



14 **Abstract**

15 The deposition of fluvial sediments in tectonically active areas is mainly controlled
16 by tectonics, climate, and associated Earth surface processes; consequently, fluvial
17 sediments can provide a valuable record of changes in regional climate and tectonic
18 activity. In this study, we conducted a detailed analysis of the grain-size distribution in
19 modern fluvial sediments from the upper Min River, Eastern Tibet. These data were
20 combined with regional information about climate, vegetation, hydrology,
21 geomorphology, lithology, and fault slip rate, and together indicate that modern regional
22 tectonic activity along upper Min River can be divided into three segments. Specifically,
23 fluvial sediments in the segment I are dominated by fine silts ($<63\ \mu\text{m}$: 70.2%), agreeing
24 with a low-runoff and low-rainfall in this segment and revealing a windblown origin
25 influenced by the arid and windy climate. These observations are consistent with the
26 segment's low hillslope angle and low relief, all indicating weak activity along the
27 Minjiang Fault. The coarse-grained fraction ($>250\ \mu\text{m}$) of fluvial sediments in the
28 segments II – III increases in a stepwise fashion (A = 6.2%, B = 19.4%, C = 33.8%)
29 downstream, although runoff and rainfall do not change significantly from segment II
30 to segment III. These patterns correlate well with an increase in both regional relief and
31 hillslope angles. Together, these observations imply that regional tectonic activity along
32 Maoxian–Wenchuan Fault becomes more pervasive downstream along the Min River.
33 Fluvial sediments in segment IV are well sorted and well rounded, which is expected
34 due to significant increases in rainfall and runoff in this segment. This study marks the
35 first development of a new and important research approach that can characterize



36 regional tectonic activity by analysis of fluvial sediments collected from tectonically

37 active regions, combined with regional conditions in geology and geography.

38

39 **Keywords:** Modern fluvial sediments; Grain-size analysis; Tectonic activity; Upper

40 Min River; Eastern Tibetan Plateau

41



42 **1 Introduction**

43 Tectonic geomorphology is a relatively young sub-discipline of geomorphology,
44 and has the major aim of unraveling interactions between tectonic activity, climate, and
45 Earth surface processes (Wobus et al., 2005; Owen, 2013). The grain size distribution
46 of river bed material, channel width, channel sinuosity, extent of alluvial cover,
47 lithology of bedrock, and hydraulic roughness are all potentially important variables
48 (Whipple, 2004; Whittaker et al., 2010). Thus, comprehensive amounts of data must be
49 collected in a wide range of field settings before the responses of these important
50 variables to climatic and tectonic forcings can be determined.

51 The topographic margin of the Tibetan Plateau (TP) along the Longmen Shan is
52 one of the most impressive continental escarpments in the world, and the land surface
53 rises westward over a horizontal distance of 40–60 km from the Sichuan Basin (500–
54 700 m elevation) to peak elevations exceeding 6000 m (Chen et al., 2000; Kirby et al.,
55 2000, 2008). Some studies have revealed common topographic features within river
56 channels in the eastern TP, namely, an upper low-gradient channel segment, a middle
57 steep-gradient channel segment, and a low-lying very steep channel segment, such as
58 in the Red River region in Yunnan Province (Schoenbohm et al., 2004) and the Min
59 River region in Sichuan Province (Kirby et al., 2003). However, it is important to note
60 that strong lithological contrasts along the length of a river can also cause the channel
61 steepness index to change at comparable magnitudes to those associated with large
62 gradients in rock uplift rate (Snyder et al. 2000; Stock and Dietrich 2003; Beek and
63 Bishop 2003; Whittaker et al., 2010). New data sourced from several localities record
64 an apparent narrowing of channel width in response to increased rock uplift rates in



65 rivers with large areas of bedrock (Whipple, 2004). This is consistent with the recent
66 proposition that river profiles straighten as aridity increase (Chen et al., 2019), as
67 observed along the upper Min River in the field. Generally, exposures of hard bedrock
68 often generate straight channels, which have low channel slopes and small sediment
69 loads (Schumm and Khan, 1971, 1972).

70 Vegetation density can modulate topographic responses to changing denudation
71 rates, such that the functional relationship between denudation rate and topographic
72 steepness becomes increasingly linear as vegetation density increases (Olen et al., 2016).
73 Recent studies indicate that the upper Min River has poor vegetation coverage and most
74 regions are fully exposed due to the strongly arid climate conditions (Jiang et al., 2015;
75 Xu et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2021). Thus, hillslope
76 colluvium is the dominant sediment source to the upper Min River – especially in its
77 middle and lower segments (Zhang et al., 2021) – akin to those in drainage basins in
78 many arid regions worldwide (Clapp et al., 2002).

79 Tectonic activity influences the evolution of lacustrine sedimentary sequences by
80 affecting the provenance supply (Najman, 2006; Jiang et al., 2022). Frequent
81 earthquakes on the TP, as recorded by widely distributed soft sediment deformation
82 (Wang et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2016; Zhong et al., 2019; Zhang et al.,
83 2021), caused repeated landslides that also represent another major source of sediment
84 into the upper Min River (Dai et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2012, 2013). These landslides
85 generated a large dust storm that deposited dust in nearby lakes (Jiang et al., 2014, 2017)
86 and exposed large quantities of fine-grained sediment that had accumulated on
87 mountain slopes, which were subsequently transported by wind to ancient lakes,
88 documenting these seismic events (Whittaker et al., 2010; Liang and Jiang, 2017; Shi
89 et al., 2022). This sedimentological process was recently recognized at Huojizhai, Diexi



90 Town, following the historical earthquake at Diexi in 1933 (Wei et al., 2021).

91 Changes in hydrology and sediment flux are commonly regarded as climate
92 forcing (Wobus et al., 2010). The extent of alluvial cover is very limited throughout the
93 upper Min River Basin, which is demonstrated by similarity of zircon U–Pb ages in
94 lacustrine sediments and their nearby bedrock units (Zhong et al., 2017). As such, the
95 influence of occasional flood events should be considered over long time–scales
96 (Snyder and Whipple, 2003), as aridity precludes rainfall or fluvial undercutting as
97 being the trigger for such events.

98 The consistent climate coupled with systematic variations in lithology and rock
99 uplift rate along the Min Mountains allow comparison of channels that experience
100 different tectonic forcings (Duvall et al., 2004). Selective transport is the dominant
101 downstream fining mechanism in this region, although rates of selective transport in
102 sand–bed rivers are smaller than those in gravel–bed rivers (Frings, 2008).

