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13



## 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**

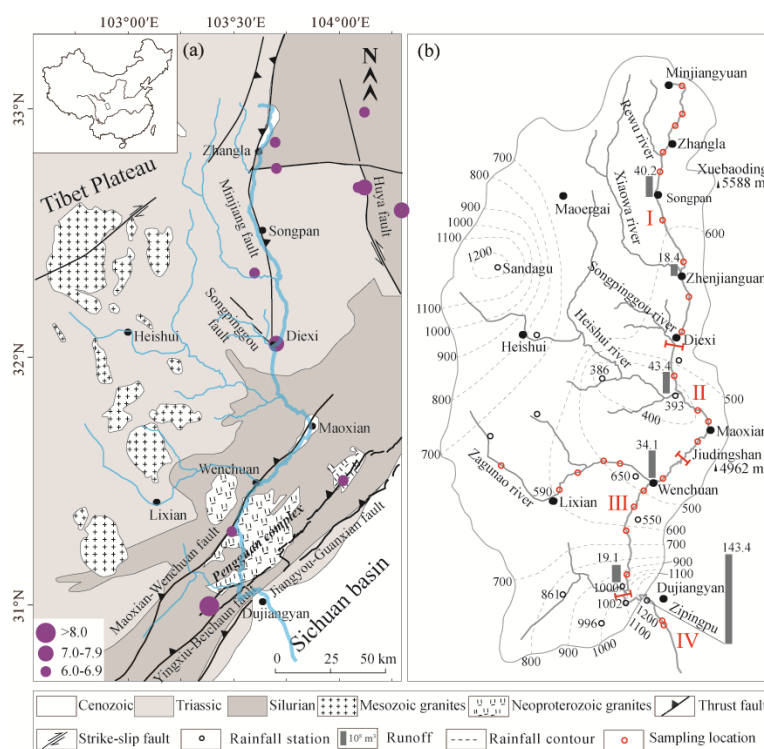


Instrumental data collected after 1900 indicate that the TP has experienced strong earthquakes clustered around the Bayan Kala Block from 1995 to the present day, which are collectively known as the Kunlun–Wenchuan earthquake series (Deng et al., 2014). The eastern TP is geomorphologically characterized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

The alpine valleys in the eastern TP reduce the preservation potential of Quaternary sediments and expose large areas of bedrock. Bedrock outcrops within the catchment region of the upper Min River are dominated by Silurian phyllite, quartz schist, and Triassic phyllite, metamorphosed sandstone (Fig. 1a), which are easily weathered and eroded into transportable debris (Zhong et al., 2019). Massive granites are also exposed in the study area; in particular, the Neoproterozoic Pengguan complex (U–Pb age of 859–699 Ma; Ma et al., 1996) (Fig. 1a) is mainly composed of intermediate–acid intrusive rocks, with lesser amounts of basic–ultrabasic intrusive 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  $18^\circ$  and  $45^\circ$ ,





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).

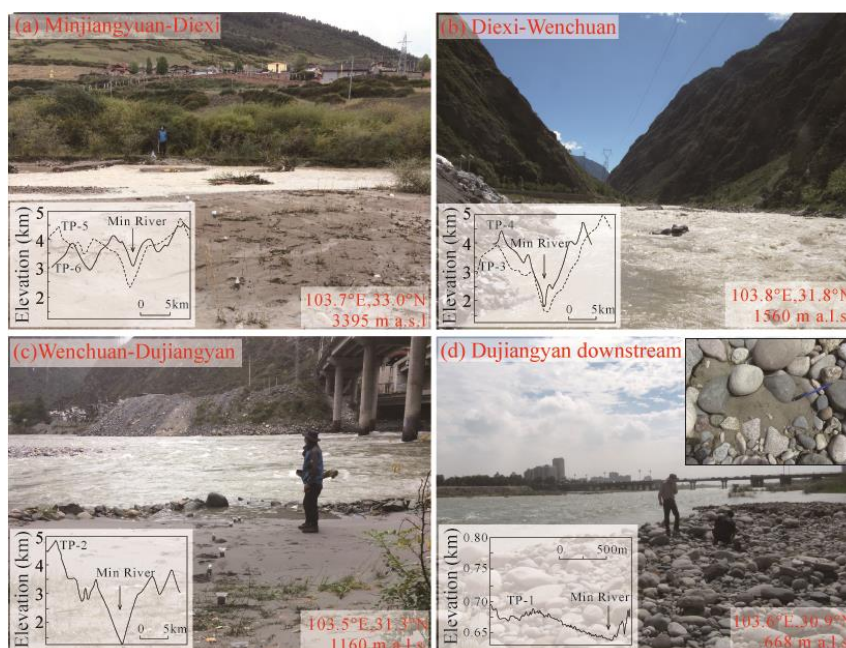
166 Regional vegetation has clear vertical zonation, which mainly consists of small-  
167 leaf, arid shrubs at 1300–2200 m a.s.l., mixed broadleaf–conifer forests, evergreen and  
168 deciduous broad-leaved mixed forests at 2000–2800 m a.s.l., *Picea* and *Abies* forests  
169 at 2800–3600 m a.s.l., 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% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> 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 (NaPO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>6</sub> 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 ( $\sigma$ ), skewness ( $Sk$ ), 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:

