

# Early-mid Miocene erosion rates inferred from Hazeva River fluvial chert pebbles using cosmogenic

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**Abstract.** In this work, we utilize a novel application of cosmogenic <sup>26</sup>Al and <sup>10</sup>Be to compare exposure times measured in eroding surfaces in the Jordan Rift Valley to exposure times from chert pebbles transported by the Miocene Hazeva River. The Hazeva River was a large fluvial system (estimated catchment size >100,000 km<sup>2</sup>) that drained the Hazeva Plateau and Sinai Peninsula into the Mediterranean Sea during the late Miocene. The system was established after the rifting of the Red Sea uplifted the Arabian Plateau. Following late Miocene to early Pliocene subsidence along the Dead Sea Rift, the Hazeva system was abandoned and dissected, resulting in new drainage divides.

We find that modern erosion rates derived from cosmogenic <sup>21</sup>Ne, <sup>26</sup>Al, and <sup>10</sup>Be are

in hyperarid environments. Miocene exposure times are shorter even  
25 account for bedrock erosion in addition to maintained transport along  
exposure times in Miocene cherts correspond to faster paleo-erosion rates  
combination of continuous surface uplift and significantly wetter climate  
early-mid Miocene.

## 1. Introduction

30 Tectonic and climatic conditions control geomorphological processes  
weathering, and sediment generation and transport (e.g., Allen, 2008;  
2012). Changes in rates of continental uplift and climatic conditions control  
sediment production, transport, and storage and influence fluvial systems  
sediment archives (e.g., DiBiase and Whipple, 2011; Ferrier et al.,  
35 Cosmogenic nuclides, mostly radiogenic  $^{26}\text{Al}$  and  $^{10}\text{Be}$ , have been used to  
weathering and erosion rates in fluvial systems across different scales and  
Bierman, 1994; von Blanckenburg, 2005). The decreased preservation of  
systems, due to burial or recycling, adds difficulty to the reconstruction of  
conditions with increased sediment age (e.g., Anderson et al., 1996; Gu  
40 et al., 2002). Furthermore, even when geological circumstances do allow  
older sediments, rates prior to the Pliocene cannot be quantified with  
cosmogenic radionuclides ( $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{26}\text{Al}$ ) due to their half-lives  
accordingly; Ivy-Ochs and Kober, 2008). Unlike their radioactive counterparts

mid Miocene and rates of hyperarid environments eroding today, influence of the tectonic and climatic conditions that operated in the re

## 55 **2. Geological Setting**

Following an extended period of transgression that ended in the late Sea retreated to its current location (Garfunkel and Horowitz, 1966), tectonic tranquility was followed by a series of tectonic and magmatic rifting of the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden in the late Eocene to early C  
60 Bohannon et al., 1989; Bosworth et al., 2005; Omar and Steckler, 1999; Myr, regional doming associated with the emergence of the Afar p  
Peninsula from near sea level to its present elevation of ~1km (e.g., F  
et al., 2019; Wilson et al., 2014). As a result of this uplift, widespread regional truncation surface developed in the northern Red Sea and the  
65 older strata down to Precambrian formations depending on the prexi  
2012). Following these events, during the early-mid Miocene, the upl  
a newly established fluvial system, termed the Hazeva River, which f  
the eroded terrains towards the Mediterranean Sea, and drained an es  
(Garfunkel and Horowitz, 1966; Zilberman and Calvo, 2013; Fig. 1).  
70 operated until the subsidence of the Dead Sea Rift, during the late  
brought on a dramatic change in morphology, which led to the disrupt  
system, the last of its kind in the region (Garfunkel, 1981). By the early  
drainage systems replaced the Hazeva River, draining the region toward

Arabian Plateau and Sinai and deposited simultaneously by the Haz  
Calvo, 2013). The first member is sub-rounded monocrystalline q  
85 Phanerozoic Nubian sandstone, as well as from outcrops of Precambrian  
Arabian-Nubian shield (Calvo and Bartov, 2001). The second member  
chert pebbles, either interbedded with the quartz sand or forming horizonal  
sequence (Zilberman and Calvo, 2013). The chert comprising these pebbles  
east of the Dead Sea Rift, and therefore fluvial deposits on the west side  
90 chert" (Kolodny, 1965) must have been emplaced prior to rifting. The  
is constrained by the Karak dike (~20 Myr) which intrudes the lower  
formation (Calvo and Bartov, 2001). During the Miocene climatic change  
hypothesized to have been wetter (e.g., Kolodny et al., 2009). Current  
middle latitude dry warm desert extending from northern Africa to western  
95 Desert remaining hyperarid at least since the middle Pleistocene (Amir