103 Only a small volume of sediment collected from a river bed is needed to produce
104 a transformative understanding of the rates at which landscapes change (Blanckenburg,
105 2005). Study of these materials can reveal relationships between generation, transport
106 (Clapp et al., 2000, 2002), and mixing of sediment (Perg et al., 2003; Nichols et al.,
107 2005), under the help of the key topographic and/or lithologic features (e.g., relief, slope
108 angle, and substrate characteristics) (Riebe et al., 2000; Riebe et al., 2001; Matmon et
109 al., 2003a, b). In this study, we combine field observations, surveys, and analysis of
110 river sediments to determine hydraulic characteristics, and topographic and tectonic
111 information about bedrock channels in the upper Min River.

112

113 **2 Regional setting**

114 **2.1 Geographic and geologic settings**

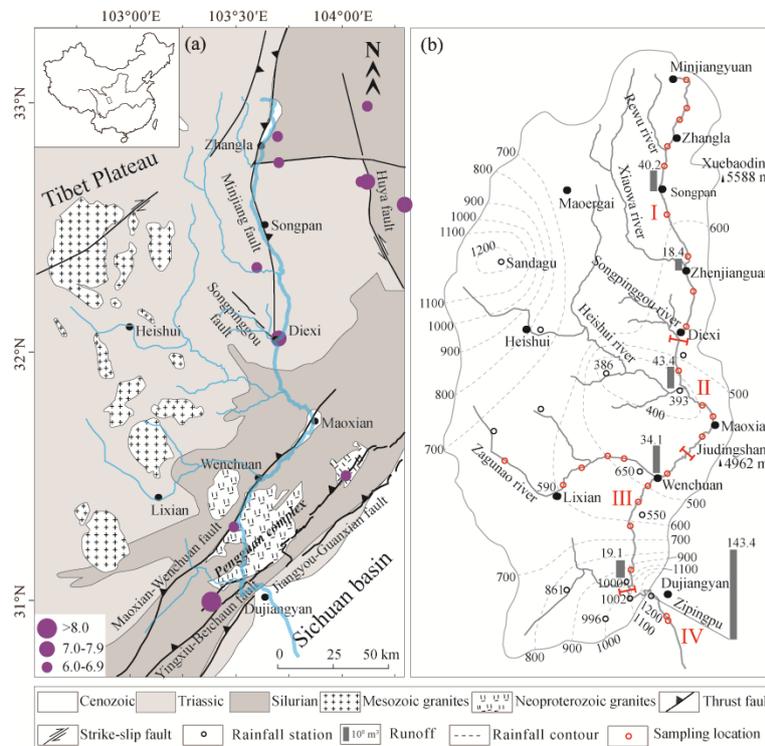


115 Instrumental data collected after 1900 indicate that the TP has experienced strong
116 earthquakes clustered around the Bayan Kala Block from 1995 to the present day, which
117 are collectively known as the Kunlun–Wenchuan earthquake series (Deng et al., 2014).
118 The eastern TP is geomorphologically characterized by alpine valleys, and tectonic
119 activity is controlled by the Longmen Shan thrust belts, the Minjiang Fault, and the
120 Huya Fault (Fig. 1a). Frequent tectonic activities have led to numerous earthquakes and
121 landslides in this region (e.g., Zhang et al., 2003; Jiang et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015;
122 Liang and Jiang, 2017), such as the 1933 Diexi M_s 7.5 earthquake, the 1976 Songpan
123 M_s 7.2 earthquake, the 2008 Wenchuan M_s 8.0 earthquake and the 2017 Jiuzhaigou M_s
124 7.0 earthquake. These earthquakes caused widespread damage at the surface in this
125 region. GPS–measured uplift rates in the Longmen Shan Fault zone reached 2–3 mm/a
126 over 10 years since 1999 (Liang et al., 2013). Thermochronological dating of zircon
127 and apatite indicated denudation rates of 1–2 mm/a in the Longmen Shan region during
128 the Late Cenozoic (Kirby et al., 2002).

129 The alpine valleys in the eastern TP reduce the preservation potential of
130 Quaternary sediments and expose large areas of bedrock. Bedrock outcrops within the
131 catchment region of the upper Min River are dominated by Silurian phyllite, quartz
132 schist, and Triassic phyllite, metamorphosed sandstone (Fig. 1a), which are easily
133 weathered and eroded into transportable debris (Zhong et al., 2019). Massive granites
134 are also exposed in the study area; in particular, the Neoproterozoic Pengguan complex
135 (U–Pb age of 859–699 Ma; Ma et al., 1996) (Fig. 1a) is mainly composed of
136 intermediate–acid intrusive rocks, with lesser amounts of basic–ultrabasic intrusive
137 rocks, volcanic rocks, volcanoclastic rocks, and greenschist facies metamorphic rocks.



138 Sand ($> 63 \mu\text{m}$) in the study area was recently demonstrated to have been mainly
139 derived from local debris material, which itself is likely related to dust storms and loose
140 surface material produced by seismic activity (Jiang et al., 2017; Liang and Jiang, 2017).



141 **Figure 1** (a) Geological map and (b) precipitation distribution (Ding et al., 2014) for
142 the upper Min River basin. Seismic data are from the China Earthquake Data Center
143 (<http://data.earthquake.cn/data>).
144

145 The upstream channel of the Min River is ~340 km long (Li et al., 2005; Ding et
146 al., 2014), nearly oriented N–S (Fig. 1b), and erodes the hinterland of the TP via
147 formation of gullies and valleys. The Min River valley is typically steep, narrow and
148 deepening downstream with an incision depth of 300–1500 m (e.g., Li et al., 2005;
149 Zhang et al., 2005). The slopes on both sides of the study area are between 18° and 45°,



150 and the vertical aspect ratio of the valley is 5.5–12.6 ‰ (Zhang et al., 2005).
151 Constrained by the specific landforms of the alpine valleys, the wind direction in the
152 study area is generally SSW/NNE, roughly consistent with the strike of local valleys
153 (Liu, 2014). The Min River valley exhibits high wind speeds in April (average 4.9 m/s)
154 and low speeds in July (average 3.7 m/s). Wind speed is generally < 4 m/s before noon
155 and > 4 m/s after noon, and normally peaks approximately 8–10 m/s at around 16:00
156 (Liu, 2014). The highest instantaneous wind speed recorded in the study area was 21
157 m/s (Liu, 2014).

158 The upper reaches of the Min River are located in a transition zone on the TP
159 where wet monsoonal climate changes to a high–elevation cold region. In this region,
160 mean annual precipitation (MAP) ranges from 400 mm to 850 mm, and precipitation is
161 dominant (>75%) during the rainy season (May–October) (Ding et al., 2014). It is
162 noticeable that orographic rain along the eastern TP generates two storm areas centered
163 around Sandagu and Zipingpu (Fig. 1b). Statistical analyses of precipitation data from
164 1982 to 2007 show that the MAP within these regions is higher than 1200 mm (Ding et
165 al., 2014).

