

Transformation of tectonic and climatic signals from source to sedimentary archive

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The Earth's sedimentary successions are an archive of past tectonic and climate events^{1,2}. The physical characteristics of the sediment record are controlled by three main factors: the sediment supply from the eroding source region, the grain size distribution of that sediment supply, and the area available for sediment accumulation in the downstream regions^{3,4}. The interplay of these factors can make the interpretation of a climatic or tectonic signal complex, particularly as these processes are nonlinear. Here we assess the evolution of a tectonically active landscape undergoing erosional and depositional processes, using a numerical model that incorporates variations in grain size and the volumetric sediment budget. Our simulations indicate that changes in precipitation and tectonic uplift both generate characteristic patterns of grain size and stratigraphic geometry. An increase in catchment precipitation results in the deposition of a laterally extensive sheet of coarse gravel. The responses to a changing tectonic regime are more diverse: a large increase in uplift rate results first in the deposition of sediments of larger grain size at proximal sites, followed by a reduction in grain size at distal locations. We conclude that the stratigraphic record is strongly controlled by the grain size of sediments released from catchments undergoing tectonic or climatic change.

The sedimentary response to erosion of an upland source region and down-system aggradation occurs at a range of temporal and spatial scales⁵. Over geological timescales, the architecture and granulometry of fluvial successions are dependent on the prevailing tectonic and climatic conditions; however, inverting the sedimentary record for these key parameters is non-trivial^{6,7}. A large number of theoretical and field studies^{8–10} have demonstrated that tectonics, climate, erosion and deposition are dynamically linked by a sediment routing system, which relays source signals to permanent sinks. However, these processes operate at a range of timescales^{5,6,11} and field investigations have generally yielded valuable but qualitative interpretations of the stratigraphic impact of past tectonic and climatic changes (for example ref. 12).

Two strands of forward models have been developed to explore the landscape response to climatic and tectonic change. The first builds on theoretical, empirical and heuristic relationships to develop a quasi-realistic evolving landscape (for example, ref. 7). These studies embed field-derived hillslope, fluvial and sediment transport laws, but are typically focused on relatively short-term geomorphological observables, rather than on the erosion and deposition of sediment over geological timescales. Moreover, the hydraulic and geomorphic laws on which such models are built are often poorly constrained or unknowable for ancient source-to-sink systems. The second approach, which we adopt here, is to parameterize the erosional system using a nonlinear diffusional model that can describe the gross characteristics of topographic evolution and sediment release^{13–15} (Fig. 1, see

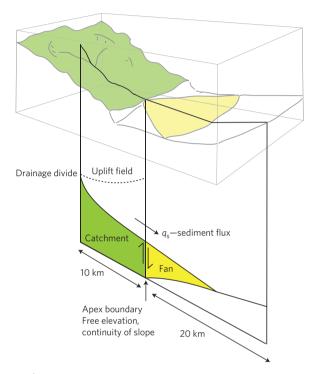


Figure 1 | **Diagram of model domain.** The uplifting catchment (green) is bounded by a vertical normal fault. The fault marks the transition from catchment to fan (yellow). In this idealized model domain, we maintain a continuity of slope and elevation across the apex^{15,29}.

Methods). Deposition can then be calculated using a volume balance approach¹⁵. This methodology allows for a simple set of equations to be solved through well-constrained observations. Previous workers have focused on stratigraphic architecture and sediment volumes¹⁵. We include grain size fining down-system using a field-verified, similarity-based approach^{2,16}.

Before a change in precipitation or fault slip rate within the catchment–fan system (Fig. 1), the model evolves for 5 Myr at a slip rate of 1 mm yr⁻¹ and a precipitation rate of 1 m yr⁻¹, to achieve a steady-state sediment flux¹⁵ (Fig. 2a). A subsequent doubling of the precipitation rate generates a sharp increase in sediment flux that returns to the steady-state condition with a response time of about 0.5 Myr (Fig. 2a). The increased sediment flux as the catchment responds to the increase in precipitation promotes a lengthening of the depositional fan by a factor of two, marked by the 20 mm grain size contour (Fig. 2b). In a vertical sediment column situated 5 km from the fan apex, there is an abrupt increase in mean grain size (Fig. 2b). A halving of the precipitation rate generates a sharp reduction in sediment flux that returns to the