### **3. Methodology and Analytical Procedures**

#### **3.1 Sampling Strategy**

Cosmogenic nuclides in sediments accumulate throughout the sediment  
material is exposed during weathering and exposure of the source rock  
100 drainage system, and to a much lesser degree following burial at its  
destination. Unlike the more commonly used radioactive cosmogenic  
substantially or even completely over multiple sedimentary cycles,  $^{21}\text{Ne}$   
the concentration of  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  measured in sediments may have accumulated

We collected and analyzed ten samples in total, eight Hazeva formation  
Jordanian cherts. The Hazeva samples include three samples of quartz  
115 MHS5), and five individual chert pebbles (MHC2, MHC23, MHC5a  
obtained from two Miocene Hazeva exposures (Fig. 2 B-C; Table 1).  
collected from deeply shielded locations to minimize the effects of  
section 5.1 for further discussion). The quartz sand and the chert pebbles  
the Miocene Hazeva system and share a similar exposure history. How  
120 exposed in previous sedimentary cycles throughout the Mesozoic  
accumulated cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$ . In contrast, the chert was deposited  
exposed, transported, and buried during the Miocene (Avni et al., 2010).  
cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  measured in the quartz sand represents multiple  
cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  measured in the chert pebbles represents erosion and  
125 sedimentary cycle in the Miocene Hazeva River. Additionally, two individual  
chert nodules (EJC3 and EJC5) were collected from exposed bedrock  
source rock in central Jordan (Fig. 2A). Unlike the Miocene samples,  
at least one full sedimentary cycle, the Jordanian chert nodules accumulated  
only during exhumation to the currently exposed surface. Therefore,  
130 concentrations measured in the Jordanian cherts represent averaged rates  
 $\sim 10^5$  yr.

### 3.2 Preparation of Chert and Quartz Samples and Analytical Procedures

Chert pebbles (ranging 4-14 cm, b axis) were crushed, and both chert and quartz  
to 250-850  $\mu\text{m}$ . Chert and quartz samples were processed to separate

the degassing results with the uncrushed aliquots. Ca. 70 mg from the  
145 mg from the quartz samples were encapsulated in a tantalum packet  
using a diode laser micro-furnace at 2-4 heating steps between 450 and 950°C  
each temperature step. Ne isotope measurements used the BGC "Ohio" system  
described in Balco et al., (2019). 20-30 grams of leached and cleaned  
samples and three chert samples were processed to separate Be and Al  
150 Nishiizumi (1992) and Bierman and Caffee (2001). These were then measured for  
 $^{26}\text{Al}/^{27}\text{Al}$  at the Centre for Accelerator Mass Spectrometry, Lawrence  
Laboratory, and calibrated against house standards and blanks.

### 3.3 Cosmogenic Scaling and Correction Factors

Exposure and burial times and erosion rates were calculated based on  
155 using time-independent scaling (Stone, 2000) and production mechanisms  
(2008), given sea-level high-latitude production rates of 4.96 atoms/g  
atoms/g  $\text{SiO}_2$ /year for  $^{26}\text{Al}$  (Balco et al., 2008), and 18.1 atoms/g  $\text{SiO}_2$   
Luna et al., 2018).

## 4. Results

### 160 4.1 $^{21}\text{Ne}$ in Quartz Sand and Cherts

For the chert samples, <2% of the total  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  and no more than 1% of the  
released above 950°C (see the Supplementary Tables S1-4). Therefore,  
performed at 450, 700, and 950°C heating steps for chert samples and  
steps for quartz samples (Table 1). Of the total  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  measured, >85%

$^{21}\text{Ne}$  was released in the  $950^\circ\text{C}$  step, determining the concentration of  
175 MHC2 is beyond analytical abilities. Therefore, this sample was  
calculations, discussion, and interpretations. It is important to note  
isotopic values of  $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{20}\text{Ne}$  and  $^{22}\text{Ne}/^{20}\text{Ne}$  ratios at the low-temperature  
cosmogenic component of  $^{21}\text{Ne}_{\text{ex}}$  from the nucleogenic component, p  
and Th within the crystal lattice, is not trivial. Nonetheless, as all ch  
180 nodules and Miocene chert pebbles) share the same lithology, any  
concentrations must be due to the cosmogenic component.