166 Regional vegetation has clear vertical zonation, which mainly consists of small–
167 leaf, arid shrubs at 1300–2200 m a.s.l., mixed broadleaf–conifer forests, evergreen and
168 deciduous broad–leaved mixed forests at 2000–2800 m a.s.l., *Picea* and *Abies* forests
169 at 2800–3600 m a.s.l., and alpine shrubs and meadows at > 3600 m a.s.l. (Ma et al.,
170 2004; Zhang et al., 2008; Wei et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2020). There are two key factors
171 that influence vegetation distribution and ecological conditions in the study area: the
172 arid and windy climate, which has a large temperature difference between day and night,
173 and tectonics activity characterized by frequent earthquakes (Lin, 2008; Wang et al.,
174 2011). For example, strong earthquakes often induce landslides that can destroy

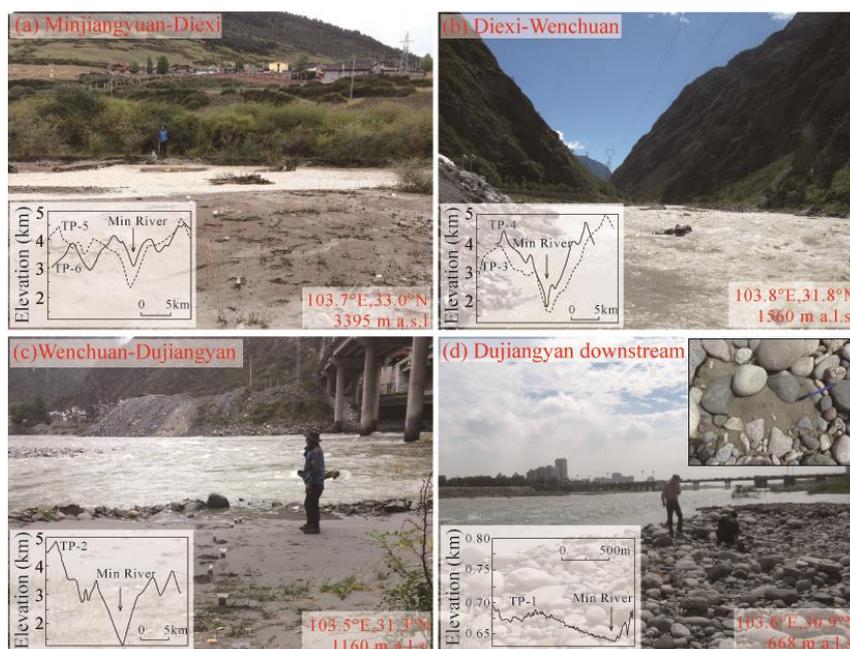


175 vegetation cover in the study area (Xu et al., 2012, 2014). Both of these factors lead to
176 fragility in landscape and vegetation cover.

177 2.2 Segmented characteristics of the Min River

178 The topographical and geomorphological characteristics, and fault and vegetation
179 distribution patterns of the upper Min River allow it to be subdivided into four segments:

180 I, II, III, and IV (Fig. 1b).



181 **Figure 2** Photograph of field sampling sites in the upper Min River. The locations of
182 cross-sections through the Min River valleys (Zhang et al., 2005) are shown in Fig. 7c.

183

184 Segment I is the Minjiangyuan – Diexi segment (3460–2190 m a.s.l.). The riverbed
185 in this segment is directly connected with one side of the Min Mountain and has a valley
186 bottom width of 200–1000 m (Zhang et al., 2005) (Fig. 2a). Downstream from the
187 Minjiangyuan, valley bottom width narrows markedly and is only 200–300 m in
188 Zhenjiangguan – Diexi segment (Zhang et al., 2005). The relative relief of the Min



189 Mountain increases significantly from Minjiangyuan to Diexi along the Min River,
190 especially from the Zhenjiangguan to Diexi (Zhang et al., 2005). The vegetation
191 coverage along this segment gradually deteriorates, with *Picea*, *Abies*, shrubs, and herbs
192 in the Minjiangyuan – Songpan segment, but only a small number of shrubs and herbs
193 in the Songpan – Diexi segment. Bedrock is widely exposed in the lower part of the
194 segment. In this region, the monthly maximum wind speed reaches 15.4 m/s in Songpan.

195 Segment II is the Diexi–Wenchuan segment (2190–1470 m a.s.l.). The valley
196 bottom width in this segment continuously decreases to 200–300 m (Zhang et al., 2005),
197 and the Min Mountains always occur in direct contact with the riverbed of the Min
198 River (Fig. 2b). The longitudinal slope (12.6‰) reaches its maximum regional value
199 near Diexi (Zhang et al., 2005). The regional vegetation coverage is mostly sparse and
200 the bedrock is naked.

201 Segment III is the Wenchuan–Dujiangyan segment (1470–900m a.s.l.). The valley
202 bottom width in this segment widens to about 200–500 m (Zhang et al., 2005) (Fig. 2c)
203 and regional vegetation cover increases compared to segment II. In particular, the
204 hillside around the Zipingpu Reservoir is covered with thick broad-leaved trees and
205 herbs. The monthly maximum wind speed in Lixian is 14.0 m/s.

206 Segment IV is the Dujiangyan– segment (900 – 630 m a.s.l.). This segment flows
207 into the interior of the Sichuan Basin, where it has flat geomorphological features (i.e.,
208 the riverbed width is greater than 300 m; Fig. 2d), and then transitions into the middle
209 reach of the Min River. The monthly maximum wind speed in Dujiangyan is 13.8 m/s.

210

211 **3 Materials and methods**

212 **3.1 Field sampling and grain–size analysis**

213



214 A ~265 km transect along the upper Min River was conducted during October
215 2017, starting in the eastern TP (Minjiangyuan, 33°01'59"N, 103°42'42"E; 3462 m a.s.l.)
216 and ending in the Sichuan Basin (Dujiangyan, 30°56'25"N, 103°38'14"E; 634 m a.s.l.)
217 (Fig. 1b). A total of 181 river samples were collected for grain-size analysis at 25 sites
218 (Table S1). Sampling sites were selected from exposed, freshly-developed depositional
219 sequences that occurred close to the active channel and its margins (Fig. 2). Voluminous
220 bedrock gravel occurs around the sampling sites (Fig. 2). To ensure sample consistency
221 associated with uniform flow regimes, each sample was collected at a depth of 0–0.2 m
222 from different places within each sampling sequence. All locations were carefully
223 chosen to avoid contamination from riverbank materials or from anthropogenic
224 reworking.

