

Chronology of alluvial terrace sediment accumulation and incision in the Pativilca Valley, western Peruvian Andes

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ABSTRACT

The incision and aggradation of the Pativilca alluvial fan delta system in the western Peruvian Andes through Quaternary time can be traced in detail using well-exposed fill terraces studied by a combination of cosmogenic nuclide dating, terrace mapping and paleo-erosion rate calculations. Two alluvial terraces have been dated through depth-profile exposure dating using in-situ ¹⁰Be. The dating results return an age for the abandonment of the terrace at 200 ± 90 ka in Pativilca and $1.2 \text{ Ma} \pm 0.3 \text{ Ma}$ in Barranca. These new ages complete the database of previously dated terrace fills in the valley. Together with the results of the terrace mapping and the absolute ages of the terraces, we show that the valley fills are made up of at least four terraces; two terraces near the city of Pativilca and two terraces in the city of Barranca. While previous studies have shown two periods of sediment aggradation, one period around 100 ka (Barranca) and another period around 30 ka (Pativilca), our new results show two additional periods of sediment aggradation and subsequent incision that have not been reported before. Finally, paleo-erosion rates at the time of the deposition of the terrace material were calculated and compared to the available modern estimates. The paleo-erosion rates vary from 140 ± 12 m/Ma to 390 ± 40 m/Ma. The period of sediment accumulation prior to the abandonment of the terrace at 200 ka corresponds to a wet phase and a pulse of erosion. In contrast, the period of sediment accumulation prior to the abandonment of the terrace at 1.2 Ma does not

26 correspond to a pulse of erosion and could rather correspond to a change of the base level possibly
27 induced by a sea-level rise.

28 **Keywords:** ^{10}Be depth-profile dating; alluvial terraces; Pativilca Valley; Western Peruvian Andes

29 1. Introduction

30 Fluvial sediments originating from mountain belts like the Andes yield important archives of
31 past environmental or tectonic changes. The sediments can record changes in precipitation rates and
32 climate (Litty et al., 2016; d'Arcy et al., 2017). They can also record the response to earthquake-
33 induced landslides (McPhillips et al., 2014). The reconstruction of the timing of alluvial sediment
34 deposition thus bears important information when the scope lies in the detection of specific climate or
35 tectonic events as driving forces of landscape evolution. In this context, depth-profile dating based on
36 in-situ produced ^{10}Be measured in quartz has been proven a reliable method to establish a chronology
37 of sediment deposition (e.g., Bookhagen et al., 2006; Hidy et al., 2010). In particular, this
38 methodology yields an age when sediment aggradation stopped and when a period of sediment
39 accumulation was superseded by a phase of erosion and incision into the previously deposited
40 material. ^{10}Be is the most commonly measured in situ-produced cosmogenic nuclide (Granger et al.,
41 2013). Its dominance in geological applications stems from several factors, including the abundance
42 of the target mineral, quartz, a standardized chemistry procedure (Kohl and Nishiizumi, 1992), a
43 relatively simple production depth profile, and routinely good precision by accelerator mass
44 spectrometry (AMS) (Granger, 2006). Additionally, isochron burial dating using ^{10}Be and ^{26}Al is
45 becoming increasingly important in studies related to river terraces (e.g., Darling et al., 2012; Erlanger
46 et al., 2012; Akçar et al., 2017). Isochron-burial dating yields in an age when the investigated material
47 accumulated. It is thus a variation of traditional burial dating methods. Ages, or alternatively the
48 burial times of sediment, are determined using the difference between the cosmogenic $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$
49 surface production ratio at the time of burial and the $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$ ratio measured in buried sediments
50 (Granger, 2006). Sediments of alluvial terrace deposits with flat tops are ideal for surface exposure
51 dating and isochron burial dating: they are persistent, easily identifiable as surfaces that were formed
52 at a specific time and that have been isolated from the fluvial system since deposition. Because they

53 are typically coarse-grained, well drained, and nearly flat, they can be remarkably well preserved and
54 unaffected by erosion, especially in arid environments like in the western side of the Peruvian Andes
55 (Litty et al., 2017a; Reber et al., 2017).

56 Alluvial terrace sequences are common features along the coastal margin between Peru and
57 northern Chile. They are located particularly in lower valley reaches near to the Pacific coast (Steffen
58 et al., 2009, 2010; Trauerstein et al., 2014; Litty et al., 2017a). Climate change has been considered to
59 have controlled pulses of erosion on the western Andean margin through the increase in mean surface
60 runoff resulting either in sediment accumulation along stream segments close to the Pacific coast
61 (Bekaddour et al., 2014; Norton et al., 2016), or in surface erosion in upstream segments of major
62 rivers (Veit et al., 2016). These climate-driven changes have been interpreted as being the main
63 driving force controlling the sediment accumulation and the formation of cut-and-fill terraces on the
64 western Andean margin (Norton et al., 2016). In the Pativilca Valley, situated on the western margin
65 of the Peruvian Andes at about 10°S (Fig. 1A), a terrace sequence has been previously dated through
66 infrared stimulated luminescence (IRSL) techniques (Trauerstein et al., 2014). The results have
67 disclosed the occurrence of at least two periods of sediment aggradation, one period spanning from 10
68 ka to 90 ka with an age of the samples cluster around 30 ka and another period spanning the time
69 interval between 80 ka and 130 ka with an age estimate of the samples cluster around 110 ka
70 (Trauerstein et al., 2014). While generally wetter climate results in fluvial incision, the results from
71 Trauerstein et al. (2014) suggested that here wetter climate conditions do correlate with periods of
72 fluvial aggradation.

73 The aim of this study is to date additional terrace deposits using in-situ terrestrial cosmogenic
74 nuclides to complete the chronological framework and to infer the history of sediment aggradation
75 and incision in this alluvial fan delta system. In addition concentrations of in-situ ¹⁰Be recorded by
76 detrital quartz minerals in the terrace deposits will be used to infer the paleo-erosion rates recorded at
77 the time when sediment accumulation occurred. These rates will be compared to the modern ones
78 (Reber et al., 2017) to quantify the erosion in the upstream drainage basin during the phases of
79 aggradation within the downstream valley. The final aim is to understand the factors controlling
80 fluvial aggradation and incision in fan delta environments in the western Andes.

81

82 **2. Regional settings**

83 The Pativilca Valley is located in central Peru, about 200 km to the northwest of Lima. The
84 Rio Pativilca, which is trunk stream of the region, debouches into the Pacific at 10.7°S and 77.8°W
85 (Fig. 1A). The drainage basin has an area of about 4400 km², and the longest flow path measures
86 approximately 200 km. The upper section of the stream is characterized by a bedrock channel with a
87 steep gradient (knickzone), whereas in the lower segment the narrow valley floor is covered by
88 alluvial deposits that are thickening and widening towards the coast, giving way to an alluvial fan
89 delta. The sedimentological architecture of the deposits is characterized by amalgamated stacks of 20
90 to 50 m-thick units of poorly sorted, clast-supported conglomerates with a coarse-grained sandy
91 matrix (Fig. 1B). The clasts are subrounded and sometimes imbricated, but the sedimentary fabrics are
92 predominantly massive (Fig. 1B). The alluvial conglomerates are part of an alluvial fan delta system
93 characterized by a suite of individual fill terraces with different altitudes of the tread (Fig. 1B).

94 The precipitation pattern of South America is strongly influenced by the low level Andean jet
95 and the position of the Inter Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), which experiences seasonal shifts in
96 response to insolation differences between austral summer and winter. The Andean jet transfers
97 humidity from the Pacific Ocean and the Amazon basin to the eastern margin of the Andes, and also
98 to the Altiplano and the western Andean margin (Garreaud, 2009). The Andean mountain range thus
99 acts as a major topographic barrier to the atmospheric circulation. As a result of this circulation
100 pattern, the Peruvian western margin shows an E-W contrasting precipitation pattern with high annual
101 precipitation rates up to 800 mm on the Altiplano and ~0 mm along the coast. From north to south, the
102 annual rainfall rates on the Altiplano decrease from 1000 mm near the Equator to <200 mm in
103 northern Chile. Every 2-10 yr, near the Equator, the Pacific coast is subjected to stronger precipitation
104 than the mean precipitation rates, resulting in high flood magnitude variability related to the El Nino
105 Southern Oscillation (ENSO) weather phenomenon (DeVries, 1987). Today, this phenomenon is
106 limited to the coastal area of northern Peru, but during the past, southern Peru might also have been
107 affected by such events (Lagos et al., 2008).