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

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  $10 \mu m$  ( $EM_1$ ) and  $40 \mu m$  ( $EM_2$ ), 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



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

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

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

## 4 Results

### 4.1 Characteristics of grain-size and SUS

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

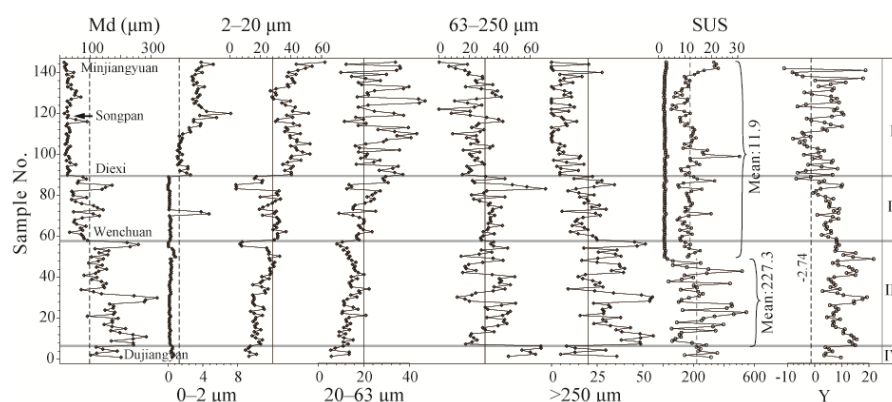


281  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and Wenchuan (from  $49.3 \mu\text{m}$  to  $170.2 \mu\text{m}$ ), and decreased slightly at Dujiangyan  
 282 (from  $220.4 \mu\text{m}$  to  $119.2 \mu\text{m}$ ). The variations at these three sites are the most significant  
 283 within the whole river (Table 1, Fig. 3).

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

Segments	Md ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Percentage composition / (%)					SUS
		0–2 $\mu\text{m}$	2–20 $\mu\text{m}$	20–63 $\mu\text{m}$	63–250 $\mu\text{m}$	>250 $\mu\text{m}$	
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.

288

289 Along the upper Min River downwards, the mean proportion of the 2–20  $\mu\text{m}$  (I =  
 290 40.3%, II = 25.3%, III = 20.0%, and IV = 13.0%) and 20–63  $\mu\text{m}$  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  $\mu\text{m}$  fraction exhibits a sharp increase from segment I (23.7%) to II (34.6%)

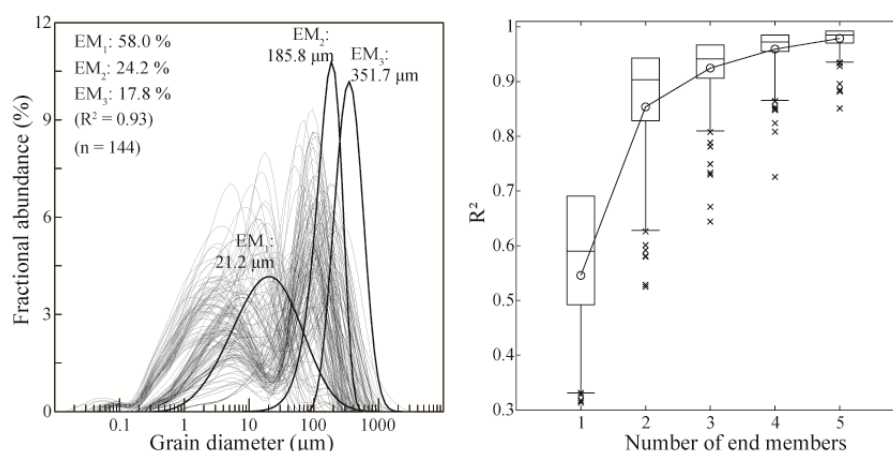


and from segment III (31.9%) to IV (59.5%), but a relatively minor change from segment II (34.6%) to III (31.9%) (Table 1, Fig. 3). The  $> 250 \mu\text{m}$  fractions exhibit a stepwise increase between segments I, II, and III (6.2%, 19.4%, and 33.8%, respectively), and a significant decrease from segment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

