

Late Pleistocene slip rate of the central Haiyuan fault constrained from OSL, 14C, and cosmogenic isotope dating and high-resolution topography

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- Late Pleistocene slip rate of the central Haiyuan fault
- 2 constrained from OSL, ¹⁴C, and cosmogenic isotope
- 3 dating and high resolution topography

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ABSTRACT

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To better constrain the long-term millennial slip-rate of the Haiyuan fault in its central part, we revisit the site of Daqing (or Sangedun at 102.7°E in Gaudemer et al., 1995). We used terrestrial LiDAR to build a high-resolution DEM and Uncrewed Aerial Vehicle to build an aerial photomosaic with ~0.1 m resolution to survey the offset terraces, their geomorphology and the fault trace. We refine the geomorphological interpretation of the site, measure terrace riser offsets and determine their relation to terrace formation. The well-constrained age of the highest terrace T3 at 13.7 \pm 1.5 ka determined from the combination of surface and sub-surface OSL, ¹⁴C, and terrestrial in situ ¹⁰Be cosmogenic radionuclide (CRN) dating, associated with an offset of 88 m, yields a late Pleistocene minimum slip-rate of 6.5 ± 1 mm/yr. The less well constrained offset ($<72 \pm 3$ m) and age ($>9.3 \pm 0.6$ ka) of terrace T2 yield a maximum slip rate of 7.7 ± 0.6 mm/yr. The smallest offset of a gully incised into T1 of 6.0 ± 0.5 m is potentially associated with the most recent slip event that occurred in the last millennia. The Daqing site provides a well constrained slip rate of the Haiyuan fault that is consistent with geodetic estimates. Overall, the high-resolution topography and precise chronology at the same site makes it possible to reveal the geomorphic complexities of terrace riser offsets and post-depositional evolution, and to show how previous geological rates along the fault were both under- and over-estimated.

41 42

43 **Keywords:** Haiyuan fault, northern Tibetan Plateau, slip rate, LiDAR, cosmogenic nuclide dating

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INTRODUCTION

How strain is distributed in the Tibetan-Himalayan orogen is important to understand how continental orogens deform (Tapponnier and Molnar, 1977; England and Molnar, 1997). The Haiyuan left-lateral strike-slip fault, whose eastern part ruptured in 1920 AD for a length of about 230 km (Deng et al., 1984), is a major strike slip fault at the northeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau. This fault plays an important role in accommodating eastward motion of the northern Tibet plateau relative to the Gobi-Alashan to the north (Tapponnier and Molnar, 1977; Gaudemer et al., 1995; Tapponnier et al., 2001a). Overall, decadal geodetic and millennial geological slip-rate studies mostly agree to a rate of 4-10 mm/yr, implying that the Haiyuan fault is the major active fault at the rim of Tibet at this longitude (Li et al., 2009; Daout et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2017). However, higher slip rates have been documented (Zhang et al., 1988a; Gaudemer et al., 1995; Lasserre et al., 1999, 2002), as well as lower ones (Yuan et al., 1998; Li et al., 2009; He et al., 2010; Jiang et al., 2017; Matrau et al., 2019). Because it has been suggested that the fault slip rate might vary over time, thus, it is valuable to find multiple slip-rate constraints at a single site to constrain possible temporal slip-rate variation (e.g., Sieh and Jahns, 1984; Van der Woerd et al., 1998, 2002). Terrace risers have commonly been used as markers of fault displacement to constrain slip rates along strike slip faults (e.g., Lensen, 1968; Weldon and Sieh, 1985; Berryman, 1990; Knuepfer, 1992; Van der Woerd et al., 1998, 2002; McGill et al., 2013). However, terrace risers can be seldom directly dated. One may infer displacement started to be recorded since the time of upper terrace abandonment, or upon abandonment of the lower terrace (Van der Woerd et al., 2002; Mériaux et al., 2004, 2005; Cowgill, 2007; Zhang et al., 2007). In general, the upper terrace constraints yield a minimum slip rate, while the lower terrace constraint yields a maximum slip rate. Ideally, when terrace ages are not too different, a combination of

upper and lower age constraints may be used to bracket the riser age (Mériaux et al., 2005; Cowgill, 2007).

76 The precision of a late Quaternary slip rate depends upon displacement 77 accumulation and its uncertainty, as well as the reliability of the corresponding dating 78 (Sieh, 1981; Weldon and Sieh, 1985; Van der Woerd et al., 1998, 2006; Cowgill, 79 2007; Zhang et al., 2007; Cowgill et al., 2009; Gold et al., 2009; Le Béon et al., 2012; 80 Mériaux et al., 2012). Across the Qilian Shan-Hexi Corridor, loess covers late 81 Quaternary surface broadly. Researchers have often used optically stimulated 82 luminescence (OSL) or radiocarbon ages of materials collected within the basal loess 83 to date the end of terrace emplacement (e.g. Li et al., 2009; Jiang et al., 2017; Liu et 84 al., 2018). In this area several studies indicate that loess deposition started just prior to 85 the Holocene (~13-10 ka) (Stokes et al., 2003; Küster et al., 2006). Thus, loess 86 deposition age is a minimum age for the terraces. Because terraces capped by loess 87 usually consist of coarse gravels, if one could correct for the shielding effect due to 88 loess cover, in-situ cosmogenic nuclides should be an appropriate dating method, ideally complemented by OSL and ¹⁴C dating of loess capping materials (e.g., Hetzel 89 90 et al., 2004, 2019; Perrineau et al., 2011). 91 High-resolution topographic data make it possible to image subtle landforms and

High-resolution topographic data make it possible to image subtle landforms and deformation features due to active tectonics, and to make reproducible and precise measurements, improving understanding of rupture history and slip along faults (e.g. Hudnut et al., 2002; Oskin et al., 2007; Arrowsmith and Zielke, 2009; Zielke et al., 2010, 2015). Satellite or aerial photography offers two-dimensional imagery which is often used to trace fault line and look for offset markers (e.g., Tapponnier and Molnar, 1977; Peltzer et al., 1989; Meyer et al., 1998; Lasserre et al., 1999; Klinger et al., 2011; Middleton et al., 2016). Studies have applied Airborne Laser Scanning (ALS) data to map fault-zone features (e.g., Hudnut et al., 2002; Oskin et al., 2007; Arrowsmith and Zielke, 2009; Liu-Zeng et al., 2013), to survey coseismic surface ruptures (Oskin et al., 2012; Clark et al., 2017; Langridge et al., 2018) or to determine

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paleo-earthquake slip distributions (Zielke et al., 2010, 2012; Thackray et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2015). Recently, this technique has also been used to measure the most recent rupture traces and offsets along the eastern Haiyuan fault (Chen et al., 2014, 2018; Ren et al., 2016).

Based on new high-resolution topography data and high precision dating, we revisit the Daqing site (also named Sangedun site in the study of Gaudemer et al., 1995), a location with multiple marker offsets, to reassess the slip rate of the Haiyuan Fault. We constrain the slip rate at this site with new offset measurements and a combination of absolute age dating approaches.

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GEOLOGIC SETTING

The Haiyuan fault extends for ~1000 km from Hala Hu within the Qilian Shan in the west to the Liupan Shan in the east (Figure 1) (e.g., Tapponnier and Molnar, 1977; Gaudemer et al., 1995). Thermochronological data indicate that the Haiyuan fault initiated along its western section, then propagated eastward to the Liupan Shan area (Zheng et al., 2006; Duvall et al., 2013). The fault is characterized by left-lateral strike slip with oblique-slip components along some strands (Tapponnier and Molnar, 1977; Burchfiel et al., 1989; Gaudemer et al., 1995; Lasserre et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 1988a). Six major 70 to 300 km-long sections are distinguished and delimited by major step-overs or branches (Figure 1). Half-way along the Haiyuan fault, a major branch, the Gulang-Zhongwei fault, splays off the Haiyuan fault at the junction of the Lenglong Ling and Jingiang He sections. It turns back towards the Haiyuan fault east of 106°E in the Liupan Shan section. Large historical earthquakes, such as the 1709 AD Zhongwei M7.5, the 1920 AD Haiyuan Mw7.8-8.3 and the 1927 AD Gulang M8.0 earthquakes, ruptured these two faults (Deng et al., 1984; Gaudemer et al., 1995). Several field studies along the Haiyuan fault have been carried out during the last

30 years. For instance, paleoseismic investigations along the Haiyuan (e.g. Zhang et