108 On orbital time scales, the position of the ITCZ has shifted in response to larger insolation
109 and heat contrasts between the Northern and Southern Hemispheres, which has been related to the
110 effects of shifts in the Earth's precession (Strecker et al., 2007). The results are stronger upper air
111 easterlies and more precipitation on the Altiplano (Garreaud et al., 2003). Variations in precipitation
112 rates and patterns led to remarkable lake level variations on the Altiplano as recorded by lake level
113 highstands on the plateau (Ouki, Minchin and Tauca pluvial periods, e.g., Fritz et al., 2004). These
114 climate changes have also controlled pulses of erosion and deposition on the western Andean margin
115 (Bekaddour et al., 2014; Veit et al., 2016). Related variations in erosional fluxes have been interpreted
116 as being the main factor controlling the formation of cut-and-fill terrace systems along the western
117 margin of the Peruvian Andes (Norton et al., 2016).

118

119 **3. Methods**

120 *3.1. Cosmogenic nuclides*

121 Over the past 25 yr, cosmogenic nuclides have become an essential tool in Quaternary
122 geochronology (e.g., Gosse and Phillips, 2001; Granger, 2006). Cosmogenic nuclides are produced
123 through spallation reactions and muon capture in minerals of rocks and sediment at or near the Earth's
124 surface (Gosse and Philips, 2001). Cosmogenic ^{10}Be and ^{26}Al can be applied to determine a post-
125 depositional age of a geological layer using their accumulation (depth-profile dating). Alternatively,
126 they can also be used to determine the timing of sediment accumulation through their radioactive
127 decay (burial dating) history (e.g., Anderson et al., 1996; Repka et al., 1997; Granger and Smith,
128 2000; Granger and Muzikar, 2001; Wolkowinsky and Granger, 2004; Balco and Rovey, 2008; Akçar
129 et al., 2017).

130 Depth-profile dating is based on the exponential decrease of cosmogenic nuclides with depth
131 (Gosse and Philips, 2001). On the other hand, the burial dating technique uses the difference in half-
132 lives of ^{10}Be (1.387 Ma; Korschinek et al., 2010; Chmeleff et al., 2010) and ^{26}Al (0.705 Ma; Norris et
133 al., 1983) and thus the ^{26}Al versus ^{10}Be ratio to determine the burial time, when the pre-burial and
134 post-burial concentrations are known or estimated (e.g., Granger and Muzikar, 2001; Akçar et al.,

135 2017). We followed the Erlanger et al. (2012) isochron approach where one of the advantages is the
136 assumption that post-burial production is identical across a single stratigraphic horizon.

137 The collected samples (see section 3.3 for description of sample sites and sampling strategy)
138 were processed in the Surface Exposure Laboratory of the Institute of Geological Sciences at the
139 University of Bern following the lab protocol described in Akçar et al. (2012). The $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$ and
140 $^{26}\text{Al}/^{27}\text{Al}$ AMS measurements were then performed at the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology
141 tandem facility in Zurich (Christl et al., 2013). The long-term weighted average $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$ ratio of $(2.41$
142 $\pm 0.53) \times 10^{-15}$ was used for full process blank correction. Table 1 presents the samples information
143 and cosmogenic nuclide results.

144 Depth-profile ages were modelled with MATLAB® using Monte Carlo simulations
145 developed by Hidy et al. (2010). Depth-profile patterns were simulated based on exposure age,
146 erosion rate and inheritance. Table 2 shows the input parameters for the Barranca and Pativilca depth-
147 profile simulations. We applied no correction factor for topographic shielding. We justify this
148 approach because there is no significant topography around the sampling sites that could block a
149 portion of incoming cosmic radiations (Dunne et al., 1999; Gosse and Phillips, 2001), as the sampling
150 sites are located on the widest and flattest part of the valley close to the coast. We did not consider
151 snow cover to have a major impact on the results as the mean basin elevation of the sampled
152 catchment is largely situated below the snow line. The ^{10}Be half-life with a value of 1.387 ± 0.012 Ma
153 was utilized (Chmeleff et al., 2010; Korschinek et al., 2010). The local production rate was scaled to
154 the Lal (1991) and Stone (2000) scheme using a production rate caused by spallation (SLHL: at sea-
155 level, high latitude) of 4.01 ± 0.12 atoms $\text{g}_{\text{SiO}_2}^{-1}$ (CRONUS calculator update from v. 2.2 to v. 2.3
156 published by Balco in August 2016 after Balco et al., 2008; Borchers et al., 2016). Thus a site-specific
157 spallogenic production rate of 2.5 ± 0.5 atoms $\text{g}^{-1} \text{a}^{-1}$ was obtained for Barranca and for Pativilca. We
158 applied a bulk density ranging between 1.6 and 2.1 g cm^{-3} for the sediment samples in Barranca and
159 Pativilca. Finally, to model a depth-profile age we simulated 100,000 profiles and used a χ^2 cut-off
160 value of ≤ 20 for Barranca and ≤ 3 for Pativilca (Table 2).

161

162 *3.2. Paleo erosion rates*

163 Paleo basin-averaged erosion rates can be calculated using the cosmogenic nuclide
164 concentrations of past sediment samples following Granger et al. (1996) and von Blanckenburg
165 (2005). To calculate the basin averaged paleo-erosion rate, we used the ^{10}Be cosmogenic nuclide
166 concentrations of the sand embedded in the terrace deposits after corrections have been made for
167 shielding, post-depositional nuclide production at sample depth z , and atom loss due to radioactive
168 decay during time t (both considered in Eq. (1); Balco et al., 2008). These equations can be used
169 assuming: (i) The material was well mixed in the upstream basin and finally embedded in the terrace
170 fill. This appears to be the case in the western Peruvian valleys where the fluvial processes have
171 dominated the transport of sediment (Litty et al., 2017b), thus providing well-mixed material. (ii) The
172 paleo-erosion is representative for the entire catchment. Indeed, the sediments of the Pleistocene
173 terrace fills in western Peru record an origin from both the upper flat part of the catchments and the
174 lower steep reaches (Litty et al., 2017a). (iii) The residence of the material on the hillslopes and the
175 channels is much shorter than the erosional timescale. This is the case in the western Peruvian valleys
176 where regolith was considered to have been rapidly stripped from hillslopes, which most likely
177 resulted in the supply of large volumes of sediment to the trunk streams during the periods of
178 sediment aggradation (Norton et al., 2016). (iv) The individual terraces have not experienced multiple
179 phases of erosion and re-deposition, so that major internal unconformities are not present (von
180 Blanckenburg, 2005). This appears to be the case in the Pativilca Valley as no unconformities in the
181 individual terrace fills have been observed in the field.

182

183 3.3. *Sampling sites*

184 Two previously undated alluvial terrace fills were sampled for depth-profile exposure dating.
185 These terraces are located along the lowermost reach of the Pativilca River and in the city of Barranca
186 (Fig. 1; Table 1). At each sampling site, six samples were collected along a vertical profile from 0.9 to
187 4.7 m beneath the tread of the terrace in Pativilca, and from 0.4 to 3.2 m beneath the tread of the
188 terrace in Barranca (Fig. 1A). Two to three kilograms of medium grained sand embedded between the
189 pebbles were taken for each sample. Additionally, the lowermost samples of the two depth profiles
190 (PAT-DP6 and BAR-DP6) were used to infer a paleo-erosion rate at the time when the sediments of

191 the two newly dated terraces were deposited. Two other samples (PAT-PE and BAR-PE2) were
192 collected in two other terrace fills previously dated (Trauerstein et al., 2014) for the calculation of
193 paleo-erosion rates (one in Pativilca and one in Barranca; Table 4). Additionally, quartz bearing clasts
194 were sampled for isochron burial dating (Fig. 1B; Table 1). For each isochron burial site, the samples
195 were collected from the same sedimentologic unit and from a single stratigraphic horizon following
196 Erlanger et al. (2012). Three horizons were sampled in Barranca and two horizons have been sampled
197 in Pativilca (Fig. 1B; Table 1). Depth-profile dating and isochron burial dating techniques have be
198 chosen as sand lenses that are required for IRSL sampling are not present in every terrace fill.