The chert pebbles and quartz sands sampled at both Miocene H  
concentrations of  $^{21}\text{Ne}_{\text{cos}}$  ranging between  $0.00 \pm 1.88 \cdot 10^6$  and  $8.89 \pm 1.8$   
At both Miocene Hazeva sites, the cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentrations m  
185 similar or lower compared to sand samples. These measured con  
understanding that the sand samples contain quartz grains that originate  
that were deposited throughout the Phanerozoic and could have unde  
cycles before they were exhumed and transported by the Miocene fluvia  
could also have higher concentrations of nucleogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  as the source  
190 Ma (Kolodner et al., 2009). Conversely, the Hazeva chert samples are  
young Eocene source rock and were exposed during one sedimentary  
samples of Jordanian chert nodules collected from *in situ* Eoce  
cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentrations, higher compared to the Miocene Haz  
Diffusion kinetics of Ne in quartz have been examined experimentally  
195 and Farley, 2005; Tremblay et al., 2014) but have yet to be tested o

## 4.2 $^{10}\text{Be}$ and $^{26}\text{Al}$ in Quartz Sand and Cherts

205  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{26}\text{Al}$  concentrations were measured in three Miocene sand samples (MHS5), the two Eocene chert nodules (EJC3 and EJC5), and two chert nodules (MHC6).  $^{10}\text{Be}$  results for sample MHC5b and  $^{26}\text{Al}$  results for sample MHC5b are listed in Table 1. Miocene sand and chert samples show  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{26}\text{Al}$  concentrations consistent with extended periods of burial ( $\leq 0.39 \pm 0.03 \cdot 10^5$  atoms/g  $\text{SiO}_2$  for  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $\leq 0.39 \pm 0.03 \cdot 10^5$  atoms/g  $\text{SiO}_2$  for  $^{26}\text{Al}$ ). Currently eroding Eocene nodules show higher  $^{26}\text{Al}$ , with sample EJC3 showing a  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  ratio that is consistent with a more recent exposure and sample EJC5 showing a lower  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  ratio, suggesting a more complex history (see Discussion section).

## 5. Discussion

### 215 5.1 Correcting for Post-Burial Muonic Produced Cosmogenic $^{21}\text{Ne}$

When examining concentrations of cosmogenic nuclides in sedimentary rocks buried for extended periods, post-burial production needs to be considered. At our study site, muon interactions are the main pathway for *in situ* production of cosmogenic nuclides (>95% for  $^{26}\text{Al}$ ,  $^{10}\text{Be}$ , and  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  (Dunai, 2010)). However, the relative contribution of muon interactions increases with burial depth. While production rates are generally low, they can be significant when integrated over long periods, especially for stable nuclides. The cosmogenic component does not represent surface processes, and therefore, it is not a direct contribution to the measured cosmogenic component. For radioactive nuclides such as  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{26}\text{Al}$ , their initial concentrations (acquired during exposure)



consists of clastic sediments with a density of  $\sim 2 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ). The discrepancy  
burial depth, only tens of meters below the surface, and the deduced burial  
of surface erosion that occurred during the last  $\sim 2 \text{ Myr}$  (Matmon et al., 2003; references therein). Additionally, the relatively large uncertainty on the  
could account for some of this discrepancy (Balco, 2017; Balco et al., 2017). We show that the cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  produced post-burial over 18 Myr at a  
lower than the  $^{21}\text{Ne}_{\text{ex}}$  measured in the presented samples (including MHC2). The  
maximal calculated post-burial cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentration according to  
 $\text{SiO}_2$ , which is lower than the analytical uncertainty for all measured MHC2,  
MHC2, where no cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  was measured. However, sample MHC2 is  
the interpretations of the results. Therefore, we consider post-burial cosmogenic  
to be insignificant for the presented Miocene exposure times.

## 5.2 Calculating Modern and Miocene Exposure Times

Exposure times at the surface calculated from cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentrations in  
chert nodules from the Jordanian Central Plateau (EJC3 and EJC5) range from  
193 kyr and a maximum of 454 kyr (correlating to cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentrations of  
 $8.08 \pm 1.48 \cdot 10^6$  and  $12.10 \pm 2.43 \cdot 10^6$  atoms/g  $\text{SiO}_2$ ).