130 al., 1988b, 2003; Ran et al., 1997; Xiang et al., 1998; Min et al., 2001; Liu-Zeng et al., 131 2015) and Maomao Shan (e.g. Yuan et al., 1998; Liu-Zeng et al., 2007) sections show 132 that earthquakes can rupture single or several sections together, and cluster temporally. 133 High-resolution deposition sequences in trenches also provided evidence of 134 magnitude 6 to 7 earthquakes (Liu-Zeng et al., 2015). Six events are documented on 135 the Lenglong Ling section from which the most recent may be related the 1927 136 Gulang M8.0 earthquake (Guo et al., 2019; Gaudemer et al., 1995). 137 Geological slip rates determined along the Haiyuan fault differ greatly, from a 138 few mm/yr to more than 1 cm/yr, due to different dating approaches and slip 139 reconstruction models. For example, Lasserre et al. (2002) proposed a slip rate for the 140 Lenglong Ling segment based on a ~200 m offset of a lateral moraine dated with 141 cosmogenic radionuclide (CRN) of 19 ± 5 mm/yr with a lower bound of 11 ± 3 142 mm/yr. Along the same Lenglong Ling section, He et al. (2000) argued for a lower 143 slip rate of 3.3-4.1 mm/yr based on older OSL dates. Recently, Jiang et al. (2017) 144 estimated a left-lateral slip rate of 6.6 ± 0.3 mm/yr along the eastern section of the Lenglong Ling segment based on late Pleistocene ¹⁴C and OSL ages of stream offsets. 145 146 Along the Maomao Shan segment, Lasserre et al. (1999) determined a slip rate of 12 147 ± 4 mm/yr, while Yuan et al. (1998) estimated lower slip rates of 4.1-5.4 mm/yr. Yao 148 et al. (2019) recently reassessed the offsets and age control for sites of Lasserre et al. 149 (1999) and updated the slip rate here to 5-8.9 mm/yr over the late Pleistocene – 150 Holocene. Further east, the Haiyuan segment, which ruptured in the 1920 Haiyuan 151 earthquake, was assigned a slip rate of 8 ± 2 mm/yr by Zhang et al. (1988b). Li et al. 152 (2009) updated this value to $\sim 4.5 \pm 1$ mm/yr by dating offset alluvial terraces. 153 Combining ¹⁰Be CRN ages from surface and subsurface depth profiles in a set of 154 terraces, Matrau et al. (2019) constrained a minimum slip rate of 3.2 ± 0.2 mm/yr 155 along one of the fault strands crossing the Hasi Shan restraining bend, within the 156 western section of the 1920 Haiyuan earthquake rupture.

The Jinqiang He section (3) and the Maomao Shan section (4) are nearly parallel and linked across a 6 km-wide left step by a N45°E-striking and east dipping normal fault, which bounds the Tianzhu half-graben or pull-apart basin in the west (Gaudemer et al., 1995; Figure 2). The Jinqiang He section fault of striking N110°E offsets alluvial fans and ridges along the northern side of the Jinqiang He valley. There is no evidence of large earthquake during at least the past eight centuries along these two fault sections, which are considered together as "the Tianzhu seismic gap" (Gaudemer et al., 1995). The site of Daqing (or Sangedun site in Gaudemer et al., 1995; Tapponnier et al., 2001b) is located along the eastern part of the Jinqiang He section, north of the Honggeda village, and ~80 km east of the sites investigated by Lasserre et al. (2002) (Figure 2). The mountain range immediately to the north is locally called Leigong Shan, with the highest peak reaching 4326 m. Traces of the last glaciation, in the form of fresh glacial cirques, are preserved above 3700 m on the southern flank of the mountain range (Gaudemer et al., 1995). Streams incising the steep southern flank of the mountains feed boulder-bearing fluvio-glacial fans that are cut near the apex by the Haiyuan fault. Here, glacial moraines are absent, but to the west in the Lenglong Ling area, glacial landforms are common (Meyer et al, 1998; Lasserre et al., 2002; Owen et al., 2003). OSL and CRN ages of glacial deposits in the Lenglong Ling area indicate that the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) took place at 18-21 ka, in agreement with the timing of global LGM (Owen et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2013). Following the cold and arid glacial period, fans and terraces are emplaced in the late Pleistocene and early Holocene, due to increase runoff and glacial melting as the climate became warmer (e.g., Meyer et al., 1998; Van der Woerd et al., 2002; Hetzel, 2013). Climatic index analysis at a site on the northern flank of the Leigong Shan suggested that it was warm and wet in the early Holocene (9.6-9.0 ka B.P.), and the most arid period during the Holocene occurred between 9.0-8.7 ka B.P., when loess was deposited at the site (Wu et al., 1998). At a regional scale, loess deposition was common but

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spatially unevenly distributed in the Qilian Shan during the Holocene (Meyer et al., 1998; Küster et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2015).

At the Daqing site, a stream that flows down from a high catchment (elevation >4000 m asl) and perpendicular to the main fault has abandoned a set of 3 main terrace levels along its west bank (Figure 3). The terraces are cut and offset by the Haiyuan fault. Based on fieldwork, aerial-photo interpretation, and topographic leveling with a theodolite, Gaudemer et al. (1995) determined that the three main terraces are respectively offset horizontally by 143 m, 89 m, and 35 m and vertically by 18 m, 11 m, and 4 m. Assigning an abandonment age of 13.5 ± 2 ka to the highest terrace based on the assumption that it was deposited and abandoned during the wetter and warmer period following the last glacial maximum, they proposed a slip-rate of 11 ± 4 mm/yr.

LEVELING AND GEOCHRONOLOGY METHODS

We used a combination of terrestrial LiDAR (TLS), Uncrewed Aerial Vehicle (UAV) and kinematic GPS to survey the landforms of the Daqing site. For terrestrial LiDAR, we used a Riegl VZ-1000, with an effective scan range of ~1400 m and a precision of ~5 mm. Three successive scans were needed to cover all the studied area. A Trimble real-time kinematic (RTK) Global Position system (GPS) surveyed the position and elevation of each scanning base. These positions were used to register the different point cloud datasets together. Because some places cannot be scanned by the TLS due to topographic roughness, we used a DJI[®] Phantom 2 drone equipped with a fixed focus camera to capture aerial imagery vertically and obliquely to generate an ortho-photo mosaic of the site by Structure-from-Motion techniques (e.g. James and Robson, 2012; Bemis et al., 2014) (Figures 3 and 4). The drone took more than 120 photos at a height of about 50 m above ground surface. The flight paths are parallel to the fault trace with a swath of 30-50 m. We set up 6 ground control points (GCP) distributed evenly at the terrace surfaces before collecting photos. The

positions of GCPs were recorded by GPS-RTK. Agisoft[®] Photoscan was used to process the aerial photos and generate the ortho-photo covering the studied site. We projected the DEM derived from the TLS point cloud in the same coordinates as the ortho-photo (Figures 3 and 4). Three topographic profiles were leveled in the field using the Trimble RTK-GPS system described above along the various terrace risers. We also extracted topographic profiles from the high-resolution DEM as single profiles or swath profiles. The profiles were projected either perpendicular or parallel to the fault trace (Figures 4 and 5).

At the Daqing site, the terrace conglomerates in the piedmont of the Leigong

Shan are deposited as debris flows originating from the catchment up slope. The clasts within these conglomerates may have been mobilized from moraines upstream, which remnants are still visible in the upper part of the catchment (Figure 3). Sediments mostly comprise granite, gneiss and metasedimentary rocks. Large boulders 0.5-2 m in diameter armor the surface of the terraces, some of them are partially buried due to loess accumulation and soil development. Quartz-rich rock samples for terrestrial cosmogenic radionuclide (CRN) dating were collected from the top of boulders using chisel and hammer (Figures 4 and 6). In addition, a pit was dug into the highest terrace (T3) for sub-surface sampling (Figures 4A and 7). The upper 1.1 m of the profile consist of 80 cm thick dark brown to black silty soil topping a 30 cm silty (loess) layer mixed with sparse gravels and pebbles of less than 1 cm in grain size. In these upper layers we sampled 2 radiocarbon samples of bulk soil at 62 and 77 cm depths, and 2 OSL samples at 82 and 104 cm depths (Tables 1 and 2). In the lower conglomeratic part of the profile, we collected 8 samples of amalgamated quartz-rich gravels and pebbles (size < 5 cm) down to 3 m depth for cosmogenic isotope dating. All sample locations were recorded using a portable GPS and elevations were adjusted with the topography data from the TLS (Figure 4; Table 3).