199

200 **4. Results**

201 *4.1. Cosmogenic nuclides: isochron burial dating*

202 The measured ^{26}Al concentrations are plotted versus ^{10}Be concentrations including 2σ
203 uncertainties (Fig. 2). The cosmogenic nuclide results are shown in Table 1. As the Al/Be ratios are
204 higher than the surface ratio, it is not possible to calculate an isochron burial age from these samples
205 (for details, see Erlanger et al., 2012). The surface ratio of $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$ is not constant since it depends
206 on the time of exposure and erosion. On a banana-plot, the ratios decrease from 8.4 to ~ 3 , and a
207 regression through these yields a surface ratio around 6.8. Therefore, in most of the isochron burial
208 applications this ratio has been used as the surface ratio. Recently, Akçar et al. (2017) showed that
209 this ratio varied between 7 and 12 in deeply eroding landscapes, particularly in glacial environments.
210 However, these mechanisms fail to explain the $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$ ratios > 12 obtained in this study as glacial
211 processes were most likely not the most important erosional mechanisms. Therefore, we tentatively
212 attribute these ratios to the analytical problems related to the measurements of the total Al or to the
213 quartz purification process. Given that no age can be determined from these samples; isochron burial
214 dating is therefore not further discussed in this paper.

215

216 *4.2. Cosmogenic nuclides: depth-profile dating*

217 4.2.1. *Barranca*

218 AMS-measured $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$ (with uncertainties) as well as calculated ^{10}Be concentrations for
219 each sample are shown in Table 1. The concentrations of the six sediment samples vary from $\sim 12 \times$
220 10^5 atoms g^{-1} for the uppermost sample to $\sim 1 \times 10^5$ atoms g^{-1} for the lowermost sample (Table 1). In
221 Fig. 3, the ^{10}Be concentrations together with 1σ uncertainties are plotted against depth. They display
222 an exponential decrease with depth. The simulated best fit curve through the six data points is
223 illustrated in Fig. 4, whereas the possible solution space with a χ^2 cut-off value of ≤ 20 is shown in
224 Fig. 5.

225 The simulation yields a best-fit solution to the measured nuclide concentrations for a modal
226 depth-profile age of 1.2 ± 0.3 Ma, and a modal top erosion rate of 0.07 ± 0.02 cm ka^{-1} (Table 3A). The
227 modal values of the age and erosion rate are similar to the mean and median values of the simulation,
228 thus the errors of the modal values are based on the minimum and maximum values generated by the
229 simulation. Note that the Monte Carlo simulation code requires a constraint on the net erosion on the
230 top of the section as a modal input parameter to calculate an age (Hidy et al., 2010). This parameter is
231 iteratively adjusted within a range of values.

232

233 4.2.2. *Pativilca*

234 The concentrations of the six sediment samples vary from $\sim 86 \times 10^4$ atoms g^{-1} for the
235 uppermost sample to $\sim 44 \times 10^4$ atoms g^{-1} for the lowermost sample (Table 1). In Fig. 6, the ^{10}Be
236 concentrations together with 1σ uncertainties are plotted against depth. The best fit through the six
237 data points is illustrated in Fig. 7, whereas the possible solution space with a χ^2 cut-off value of ≤ 3 is
238 shown in Fig. 8.

239 The simulation yields a best-fit solution to the measured nuclide concentrations for a modal
240 depth-profile age of 200 ± 90 ka, a modal top erosion of $0.48+ 0.41- 0.13$ cm ka^{-1} and an inheritance
241 of $35,100+ 8700-8000$ atoms g^{-1} (Table 3B). The modal values are similar to the mean and median
242 values of the simulation, thus the errors of the modal values are based on the minimum and maximum
243 values generated by the simulation.

244 The results of the depth-profile dating return a surface exposure age of ~1.2 Ma in Barranca
245 and of ~200 ka in Pativilca. These results show minimum ages when the accumulation of material has
246 terminated and when dissection of the previously deposited material started, yielding in the formation
247 of a terrace level. These two periods when sediment aggradation was superseded by dissection, have
248 not been dated before. These new results together with the ones from Trauestein et al. (2014) suggest
249 the occurrence of at least four terraces referred to as T1 to T4 from older to younger (Figs. 9 and
250 10A), corresponding to at least four different periods of sediment accumulation. Terrace deposits were
251 correlated on the basis of landscape position, tread altitude and absolute dating (Figs. 9 and 10A).

252

253 4.3. *Paleo-erosion rates*

254 The in-situ ^{10}Be analytical data together with the inferred paleo-erosion rates recorded by the
255 alluvial terrace sediments are presented in Table 4. The paleo-erosion rate values are $143 \pm 12 \text{ m Ma}^{-1}$
256 at the time of the accumulation of the terrace deposits T1 (~1.2 Ma ago), $302 \pm 28 \text{ m Ma}^{-1}$ at the time
257 when terrace material T2 was deposited, $392 \pm 40 \text{ m Ma}^{-1}$ at the time of the deposition of the terrace
258 sediments T3, and finally $297 \pm 29 \text{ m Ma}^{-1}$ at the time terrace T4 was constructed (Fig. 10B). In
259 addition, Reber et al. (2017) reported a modern catchment-averaged denudation rate of $260 \pm 23 \text{ m}$
260 Ma^{-1} .

261 5. Discussion

262 5.1. *Chronology of sediment accumulation and incision*

263 The fluvial aggradation and subsequent incision in the Pativilca Valley has occurred in
264 multiple episodes through the Quaternary (Figs. 9 and 10). Figure 11 shows the position of the active
265 river and the position of the sediment accumulation during the periods of aggradation. Our dating
266 results imply that the sediments of terrace T1 in Barranca have been deposited prior to 1.2 Ma. The
267 aggradation then ceased and the tread formation began ~1.2 Ma ago (terrace T1; Fig. 11A). During
268 the period of the terrace fill, the erosion rate was two times lower than the modern rate (Fig. 12).
269 Following this, for approximately 1 Ma, either a period of no sedimentation occurred in the valley or
270 no sediments have been preserved. The river then moved its course towards Pativilca. The sediments

271 of terrace T2 in Pativilca have been deposited prior to 200 ka. The accumulation of sediment then
272 stopped and exposed the terrace tread at around 200 ka (terrace T2; Fig. 11B). During the period of
273 sediment accumulation, the erosion rate was up to $\sim 300 \text{ m.Ma}^{-1}$ (Fig. 12). The river bed again
274 changed its course towards Barranca, and a phase of accumulation occurred around 100 ka (deposition
275 of the sediment of T3; Fig. 11C; Trauerstein et al., 2014). In this period, the erosion rate was at its
276 highest ($\sim 400 \text{ m Ma}^{-1}$; Fig. 12). Finally, the lobe of the Pativilca fan delta moved back towards the
277 city of Pativilca close to its current course, and a phase of aggradation occurred from 10 to 45 ka ago
278 (deposition of the sediment of T4; Fig. 11D; Trauerstein et al., 2014). During this period, the
279 catchment-wide denudation rate dropped back to $\sim 300 \text{ m Ma}^{-1}$ (Fig. 12). This phase was followed by
280 a period of incision exposing the tread and riser of terrace level T4. Today the erosion rate is slightly
281 lower than during the past at $\sim 200 \text{ ka}$ (Fig. 12) and the river appears to be incising.