In comparison to the Jordanian samples, quantifying exposure times from  
cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentrations is not trivial, most notably due to the influence of  
local cosmogenic production rates. The production rate of cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$   
altitude as the air pressure and shielding effect of the atmosphere decrease  
the latitude of the Arabian Peninsula during the early Miocene was similar

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Hazeva fluvial system at ~18 Ma. Nevertheless, this stratigraphic  
determine whether the Arabian Peninsula reached its current elevation  
Miocene or whether additional uplift occurred over the past 20 Ma.  
exhumation along the eastern flank of the Dead Sea Rift do not provide  
the timing of surface uplift. Surface uplift histories based on cooling ages  
and river profiles (Wilson et al., 2014), conclude that during the last ~10 Ma  
the Arabian Peninsula was uplifted to its current elevation (Feinstein et al.,  
2014). However, in a recent work, Morag et al. (2019) present thermochronology  
apatite (U–Th)/He and fission-track data from a transect across the eastern  
in SW Sinai. The researchers suggest that uplift and exhumation along the  
Rift flank slowed substantially post ~18 Ma. This decline reflects a deceleration  
indicate that the Jordanian Plateau has reached close to its current elevation.  
Hazeva River was active. One more approach to evaluate the paleo-elevation of the  
Jordanian Plateau is to calculate this elevation given a known distance from the  
and the base level, and an evaluated slope. The Hazeva fluvial system was active  
Mediterranean at an elevation of ~0 m.a.s.l, and over a distance of ~100 km from the  
Mediterranean coast to the location of exposed chert nodules. Given a slope  
of ~0.5%, the elevation of the Central Jordanian Plateau is ~1 km. Given the  
different types of evidence reported, it is reasonable to presume that the  
Arabian Peninsula reached its current elevation (~1 km) during the early Miocene.  
a single elevation to calculate paleo-production rates introduces a second-order effect  
account for spatial variations in elevation due to catchment topography.

the two silicate members, concentrations (and exposure times) of the sand samples are generally higher than the chert samples (Fig. 3). This observation agrees with the fact that the cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  measured in the Miocene chert pebbles represents the time spent during exhumation from bedrock coupled with transport in the Hazeva River. The sand samples have undergone previous sedimentary cycles and consequently their  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentrations are higher. Therefore, sand samples cannot be used to calculate the time spent during transport in the Hazeva fluvial system or to infer erosion rates. Unlike the chert samples, which feasibly undergone previous exhumation, erosion, and deposition, the sand samples have not undergone previous sedimentary cycles. Hence, all cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentrations measured during erosion and transport in the Hazeva River and rates of surface processes can be evaluated using the Miocene chert samples.

The cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  exposure times calculated from the Jordanian chert samples range from  $269\pm 63$  to  $378\pm 76$  kyr. Exposure times that were calculated from  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{26}\text{Al}$  concentrations measured in sample EJC5 overlap within uncertainty with  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  calculated exposure times (Table 2). In contrast, exposure times calculated from  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{26}\text{Al}$  concentrations in sample EJC3 are much shorter  $\sim 13$ - $16$  kyr, an order of magnitude difference. To resolve this discrepancy, we believe that the representative results are longer exposure times. The  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  calculated exposure time in sample EJC3 agrees with the  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  exposure times for sample EJC5. Secondly, the timescales of exposure in eroding surfaces at hyperarid Negev Desert are similar and range from  $\sim 10$  to  $\sim 100$  kyr (Boroda et al., 2014; Fruchter et al., 2011; Matmon et al., 2009). We conclude that exposure times in modern Jordanian Central Plateau chert nodules range  $\sim 300$ - $400$  kyr.

sites and different depths, so it is unlikely that they all represent the same processes. We consider the range of times obtained from Miocene samples to be a good estimate of the range of surface processes.