Radiocarbon samples were analyzed by Beta Analytic with accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) and calibrated using Calib 7.1 (Stuiver et al., 1993) (Table 1).

The two OSL samples were processed and analyzed following Aitken (1998) and Lu et al. (2007). Coarse-grained quartz was purified from samples through chemical separation using 30% H2O2, 10% HCl, and 40% HF, and magnetic separation. The ratio of Infra-red Stimulated Luminescence (IRSL) to Blue Light Stimulated Luminescence (BLSL) has been checked to be lower than 45% to make sure the quartz is clean. A Risø TL/OSL-DA-20 reader was used for irradiation, heating and luminescence measurements (Table 2 and Figure 8). All dose rates were calculated using a central age model (Galbraith et al., 2012).

The samples analyzed for ¹⁰Be cosmogenic nuclide were pre-processed at the Key Laboratory of Crustal Dynamics, China Earthquake Administration. We crushed the gravels and pebbles, purified the 250-500 µm fraction with acid leaches to obtain pure quartz, then used hydrofluoric acid to dissolve about 30 g of quartz to which a Beryllium-9 carrier solution was added. We isolated beryllium hydroxide (BeOH2) using cation exchange chromatography, which was then heated to 700°C to form beryllium oxide (BeO). Final targets were prepared at the Cosmogenic isotope Laboratory of Institut de Physique du Globe de Strasbourg (CNRS, University of Strasbourg) and processed at the ASTER-AMS facility of Centre Européen de Recherche et d'Enseignement des Géosciences de l'Environnement (Aix-en-Provence,

RESULTS

France) for measurement (Table 3).

Horizontal and vertical cumulative slip determination

Combining the DEM with a resolution of ~0.1 m computed from point clouds acquired by TLS, the RTK-GPS topographic profiles, and the aerial orthophoto mosaic acquired by UAV, we produce a geomorphic map of the Daqing site (Figure 4). Overall, our mapping and leveling are consistent with previous interpretation of the site by Gaudemer et al. (1995). Three main terrace levels are abandoned and preserved on the west bank of the Daqing stream. These are offset both horizontally

and vertically due to oblique fault slip. The trace of the main Haiyuan fault can be clearly followed along the steepest part of the topographic scarp trending N110°E. The fault trace is also marked by roughly aligned large blocks across the active stream bed, as already noted by Gaudemer et al. (1995), which are clearly visible on the aerial photo and in the field (Figure 3).

The terrace levels are well defined and separated by steep risers (Figures 4 and 5; Table 4). The terrace surfaces slope southward 14° to 8° from oldest to youngest, reflecting progressive incision and lower depositional gradient of younger deposits (Figures 4 and 5). The highest terrace level T3 is located to the west of the active riverbed. It is cut and offset by a 15-19 m-high south facing scarp. The intermediate terrace level is subdivided between older and higher standing parts, labeled T2, which are characterized by sparse outcropping boulders, and down to 6 m-deep channels, labeled T2', locally stranded by small terrace remnants designated T2'' (Figures 4 and 5). The lowest terrace level T1 stands a few meters above the active riverbed. At places, gullying and riser-slope instabilities have added some disturbance to the overall simple geomorphological setting. The height and width of the fault scarp is larger on the older terraces than on the younger ones, due to additional accumulated deformation and progressive degradation of the steep fault scarp (Figures 3 and 4) (e.g., Tapponnier et al., 1990; Zinke et al., 2015). In addition, due to relative vertical motion on the fault, terrace-riser height is larger upstream than downstream with no significant average slope change (Figure 5).

Because of lateral stream erosion and local degradation of terrace risers, terrace edges are not linear features, which lends uncertainty to reconstruction of their geometry prior of being offset. Downstream risers T3/T2' and T2/T1 are curved near the fault trace (Figures 3 and 4), which suggests that displacement of the risers started to accumulate before the lower terrace levels were completely abandoned. A number of studies have addressed the interaction between geomorphic processes and tectonic movement to determine whether terrace riser or channel offsets are true tectonic

offsets (e.g., Lensen, 1964; Gaudemer et al., 1989; Van der Woerd et al., 2002; Cowgill, 2007; Mériaux et al., 2012; Reitman et al., 2019). To address the difficulty of offset determination from geomorphic features we thus determined multiple offsets for each riser, using both far- and near-field projections to the fault, and both the top and bottom edges (Figure 9).

We determined displacement values by fitting far-field riser edges (more than 100 m-long and several 10s of m away from fault trace) and near-field riser edges (a few 10s of m-long and near the fault trace) across the fault. Terrace risers reach up to 20 m height and display slopes of 10-40°, so that offsets related to riser top and bottom are also specified, especially offsets of curved risers near fault trace (Figures 4 and 9; Table 4). It is worth pointing out that the far-field displacements of risers (e.g., D3t, D3b, D2t, D2b) are likely related to the abandonment of the adjacent upper terrace, while near-field displacements (e.g., d3t, d3b, d2t, d2b) (Figure 9F) are likely related to the adjacent lower terrace.

For the terrace riser top T3/T2', its upstream nonlinear part may be fit in two ways. Either the piercing line fits tangentially the two lower convexities to the east or the higher concavities to the west (Figure 4A). Downstream, the far-field piercing line is perfectly linear about 60 m away from the fault. Far-field piercing lines of riser base T3/T2' are almost parallel to the top on both side of the fault. Correlating riser top piercing lines yield displacements of 82 ± 3 to 94 ± 3 m (this latter measurement being similar to the 101.5 m of Gaudemer et al., 1995) or, on average, 88 ± 9 m. Piercing lines at base of riser constrain an offset of 72 ± 3 m. The near-field riser T3/T2' is curved both upstream and downstream of the fault. We can match riser top (d3t) and base (d3b) with similar values of 25 ± 2 and 28 ± 2 m (Figure 4, Table 4).

West of T2, the eastern limit of channel T2', or the base of riser T2/T2' is only determined in the near-field. Its offset of 29 ± 2 m is similar and consistent with d3b $(28 \pm 2 \text{ m})$ (Figure 4, Table 4). East of T2, far-field riser top T2/T1 is linear upstream of the fault and about 30 m downstream of the fault. The far-field riser base is almost

parallel to the riser top. The offsets of riser T2/T1 top and base are 35 ± 2 m and 27 ± 2 m, respectively, or on average 31 ± 4 m. The near-field riser T2/T1 is curved, particularly downstream of the fault, and its near-field riser top (d2t) and base (d2b) are similarly offset 6.5 ± 1 m (d2t and d2b, Figure 4, Table 4). A small incision in the middle of terrace T1 is also offset by 6.0 ± 0.5 m (Figures 4 and 10). Near the fault, riser T1/T0 does not preserve lateral slip, even though T1 and T0 have been ruptured in the past as indicated by the vertical offset of T1 and the visible fault trace across T0 (Figures 3C and 4). Away from the fault, the far-field riser T1-T0 seems left-laterally offset by several meters, although lateral erosion from the still active stream cannot be excluded (Figures 4 and 9).

In summary, both sets of terrace risers T3-T2' and T2-T1 show a similar pattern

In summary, both sets of terrace risers T3-T2' and T2-T1 show a similar pattern where far-field riser top offsets are much larger than near-field riser base offsets, 79-97 m versus 23-30 m and 33-37 m versus 5.5-7.5 m (Figure 4A). This observation suggests that far-field riser top offset ages are close to the age of the upper terrace, although it remains a maximum age and that the near-field riser base offset ages are close to the age of the lower terrace. Therefore, 88 ± 9 m can be defined as a lower bound for the horizontal offset of T3. The bounds of the offset of T2 range between 72 ± 3 m and 35 ± 2 , but probably closer to the upper bound because the channel T2' offset is well constrained at $28-29 \pm 2$ m. Finally, the offset of T1 is well constrained at $6-6.5 \pm 1$ m from the similar values of the near-field riser base offset and the incision across T1 (Table 4).