282

283 5.2. *Implications for climate variability as controls on cyclic deposition and erosion*

284 A stratigraphic record of river terrace sediments is formed and preserved as a stream changes
285 its activity between incision, lateral planation, and aggradation (Pederson et al., 2006). These fill
286 terraces in the Pativilca Valley represent a relatively complete archive of both incision and deposition.
287 They can be used to understand the response to climate or to other driving forces that have an impact
288 on the balance between sediment transport and deposition (Pederson et al., 2006). These terrace fills
289 have been formed in the alluvial fan delta of the Pativilca River and they might also record the change
290 in the position of the different lobes of the delta through shifts in transport and sediment capacity.
291 Alternatively, a phase of accumulation requires the availability of sediments on the hillslopes to be
292 eroded, transported and deposited (Hancock and Anderson, 2002). This implies that the river
293 experiences an increase in the ratio between sediment supply and the stream's capacity to control the
294 deposition the supplied material (Tucker and Slingerland, 1997). The youngest period of sediment
295 accumulation ranging from 10 to 45 ka (terrace T4) could correspond to the wet intervals recorded by
296 the Minchin (47.8–36 ka ago) and Tauca (26–14.9 ka ago) paleolakes (Fritz et al., 2004). The period
297 of sediment accumulation ranging from 80 to 130 ka (terrace T3) could correspond to the wet period
298 characterized by the Ouki paleolakes (120–98 ka ago; Fritz et al., 2004). These two periods of

299 sediment accumulation previously dated by Trauerstein et al. (2014) are thus correlated with phases of
300 enhanced precipitation with higher water discharge in the river. These wet conditions could have been
301 induced by summer insolation forcing of the South American summer monsoon at precessional time-
302 scales (Baker et al., 2001a,b). Indeed, the precession together with the obliquity has been considered
303 to control the seasonal cycles of insolation (Milankovitch, 1941). The wettest phases, and hence the
304 highest lake levels (Bills et al., 1994; Sylvestre et al., 1999; Placzek et al., 2006), were additionally
305 forced by warm North Atlantic sea surface temperatures (Baker et al., 2001a). These climate changes
306 were also used to explain the pulses of upland erosion and deposition in the stream valleys on the
307 western Andean margin (Bekaddour et al., 2014), which agree with our data of relative fast paleo-
308 erosion rates recorded by these two terraces. Indeed, the 10-45 ka denudation rate was >10% higher
309 than the modern one and the 80-130 ka denudation rate was even >30% higher than the modern rates
310 (Fig. 12). Fluvial aggradation is here correlated with wetter climates and an increased sediment supply
311 from the uplands. However, we also note that wetter climates can result in fluvial incision and terrace
312 formation because of greater stream discharge (Veit et al., 2016), provided that the hillslopes have
313 been depleted of material (Norton et al., 2016). In our case, the start of the incision phases could then
314 correspond to the end of the pluvial period and the time of decrease of the supply of sediment to the
315 river. Alternatively, it is also possible that erosional recycling of the terrace material started within the
316 pluvial periods, when the preceding phase of rapid hillslope erosion resulted in the depletion of the
317 sediment reservoirs, yielding high ratios between water and sediment fluxes in the trunk stream. The
318 Altiplano lake sediment cores do not record climatic variations older than 130 ka (Placzek et al.,
319 2006). In this context, we cannot correlate the two older periods of sediment accumulation (prior to
320 ~200 ka and prior to ~1.2 Ma) to any lake level variations. However, the high paleo-erosion rate
321 calculated for the newly dated fills of the terrace T2 (~15% higher than the modern one) appears also
322 to correspond to a pulse of upland erosion, which could point towards a period of wet conditions.
323 Support for this interpretation is provided by the periodicity of about 100 ka for this orbital-induced
324 summer insolation forcing (Milankovitch, 1941; Lisiecki, 2010; Abe-Ouchi et al., 2013). If this
325 interpretation is valid, then the ages of 100 ka (T3) and 200 ka (T2) would then correspond to this 100
326 ka periodicity, suggesting that the period prior to ~200 ka might also have corresponded to a wet

327 phase on the Altiplano. The oldest dated period of sediment accumulation (terrace T1) does not record
328 a distinct pulse of erosion as the calculated paleo erosion rate was twice as low as the modern one.
329 The production of sediments on the hillslopes through weathering and erosion can occur through an
330 increase in precipitation rates (e.g., Bookhagen et al., 2005; Norton et al., 2016), for which there is no
331 evidence from the records reported here indicating that sediment accumulation of the terrace T1 has
332 not been induced by a phase of enhanced precipitation. Alternatively, this T1 phase of accumulation
333 could have occurred in response to a rise in sea level. Indeed, a rise in sea level would cause a back
334 filling and a super-elevation of the channel, which then would cause the delta lobe to switch positions.
335 Supporting evidence for this interpretation has been provided by Pillans et al. (1998), who proposed
336 that the ~1.2 Ma-old period was relatively warm and corresponded to a rising sea level. Nevertheless,
337 we note that further research in the region is required to sustain this interpretation.

338

339 **6. Conclusions**

340 The results of the depth-profile dating together with the previously published IRSL ages
341 (Trauerstein et al., 2014) disclose at least four terraces located in the fan delta of the Pativilca River.
342 The sediments of terrace T1 accumulated until ~1.2 Ma ago and terraces T2, T3 and T4 were
343 deposited prior to ~200 ka, ~100 ka ago and ~30 ka ago respectively. Additionally, paleo-erosion
344 rates at the time of the deposition of the terrace fills were calculated and compared to the modern
345 rates. The modern erosion rate is ~260 mm/ka, while the paleo-erosion rates vary from ~143 mm/ka to
346 ~391 m Ma⁻¹.

347 The oldest period of accumulation does not correspond to a distinct pulse of erosion and could
348 rather correspond to a period when the sea level was rising. The three younger phases of sediment
349 accumulation most likely correspond to wet phases and pulses of erosion in the uplands. These wet
350 conditions were likely to have been induced by summer insolation forcing of the South American
351 summer monsoon at precessional time scales (Baker et al., 2001a, 2001b). Generally, wetter climate
352 results in fluvial incision caused by greater stream discharge. However, wetter climate is here
353 correlated with fluvial aggradation due to the inferred increased sediment supply from the uplands.
354 The abandonment of the terrace treads would then correspond to the end of the pluvial period and thus

355 a decrease of the sediment supplied to the river. Additionally, this long period of preservation of the
356 alluvial sediments on a coastal area implies a constant base level after the deposition of the terrace T1
357 despite the occurrence of an active subduction zone.

358

359 **Acknowledgements**

360 Support in the laboratory by Julia Krbanjevic is greatly appreciated. The support by Prof. Silvia Rosas
361 and her team (PUCP, Lima) to solve logistic problems at the customs are greatly acknowledged. This
362 research has been supported by funds of the Swiss National Science Foundation awarded to
363 Schlunegger (project number 155892).

364

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581 **Tables and Figures captions**

582 **Table 1:** Sample and cosmogenic nuclide data.

583

584 **Table 2:** Input parameters for the Monte Carlo simulator in Matlab® (Hidy et al., 2010).

585

586 **Table 3:** Results of the Monte Carlo simulations with Matlab® for (A) Barranca and (B) Pativilca.
587 Total number of simulated profiles is 100,000. The bold numbers represent the modelled values and
588 are therefore the ones that are used in this paper.
589
590

591

592 **Table 4:** Information relevant for interpreting ^{10}Be concentrations. Modern and paleo catchment-
593 averaged denudation were calculated using the SRTM DEM with a 90 m resolution. A ^{10}Be half-life
594 of 1.39 ± 0.01 Ma was used (Chmeleff et al., 2010; Korschinek et al., 2010) and a SLHL ^{10}Be
595 production rate of $4.01 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ a}^{-1}$. A density of 2.65 g cm^{-3} was employed.

596

597 **Fig. 1:** (A) Maps of the study area showing the location of Pativilca and Barranca on the western side
598 of the Peruvian Andes. (B) Field photographs showing the alluvial terraces in Barranca and Pativilca.
599 Samples PAT-DP-1 to 6 (Pativilca), BAR-DP 1 to 6 (Barranca) were collected for depth-profile
600 dating. The white lines represent the bracket level where quartz bearing clasts were sampled for
601 isochron burial dating purposes. The concentrations obtained for the samples BAR-DP6 and PAT-
602 DP6 were used for the calculation of the paleo-basin wide denudation rates

603

604 **Fig. 2:** Measured ^{26}Al concentrations plotted vs. ^{10}Be concentrations of the isochron-burial dating
605 samples in Barranca (BAR-IS1, BAR-IS2 and BAR-IS3) and in Pativilca (PAT-IS1 and PAT-IS2).
606 The sampling sites are shown on Fig. 1B. The errors represent 2σ uncertainties. The dash lines
607 illustrate the surface production rate ratio of 6.75 (Balco et al., 2008).