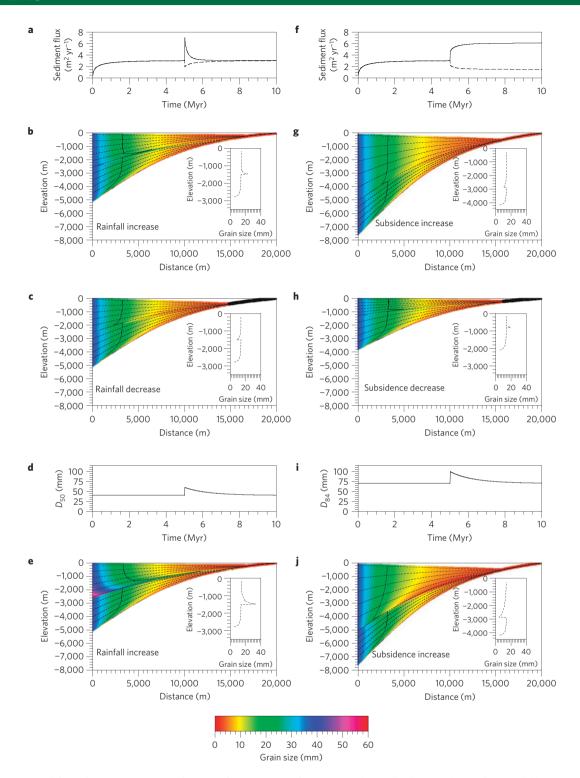


Figure 2 | **Response of the sedimentary system to climate and tectonic perturbations. a**, Sediment flux from catchment for a twofold increase (solid line) and decrease (dashed line) in precipitation. **b,c**, Grain size distribution (GSD) within fan for models in **a**. Solid line shows 20 mm grain size; dashes indicate 1 Myr intervals; insets show vertical grain size profiles 5 km from apex. **d**, D_{50} released from catchment if a twofold precipitation increase is coupled to exported sediment grain size. **e**, Fan GSD for model **d**. **f**, Sediment flux from catchment for a twofold increase (solid line) and decrease (dashed line) in uplift. **g,h**, Fan GSD for models in **f**. **i**, D_{84} released from catchment if uplift increase drives coarse sediment export. **j**, Fan GSD for model **i**. Initial conditions: precipitation, D_{84} released from catchment if uplift increase drives coarse sediment export. **j** Fan GSD for model **i**. Initial conditions: precipitation, D_{84} released from catchment if uplift increase drives coarse sediment export. **j** Fan GSD for model **i**. Initial conditions: precipitation, D_{84} released from catchment if D_{84} released from

steady-state condition with a longer response time of about 1 Myr (Fig. 2a). The decreased sediment flux in response to the change in precipitation promotes a backstepping of the fan toe, reducing the length of the fan. This reduction in system length is accompanied by an increase in the rate of down-system fining^{2,16}, whereby the

coarser fraction of the supplied material is deposited a kilometre closer to the apex (Fig. 2c).

An increase in precipitation will increase the sediment grain size exported from the catchment because channel bed grain size scales with basal shear stress¹⁷. To relate median grain size,

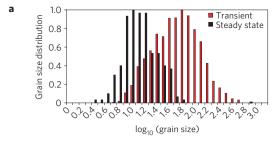
 D_{50} , to the change in rainfall, α , we use existing derivations that combine Manning's equation with boundary shear stress to link grain size to catchment water discharge¹⁸. Assuming that water flux is directly proportional to rainfall within the catchment, $D_{50} \propto \alpha^{3/5}$. Increased erosion in the catchment acts to reduce channel slope until topographic steady state is attained. Input granulometry responds on a similar timescale to sediment flux¹⁹, so the grain size distribution returns to the initial condition at a decay half-time of 1 Myr (Fig. 2d). The response recorded within the basin to a coupled increase in precipitation and sediment calibre is a marked progradation (of order 10 km) of coarse material down-system (Fig. 2e).

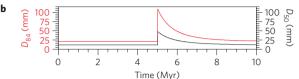
Following a perturbation in fault slip rate, the response time for the catchment to reach a new steady state is of the order of 1 Myr (Fig. 2f). An increase in fault slip rate from 1 to 2 mm yr⁻¹ generates an increase in sediment flux as erosion within the catchment works to remove the additional mass of rock. A change in subsidence rate within the basin is instantaneous, whereas catchment erosion takes time to respond. Consequently, the amount of material eroded is initially less than the new steady state (Fig. 2f). Fan length is initially short and down-system rate of grain size fining high during this period of transient response^{2,5,15}. Down-system grain size trends then return to the same values observed before the perturbation (Fig. 2g). The transient response to an increase in fault slip rate is recorded within the stratigraphy as a small (about 1 km) backstepping of the fan toe and a grain size reduction (Fig. 2g). In contrast, a reduction in fault slip rate causes a progradation of a thin wedge of coarse material into the basin, transporting larger grains (>20 mm) up to a kilometre further down-system (Fig. 2h). The response to a fault slip rate reduction is similar to that of an increase in precipitation, but the grain size signal does not travel down the full length of the system (Fig. 2e,h).