225 Grain-size analysis was conducted using a Malvern Master-sizer 3000 laser
226 grain-size analyzer at the State Key Laboratory of Earthquake Dynamics, Institute of
227 Geology, China Earthquake Administration in Beijing, China. About 0.5 g of sediment
228 was pretreated with 20 ml of 30% H₂O₂ to remove organic matter and then with 10 ml
229 of 10% HCl to remove carbonates. About 300 ml of deionized water was added, and
230 the sample solution was kept for 24 h to rinse acidic ions. The sample residue was
231 dispersed with 10 ml of 0.05 M (NaPO₃)₆ on an ultrasonic vibrator for 10 min before
232 grain-size measurements. For each sample, the grain-size analyzer automatically
233 outputs the median diameter (Md) and the percentages of each size fraction, with a
234 relative error of less than 1%. Magnetic susceptibility (SUS) was measured using a
235 Bartington MS2 susceptibility meter.



236 3.2 Y values

237 Mean grain size (M_s), standard deviation (σ), skewness (S_k), and kurtosis (K_G) are
238 commonly used to discriminate between different depositional processes and
239 environments. Sahu (1964) distinguished aeolian processes from those that operate in a
240 littoral environment by using the following equation:

$$241 \quad Y = -3.5688 M_s + 3.7016 \sigma^2 - 2.0766 S_k + 3.1135 K_G \quad (1)$$

242 Here, Y values less than -2.74 indicate an aeolian provenance and Y values greater
243 than -2.74 indicate a hydrogenic provenance (Sahu, 1964). Calculated Y values for
244 lacustrine sediments (Jiang et al., 2017, 2014), red clay, and loess–paleosol deposits
245 (Wu et al., 2017; Lu and An, 1999) are less than -2.74 , indicating an aeolian provenance.

246 3.3 End–member analysis

247 Numerical unmixing of grain–size distribution data into constituent components,
248 known as end–member analysis (EMA), can yield valuable information about transport
249 dynamics (Weltje, 1997; Paterson and Heslop, 2015; Jiang et al., 2017). According to
250 the principle that the end–member number (EM) should be as small as possible (Weltje
251 et al., 1997), several EMs obtained by end–element analysis imply that numerous
252 dynamic mechanisms occurred during formation of these deposits. Generally, larger
253 values of EMs correspond to a stronger transport capacity, which itself indicates
254 different provenances (Vandenberghe, 2013; Dietze et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2017). For
255 instance, the peak values of EMs in Lixian lacustrine sediments were concentrated at
256 $10 \mu\text{m}$ (EM_1) and $40 \mu\text{m}$ (EM_2), and so reflect the background deposition of dust and
257 locally sourced deposition transported by ambient wind, respectively (Jiang et al., 2017).
258 We analyzed the Min River samples using the AnalySize software for processing and



259 unmixing grain-size data (Paterson et al., 2015), with parameters selected from the
260 generalized Gaussian skewness model (SGG) (Egli, 2003).

261 3.4 Analysis of C–M and F–M diagrams

262 The analysis of C–M and F–M diagrams is useful to interpret sediment transport
263 dynamics (Passega, 1957; Singh et al., 2007). In these diagrams, C is the coarsest
264 percentile of the grain-size distribution in samples (one percentile), and M is the median
265 diameter of the grain-size distribution, which are both indicators of the maximum and
266 average transport capacity, respectively (Passega, 1957; Singh et al., 2007; Bravard et
267 al., 2014). In addition, F represents the percentage of fractions finer than 125 μm (Singh
268 et al., 2007). All values are plotted on a logarithmic scale, which produces specific
269 patterns for distinct reaches (Singh et al., 2007; Bravard et al., 2014). A C–M diagram
270 (Fig. S1) has the following sections: NO, rolling; OP, rolling with some grains
271 transported in suspension; PQ, graded suspension with some grains transported by
272 rolling; QR, graded suspension; RS, uniform suspension; and T, pelagic suspension
273 (Passega, 1957; Bravard and Peiry, 1999; Bravard et al., 2014).

274

275 4 Results

276 4.1 Characteristics of grain-size and SUS

277 The median grain size (Md), five grain-size fractions (0–2 μm , 2–20 μm , 20–63 μm ,
278 63–250 μm , >250 μm), SUS and Y values of the Min River sediment can be divided
279 into four categories (Fig. 3), which correspond to the different segments (I – IV) defined
280 above. The average values of Md increased significantly at Diexi (from 31.0 μm to 80.8

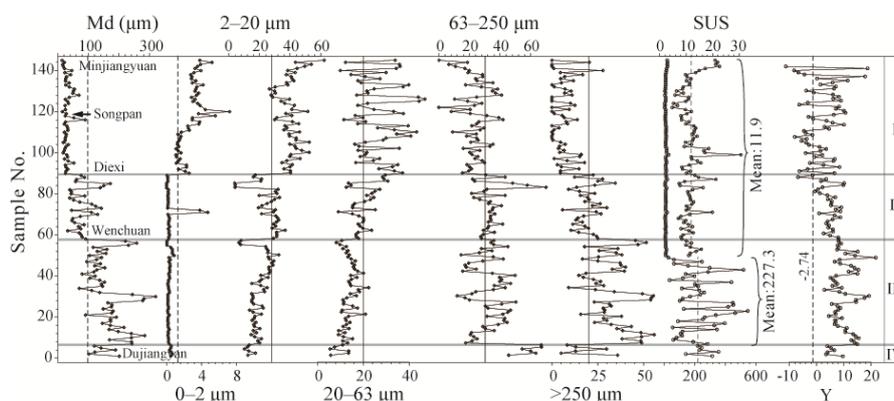


281 μm) and Wenchuan (from $49.3 \mu\text{m}$ to $170.2 \mu\text{m}$), and decreased slightly at Dujiangyan
 282 (from $220.4 \mu\text{m}$ to $119.2 \mu\text{m}$). The variations at these three sites are the most significant
 283 within the whole river (Table 1, Fig. 3).

284 **Table 1** Statistics for grain-size fractions in the upper Min River.

Segments	Md (μm)	Percentage composition / (%)					SUS
		0–2	2–20	20–63	63–250	>250	
		μm	μm	μm	μm	μm	
I	31.0	2.8	40.3	27.1	23.7	6.2	11.6
II	80.8	0.4	25.3	20.3	34.6	19.4	11.3
III	170.2	0.3	20.0	13.9	31.9	33.8	193.5
IV	145.2	0.5	13.0	9.5	59.5	17.5	251.8

285



286 **Figure 3** Variation of grain-size components and river sediment parameters from the
 287 upper Min River.