608

609 **Fig. 3:** Measured ^{10}Be concentrations including the 1σ uncertainties of the Barranca depth-profile
610 samples plotted against depth.

611

612 **Fig. 4:** Modal output of the Monte Carlo simulations showing frequency distributions and χ^2 values
613 for exposure age, erosion rate and inheritance.

614

615 **Fig. 5:** Output of the Monte Carlo depth-profile age simulation. (A) Illustration of the best fit through
616 the samples for the lowest χ^2 value. (B) Possible solution space with a χ^2 cut-off values of < 20 .

617

618 **Fig. 6:** Measured ^{10}Be concentrations including the 1σ uncertainties of the Pativilca depth-profile
619 samples plotted against depth.

620

621 **Fig. 7:** Modal output of the Monte Carlo simulations showing frequency distributions and χ^2 values
622 for exposure age, erosion rate and inheritance.

623

624 **Fig. 8:** Output of the Monte Carlo depth-profile age simulation. (A) Illustration of the best fit through
625 the samples for the lowest χ^2 value. (B) Possible solution space with a χ^2 cut-off values of < 3 .

626

627 **Fig. 9:** Map of the alluvial terraces in Pativilca and Barranca showing the age of the different terraces.

628

629 **Fig. 10:** (A) Summary of the IRSL and depth-profile ages in Pativilca and Barranca. The black dots
630 represent the IRSL samples from Trauerstein et al. (2014) and the white dot represents the depth
631 profile (this study). (B) Summary of the paleo-catchment wide denudation rates. The transect A-B can
632 be seen in Fig. 9.

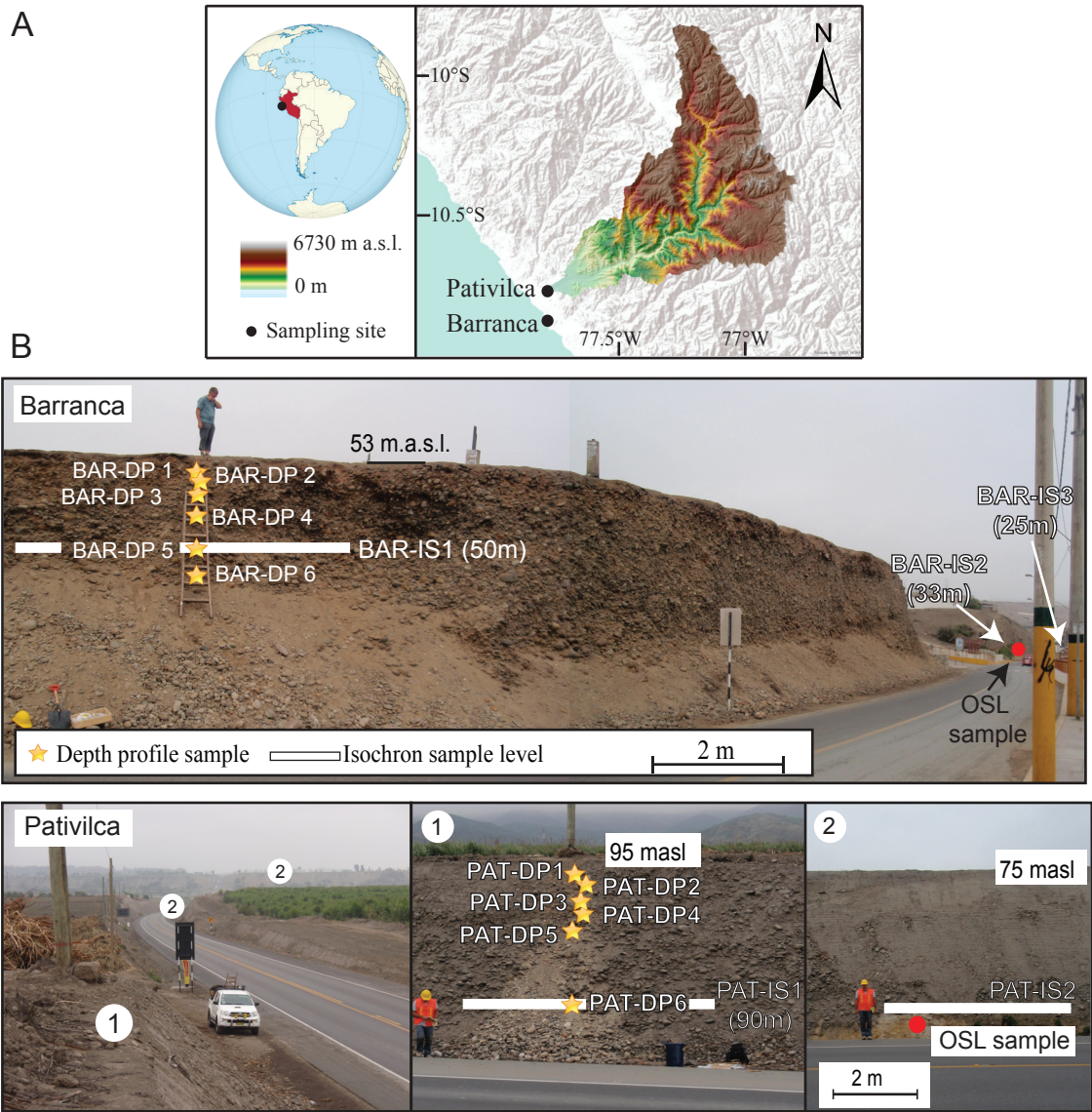
633

634 **Fig. 11:** Maps showing the inferred channel belt position during the sediment accumulation phases in
635 the Pativilca Valley. (A) prior to ~ 1.2 Ma ago. (B) prior to ~ 200 ka ago. (C) ~ 100 ka ago. (D) ~ 30 ka
636 ago.

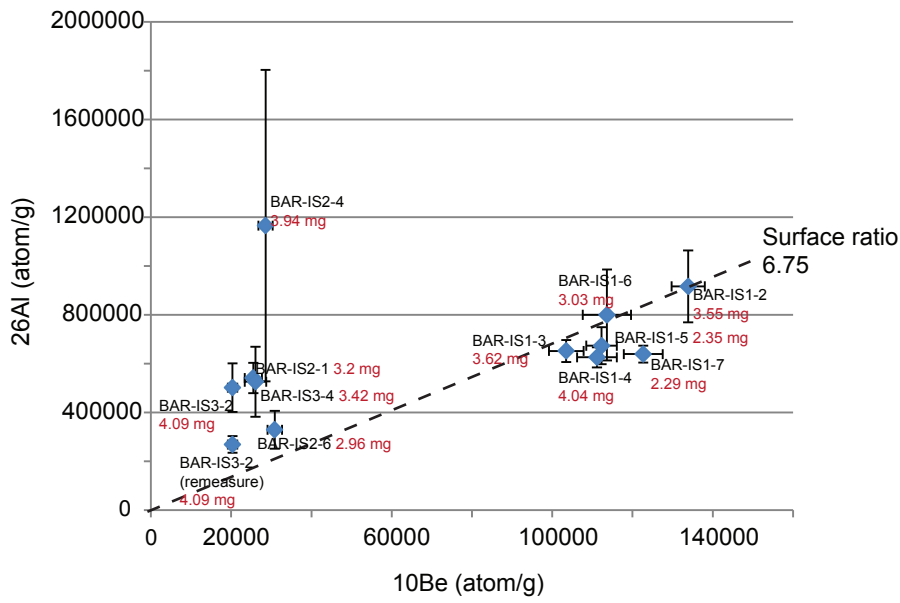
637

638 **Fig. 12:** Erosion rates versus time.