Field data from the central Apennines of Italy have shown that larger clasts are typically exported from fault-bounded catchments following an increase in fault slip rate¹⁹. For a doubling of slip rate, median grain size of the supply remains relatively unchanged, whereas the coarse end increases from a D_{84} of 70 to 100 mm (ref. 19; Fig. 2i). The increase in D_{84} is transient as increased erosion lowers topographic slopes, before returning to the initial steady-state values over a decay half-time of 1 Myr (ref. 19). The response of the depositional system to an increase in the ratio D_{84}/D_{50} in the sediment released is to accentuate the abrupt backstepping of the fan toe and to promote a more rapid rate of grain size fining (Fig. 2j). The increase in D_{84}/D_{50} increases the rate of selective deposition, as larger grains are preferentially extracted up-system².

The deposition of conglomeratic sheets down-system has been previously linked to increases in precipitation in the upstream catchment²⁰. For example, a 10-m-thick coarse gravel unit in the 0.6-3-Myr-old St David Formation in the San Pedro Valley of southern Arizona was deposited during a period of tectonic quiescence²¹. Similarly, the Palaeocene-Eocene boundary in the Tremp basin of the Spanish Pyrenees coincides with the presence of a conglomerate sheet that is about 10 m thick, bounded above and below by different palaeosols that indicate an increase in precipitation rate²². Sheet conglomerates can be formed from a sharp reduction in subsidence (Fig. 2h). However, the grain size increase is not as pronounced and the progradation is less extensive than that produced by a precipitation increase (Fig. 2b,e). Increased precipitation²³ and unforced internal dynamics²⁴ may lead to fanhead entrenchment, which may transiently lead to down-system extension of the fan, but this cannot be captured by our timeintegrated model. These arguments indicate that thin, laterally extensive gravel sheets within sedimentary basins are best explained by a long-term change in precipitation in upstream catchments.

The Fucino basin, central Italy, is a recently drained lake containing fluvial-deltaic deposits that prograded into the basin from the northwest-southeast boundary faults from the late





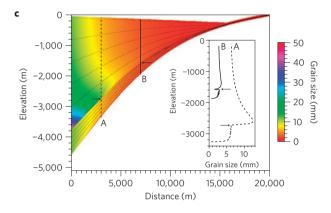


Figure 3 | Predicted response to a fivefold increase in uplift within the Gole di Celano and the Fucino basin system. a, Normalized Wolman point count grain size measurements from the Gole di Celano for regions that are responding (transient) to a slip rate increase from 0.3 to 1.5 mm yr $^{-1}$ and those that have yet to respond (steady state) 19 . The grain size has been converted to a \log_{10} scale so that the two distributions are Gaussian. **b**, Response of input grain size (D_{50} and D_{84}) due to the change in slip rate.

 \mathbf{c} , Grain size distribution for a $\times 5$ increase in slip rate. Inset: Vertical grain size profiles. Small arrows mark the slip rate perturbation recorded within the granulometry.

Pliocene onwards²⁵. The Fucino fault experienced an increase in slip rate from 0.3 to 1.5 mm yr⁻¹ due to fault linkage at 800 kyr BP (refs 9,26). This was accompanied by an increase in both the median ($D_{50} = 11-50$ mm) and coarse ($D_{84} = 20-110$ mm) grain size percentiles exported from the Gole di Celano that cross-cuts the fault (Fig. 3a,b).

