison with subsequent work

The data obtained in this study are in reasonable agreement with two subsequent studies. Initially, using the same fission track methodology in Toro et al., 2007, for whom the last uplift of the northern sector of the central Cordillera would be the kinematic response to the regional NWSE thrust, product of the Panama-Costa Rica Microplate and the Caribbean Plate interaction with the Andean Block, which according to their results began around 7 Ma, with a maximum activity between 3.6 and 3.1 Ma. Later, using apatite (U-Th)/He thermochronology (Restrepo-Moreno et al., 2009) reveal two strong cooling events, one from 41 Ma to 49 Ma and the other between 21 Ma and 25 Ma. AHe data provide an average erosion rate of \sim 0.04 mm/yr for the last 25 million years. Erosion rates during the exhumation pulses were in the order of \sim 0.2–0.4 mm/yr.

Special attention should be directed to tectometamorphic events that may affect the thermochronometers and that are being reported by new data. For example, the morphotectonic paroxysm near the Oligo-Miocene transition reported by Restrepo-Moreno *et al.* (2009) and Noriega-Londoño *et al.* (2020). Additionally, exhumation might be understood as due to differential behavior between the blocks; for Noriega-Londoño *et al.* (2020) is key the role of the Espiritu Santo Fault in the Antioquia Eastern Massif.

Conclusions

The obtained Zircon FT dates show statistical homogeneity and independence from surface processes. Therefore, these data are interpreted as cooling ages, meaning the time at which the sample evaluated passed through its closure temperature, estimated to be about $240^{\circ}\pm50^{\circ}$ C. Zircon ages range from 46.4 ± 1.1 Ma to 64.0 ± 1.3 Ma.

The time-temperature cooling paths show strong correlation with the orogenic phases that built the Colombian Andes, especially to those occurred during the middle Eocene (Pre-Andean), and late Miocene to Pliocene (Eu Andean). An Oligocene phase (Proto-Andean) was not identified by this tool. The main tectonic phase that affected the study area occurred between the middle and late Eocene. After that, the present surface remained awfully quite close to the surface at that time (less than 1 km), until unroofing occurred during the late Miocene to Pliocene orogenic phase. The western samples cooled before the eastern ones during this wellidentified orogenic phase, showing a clear eastward migration of the deformation front. This migration is evident in the stratigraphic record.

The samples were most likely exhumed between 3 and 5 Ma ago, although we must accept some statistical probability associated with the method up to 11Ma. This data represents the maximum age for the formation of the landscape as it was denuded to place the samples on surface; in other words, the Central Cordillera erosion surface and its superimposed relief were formed after this time.

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This research was born from the Fission Tracks seed planted at the Universidad Nacional Medellín by professors José Maria Jaramillo and Jorge Julián Restrepo. Together with Carlos Paucar we did one of the first undergraduate thesis on the subject (Paucar and Saenz, 1995) under the direction of J.J. Restrepo and that was the beginning of this project.

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