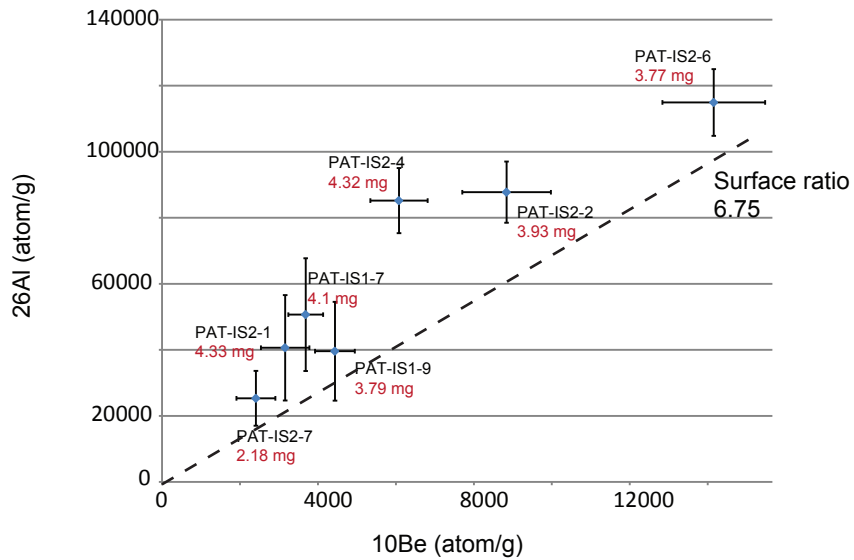
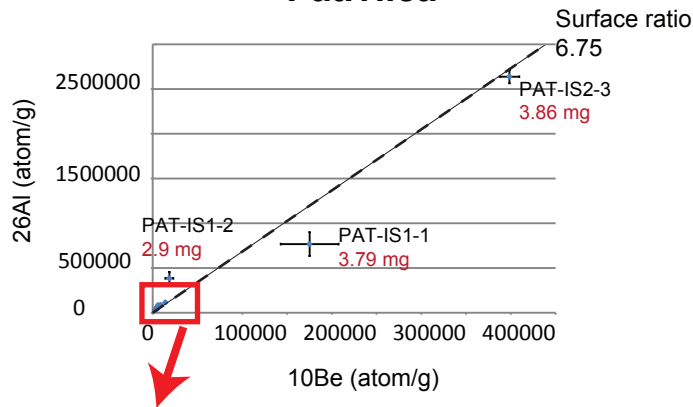
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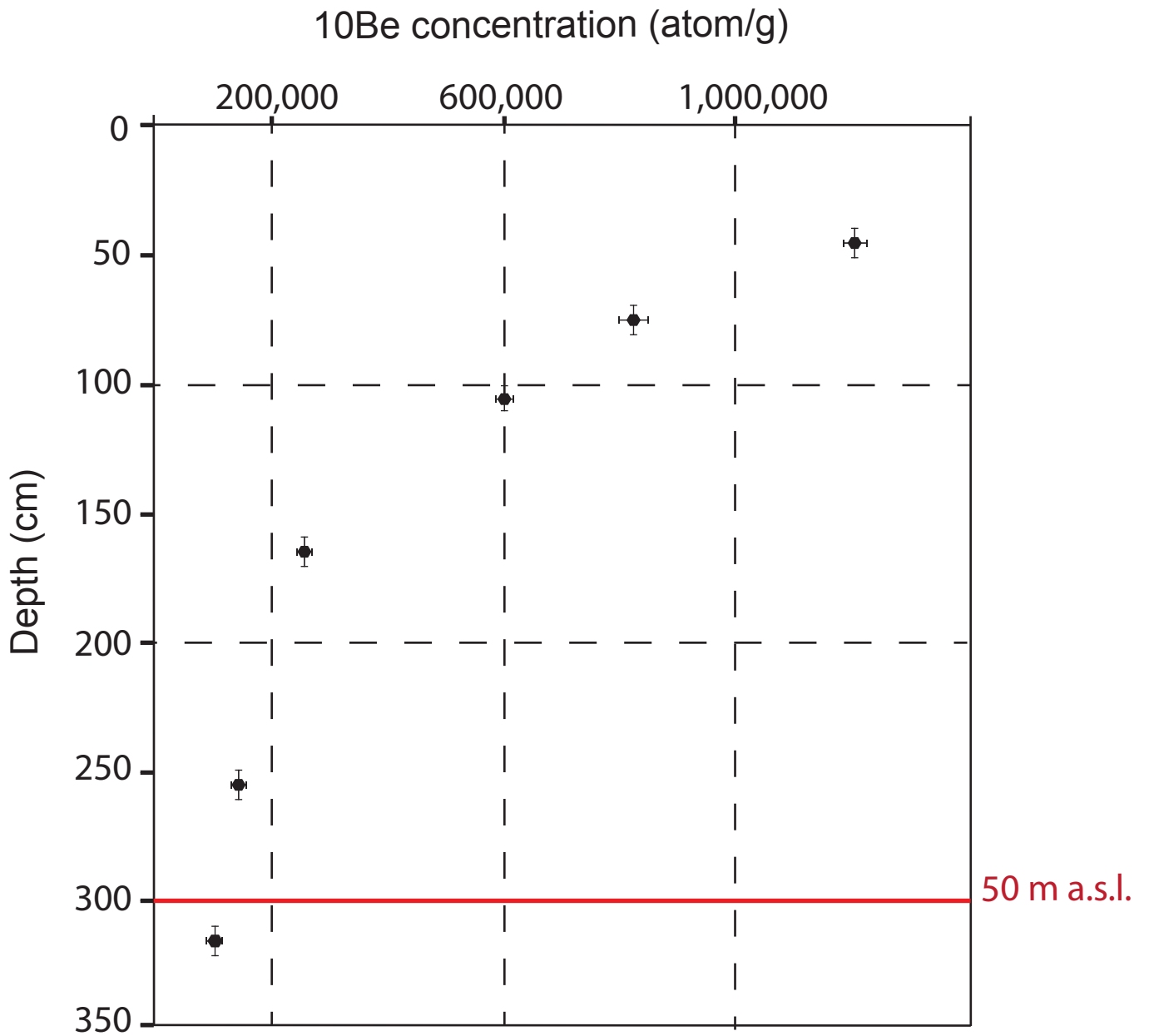
Barranca

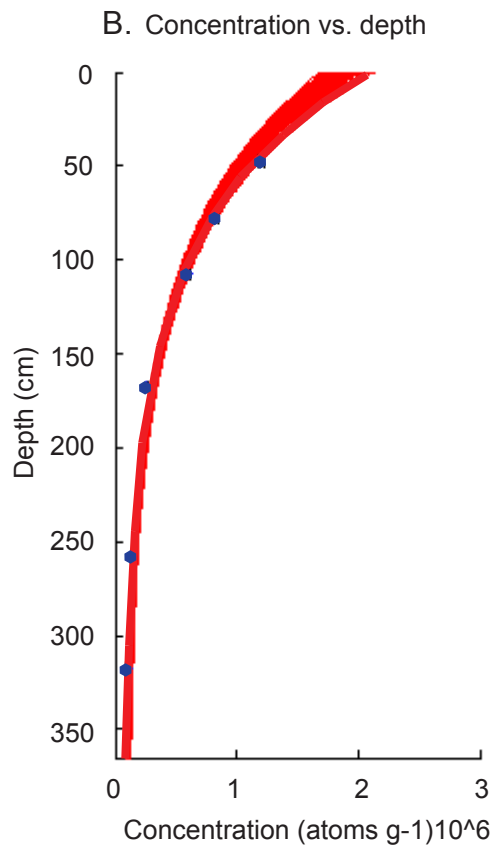
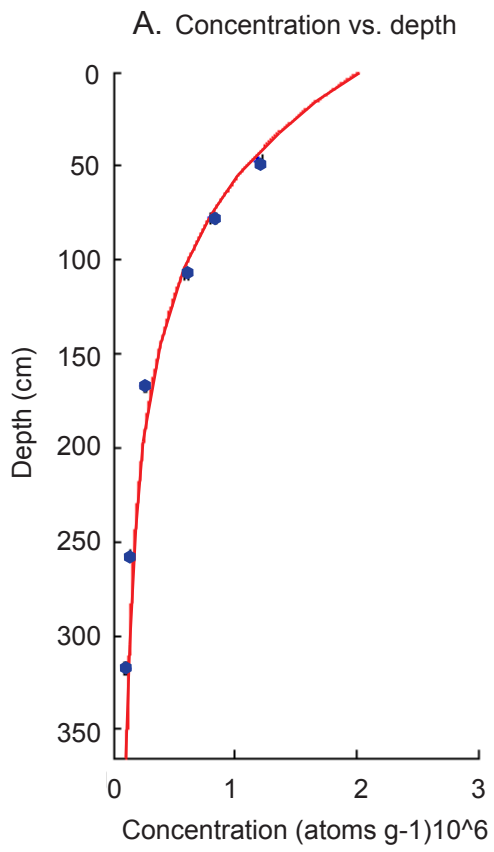