In addition to left-lateral horizontal slip, the Haiyuan fault exhibits a vertical component of slip at this site (Figures 3, 4 and 5). The scarp height measured along the swath profile C1-C1' in the middle of terrace T3 (19 ± 2 m) is larger than the height from the profile C-C' following the terrace edge (15 ± 2 m) (Figures 4 and 5). This discrepancy is due to lateral displacement of the oblique slope terrace T3 relative to the fault trace (e.g., Peltzer et al., 1988; Gaudemer et al., 1995; Rodgers and Little, 2006; Chevalier et al., 2016). Correcting the measured offset of 19 ± 2 m (Vi) by

taking into account the slope of terrace T3 (on average 3.1° to west parallel to N110°E striking fault trace, see profiles D2, E1-3 in Figure 5) and a horizontal offset of 88 m yields a corrected vertical offset of 14 ± 2 m (Vr) similar to the value of $15 \pm$ 2 m from the offset-riser top. Maximum slopes of terrace T2 on both sides of the fault are similar and oriented perpendicular to fault trace, so that no correction is needed for T2 and its vertical throw is 10 ± 1 m Figure 5, Table 4). The terrace level T2' slopes on average perpendicular to the fault trace and its vertical offset ranges from 5.7 ± 1 m (profile B1-B1') to 6.4 ± 1 m (profile B-B'), thus on average 6.0 ± 1.5 m (Figure 5, Table 4). The slopes of T1 are similar upstream and downstream and the height of the fault scarp across T1 is 1.3 ± 0.2 m (Figure 5).

To summarize, the 4 terraces T3, T2, T2' and T1 at the Daqing site have horizontal and vertical offsets of 88 ± 9 m, 33-75 m, 28.5 ± 2 m, 6.0 ± 0.5 m and 15 ± 2 m, 10 ± 1 m, 6.0 ± 1 m, 1.3 ± 0.2 m, respectively (Table 5). These values display a consistent vertical to horizontal ratio that ranges from 0.170 to 0.211 (average 0.191 \pm 0.018; Table 5) testifying of a constant slip vector overall (Figure 11).

Terrace ages

To constrain the age of abandonment of T3, we dug a 3 m-deep pit in the downstream tread of terrace T3 (Figure 3). The upper 1.1 m of the profile exhibit a 30 cm sandy-loessic layer overlain by an 80 cm-thick dark brown silty soil, which partly developed by incorporating wind-blown loess and sand. Below 1.1 m depth, the profile penetrates the conglomeratic terrace deposit consisting of boulders, cobbles, gravels and sand. Two OSL samples from the loess layer yield ages of 12.2 and 8.7 ka in stratigraphic order (Figure 7, Table 2). Two radiocarbon samples from the lower part of the soil yield ages of 7.7 and 7.6 ka, also in stratigraphic order (Figure 7, Table 1). Whether the loessic layer is of aeolian origin or reworked loess in overbank deposits cannot be confirmed. In any case, the 1.1 m-thick top layer of the terrace indicates deposition processes incompatible with the presence of an active stream and

thus it indicates that the underlying conglomerate has been abandoned prior to deposition of these upper layers, i.e., prior to 12.2 ka. To better constrain the age of abandonment of the terrace, we modeled the 10Be concentration with depth for 8 amalgamated samples of gravel and pebbles collected from the conglomeratic terrace deposit (Figure 7, Table 3). To take into account the shielding effect of the loess and soil we propose 3 end-member models (Figure 12A). The first one (model 1) is a maximum-shielding or maximum-age model, for which despite knowledge of the loess and soil ages from other methods (OSL and ¹⁴C), we consider that loess and soil were deposited immediately after the abandonment of the conglomerate forming T3 (Figure 12A). Considering the respective density of 2.0 for sandy-loess and of 1.2 for soil, the best fit of the 10 Be data is obtained with an exposure age of 21.6 ± 4.6 ka (t_{1-1}) (Figure 12D). Clearly, given the age of the lowermost OSL sample of 12.2 ka, this age is not realistic and implies stepwise or progressive emplacement of the sandy-loess and soil layers, which we consider in the following models. A second model (model 2) takes into account the oldest ages of the sandy-loess and soil deposit as the moment when these layers were deposited (Figure 12B). This model has thus 3 exposure phases, a first one corresponding to the abandonment of the conglomerate without shielding (between t₂₋₁ and t₂₋₂); a second one, with 30 cm of sandy-loess shielding starting at 12.2 ka (t₂₋₂); and a third one, with the additional 80 cm of soil shielding starting at 7.7 ka (t_{2-3}). The sandy-loess and soil layers are assumed to have been deposited instantaneously. Model 2 gives a time of exposure of the conglomerate without shielding of 2.7 ka, thus an abandonment age of 14.9 ka (t₂₋₁) (Figure 12E). A third model (model 3), is similar to model 2 but instead of considering an instantaneous deposition of the sandy-loess and soil layers, it considers progressive deposition of the shielding layers: 30 cm of loess deposited between 12.2 ka and 7.6 ka, (6.5 cm/ka) and 80 cm-thick soil deposited between 7.6 ka until today (10.5 cm/ka) (Figure 12C). Model 3 is a minimum shielding model or minimum age model and gives an abandonment age of 13.7 ka (t_{3-1}). The result of the third model is compatible

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with all age data, and we thus suggest an abandonment age for terrace T3 of 13.7 ± 1.5 ka (Figure 12F).

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For terraces T2 and T1, we collected surface exposure samples made of pieces of the top of large, 0.8 to 2 m in diameter, well embedded boulders (Figures 4 and 6, Table 3). As visible on sample field views in Figure 6, the boulders are variable in size, in height above soil surface and also in overall shape ranging from well-rounded to angular. Despite inspection of the boulders it cannot be ascertained that they have not suffered alteration or spallation. We thus sampled a large number of boulders and selected the best-preserved parts at the top of the boulders (Figure 6, Table 3). Seven samples were collected on terrace T2 south of the fault; six samples were collected on terrace T1, three to the north and three to the south of the fault (Figure 4, Table 3). Both ¹⁰Be concentration distributions of the samples collected on T2 and T1 indicate a large scatter in the data, with overlapping values between terraces (Figure 12G). This scatter may be related to unevenly distributed and large inheritance among the boulders and/or variable erosion affecting the protruding large boulders at the surface of the terraces (e.g., Ritz et al., 2006; Ryerson et al., 2006; Le Dortz et al., 2011). Such ¹⁰Be concentration scatter is a common feature of boulders originating from small size high-mountain glacial catchments where accumulation and transport vary with climate changes (e.g., Putkonen and Swanson, 2003; Heimsath and McGlynn, 2008; Heyman et al., 2011). Boulders may have sat at various depths in moraines upstream at high elevation during a large part of the Pleistocene, before being transported episodically, thanks to increased moist periods and during brief flash floods. Unlike large catchments with deep valley fill, most of the conglomerate forming part of fans and terraces at the outlet of the upper valley across the fault zone were probably never buried deep enough to be shielded completely from cosmic rays. The deepest gravels in the T3 depth profile have concentrations representing about 20 to 30% of the surface samples, which represent a significant amount of inherited ¹⁰Be acquired upstream. This amount of inheritance may be indicative of the intermittent

stream dynamics and evidence of sediment accumulation in the catchment. Inheritance may be distributed differently in amalgamated gravels and large boulders, as their mode of transport and residence time in the catchment differ greatly (e.g., Benedetti and Van der Woerd, 2014; Carretier et al., 2015). Assuming that the scatter is due to inheritance, the boulders with minimal inheritance are thus closest to the true surface age (e.g., Le Dortz et al., 2011; Owen et al., 2011; Prush and Oskin, 2020). For terrace T2, sample HGD14-27 has the lowest 10 Be concentration and an exposure age of 11.8 ± 1.1 ka. (Figure 12G, Table 3). Note that this age is younger but close to the age of the upper terrace T3 (13.7 ± 1.5 ka) and may be considered a maximum age. Additional age constraints for T2 may be given by radiocarbon dates of the overlying soil from the study of Liang et al. (2018). The ages obtained in two pits in the top soil of terrace T2 upstream and downstream of the fault indicate that T2 must have been abandoned before 9.3 ± 0.6 ka (Figure 4, Table 1). Thus, the age of terrace T2 may be bracketed between 9.3 ± 0.6 and 11.8 ± 1.1 ka.

For terrace T1, the scatter in 10 Be data of the 6 surface samples is similar as for terrace T2, but the range of concentrations is lower. Making similar assumptions about the origin of the scatter, the sample with the lowest 10 Be concentration should be close to the true age of the terrace. The lowest concentrated sample is HGD14-23 with an exposure age of 1.2 ± 0.1 ka (Figure 12G, Table 3). In the absence of better age constraints, we assume that the age of terrace T1 is close to 1.2 ± 0.1 ka.