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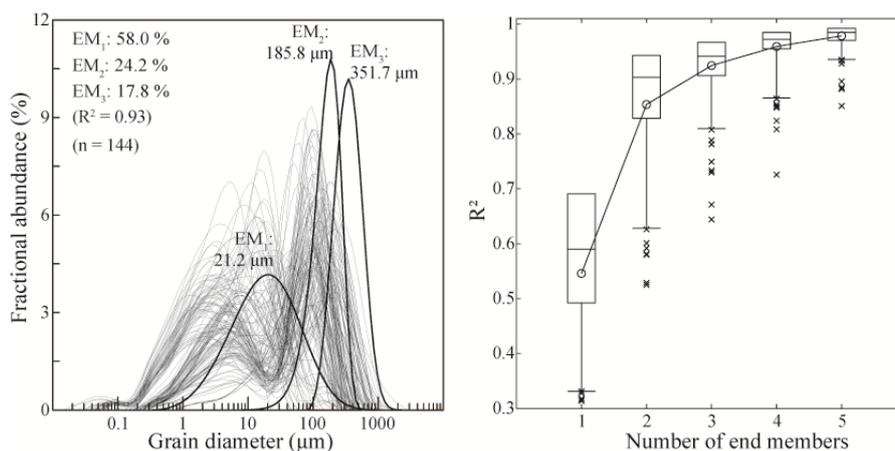
289 Along the upper Min River downwards, the mean proportion of the 2–20 μm (I =
 290 40.3%, II = 25.3%, III = 20.0%, and IV = 13.0%) and 20–63 μm fractions (I = 27.1%,
 291 II = 20.3%, III = 13.9%, and IV = 9.5%) exhibit a stepwise decrease (Table 1, Fig. 3).
 292 The 63–250 μm fraction exhibits a sharp increase from segment I (23.7%) to II (34.6%)



293 and from segment III (31.9%) to IV (59.5%), but a relatively minor change from
294 segment II (34.6%) to III (31.9%) (Table 1, Fig. 3). The > 250 μm fractions exhibit a
295 stepwise increase between segments I, II, and III (6.2%, 19.4%, and 33.8%,
296 respectively), and a significant decrease from segment III (33.8%) to IV (17.5%) (Table
297 1, Fig. 3). Measured SUS values remained low in segments I (5.3–30.6, with a mean of
298 11.6) and II (7.1 to 21.2, with a mean of 11.3), but were significantly higher in segment
299 III (9.9–546.5, with a mean of 193.5) and reached consistently high values in segment
300 IV (142.1–356.5, mean: 251.8) (Table 1, Fig. 3).

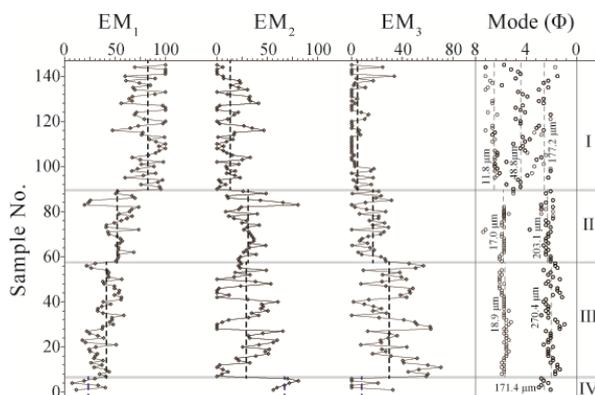
301 4.2 End-member analysis

302 Three end-members (EMs) ($R^2 = 0.93$) were identified in the Min River samples
303 (Fig. 4) with peaks of 21.2 μm (58.0%), 185.8 μm (24.2%), and 351.7 μm (17.8%).
304 Along the upper Min River downwards, these three EMs show clear stepwise changes
305 between segments (Fig. 5). EM₁ shows a stepwise decrease (I = 82.5%, II = 53.1%, III
306 = 38.6%, and IV = 23.7%), corresponding to the sum of the 2–20 μm and 20–63 μm
307 fractions (Figs. 3, 5). EM₂ shows a sharp increase from segment I (13.1%) to II (31.4%)
308 and from segment III (27.1%) to IV (67.4%), and a relatively smaller change from
309 segment II (31.4%) to III (27.1%), corresponding to the 63–250 μm fraction. By contrast,
310 EM₃ corresponds to the >250 μm fraction (Figs. 3, 5) and shows a stepwise increase
311 between segments I, II, and III (4.4%, 15.5% and 38.6%, respectively), and a significant
312 decrease from segment III (38.6) to IV (23.7%).



313 **Figure 4** End-member analysis model of fluvial sediments from the upper Min River.

314



315 **Figure 5** Variability of three EMs and their mode values from the upper Min River. The
 316 fractional abundance (>1%) of the peak in the grain-size frequency distributions were
 317 extracted after consideration of a 1% instrumental error. Black and gray circles
 318 represent the main and secondary peak modal values, respectively.

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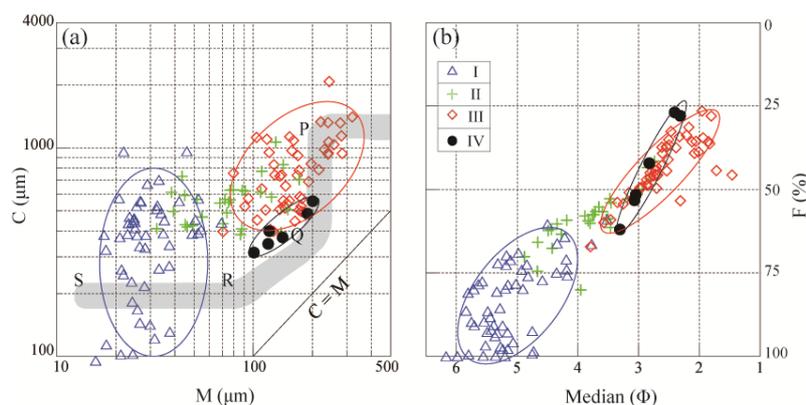
320 4.3 Characteristics of the grain-size frequency distribution

321 The grain-size frequency of river samples from segment I has a discrete
 322 distribution (Fig. S2) with three mode values at ~11.8 μm, ~48.8 μm, and ~177.2 μm.

323 The main mode value of segment I occurred in the ~48.8 μm portion. The grain-size



324 frequency distribution for segments II and III is strongly bimodal (Fig. S2), with the
325 major and minor mode values at $\sim 203.1 \mu\text{m}$ and $\sim 17.0 \mu\text{m}$ for segment II, and ~ 270.4
326 μm and $\sim 18.9 \mu\text{m}$ for segment III. The grain-size frequency distribution for segment
327 IV is unimodal (Fig. S2) with a mode value of $\sim 171.4 \mu\text{m}$.



328 **Figure 6** C–M and F–M distributions of samples collected from the four studied
329 segments of the upper Min River.