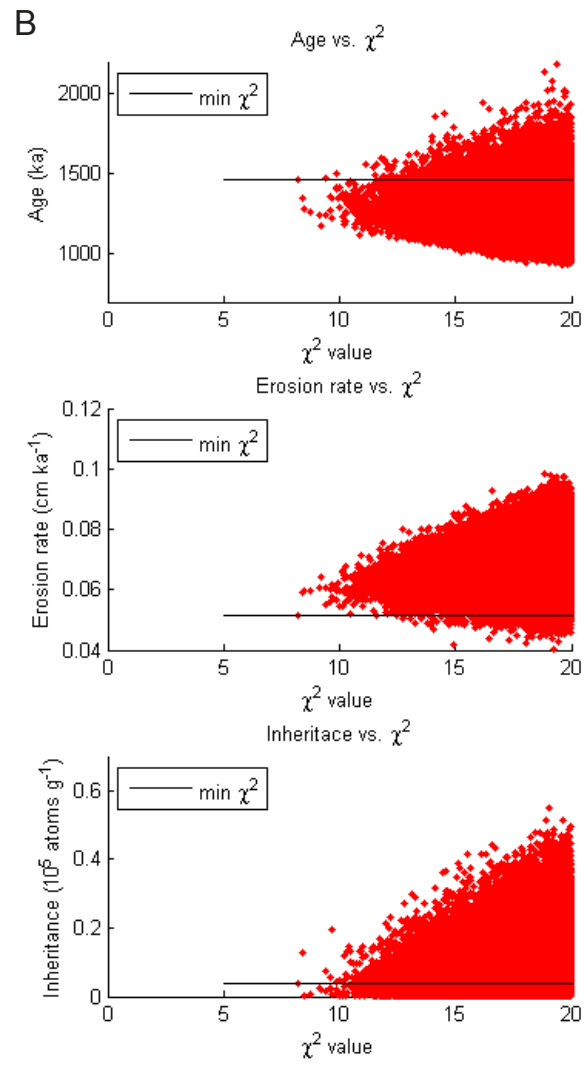
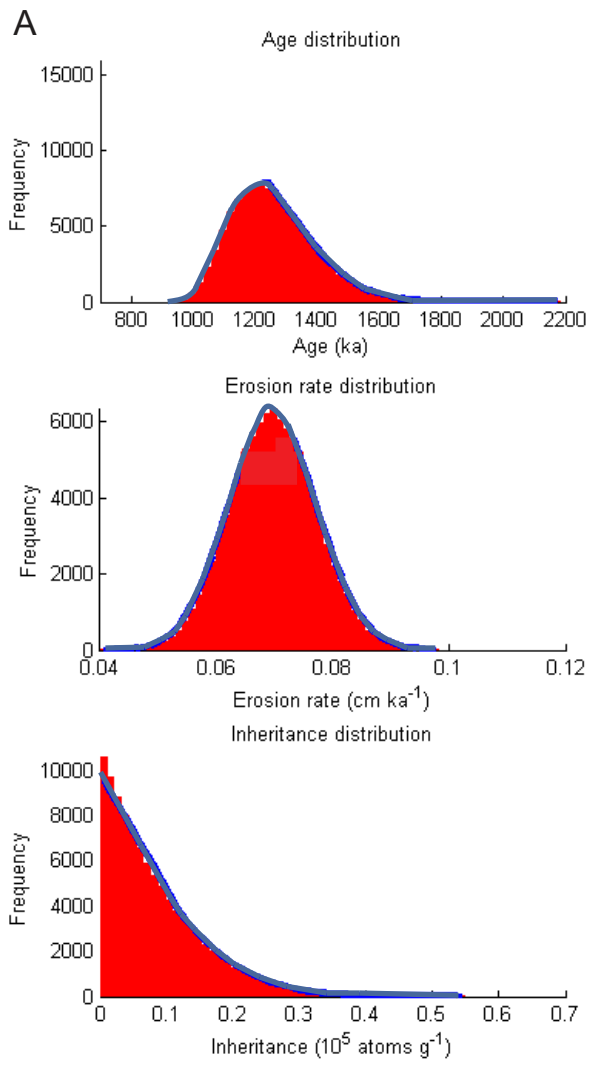
Pativilca