Slip rate

Dividing the lower bound of the cumulative displacement of terrace T3, defined by the terrace T3/T2' riser top offset of 88 ± 9 m by the abandonment age of T3 of 13.7 ± 1.5 ka yields a minimum left-lateral slip rate of 6.5 ± 1 mm/yr. The bounds of the offset of terrace T2 of 72 ± 3 m and 35 ± 2 m accumulated after 9.3 ± 0.6 - 11.8 ± 1.1 ka yield a rate of 5.7 ± 2 mm/yr. T2' channel offset of 28.5 ± 2 m remains undated

in the absence of ages for T2'. And taking the age of 1.2 ± 0.1 ka for terrace T1 and its 6.0 ± 0.5 m offset yields a slip rate of 5.0 ± 0.9 mm/yr (Figure 13; Table 5).

The observation of a near constant slip vector at the Daqing site (Figure 11) and using the better determined vertical offset of the terraces (Table 5), we may estimate the age of terrace T2' from its vertical offset of 6.0 ± 1.5 m and the age of T3, yielding 5.4 ± 1.0 ka. Similarly, the age of T1, vertically offset 1.3 ± 0.2 m, may be estimated at about 1.2 ± 0.2 ka, concordant with our assumption that it may be dated with the youngest surface boulder age $(1.2 \pm 0.1 \text{ ka}; \text{Table 3})$. The same relations may be used to further constrain the loosely determined horizontal offset of terrace T2, which is thus likely offset about 51 m, an offset not preserved at the Daqing site, probably due to lateral erosion of the lower terrace.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATION

Diachronous riser formation

Geologic slip rate reflects faulting behavior over the long term. Geologic rates are a basic datum for understanding strain accommodation through a system of faults and also one of the most important indicators for earthquake potential of a fault. Considerable efforts have been devoted to determining the slip rate on active faults in and around the Tibetan Plateau. Although determination of a geologic fault slip rate is simple in principle, it is subject to considerable uncertainty. The difficulty lies in the fact that the duration of offset accumulation is often approximated by a surrogate age. Indeed, terrace risers are commonly used as offset features in slip rate determination of faults in northern Tibet, including the Haiyuan, the Altyn Tagh and the Kunlun faults (e.g., Peltzer et al., 1989; Meyer et al., 1996; Van der Woerd et al., 1998, 2000, 2002; Lasserre et al., 1999; Mériaux et al., 2004, 2005, 2012; Kirby et al., 2007; Cowgill, 2007; Cowgill et al., 2009). These are erosive features, which likely form diachronously, starting to record offset after the abandonment of the upper terrace and sometimes before the abandonment of the lower terrace (e.g., Ryerson et al., 2006;

Harkins and Kirby, 2008; Gold et al., 2009; Mériaux et al., 2012). For a given terrace riser offset, the abandonment age of the upper terrace surface provides the maximum age of slip accumulation, thus the lower bound of the true slip rate. Accordingly, the lower terrace surface age represents the minimum age of slip accumulation and thus the upper bound of the slip rate.

Terrace riser preservation results from the interaction between river erosion and displacement by the fault. In general, a terrace riser on the left bank of a river crossing a left-lateral fault is protected, i.e., continuous left-lateral slip moves the downstream section of the riser away from the stream center and is less frequently refreshed, thus more likely to record offset before the abandonment of the lower terrace (e.g., Cowgill, 2007). On the contrary, left-lateral slip on the fault is moving the downstream part of the right bank riser toward the center and in alignment with the upstream channel. This configuration favors more frequent riser refreshment and obliteration of offset before the abandonment of the lower terrace (e.g., Van der Woerd et al., 1998; Tapponnier et al., 2001a, b). However, our investigation at the Daging site shows incomplete riser refreshment and slip accumulation before the lower terrace is abandoned. Our mapping and offset measurements of the sequentially abandoned terrace surfaces suggest that the right-bank terrace risers, i.e., erosive side, are subject to incomplete riser refreshment and partial preservation of riser offset. Several reasons may explain this situation at the Daqing site. First, the obliquity in slip vector and the accumulation of vertical displacement on the fault induces more incision in the upstream parts of the terraces (Figures 4 and 5), increasing channeling upstream and possibly less erosion downstream. Second, the main river trunk may have reduced its width progressively with time and remained channeled on the eastern side of the terraces, thus favoring preservation of the accumulated offsets.

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Upper and lower bounds of the slip rate

The differences between geological slip rates from previous studies along the Haiyuan fault stem mainly from this uncertainty of using upper terrace surface versus lower terrace surface ages as the surrogate for the true offset age of the terrace riser. On one hand, Lasserre et al. (1999) reported a rate of 12 ± 4 mm/yr on the eastern Maomao Shan section of the Haiyuan fault. They used the lower terrace age, i.e., the minimum age for offset accumulation, thus provided an upper bound for the slip rate. On the other hand, much lower slip rates were reported, such as 3.1-5.8 mm/yr on the Laohu Shan section (Yuan et al., 1998; Liu et al., 2018). These lower rates are based on the upper terrace surface age for slip accumulation, and thus provide a lower bound of the slip rate. As the many slip-rates of the Haiyuan fault shows, studies finding a rate of ≤ 5 mm/yr are mainly based on an upper terrace reconstruction. In only a few cases both the upper and lower terraces were dated (Li et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2013). If the lower terrace reconstruction scenario is considered in these studies, an upper bound in the range of 4.5-22 mm/yr is implied, even though this upper bound is not mentioned. An objective evaluation of these two previous studies shows that their authors sampled the loess cover (either OSL or ¹⁴C dating) of the upper terrace surface, which likely postdates the abandonment of the terrace surface. The implication is that even though the upper terrace constrains the maximum age of offset accumulation, the loess cover age shifts the terrace age towards lower values. Therefore, several slip rates documented in previous studies have in fact larger uncertainties than asserted. Strictly speaking, the true slip rate of the Haiyuan fault should lie between the ranges of upper and lower bounds. It is helpful to resolve the variability to explicitly distinguish the lower and upper bounds when reporting the rate. At the Daqing site in this study, the upper and the lower bounds of the slip rate, constrained by the offset of the T3/T2 terrace riser and the respective upper and lower terrace ages, are similar, 6.5 ± 1 mm/yr and 7.7 ± 0.6 mm/yr. This is because the ages of T3 (13.7 ka) and T2 (9.3-11.8 ka) are relatively close in time.

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The terrace riser T2/T1 offset of 35 m provides a much larger uncertainty and looser constraint on the slip rate (3.3-29.1 mm/yr) (Figure 13). The contrast in slip rates bracketed by T3/T2 and T2/T1 at the same site highlights again that one should not favor the upper or the lower terrace reconstruction scenarios, without additional information. If we use the upper terrace age as the offset age, the offset of T3/T2 riser suggests a slip rate of 6.5 mm/yr (since 13.7 ka), whereas the offset of T2/T1 riser suggests 3.3 mm/yr (since 9.3-11.8 ka), only half as much. This difference at the same site could be interpreted as a temporal change in slip rate, as has been suggested elsewhere for the Haiyuan or other faults (e.g., Weldon et al., 2004; Gold et al., 2011b, 2017a; Liu et al., 2018). In reality, the rates may be simply the lower and upper bounds, rather than the true slip rates. The rate difference may be an indication of the variable initiation time of riser offset record after the abandonment of the upper terrace, thus the uncertainty in slip rate determination, rather than an indication of temporal change in slip behavior. Comparison between short- and long-term slip rates for a number of large strike-slip faults globally suggests that the slip rate does not change significantly through time (Cowgill et al., 2009; Meade et al., 2013; Tong et al, 2014).

Reducing uncertainty in slip rate estimate from terrace riser offsets

Terrace riser offsets may be measured in several ways to reduce uncertainties in slip rate. Although we can adopt both upper and lower terrace models to bracket a conservative slip rate range instead of seeking a true rate (Cowgill, 2007; Cowgill et al., 2009), large differences in the ages of the upper and lower terrace can produce wide range of slip rates (e.g., Mériaux et al., 2012; Gold et al., 2017b). One way of reducing the uncertainty in slip rate is to lower the uncertainty in displacement bounds. In general, one measures offset riser paired tops (e.g., Hubert-Ferrari et al., 2002; Rizza et al, 2011; Gold et al, 2011a) or middle parts (e.g., Mason et al., 2006; Carne et al, 2011) because of poor preservation of riser bases, which are locations of debris

accumulation (Stewart et al., 2018), or use full displacement range from top, middle and base of riser (Gold et al, 2017b). In all cases, dividing such displacements by the ages of the lower terraces yields the high upper bounds of the slip rate.