The response to a fivefold increase in fault slip rate is complex. From our modelling of the response to slip rate perturbations, a backstepping of coarse material would be predicted. However, the coupling between catchment and fan is not straightforward in this field-calibrated scenario. The increase in D_{50} and D_{84} has different effects on the downstream fining. The increase in median grain size leaving the catchment increases the size of gravel entering the fan. Therefore, the increase in slip rate, resulting in a larger input median grain size, produces a wedge of coarse material that extends into the basin (Fig. 3c). Concomitantly, the larger D_{84}/D_{50} ratio promotes an increase in the rate of down-system grain size fining. At \leq 5 km from the fan apex, the sediment grain size increases with time owing to the slip rate perturbation, whereas at distances \geq 5 km a reduction is recorded (Fig. 3c). The progradation of coarse gravel predicted close to the fault and observed within the fan deposits from the Celano and neighbouring areas entering the Fucino basin^{19,25} does not correspond to an increase in fan length, or a sudden increase in

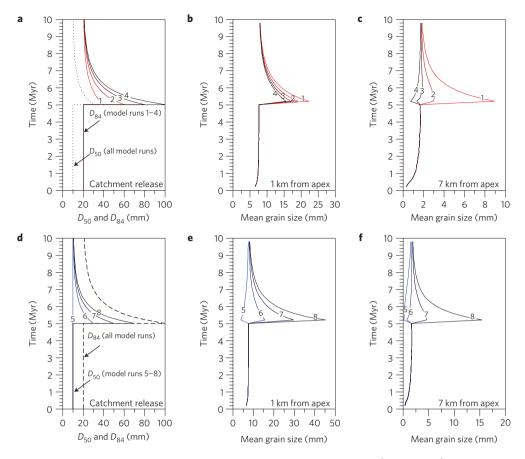


Figure 4 | Down-system grain size signals following a doubling of subsidence and uplift from 1 mm yr⁻¹ to 2 mm yr⁻¹. a, Input sediment distributions: dotted line— D_{50} , red to black lines— D_{84} of peak of 40–100 mm. **b,c**, Mean grain size deposited plotted in vertical sediment columns 1 and 7 km from the fan apex. Red to black lines are as in **a** and represent the variation in input D_{84} . **d**, Input sediment distributions: dashed line— D_{84} , blue to black lines D_{50} of a peak of 20–70 mm. **e,f**, Mean grain size deposited in vertical sediment columns 1 and 7 km from the fan apex. Blue to black lines are as in **d** and represent the variation in input D_{50} .

sediment flux; instead they are a stratigraphic record of the transient response of the eroding landscape.

Sequence stratigraphy is built on an expectation that the lap-out relationships of stratal packages are diagnostic of forcing mechanisms and that along time-lines, trends of shallowing (progradation) or deepening (backstepping) are spatially consistent. Our model of a catchment-fan system indicates that stratigraphic grain size and geometries respond in a more complex way to changes in forcing mechanisms. A temporal increase in grain size and onlap of gravel may be recorded close to the fan apex, whereas a reduction in grain size and backstepping of gravel are recorded far from the fan apex (Fig. 4). This downstream change in signal across a stratal package can be described as a transformation in phase, from a positive increase to negative decrease in grain size. There is evidently a trade-off between increased fining due to increased D_{84} of the sediment supply and backstepping of fan architecture, and progradation of large grains due to increased D_{50} . As D_{84}/D_{50} gets larger (>4:1), this phase shift gets larger (Fig. 4).

The terrestrial sedimentary archive is intimately linked to the eroding landscape, but these connections are not linear^{6,11}. By combining field observations with a clear physical model of landscape erosion and deposition, we have demonstrated how the response of landscapes to long-term changes in climate and tectonics is recorded and transformed in sedimentary strata. Grain size characteristics released from a catchment impose a strong, but not necessarily linear, control on the stratigraphic record of downstream grain size fining. In illustrating how climatic and tectonic signals are transformed from source region to stratigraphic end-product, and

how they may be discriminated from each other, this contribution provides improved concepts for the inversion of the sedimentary record for past changes in external forcing mechanisms.

Methods

Below we provide a brief summary of the methods; further information is provided in the Supplementary Information. We target a relatively simple sediment routing system comprising a small 10-km-long frontal catchment and <20-km-long alluvial fan, separated by a vertical normal fault (Fig. 1). Erosion and deposition are considered along the centre of the catchment and fan^{6,15} (Fig. 1). Simplifying the sedimentary system to a two-dimensional plane can be justified as long as there is no long-term flux of sediment in and out of the plane. This can be safely assumed if the mountain front has a series of transverse catchment–fans that are not interconnected, and where over time, any along-strike inequalities in sediment deposition are evened out by channel and fan segment switching in response to differential topographic gradients. The uplifted catchment is eroded, supplying a sediment discharge that is deposited within the basin. Erosion is of the form of a diffusive–concentrative equation¹³,