330

331 4.4 C–M and F–M diagrams

332 On a C–M diagram for the Min River, samples from segment I are completely
333 separate from those collected from segments III and IV. Most samples in segment II
334 overlap with those of segment III (Fig. 6a). Among them, the M value of segment I
335 ($13.9\text{--}89.8 \mu\text{m}$) mainly belongs to the RS section (Fig. 6a), although the C values
336 exhibit a large variation between $54.8 \mu\text{m}$ and $964.3 \mu\text{m}$. Samples from segment II are
337 distributed throughout the P–Q–R sections (Fig. 6a), have C values of $383.5\text{--}1066.0$
338 μm , and M values of $32.2\text{--}171.4 \mu\text{m}$. Samples from segment III are concentrated in the
339 PQ section (Fig. 6a), have C values of $396.9\text{--}2083.8 \mu\text{m}$, and M values of $70.3\text{--}319.1$



340 μm . Samples in segment IV plot close to the RQ section and are distributed parallel to
341 the $C = M$ line (Fig. 6a). Samples collected from segments of the Min River show
342 similar distribution features in F–M diagrams to those shown in C–M diagrams (Fig.
343 6).

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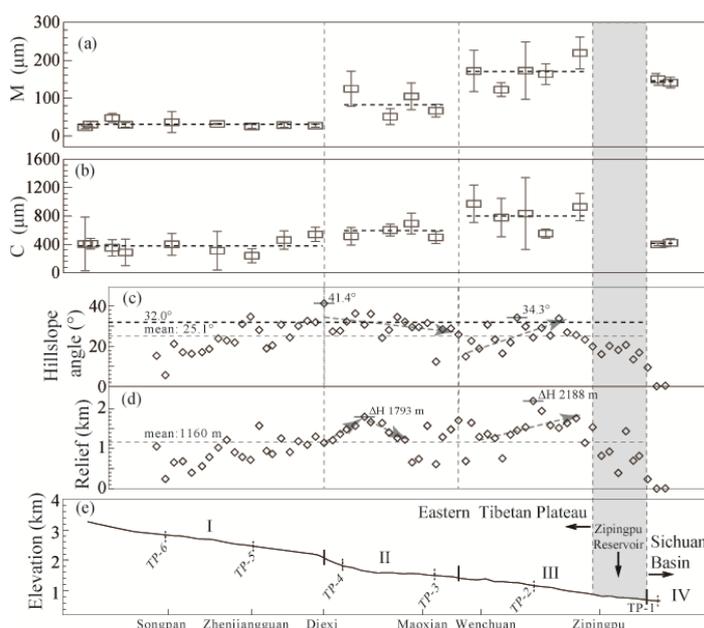
345 **5 Discussion**

346 **5.1 Dynamic and provenance implications of fluvial sediments**

347 Grain–size fractions, EMs, and mode values in different segments along the upper reach
348 of Min River reflect the distinct provenance and transport dynamics of fluvial sediments
349 (McKinney and Sanders, 1978; Sun et al., 2002, 2004; Sun et al., 2007; Dietze et al.,
350 2014; Vandenberghe, 2013). The EM_1 in segment I reaches a proportion of 82.5%,
351 which corresponds to the fine particle components ($<63 \mu\text{m}$ fractions). Previous studies
352 have indicated that fractions with sizes of 10–40 μm represent background particles and
353 regional dust that have been transported by wind (Jiang et al., 2014, 2017), which
354 contribute $51 \pm 11\%$ and $42 \pm 14\%$ of the lacustrine sediments across the TP, respectively
355 (Dietze et al., 2014). Therefore, the EM_1 (fine–grained fractions) in segment I probably
356 have an aeolian provenance. This inference is supported by five separate lines of
357 evidence: 1) M_d varies within the narrow range 13.9–89.8 μm (Fig. 3), although the C
358 values fluctuate widely between 54.8 μm and 964.3 μm (Fig. 7); 2) the distribution of
359 samples in an RS section in a C–M diagram (Fig. 6) reflects uniform suspension, which
360 likely requires transportation by ubiquitous and strong wind (Fig. S1, Passega, 1957);
361 3) nearly half of the samples (i.e., 22 out of 55) have Y values of less than -2.74 , which



362 is indicative of an aeolian origin (Sahu, 1964); 4) loess deposits are widely distributed
363 in the study area, especially from Diexi upstream (Fig. S3) (Liu et al., 2013; Shen et al.,
364 2017) and may represent a voluminous source of dust particles; and 5) the study area
365 has a high mean altitude of 2840 m, and the monthly maximum wind speed can reach
366 15.4 m/s, which would allow for strong aeolian transport.



367 **Figure 7** Variation characteristics of (a) M and (b) C values of the grain-size index. (c)
368 Riverbed base-level and the position of the cross-section of the upper Min River
369 (Zhang et al., 2005). (d) Hillslope angle and (e) local relief along the upper Min River.
370 A 4*4 km grid was delineated along the upper Min River (~260 km). The highest
371 ridgeline and riverbed height in the grid were extracted from a DEM map, and the local
372 relief was then obtained by calculating the highest ridgeline minus the riverbed height.
373 The hillslope angle was obtained by solving for tan (local relief/slope length).



374 The EM₂ in segment IV reaches the highest value (185.8 μm: 67.4%) recorded in
375 the whole sequence and corresponds to the 63–250 μm fraction (59.5%), which is
376 consistent with previous studies having shown that fluvial deposits are composed
377 mainly of a medium–sand component (modal size: 200–400 μm) (Middleton, 1976;
378 Tsoar and Pye, 1987; Bennett and Best, 1995; Dietze et al., 2014). In the C–M diagram,
379 sample data that lie close to the C = M line reflect the suspension transport of riverbed
380 sediments (Fig. 6a) (Singh et al., 2007; Passega, 1957). In addition, the single peak
381 mode (Fig. S2d) of segment IV represents a single river transport process and
382 sedimentary environment (McKinney and Sanders, 1978), and the small size range of
383 the grain–size frequency distribution also reflects a well–sorted product that was
384 deposited by fluvial action (Sun et al., 2002). Therefore, the EM₂ mainly reflect typical
385 fluvial sediments.