The offset of the riser base is sometimes smaller than the offset of the riser top, like at our Daqing site and observed elsewhere (e.g., Gold et al. 2017b). In this case, rates determined by correlating the offset riser top and base with the ages of the upper and lower terraces, respectively, are more consistent, implying a vertical diachronicity. As illustrated in Figure 9G, the near-field offset is preserved after abandonment of the lower terrace when the stream has not totally refreshed the riser. The age of the lower terrace is close to or older than the time when the near-field displacement starts to accumulate. The rate between the near-field offset and the age of the lower terrace abandonment may be close to the true slip rate although strictly a lower bound (e.g. Mason et al., 2006; Zinke et al., 2017).

The advantage of multiple paired offset terraces to resolve such issues has long been demonstrated (e.g., Lensen, 1964; Sieh and Jahns, 1984; Weldon, 1986; Gaudemer et al, 1995; Van der Woerd et al., 1998, 2002). Considering a set of independently determined slip-rates at a single site makes it possible to average the variability of river incision or lateral erosion with time. At the Daqing site, the set of 4 terrace levels allow such approach. In our study, due to difficulties in determining the precise age of all the terrace levels, we nevertheless constrained their relative ages using one well-determined terrace age and their respective horizontal and vertical offsets.

Finally, to avoid the ambiguity in correlating terrace surface ages with their upper or lower risers, the offset of the terrace itself may be determined (e.g., Lensen, 1964; Peltzer et al., 1988, 2020). In general, this is possible when the terraces bear particular syndepositional geomorphic markers at their surface (channels, ridges) or if the terraces have specific inherited shapes (fan shapes, slopes) that enables unambiguous geometric reconstructions.

Stable slip vector with time

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The assumption of uniform slip rate over time implies that the average slip vector should be temporally stable. Thus, the ratio of vertical and horizontal offsets should also be constant for all terraces (Figure 11; Table 5). The vertical offset of 15 \pm 2 m and the minimum horizontal offset of 88 ± 9 m on T3 imply a maximum ratio of 0.170 ± 0.029 . The ratios are 0.185 ± 0.068 , 0.211 ± 0.05 and 0.2 ± 0.07 for T2, T2' and T1, respectively. We consider an average ratio of 0.191 ± 0.018 consistent with the range of ratios for the four terraces (Figure 11). This is larger than the ratio of 0.125 ± 0.025 estimated by Gaudemer et al. (1995) at this site, due to a determination of a larger total horizontal displacement of the upper terrace (T3, 145 m) based on the geometrical reconstruction of the terrace from a small number of topographic profiles. Our terrace reconstruction, based on more exhaustive and high-resolution topographic data, suggests a smaller total horizontal offset for terrace T3 and a larger average ratio, consistent with the other terrace offsets (Table 5). When combining the ratio of 0.191 \pm 0.018 and the vertical offset of 10 \pm 1 m of T2, we can estimate the total horizontal displacement of T2 to about 51 ± 10 m, an offset larger than the T2/T1 riser offset (35 \pm 2 m), but smaller than the T3/T2' riser offset (72 \pm 3 m). Although both the age and horizontal offset of T2 are not well determined, the fact that a 51 m offset is not preserved further supports lateral erosion of the T2/T1 riser after abandonment of T2 but prior to abandonment of T1. Following the assumption of a temporally constant slip vector, our summary of measured offsets versus corresponding ages (Figure 13) is compatible with a temporally uniform strike slip rate of 5-8 mm/yr at this site (Table 5). The tightly constrained age of T3 and the far-field offset of the lower riser top (solid rectangle in Figure 13) strongly constrain this rate better than the other less well determined data (dashed rectangles in Figure 13).

Comparison with geodetic rates

It is tempting to favor the lower bound estimates for the Haiyuan fault slip rate, as it is closer to the geodetic rates from GPS data data (4-5 mm/yr; Li et al, 2009) or from InSAR data (4-8 mm/yr; Cavalié et al., 2008; Jolivet et al., 2013; Daout et al., 2016), as for the Altyn Tagh fault (Cowgill, 2007; Zhang et al., 2007; Gold et al., 2009, 2011a). However, higher GPS or InSAR rates of 8.6 mm/yr were also reported on the Haiyuan fault (Gan et al., 2007) and along the central section (Daout et al., 2016). Furthermore, discrepancies between geologic and geodetic slip rate were found on other faults, such as the San Andreas fault (Chuang et al., 2011; Johnson, 2013) and the Lazio–Abruzzo fault zone in Central Italy (Papanikolaou et al., 2005).

These results remind us that the current GPS data is not targeted for optimal determination of fault slip rate, because instrumented sites are still sparse, and thus the strain rate across single faults must be estimated by collapsing measurements within a wide (often 100 km wide) swath. When doing so, the effects of fault geometry changes or fault interactions along strike are not taken into account. Overall, the best determined rate at the Daqing site $(6.5 \pm 1 \text{ mm/yr})$ falls within the range of geodetic rates (4-9 mm/yr) estimated for the Haiyuan fault system.

Earthquake rupture implication

The youngest faulted terrace T1 with its inferred age of 1.1 ± 0.1 ka implies that the age of the most recent rupture at this site is even younger. At Daqing site, if terrace T1 and the stream bed T0 experienced only one rupturing event, as also speculated by Gaudemer et al. (1995), with the scarp across T0 being almost completely eroded, the offset of $\sim 6 \pm 0.5$ m of the abandoned stream channel present on T1 and also the smallest lateral offset measured at the Daqing site may be considered as representative of the coseismic lateral slip of the last event. Combining the long-term slip rate of 5-8 mm/yr and this coseismic offset, the recurrence interval for such event would be 1100 ± 300 a.

Previous paleoseismological work along fault segments adjacent to Jinqiang He segment concluded to similar values for large earthquake recurrence. For the Lenglong Ling section west of our site, mean Holocene recurrence intervals of 1430 ± 140 years (Jiang et al., 2017) and 1640 ± 570 years (Guo et al., 2019) are derived from trench investigations. To the east of our site, paleoseismological investigations showed that the Laohu Shan section seemingly ruptures every ~ 1000 years (Yuan et al., 1997; Liu-Zeng et al., 2007). However, only one event (after 3500 ± 200 years B.P.) was identified in a trench along the Jinqiang He section (Yuan et al., 1997). While more paleoseismological investigations are necessary to identify and date precisely the last large rupturing events along the Jinqiang He section of the Haiyuan fault, existing data and our inference from terrace T1 at Daqing site, concur to the occurrence of a large event in the last 1000 years and possible return times of 1000-2000 years for large earthquakes.

The Jinqiang He section is about 55 km long. If this section ruptures entirely the magnitude could reach up to Mw 7.1, or if a maximum coseismic displacement of 6 m is considered, the magnitude could reach up to Mw 7.4 according to empirical relationship between surface rupture length, maximum displacement and magnitude (Wells and Coppersmith, 1994). If the rupture breaches the 6 km wide Tianzhu stepover and propagates to the western part of the Maomao Shan section, the rupture length could reach 120 km and the maximum magnitude Mw 7.5 (Wells and Coppersmith, 1994). Although breaching such stepovers may be difficult (e.g., Wesnousky, 2006; Yıkılmaz et al., 2015), cascading stepping ruptures are not unusual (e.g., Tocheport et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2008; Hamling et al., 2017; Fletcher et al., 2014). Thus, the Jinqiang He and adjacent sections could be ripe for rupture in a future great earthquake. Precise seismic risk assessment demands further detailed paleoseismological investigations be carried out to define the rupture history along the central Haiyuan fault.