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial q_s}{\partial x} + U(x, t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\kappa + c(\alpha x)^n) \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} + U(x, t)$$
 (1)

The sediment flux, q_s , is split into hillslope diffusion, $\kappa(\partial h/\partial x)$, and fluvial diffusion, $c(\alpha x)^n(\partial h/\partial x)$, assuming that fluvial processes are proportional to precipitation. In equation (1), h is elevation, x is down-system distance, $\kappa=0.01$ m² yr $^{-1}$ is the linear diffusivity, $c=1\times 10^{-6}$ (m² yr $^{-1}$) $^{1-n}$ is the nonlinear sediment transport coefficient, α is the precipitation rate and n=2 is the exponent that describes the dependency of sediment discharge on fluid transport 14,15 . U(x,t) is the uplift within the catchment, which can be varied as the system evolves. Equation (1) is made dimensionless by the length of the catchment, $l_x=10$ km, and the timescale l_x^2/κ , giving

$$h = l_x \tilde{h}$$
 $x = l_x \tilde{x}$ $t = \frac{l_x^2}{\kappa} \tilde{t}$

Equation (1) therefore becomes,

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{h}}{\partial \tilde{t}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}} (1 + D_c \tilde{x}^n) \frac{\partial \tilde{h}}{\partial \tilde{x}} + \tilde{U}$$
 (2)

where \tilde{U} is the dimensionless uplift and D_{ε} expresses the relative importance of concentrative processes versus diffusive processes,

$$D_e = \frac{c \left(\alpha l_x\right)^n}{\kappa}$$

The uplift field is that of fault-bounded blocks²⁷. Equation (2) is solved using a standard finite-element approach with linear weighting functions and linear time-steps²⁸. Sediment flux, q_s , is sensitive to the boundary condition at the catchment outlet, which we refer to as the apex boundary condition (Fig. 1).

Depositional architecture is calculated by a volume balance approach assuming that no erosion occurs within the depositional fan¹⁴. In our model the absolute elevation of the apex boundary condition is free to move, but we impose continuity of gradient at the apex boundary condition, as observed in natural catchment-fan systems²⁹. We then iterate to determine the gradient of the fan surface that equals the gradient of the catchment outlet surface that balances the volume of sediment released15. The slope of the fan is assumed to be constant. Therefore, at each time increment, the new depositional wedge is determined, and selective deposition theory is used to estimate down-system grain size fining in the stratigraphy. By treating fan deposition as a simple balance of sediment budget with accommodation space provided, we time integrate the individual processes such as changes in fan width within single channel flows. Therefore, whereas at the timescale of single flood events the depositional geometry and downstream fining may be representative of the sediment hydrodynamics of the active layer, at the long timescales considered here the depositional geometry and downstream fining in stratigraphy can be approximated by our volume balance approach.

The initial grain size signal is transformed down-system by selective deposition using an adapted version of self-similar solutions for down-system grain size trends^{2,16}. The self-similar solutions assume a normal distribution of sediment grain size. We therefore convert the grain size distribution to a logarithmic scale and sort by the diagnostic standard deviation, ϕ_0 , and mean, \bar{D}_0 (see Supplementary Information). Down-system fining is then governed by the following set of equations¹⁶,

$$\bar{D}(x^*) = \bar{D}_0 + \phi_0 \frac{1}{C_v} \left(e^{-C_t y^*} - 1 \right)$$

where $x^* = x/l_f$ and $l_f = 20$ km is the length of the basin, $C_l = 0.7$ (ref. 2), $C_v = 0.25$ (see Supplementary Information) and y^* is a spatial transformation of x^* . This is given by 30 ,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y^*}{\mathrm{d}x^*} = R^*$$

 R^* is the distribution of deposition given by

$$R^* = \left(1 - \lambda_{\rm p}\right) \frac{S(x^*)}{q_{\rm s}(x^*)}$$

where $\lambda_p = 0.3$ is the sediment porosity, $S(x^*)$ is the dimensionless area of accommodation space generated at a given time step and $q_s(x^*)$ is the equivalent down-system distribution of sediment flux.

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Author contributions

J.J.A. designed and carried out the numerical experiments. All authors contributed equally to the analysis of the results and writing of the manuscript.

Additional information

The authors declare no competing financial interests. Supplementary information accompanies this paper on www.nature.com/naturegeoscience. Reprints and permissions information is available online at http://npg.nature.com/reprintsandpermissions. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to J.J.A