386 EM₃ corresponds to the coarsest grain–size components (>250 μm) and has the
387 highest value (351.7 μm: 38.6%) of the whole sequence in segment III. The maximum
388 values of C and M (Figs. 7a, b) in segment III indicate that it had the highest transport
389 capacity (Passega, 1957; Singh et al., 2007; Bravard et al., 2014). Therefore, EM₃
390 represents the local sedimentary component that was locally transported over short
391 distances (Dietze et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2014, 2017). The distribution characteristics
392 of samples from segment III in the PQ section (Fig. 6a) indicate that rolling and jumping
393 transportation processes dominated (Passega, 1957). Meanwhile, the SUS values in
394 segment III increase to abnormally high values (28.5–546.5, with a mean of 227.3)
395 abruptly near to exposures of the Pengguan complex (Fig. 1a), although lower SUS



396 values occur in the surrounding area (Zagunao River: 9.1–114.1, with a mean of 34.1,
397 Fig. S4; Zipingpu reservoir: 5–60, Zhang et al., 2019; and segments I and II: 5.3–30.6,
398 mean 11.5, Fig. 3). The precipitation in segment III is generally low (400–700 mm/a)
399 and only significantly increases near to the Zipingpu reservoir (1200 mm/a), so that the
400 sedimentary changes were muted until 2 years after the Wenchuan earthquake (Zhang
401 et al., 2019) (Fig. 1b). In addition, the mean grain size in segment III (170.2 μm)
402 increases before the Zagunao River (mean of 83.1 μm , Fig. S4) joins the Min River (Fig.
403 1b. 3) and contribution from the Zagunao River can be precluded. Therefore, the
404 abnormally high grain size and SUS values in segment III are likely caused by a local
405 provenance change.

406 5.2 Climate controlled fine-grained fluvial sediments

407 The windy and semi-arid climate in the study area is responsible for more fine
408 particle components (EM_1) in segment I (Jiang et al., 2014), which caused EM_1 to
409 gradually decrease downstream as the wind weakens (Fig. 5). The relatively low
410 precipitation (400–700 mm/a) and low runoff ($18.4\text{--}43.4 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3$) (Fig. 1b) in segment
411 I reflect the limited transport capacity of the river, and the angular gravels on the
412 riverbed also indicate weak scouring, which preserves more fine-grained components
413 (EM_1) in fluvial sediments. Segment I developed along the Minjiang Fault (Fig. 1a),
414 which has a low slip rate (0.30–0.53 mm/a, Kirby et al., 2000; Zhou et al., 2000, 2006;
415 Tan et al., 2019) and therefore a weak influence on local provenance supply (Jiang et
416 al., 2014, 2017). In addition, the wide riverbed (Fig. 2a), relatively low hillslope angle,
417 and local relief in the Minjiangyuan–Songpan segment (Figs. 7d, e) causes *in situ*



418 retention of locally sourced coarse components. Therefore, EM₂ and EM₃ make only a
419 minor contribution to the fluvial sediments in segment I.

420 Segment IV is located inside the Sichuan Basin and is completely unaffected by
421 alpine valleys in the eastern TP. It is characterized by a wide and flat geomorphological
422 surface (Fig. 2d). The significant downstream increase in precipitation and runoff in the
423 Zipingpu reservoir (Fig. 1b) indicates that fluvial action was the main control on
424 sediment transportation in segment IV.

425 **5.3 Coarse-grained deposits controlled by tectonism**

426 Fluvial sediments coarsen at the transition between segments I and II, highlighting
427 an increase in EM₂ and EM₃ content, and a higher M value (Figs. 3, 7). This locality
428 occurs at intersection of the Minjiang Fault and the Songpinggou Fault (Fig. 1a), which
429 was the epicenter of the Diexi *M*_s 7.5 earthquake in 1933 (Chen et al., 1994; Ren et al.,
430 2018). As a result, the outcropping bedrock was severely damaged and so provided new,
431 fresh, and local sediment sources (EM₃). Downstream from Diexi, field surveys exhibit
432 that the altitude decreases by 400 m over a horizontal distance of 20 km, such that the
433 longitudinal slope of the riverbed (12.6‰, Fig. 7c, Zhang et al., 2005) and the hillslope
434 angle (41.4°, Fig. 7d) are highest in this region when compared to the entire study area,
435 which imply a higher of rivers incision rates forced by active tectonics (Zhang et al.,
436 2005; Whittaker et al., 2007a). These remarkable changes of geomorphology
437 correspond well to a twofold increase in erosion coefficients that occur within 15 km
438 of major faults in the eastern TP (Kirkpatrick et al., 2020) and more intense denudation
439 at the location of seismogenic faulting along high-relief plateau margins (Li et al.,
440 2017). The narrower valley and direct contact between the riverbed and hillside on
441 either side in segment II (Fig. 2b) provide favorable conditions for rolling and jumping



442 transportation of sediment along the hillslope. In addition, the rapid rising of the base-
443 level of the Min River in segment II enhances the river's cutting and transport capacity
444 (Merritts and Vincent, 1989; Stokes et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2004; Whittaker et al.,
445 2007a; Boulton et al., 2014).

446 Measured EM_3 rapidly reaches its maximum fluctuation range in segment III (Fig.
447 5), likely due to the maximum transport force (C value) in the area (Fig. 7). The regional
448 precipitation in segment III is low (400–700 mm/a) and only significantly increases
449 near to the Zipingpu reservoir (1200 mm/a) (Fig. 1b). From a tectonic perspective, the
450 Maoxian–Wenchuan Fault, with a large dextral slip rate (1.0–3.8mm /a; Chen and Li,
451 2013; Wang et al., 2017) and a large vertical slip rate (~1–2 mm/a; Liu et al., 2015),
452 mainly controls the distribution of segment III (Fig.1). Previous studies have shown that
453 the Maoxian–Wenchuan Fault occurs a band of maximum exhumation along the eastern
454 Longmen Shan Fault zone since the late Miocene (Tan et al., 2019). Therefore, rapid
455 regional uplift and denudation (Kirby et al., 2002; Liang et al., 2013) not only generated
456 a larger hillslope angle (mean value of 24.9°) and the highest local relief (2188 m), but
457 also provided widespread source of fresh, coarse-grained, and local sediment
458 (Whittaker et al., 2007b, 2010) in segment III. The significant coarsening of fluvial
459 sediment at the beginning of segment III indicates the catchments undergoing a transient
460 response to tectonics are associated with significant volumetric export of material
461 (Whittaker et al., 2010). Moreover, the PQ distribution of segment III samples in the
462 calculated C–M diagram (Fig. 4) shows the importance of rolling and jumping transport
463 mechanisms (Passega, 1957), which correlate with the steep landform features in
464 segment III (Fig. 2c). Exposures of hard Mesozoic granites instantaneously provide a



465 local source of coarse components, and thus correspond to the maximum M and C
466 values. Although regional climate generally has a weak influence on the supply of
467 coarse particles, the concentrated distribution of particles within the calculated grain-
468 size frequency distribution (Fig. S2c) indicates that fluvial action played an effective
469 role in sorting local sediment sources (Sahu, 1964; Sun et al., 2002; Frings, 2008). The
470 persistent occurrence of the coarsest grain-size cross the segment III responds to the
471 fact that the catchments crossing faults maintain their high slip rate over time, which
472 exhibits a sharp contrast to that of segment I.