### 330 **5.3 Modern and Miocene Erosion Rates and the Influence of Climate**

The calculated exposure times of the Jordanian chert nodules are equivalent to a rate of 12 mm/kyr (Table 2), consistent with other rates measured in the region (Table 1, 2017 and references therein). Calculation of paleo-erosion rates is possible because the Miocene cherts were sampled post-deposition and represent exposure of the bedrock and transport in the Hazeva River. However, Miocene exposure times overlap within uncertainty with times of *in situ* Jordanian chert. This suggests that erosion rates during the Miocene must have been faster than the prevailing rates today. While we cannot determine how much faster paleo-erosion rates were, an increase in erosion rates in a hyperarid desert must be the consequence of the conditions that prevailed in the region at that time. An increase in erosion is commonly attributed to perturbations in fluvial basins in response to warmer/wetter climatic conditions (e.g., DiBiase and Whipple, 2011; Rowland and Ehlers, 2006; Val et al., 2016; Willenbring et al., 2013). For example, a rise in stream power brings about higher river discharge and enhancement of the stream power, which increases erosion and sediment transport. Erosion rates in fluvial systems also respond to induced changes in base level that increase slope steepness and increase stream power and more sediment readily available for transport. Here

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exhumation rates during the mid-Miocene (~18 Myr; Morag et al. topographic changes could still drive large-scale landscape response erosion rates and the establishment of the Hazeva fluvial system.

360 In addition to tectonic forcing, there is ample evidence for a warmer region during the Miocene. Locally, the appearance of mammals in the and grassy vegetation during the early-mid Miocene, supports a humid et al., 1988; Horowitz, 2002; Tchernov et al., 1987). Tropical to subtropical the eastern Arabian Peninsula, as indicated by fossilized mangrove roots 365 1980). Locally, Kolodny et al. (2009), interpreted the  $^{18}\text{O}$  in lacustrine part of the Hazeva unit to be deposited by  $^{18}\text{O}$ -depleted paleo-meteorites the presence of a warm ocean to the southeast of the region during Miocene resulted in tropical cyclones being more prevalent and increased Together, the above observations suggest climatic conditions that could 370 are faster than observed rates in hyperarid conditions, and that supported maintained fluvial system, such as the Hazeva River, during the Miocene.

## 6. Conclusions

We compared the cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  measured in chert pebbles and transported during the mid-Miocene (~18 Myr) by the Hazeva River 375 (Eocene chert nodules) currently eroding in the Central Jordanian Plateau. We successfully established a novel application for measuring cosmogenic Miocene chert samples, expanding the opportunities and settings in

Plateau. While it is impossible to determine the exact rate of erosion, cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  was produced during erosion from the bedrock and the exposure times during the Miocene point to rates of surface erosion that increased rates during the early-mid Miocene cannot be easily constrained by climatic conditions. The entire region experienced tectonic uplift and possibly decreasing during the mid-Miocene, brought on topographic changes in the Hazeva fluvial system and could have manifested as faster rates of surface erosion. Multiple independent proxies presented in previous studies support weathering in the region during the early-mid Miocene. Increased precipitation would increase bedrock erosion deduced as well as the higher water discharge needed to carve the Hazeva River. Finally, the variability observed in exposure times of  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentrations is more likely the result of fluvial transport dynamics than exposure during transport in this large Miocene river.

### **Data availability**

A raw data table, including all Ne isotope measurements, and three-isotope data are available in the supplement.

### **Author contribution**

405 MBI and AM designed the study. MBI collected the samples for analysis.

This work was funded by the Israel Science Foundation (*ISF* grant number 170/15) and was further supported by the United States-Israel Binational Science Foundation (grant number 2017229 to MBI). We greatly appreciate the intensive work and insight provided by Taylor Schildgen, Dr. Marissa Tremblay, and an anonymous reviewer (415 Taylor Schildgen, Dr. Marissa Tremblay, and an anonymous reviewer). We thank O. Tirosh, and Y. Burstyn for laboratory and field assistance. MBI would like to thank the graduate and administrative staff at the Berkeley Geochronology Center for their assistance. This work was performed in part under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, United States under Contract DE-AC02-05OR21400 (420 LLNL-JRNL-788357).

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**Table 1: Sample Description, Sampling Site Locations and Cosmogenic Nuclides**