CONCLUSION

High resolution topography data derived from terrestrial LiDAR and
Structure-from-Motion photogrammetry enable us to investigate in great detail of the
offset features at the Daqing site along the Jinqiang He section of the Haiyuan fault.
Terraces T1, T2', T2 and T3 were carefully mapped from field observations,
orthophotos, and topographic data to produce a detailed geomorphic map of the site.
Far- and near-field, top and base, of the various riser offsets have been measured as
well as the vertical offset of the terraces. Horizontal offsets range from 6 to 97 m,
vertical offsets range from 1 to 17 m. The smallest horizontal offset of 6.0 ± 0.5 m
may be associated with the most recent coseismic slip. Terrestrial cosmogenic
nuclides dating combined with ¹⁴ C and OSL dating were used to constrain the age of
the highest terrace T3 at 13.7 ± 1.5 ka. Together with the total offset of terrace riser
T3/T2 of 88 ± 9 m, it yields a left-lateral slip rate of 6.5 ± 1 mm/yr. The offset of 72 ± 1
5 m of the riser T3/T2 base, using the minimum age of the lower terrace (9.3 \pm 0.6 ka)
yields a rate of 7.7 ± 0.6 mm/yr. Overall these bounds bracket a geologic slip rate of
5-8 mm/yr for the Haiyuan fault that is consistent with the bounds estimated from
geodetic data. Overall, compared to pre-existing geological rates, our rate falls in
between the lower and higher estimates. At the Daqing site, the ratio of vertical and
horizontal offsets of all terraces (about 1:5.2) is consistent with a uniform slip vector
over time. The Daqing site provides an example that the right-bank terrace risers on a
left-lateral fault, i.e., erosive side, are subject to incomplete riser refreshment and
partial preservation of riser offsets.

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Figures caption:

Figure 1. (A) Active faults map of northeastern Tibetan plateau. Seismicity from 780 BC to 2006 AD. Historical earthquakes from Division of Earthquake Monitoring and Prediction, State Seismologic Bureau (1995), instrumental seismicity from China Earthquake Networks Center (http://www.cenc.ac.cn/). White star indicates study site, dashed box is figure 1B. Haiyuan fault is subdivided into six sections separated by black arrows, from west to east: (1) Halahu, (2) Lenglong Ling, (3) Jinqiang He, (4) Maomao Shan, (5) Jingtai, (6) Haiyuan, and (7) Liupan Shan. Inset is location map showing tectonic framework of the Tibetan plateau.plateau (B) Active faults along Jinqiang He section that extends from Lenglong Ling-Gulang-Jinqiang (LGH) fault triple junction to the west, to Tianzhu pull-apart basin (TB) to the east, left-stepping to Maomao Shan section. Upper Jinqiang He valley is fed mostly by north-south tributaries flowing down from Leigong Shan to the north and crossing the Haiyuan fault at high angle. LLL: Lenglong Ling.

Figure 2. GF-1 satellite imagery (pixel ~2 m) of Jinqiang He section of Haiyuan fault near Daqing site (white rectangle) upstream from Honggeda village. Light shading delimits Tianzhu half pull-apart basin.

Figure 3. (A) Uncrewed aerial vehicle (UAV) derived photo mosaic with ~0.2 m resolution of Daqing site. Fault trace is clear across stream bed T0 and terraces T1 to T3 to the west. Red arrows point to fault trace. (B) West-looking panoramic field view of faulted terraces at Daqing site. (C) Oblique close-up view showing fault trace across T0, T1 and T2.

Figure 4. (A) Geomorphic map of Daqing site from field observations, UAV photo mosaic interpretation, and high-resolution DEM analysis. Contours with 1 m interval derived from ~0.1 m resolution terrestrial LiDAR DEM. Dashed lines are topographic profiles shown in Figure 5. Pit and sample position for dating are indicated. Purple lines are terrace riser piercing lines for horizontal offset measurements. (B) Hill shading and (C) slope map of DEM highlighting terrace surface morphology, distinct terrace risers and fault scarp.

Figure 5. Topographic profiles across and along terraces at Daqing site. Locations shown in Figure 4. Gray dots are measurement points, solid black lines along slopes are fitting lines. AA', BB' and CC' are field GPS-RTK profiles, others are swath profiles extracted from LiDAR-DEM. Dashed line in swath profiles represents mean elevation value. Small sketch illustrates correction applied to apparent vertical offset of T3 due to oblique orientation of its sloping surface. Vr, corrected vertical offset, is function of Vi vertical throw measurement from perpendicular fault profile C1-C1', h

is horizontal offset of terrace, α is angle of terrace slope parallel to fault (in profiles E1, E2, E3) (see also Gaudemer et al., 1995).

Figure 6. Field photographs of surface boulders sampled for cosmogenic dating from terraces T2 (A) and T1 (B). See position in Figure 4 and analytical details in Table 3.

Figure 7. (A) Field view of samplings pit in terrace T3 (position in Figure 4). (B) Stratigraphic description of pit. Eight gravels and pebbles samples were collected from below 80 cm to 3 m depth for cosmogenic isotope dating (details in Table 3). Open circles are sandy loess samples collected for OSL dating (Table 2), solid triangles are bulk soil samples for ¹⁴C dating (Table 1).

Figure 8. Equivalent dose (De) distributions, natural OSL decay curve and growth curves for samples HGDOSL-1501 (A and B) and HGDOSL-1502 (C and D), respectively.

Figure 9. Offset terrace reconstructions. (A)-(E) diagrams of different stages during river downcutting, lateral erosion and displacement accumulation. Simplified risers are vertical. (F) sketch of offset terraces at Daqing site. All measurement results are shown in Table 4. (G) shows how near-field (d3t, d3b, d2t and d2b) and far-field displacements are related.

Figure 10. Field details of smalls stream offset on terrace T1. Red arrows indicate top of fault scarp across T1.

Figure 11. Ratio of vertical to horizontal offsets. Average ratio is 0.191+/-0.018 by T3, T2, T2' and T1.

Figure 12. Exposure age constraints at Daqing site. (A), (B) and (C) are proposed stepwise evolution of deposit for terrace T3 ¹⁰Be depth profile modeling in (D), (E) and (F). t₁₋₁, t₂₋₁and t₃₋₁ are corresponding terrace abandonment ages for models 1, 2 and 3; R-squared is statistical assessment of ¹⁰Be data with respect to best fit, without outliers (black circles). Integrated density (blue line) and average inheritance indicated. (A and D) model 1: assumes all layers deposited in one step (I). (B and E) model 2: exposure in three steps: (I) terrace conglomerate only (t₂₋₁ - t₂₋₂), (II) with 30 cm-thick sandy-loess (t₂₋₂ - t₂₋₃), and (III) with 80 cm-thick soil (t₂₋₃ - 0). All layers are deposited instantaneously. (C and F) model 3: same as model 2 but layers are deposited progressively, as constrained by OSL and ¹⁴C dates. (G) ¹⁰Be concentrations of surface samples from terraces T1 (n=6) and T2 (n=7)) represented as Gaussian distributions. Scatter of distributions mostly attributed to inheritance (see

text). Samples in bold (HGD14-23 and HGD14-27) are samples with lowest $^{10}{\rm Be}$ concentration in each distribution.

Figure 13. Summary of terrace offsets at Daqing He site as a function of age. Solid rectangle is best determined rate from terrace T3. Dashed rectangles are less well determined. Gray shaded area is preferred range of the slip rate.

TABLE 1. Radiocarbon analytical results of samples from terraces T3 and T2.

		Depth	Fraction		$D^{14}C$		¹⁴ C Age		2σ calibrated age
Sample	Lab ^a	(m)	Modern	±	(‰)	±	(B.P.)	±	(B.P.) ^b
HGD-C14-01	414950	0.77	0.4236	0.0016	-576.4	1.6	6900	30	Cal 7790 - 7675
HGD-C14-02	414951	0.62	0.4414	0.0016	-558.6	1.6	6570	30	Cal 7555 - 7545
L-01 ^c		0.89					8630	90	Cal 9900 - 9474
L-02 ^c		0.82					8180	140	Cal 9475 - 8715

a: All samples were AMS dated at Beta Analytic;

TABLE 2. Analytical results of OSL samples from terrace T3.

Sample No	Lab.	Depth (m)	Water content ^b (%)	U (ppm)	Th (ppm)	K (%)	Cosmic dose rate (Gy/ka)	Grain size (µm)	Dose rate ^c (Gy/ka)	Equivalent dose ^d (Gy)	Age ^e (ka)
HGDOSL-1502	2 15-64	0.82	2.6	2.71 ± 0.1	14.4±0.39	2.18±0.06	0.32 ± 0.02	90-125	4.06 ± 0.15	35.3 ± 1.3	8.7 ± 0.5
HGDOSL-1501	15-63	1.04	8.04	$2.45{\pm}0.1$	12.8±0.36	2.12±0.06	0.31 ± 0.02	90-125	3.61 ± 0.13	44.2 ± 0.8	12.2 ± 0.5

a: All samples were processed at Zhejiang Zhongke Institute of Luminescence Testing Technology;

b: Calibration with Calib 7.1 (Stuiver et al., 1993), did not include probability distribution of range < 0.1;

c: L-01, L-02 are from Liang et al. (2018), Fraction Modern and D¹⁴C information not known.

b: Measured water content;

c: Concentrations of U, Th and K were measured by neutron activation analysis at the China institute of atomic energy;

d: All equivalent dose values conform to normal distribution;

e: Calculated with the central age model (Galbraith et al., 2012).