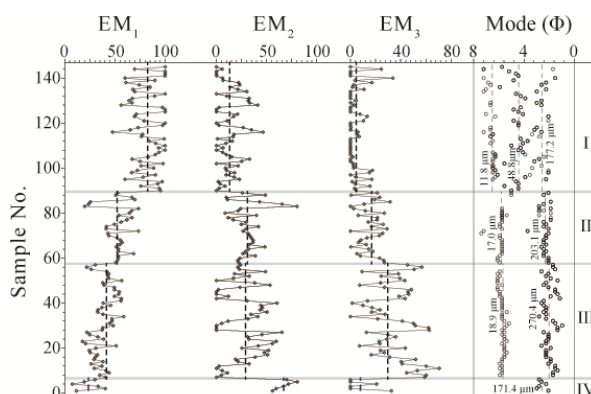
#### 4.2 End-member analysis

Three end-members (EMs) ( $R^2 = 0.93$ ) were identified in the Min River samples (Fig. 4) with peaks of  $21.2 \mu\text{m}$  (58.0%),  $185.8 \mu\text{m}$  (24.2%), and  $351.7 \mu\text{m}$  (17.8%). Along the upper Min River downwards, these three EMs show clear stepwise changes between segments (Fig. 5). EM<sub>1</sub> shows a stepwise decrease (I = 82.5%, II = 53.1%, III = 38.6%, and IV = 23.7%), corresponding to the sum of the  $2\text{--}20 \mu\text{m}$  and  $20\text{--}63 \mu\text{m}$  fractions (Figs. 3, 5). EM<sub>2</sub> shows a sharp increase from segment I (13.1%) to II (31.4%) and from segment III (27.1%) to IV (67.4%), and a relatively smaller change from segment II (31.4%) to III (27.1%), corresponding to the  $63\text{--}250 \mu\text{m}$  fraction. By contrast, EM<sub>3</sub> corresponds to the  $>250 \mu\text{m}$  fraction (Figs. 3, 5) and shows a stepwise increase between segments I, II, and III (4.4%, 15.5% and 38.6%, respectively), and a significant decrease from segment III (38.6) to IV (23.7%).





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



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

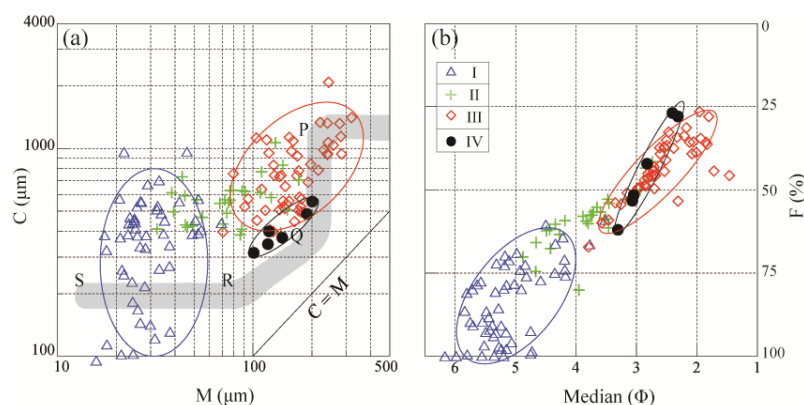
### 4.3 Characteristics of the grain-size frequency distribution

The grain-size frequency of river samples from segment I has a discrete distribution (Fig. S2) with three mode values at  $\sim 11.8 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $\sim 48.8 \mu\text{m}$ , and  $\sim 177.2 \mu\text{m}$ .