Sample	Sample type	Site	Sampling depth below surface (m)	Location		Elevation (m.a.s.l)	Be Carrier (mg)	$^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$ ( $\times 10^{-13}$ )	[ $^{10}\text{Be}$ ] ( $10^5$ atoms/g $\text{SiO}_2$ )
				Lat ( $^\circ\text{N}$ )	Long ( $^\circ\text{E}$ )				
MHS1	Quartz sand	Paran Valley, Israel	30	30.33296	34.92724	290	176	0.17 $\pm$ 0.03	0.14 $\pm$ 0.02
MHS3	Quartz sand	Arad Quarry, Israel	90	31.23372	35.20685	570	171	0.36 $\pm$ 0.02	0.29 $\pm$ 0.02
MHS5	Quartz sand	Arad Quarry, Israel	100	31.23372	35.20685	570	175	0.32 $\pm$ 0.02	0.26 $\pm$ 0.02
MHC2	Chert pebble	Paran Valley, Israel	20	30.33296	34.92724	290	NA	NA	NA
MHC3	Chert pebble	Arad Quarry, Israel	90	31.23372	35.20685	570	NA	NA	NA
MHC5a	Chert pebble	Arad Quarry, Israel	100	31.23372	35.20685	570	NA	NA	NA
MHC5b	Chert pebble	Arad Quarry, Israel	100	31.23372	35.20685	570	172	NA	NA
MHC6	Chert pebble	Paran Valley, Israel	30	30.33296	34.92724	290	170	0.10 $\pm$ 0.01	0.39 $\pm$ 0.03
EJC3	In situ chert	Central Jordanian Plateau	Surface	30.97045	36.64469	910	172	0.70 $\pm$ 0.03	1.13 $\pm$ 0.05
EJC5	In situ chert	Central Jordanian Plateau	Surface	30.87181	36.52129	1000	178	18.43 $\pm$ 0.30	29.75 $\pm$ 0.49

*Note:* NA – not available. Samples were either not analyzed, or no result was attained.

\*Measurement uncertainties are ~5%.

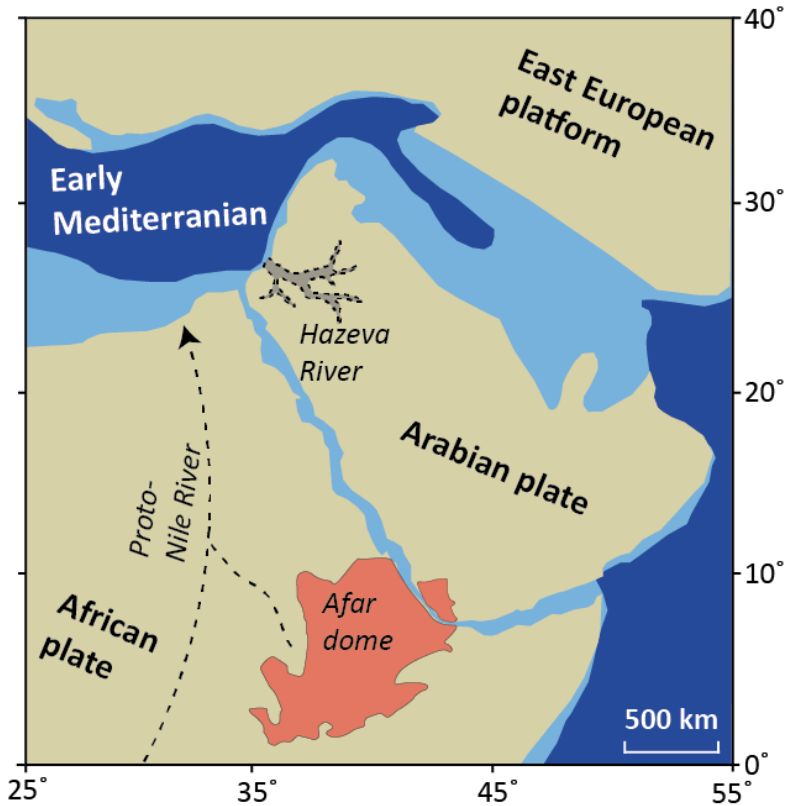
†Cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  is the excess of  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  concentrations relative to the atmospheric  $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{20}\text{Ne}$  ratio, calculated for the low-temperature steps (<