TABLE 3. ¹⁰Be analytical data at Daqing site

Samples	Mass	Be	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude	Depth	Thickness	Sample	Height above	10Be/9Be	10Be/9Be	$10Be \pm error$	Exposure age ±
	quartz	carrier							surface/size		error		uncertainty
	(g)	(mg)	(N)	(E)	(m)	(cm)	(cm)	type	(m)		(%)	(atom/g)	(yr)
Terrace T1													
HGD14-08	30.107	0.2461	37.259544	102.696663	3441	0	2.5	boulder/granite	1.2/2	1.11247E-12	3.1680	608254 ± 19269	13344 ± 1205
HGD14-09	26.9599	0.2699	37.259254	102.696609	3432	0	2.5	boulder/granite	0.5/1.3	5.23986E-13	3.0904	350879 ± 10843	7705 ± 693
HGD14-10	25.7075	0.241	37.259041	102.696503	3426	0	2.5	boulder/gneiss	1/1.5	7.61713E-13	3.1744	477641 ± 15162	10529 ± 951
HGD14-16	30.0079	0.2458	37.256313	102.695001	3369	0	2.5	boulder/granite	1.6/3.5	3.02524E-13	3.1761	165752 ± 5264	3956 ± 357
HGD14-22	29.8354	0.25	37.256969	102.695702	3389	0	2.5	boulder/granite	0.1/0.8	6.77539E-13	3.1746	379748 ± 12055	8594 ± 776
HGD14-23	29.972	0.2517	37.257381	102.695984	3393	0	2.5	boulder/granite	0.2/1.2	8.62754E-14	3.5217	48462 ± 1706	1165 ± 106
Terrace T2													
HGD14-18	30.0132	0.2901	37.255253	102.694336	3351	0	2.5	boulder/granite	0.2/0.8	1.11507E-12	3.0821	720924 ± 22219	16489 ± 1486
HGD14-19	24.5073	0.2253	33.255444	102.69445	3354	0	2.5	boulder/granite	0.2/1.1	1.41835E-12	3.4983	872173 ± 30511	21606 ± 1982
HGD14-20	30.0075	0.2495	2 m south	of sample 19		0	2.5	boulder/granite	0.2/1.1	2.79689E-12	1.9939	1555499 ± 31016	36437 ± 3185
HGD14-25	30.0081	0.2555	37.256226	102.694389	3371	0	2.5	boulder/granite	0.2/1	1.37277E-12	3.0506	781814 ± 23850	17590 ± 1584
HGD14-26	25.0845	0.2432	37.257112	102.69458	3388	0	2.5	boulder/granite	0.1/1.3	1.23744E-12	3.0546	802483 ± 24512	17877 ± 1610
HGD14-27	30.0488	0.2546	37.257439	102.694618	3391	0	2.5	boulder/granite	0.5/1.5	9.21578E-13	3.1078	522297 ± 16232	11788 ± 1062
HGD14-28	30.0016	0.253	37.257252	102.69455	3393	0	2.5	boulder/gneiss	1/1.5	1.12670E-12	3.1186	635531 ± 19820	14360 ± 1295
Terrace T3 de	epth profile												
HGDT3-01	31.4296	0.2592	37.257061	102.693886	3389	85	5	gravels	0.02-0.05	1.30104E-12	2.4296	717695 ± 17436	See model
HGDT3-02	29.9764	0.2484	37.257061	102.693886	3389	100	5	gravels	0.02-0.05	2.05011E-12	2.6603	1136327 ± 30229	/
HGDT3-03	25.1784	0.2563	37.257061	102.693886	3389	115	5	gravels	0.02-0.05	8.73919E-13	3.1803	595039 ± 18923	/

HGDT3-04	32.0859	0.2514	37.257061	102.693886	3389	145	5	gravels	0.02-0.05	7.71630E-13	3.2954	404402 ± 13326	/
HGDT3-05	30.1135	0.2566	37.257061	102.693886	3389	175	5	gravels	0.02-0.05	5.80584E-13	3.0688	330913 ± 10154	/
HGDT3-06	29.3054	0.254	37.257061	102.693886	3389	205	5	gravels	0.02-0.05	6.24376E-13	3.0946	361981 ± 11201	/
HGDT3-07	30.0178	0.2501	37.257061	102.693886	3389	245	5	gravels	0.02-0.05	6.97878E-13	3.5702	388926 ± 13885	/
HGDT3-08	30.041	0.2549	37.257061	102.693886	3389	285	5	gravels	0.02-0.05	4.62999E-13	3.2264	262778 ± 8478	/

Note: All samples were processed at Key Laboratory of Crustal Dynamics, China Earthquake Administration and AMS measurements performed at ASTER in Centre de Recherche et d'Enseignement de Géosciences de l'Environnement (CEREGE), Aix-en-Provences, France. Surface boulder model ages for terraces T3 and T2 calculated with the CRONUS 2.3 calculator (Balco et al., 2008; http://hess.ess.washington.edu/), with Time-dependent Lal (1991) / Stone (2000) scaling scheme for spallation, with density of 2.7 and assuming no erosion and no inheritance.

TABLE 4. Terrace geometry, vertical terrace offsets and horizontal terrace riser offsets

			Value	Error	
	Marker	Parameter	(m)	(m)	Note
	T1 upstream	W1u	61	4	
Tread widths	T1 downstream	W11	34	2	
	T2' upstream		42	2	
	T2' downstream west		9	2	
	T2' downstream east		22	2	
	T2 tread	W2u	135	5	
	T2 tread	W21	89	3	
	T1 T0	R1u	6	1	upstream
	T1-T0	R1d	2.5	0.5	downstream
	T2: T1		10-11	1	upstream
	T2'-T1		5-6	1	downstream
	T2"-T2'		2	1	upstream
	TO TO		6	1	upstream
Diggs baiaba	T2-T2'		1.5-2.5	0.5	downstream
Riser heights	T2 T1	R2u	16-17	1	
	T2-T1	R2d	7.5	1	downstream
			16 21	1	upstream
	T3-T2'		16-21		downstream
			3.1-4.2	0.5	
	T3-T2	R3u	10-15	1	upstream
	13-12	R3d	1.4-1.7	0.3	downstream
	T1 A-A'	Sc1	1.3	0.2	slop 10°/9.5°
	T1 A1-A1'	501	1.3	0.2	slop 9°/9°
	T2' B1-B1'		5.7	1	slop 8.9°/8.5°
Vertical	T2' B-B'		6.4	1	slop $10.5^{\circ}/10.5^{\circ}$
terrace offsets	T2 B1-B1'	Sc2	9	1	slop 9.9°/7.5°
	T2 B-B'		10	1	slop 10.5°/9.5°
	T3 C1-C1'	Sc3	19	2	slop 11.7°/7.5°
	T3 C-C'		15	2	slop 13.7°/9.5°
	Stream	Ds	6.0	0.5	
		D2t	35	2	
	T2/T1	D2b	27	2	
	1 2/ 1 1	d2t	6.5	1	
Horizontal		d2b	6.5	1	
riser offsets		D3t	94	3	
115CI UIISCIS			82	3	
	T3/T2	D3b	72	3	
		d3t	25	2	
		d3b	28	2	

TABLE 5. Summary of slip rates at Daqing site

	T1	T2'	T2	Т3	Average
Horizontal offset (m)	6.5 ± 1	28.5 ± 2	35 ± 2-72 ± 3/(54 ± 19)	>88 ± 9	
Vertical offset (m)	1.3 ± 0.2	6 ± 1.5	10 ± 1	15 ± 2	
Ratio (Vertical/ Horizontal)	0.2 ± 0.07	0.211 ± 0.05	0.185 ± 0.068	<0.170 ± 0.029	0.191 ± 0.018
Age (ka)	<1.2 ± 0.1	5.4 ± 1	9.3±0.6-11.8 ± 1.1	13.7 ± 1.5	
	(bound)	(estimated)	(bounds)		
Horizontal slip rate (mm/yr)	>5 ± 0.9	5.5 ± 1.4	5.7 ± 2	> 6.5 ± 1	5-8
Vertical slip rate (mm/yr)	>1.1 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.5	1 ± 0.3	1.1 ± 0.3	1.1 ± 0.3

