473 Generally, a large earthquake is followed by a period of enhanced mass wasting
474 and fluvial sediment evacuation (Hovius et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2015). The Wenchuan
475 Ms 8.0 earthquake in 2008 caused severe geomorphological damage in region, and the
476 annual average suspended sediment flow in regional rivers increased by a factor of 3-
477 7 following the earthquake. The river recovered to its pre-earthquake level just $1.2 \pm$
478 0.9 years later (Wang et al., 2015), however, over 70% of the co-seismic debris has
479 stabilized in place along the hillslopes during the following decade (Dai et al., 2021)
480 and will take 370 years to remove (Wang et al., 2017). As such, we believe that co-
481 seismic debris generated by the Wenchuan earthquake in 2008 had negligible influence
482 on our sample collection campaign conducted in 2017.

483 **5.4 Geomorphic morphology reveals tectonic activity**

484 Alpine valleys characterize the landscape of the upper reaches of the Min River in
485 the eastern TP (Figs. 2, 7) and have an incision depth of 300–1500 m (Li et al., 2005;
486 Zhang et al., 2005) (Fig. 6a). In segment I, hillslope angles and local relief gradually



487 increase downstream along the Minjiang Fault from 5° to 34.8° and 243 m to 1572 m,
488 respectively (Figs. 7d, e). However, these changes seem a little contradict with the
489 consistent high proportion of fine-grained background dust in the fluvial sediments of
490 segment I (Figs. 3, 5), which is an open and interesting question. The consistent
491 precipitation and runoff rates explain the calculated consistency in transport power, as
492 defined by unchanging values of C and M (Fig. 7). We note that the longitudinal slope
493 of the riverbed (6.7–7.6%, Fig. 7c; Zhang et al., 2005) in segment I steadily changes as
494 altitude decrease from 3460 m to 2190 m; therefore, gradual steepening of the landscape
495 is likely a response to enhance river-related erosion (Merritts and Vincent, 1989; Stokes
496 et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2004). The high vegetation density in the Minjiangyuan–
497 Songpan region is also probably modulated by the lower topographic slope (Figs. 2a, 7)
498 (Olen et al., 2016). These are consistent with generally weak activity of the Minjiang
499 Fault (Kirby et al., 2000; Zhou et al., 2000, 2006; Tan et al., 2019).

500 In segment II, the hillslope angle (12.3 – 41.4° , with a mean of 30.1°) is generally
501 steeper than the average for the whole study area (25.1°), and the highest angles (41.4°)
502 far exceed the stability threshold of $\sim 32^\circ$ for landslide denudation, which suggests that
503 landslide-dominated hillslope denudation has kept pace with the rates of rock uplift and
504 valley incision in segment II (Burbank, et al., 1996; Montgomery and Brandon, 2002;
505 Clarke and Burbank, 2010; Wang et al., 2014). Along the studied transect, local relief
506 in segment II initially increases and then decreases (Fig. 7c), and the flow direction of
507 the Min River also changes from roughly N–S to NW–SE (Fig. 1a). The lithology in
508 segment II changes from Triassic to Silurian (Fig. 1a), and seismic activity transitions



509 from the Minjiang Fault to the Maoxian–Wenchuan Fault. Given that segment II records
510 the lowest annual rainfall in the study area (<500 mm/a, Fig. 1), this transformation of
511 tectonic activity and lithology likely plays a dominant role on fluvial erodibility (Selby,
512 1980; Stokes et al., 2008; Whittaker et al., 2007a; Zondervan et al., 2020), and
513 influences changes in regional geomorphology and river drainage.

514 Hillslope angles (14.9°–34.3°, with a mean of 24.9°) and local relief (689–2188 m,
515 with a mean of 1463 m) in segment III exhibit a general increase along the Maoxian–
516 Wenchuan Fault (Figs. 1, 7), although they differ from the increasing trends shown in
517 segment I. For example, the highest local relief encountered throughout the entire
518 sequence occurs in segment III, although its mean hillslope angle (24.9°) is lower than
519 the mean value (25.1°) for the entire sequence (Fig. 7). In addition, precipitation and
520 runoff only show a significant increase adjacent to the Zipingpu reservoir (Fig. 1). We
521 note that the regional bedrock in segment III is dominated by hard Mesozoic granites
522 of the Pengguan complex (Fig. 1a), and that the Maoxian–Wenchuan Fault is situated
523 on the zone of maximum exhumation along the Longmen Shan fault zone (Tan et al.,
524 2019). Therefore, the higher local relief along segment III indicates that active
525 Maoxian–Wenchuan Fault (Tan et al., 2019) caused enhanced rock uplift and valley
526 incision (Whittaker et al., 2007a; Tan et al., 2019), which accounts for the largest
527 transport forces (C values, Fig. 7) and the coarsest local components (EM₃, Fig. 5) in
528 this section. Nevertheless, a decrease in the mean hillslope angle within segment III
529 may be attributed to hardening of the exposed bedrock of the Pengguan complex rather
530 than weakening of tectonic activity along the Maoxian–Wenchuan Fault. Even if



531 shortening rates are generally slow in the eastern TP (Densmore et al., 2008; Zhang,
532 2013) and satellite data may be equivocal, grain-size analysis of fluvial sediments
533 combined with topographic analyses can help guide the identification of regional
534 tectonic activity effectively (Schoenbohm et al., 2004; Kirby et al., 2003; Tan et al.,
535 2019).

536

537 **6 Conclusion**

538 Grain-size analysis was conducted on modern fluvial sediments of the upper Min
539 River and this information was integrated with vegetation, hydrology, geomorphology
540 (local relief and hillslope) and geology (fault and lithology) data to extract regional
541 climate and tectonic signals in the eastern TP. This procedure identified three segments
542 of tectonic activity along the upper Min River. The Minjiang Fault, situated in the
543 Minjiangyuan–Diexi segment, generally shows weak seismic activity. Two segments of
544 the fault from Diexi to Wenchuan and from Wenchuan to Dujiangyan show enhanced
545 phase of regional tectonic activity, although the segment from Dujiangyan to the
546 Sichuan basin records almost no evidence of tectonic activity.

547

548 **Data availability**

549 Data are available in the figshare database
550 (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.6084/m9.figshare.17111402>).

551

552 **Author contributions**



553 The paper was written by WS and HCJ with major contributions by HYX. SYM
554 got geomorphic data. WS, HYX and SQZ participated in field surveys and sample
555 collection. SQZ, JWF and XTW conducted laboratory tests and interpreted the results.
556 All authors reviewed and approved the paper.

557

558 **Competing interests**

559 The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any
560 competing interests.

561

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566

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