**Table 2: Exposure times and erosion rates calculated for the modern and Miocene samples**

Sample	Sample type	Location	Exposure time (kyr)	Erosion rate (mm/kyr)
MHS1	Miocene quartz sand	Paran Valley, Southern Negev Desert	114±46 – 166±87	-
MHS3	Miocene quartz sand	Arad Quarry, Northeastern Negev Desert	280±10 – 408±63	-
MHS5	Miocene quartz sand	Arad Quarry, Northeastern Negev Desert	278±17 – 404±83	-
MHC3	Miocene chert pebble	Arad Quarry, Northeastern Negev Desert	167±53 – 242±113	3.0±1.4
MHC5a	Miocene chert pebble	Arad Quarry, Northeastern Negev Desert	91±46 – 132±78	5.5±3.3
MHC5b	Miocene chert pebble	Arad Quarry, Northeastern Negev Desert	0 <sub>-0</sub> <sup>+59</sup> – 0 <sub>-0</sub> <sup>+85</sup>	>8.6 – >
MHC6	Miocene chert pebble	Paran Valley, Southern Negev Desert	121±59 – 176±102	3.0±1.4
EJC3*	In situ chert nodule	Central Jordanian Plateau	269±49 / 16±1 / 13±1	2.7±0.5
EJC5*	In situ chert nodule	Central Jordanian Plateau	378±76 / 361±6 / 378±3	1.9±0.4

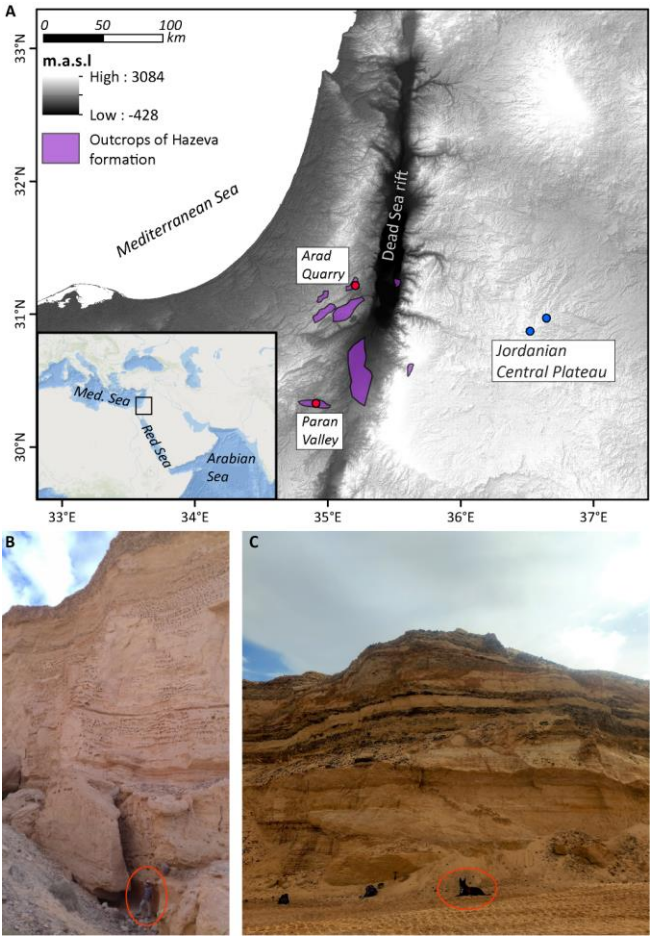
*Note:* Exposure times is the ‘simple exposure time’ calculated for exposure at the surface, calculated cosmogenic <sup>21</sup>Ne production rates ranging from 0.0001 to 0.0002 (atoms/g/yr), given an elevation of 500 and 1000 meters above sea level. Erosion rates for sand samples were not calculated as the concentration of cosmogenic <sup>21</sup>Ne from previous sedimentary cycles.

\*Erosion rates calculated using <sup>21</sup>Ne / <sup>10</sup>Be / <sup>26</sup>Al.



**Figure 1.** Paleo-geographic map of the eastern Levant during the early Mediterranean stage (after Meulenkamp and Sissingh, 2003) with the approximated extent of the Early Mediterranean sea (after Avni et al., 2012; Zilberman and Calvo, 2013).





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Figure 2. (A) Shaded relief map of the study area with sampling localities (red) and in situ Eocene source rock (blue). Hazeva outcrops (purple) (Calvo (2013)). The inset map shows the regional geographical context. (B) Photo of sampling location at Arad Quarry. Samples collected from under a fallen boulder in a narrow overburden of ~50 meters of sand and conglomerate. See person for scale. (C) Photo of sampling location at Paron Valley. Samples collected from under a fallen boulder in ~100 meters of quartz sand. See dog for scale marked at the bottom.