The main mode value of segment I occurred in the  $\sim 48.8 \mu\text{m}$  portion. The grain-size



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



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

#### 4.4 C–M and F–M diagrams

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

344

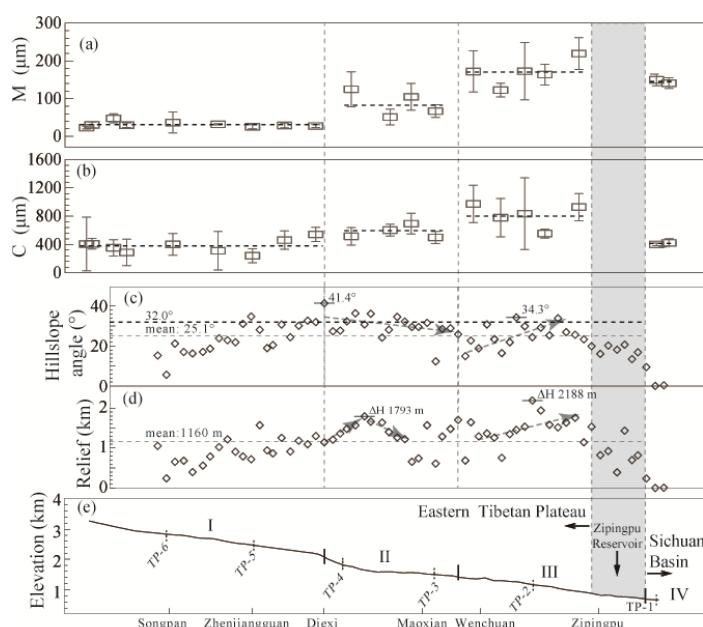
## 345 5 Discussion

### 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  $10\text{--}40 \mu\text{m}$  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  $13.9\text{--}89.8 \mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 3), although the  $C$   
358 values fluctuate widely between  $54.8 \mu\text{m}$  and  $964.3 \mu\text{m}$  (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



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



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



374 The EM<sub>2</sub> in segment IV reaches the highest value (185.8  $\mu\text{m}$ : 67.4%) recorded in  
375 the whole sequence and corresponds to the 63–250  $\mu\text{m}$  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  $\mu\text{m}$ ) (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 EM<sub>2</sub> mainly reflect typical  
385 fluvial sediments.

386 EM<sub>3</sub> corresponds to the coarsest grain–size components (>250  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and has the  
387 highest value (351.7  $\mu\text{m}$ : 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, EM<sub>3</sub>  
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



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

## 5.2 Climate controlled fine-grained fluvial sediments

The windy and semi-arid climate in the study area is responsible for more fine particle components ( $\text{EM}_1$ ) in segment I (Jiang et al., 2014), which caused  $\text{EM}_1$  to gradually decrease downstream as the wind weakens (Fig. 5). The relatively low precipitation (400–700 mm/a) and low runoff ( $18.4\text{--}43.4 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3$ ) (Fig. 1b) in segment I reflect the limited transport capacity of the river, and the angular gravels on the riverbed also indicate weak scouring, which preserves more fine-grained components ( $\text{EM}_1$ ) in fluvial sediments. Segment I developed along the Minjiang Fault (Fig. 1a), which has a low slip rate (0.30–0.53 mm/a, Kirby et al., 2000; Zhou et al., 2000, 2006; Tan et al., 2019) and therefore a weak influence on local provenance supply (Jiang et al., 2014, 2017). In addition, the wide riverbed (Fig. 2a), relatively low hillslope angle, and local relief in the Minjiangyuan–Songpan segment (Figs. 7d, e) causes *in situ*



418 retention of locally sourced coarse components. Therefore, EM<sub>2</sub> and EM<sub>3</sub> 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 EM<sub>2</sub> and EM<sub>3</sub> 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*<sub>s</sub> 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 (EM<sub>3</sub>). 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<sub>3</sub> 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  $5^{\circ}$  to  $34.8^{\circ}$  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 ( $12.3$ – $41.4^{\circ}$ , with a mean of  $30.1^{\circ}$ ) is generally  
 501 steeper than the average for the whole study area ( $25.1^{\circ}$ ), and the highest angles ( $41.4^{\circ}$ )  
 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 ( $14.9^{\circ}$ – $34.3^{\circ}$ , with a mean of  $24.9^{\circ}$ ) 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 ( $24.9^{\circ}$ ) is lower than  
519 the mean value ( $25.1^{\circ}$ ) 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 (EM<sub>3</sub>, 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

#### 562 **Acknowledgements**

563 This study was supported by the National Nonprofit Fundamental Research Grant  
564 of China, Institute of Geology, China Earthquake Administration (IGCEA2126 and  
565 IGCEA1906).

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