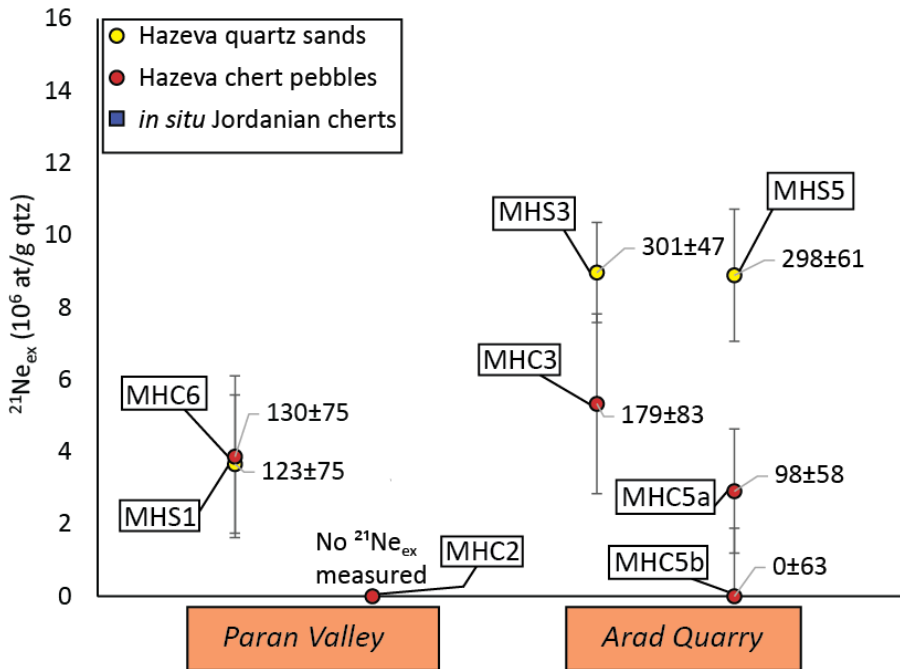
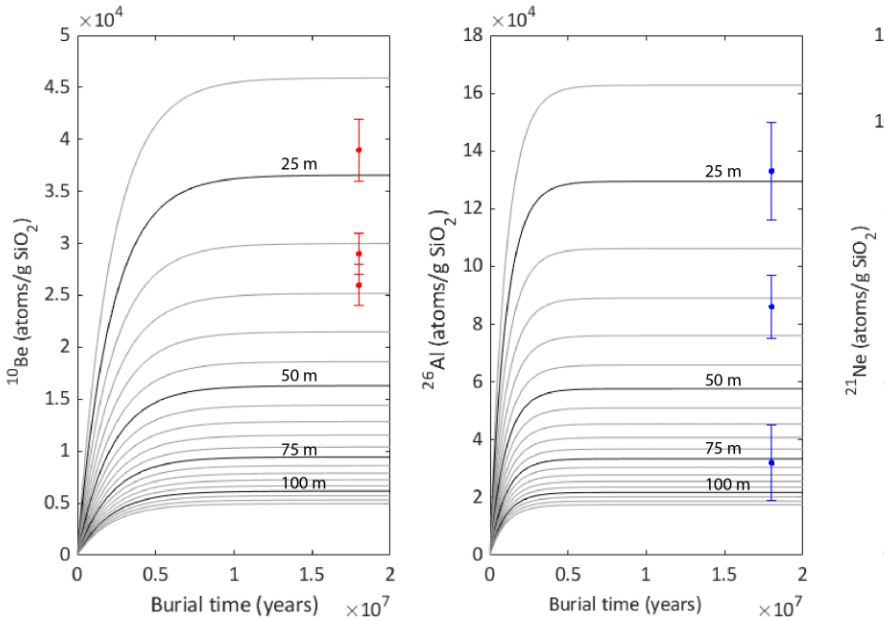


Figure 3.  $^{21}\text{Ne}_{\text{cos}}$  concentrations in Hazeva sands (yellow), Hazeva chert pebbles (red), and *in situ* Jordanian Central Plateau chert nodules (blue) with respective uncertainty and sample location.



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**Figure 4. Measured concentrations of  $^{10}\text{Be}$  (red),  $^{26}\text{Al}$  (blue), and  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  in MHS5, and MHC6. Grey contour lines show changes in nuclide concentrations with depth from 20 to 120 m below the surface in 5 m increments. For both samples, the concentrations of cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  are higher than the estimated production by cosmic-ray muons is calculated with schematics presented in Balco et al. (2017) and of  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  by fast muons is after Balco et al. (2019). This illustrates that concentrations can be explained by post-burial production, but  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  significant fraction of cosmogenic  $^{21}\text{Ne}$  is pre-burial.**