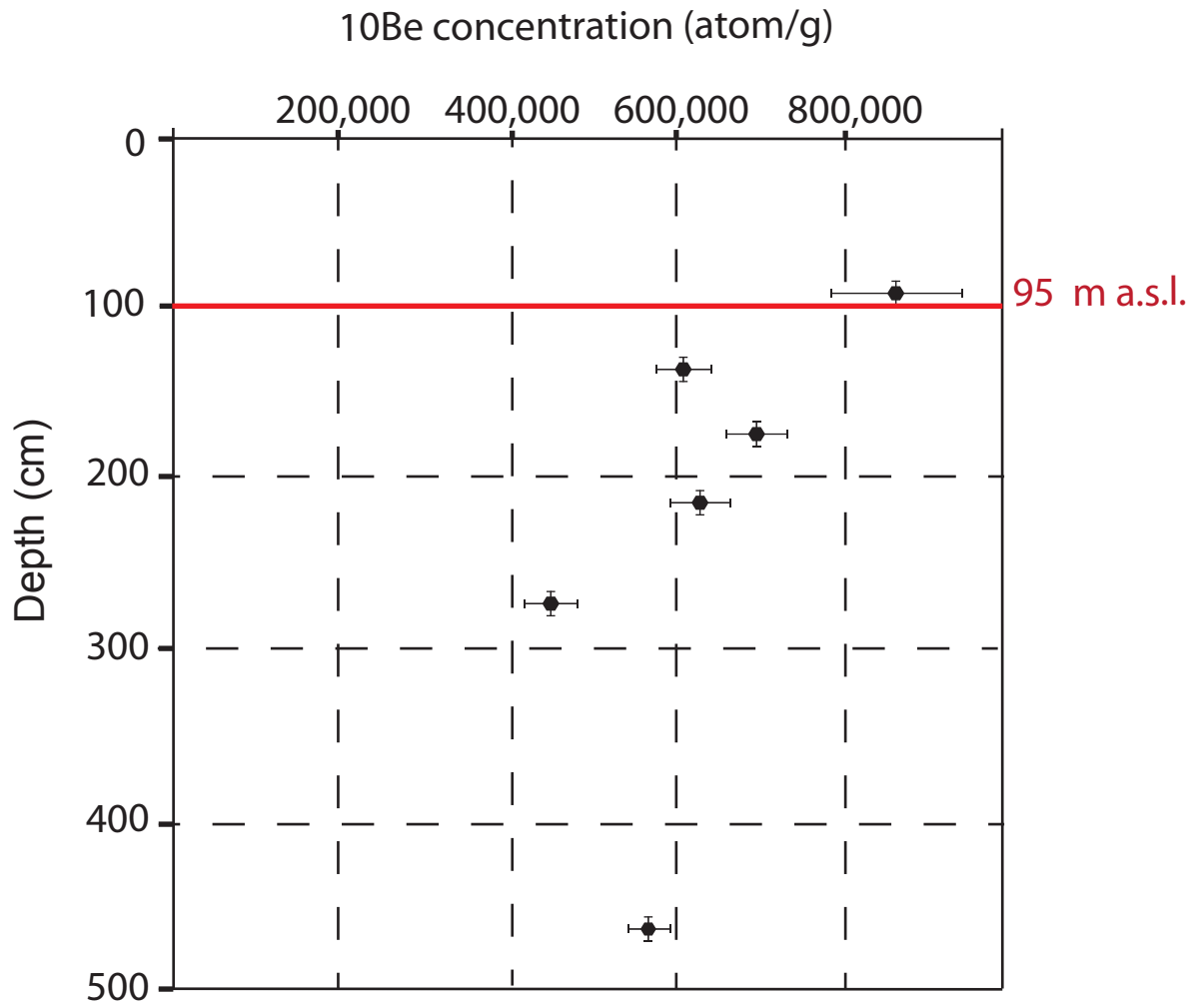


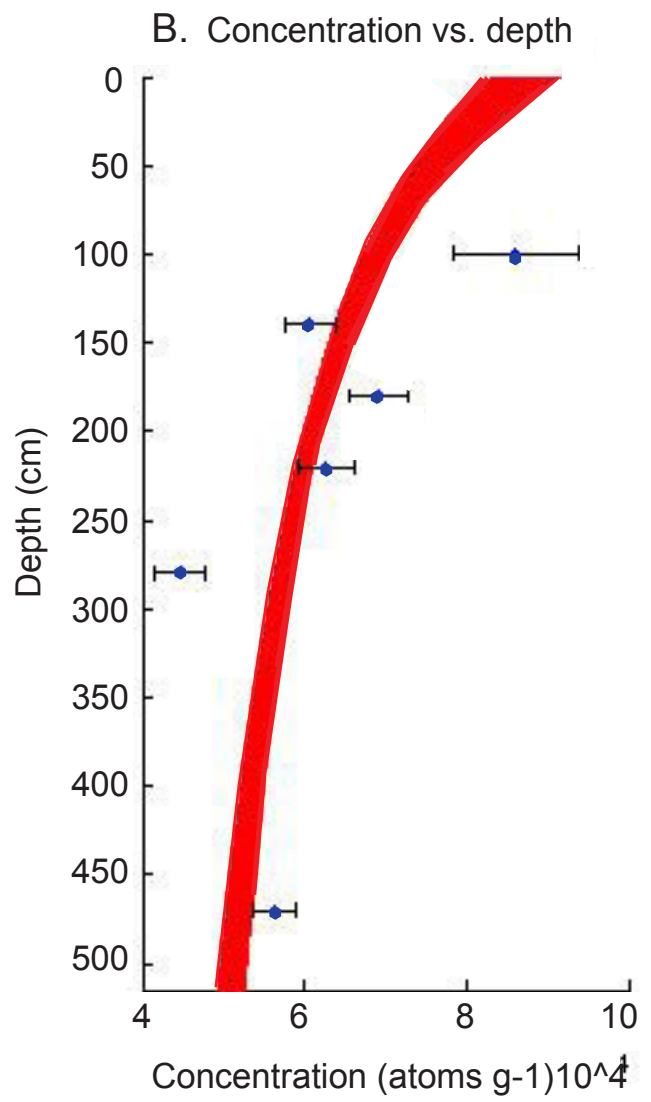
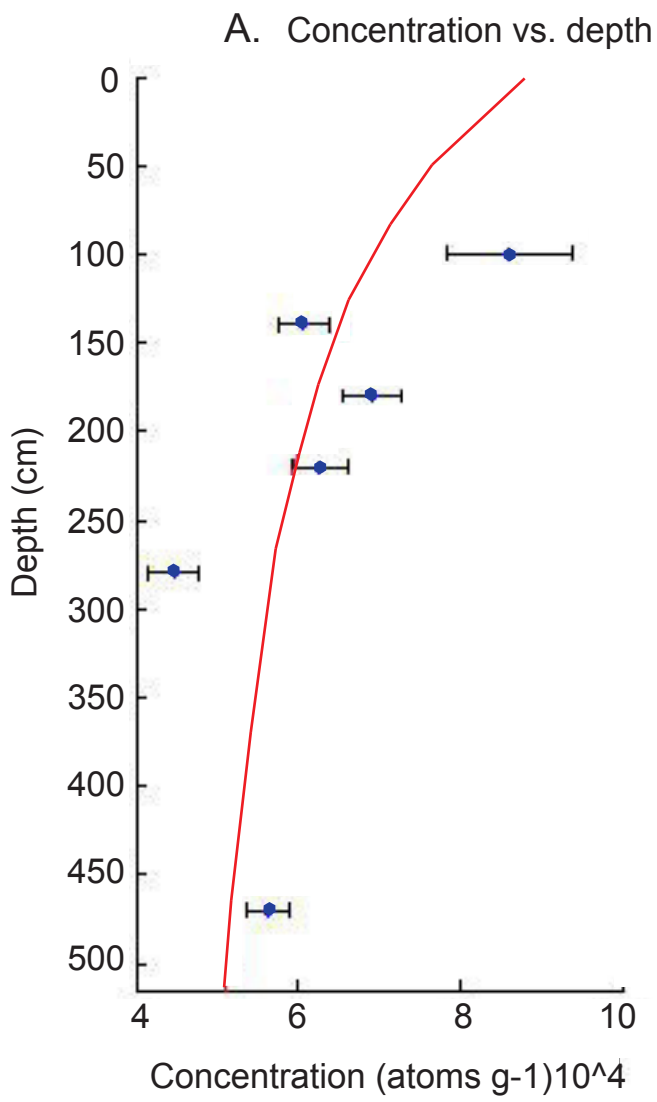
Barranca Depth Profile (Peru)











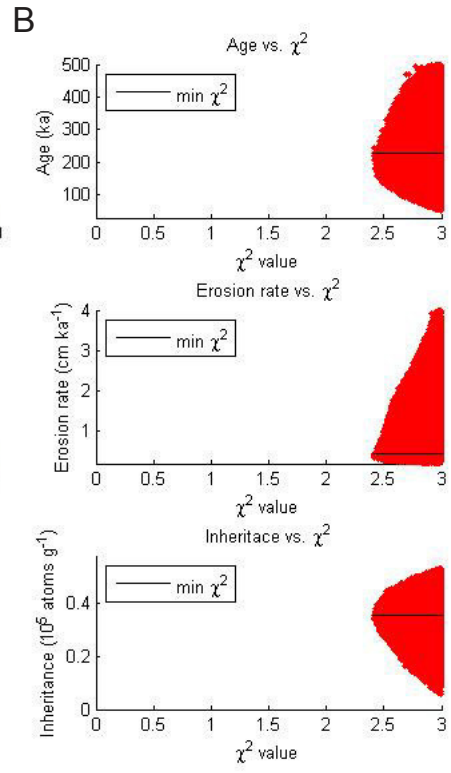
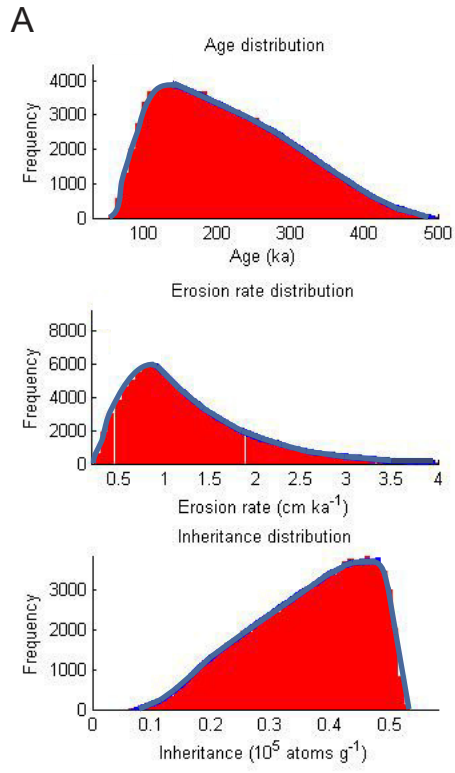
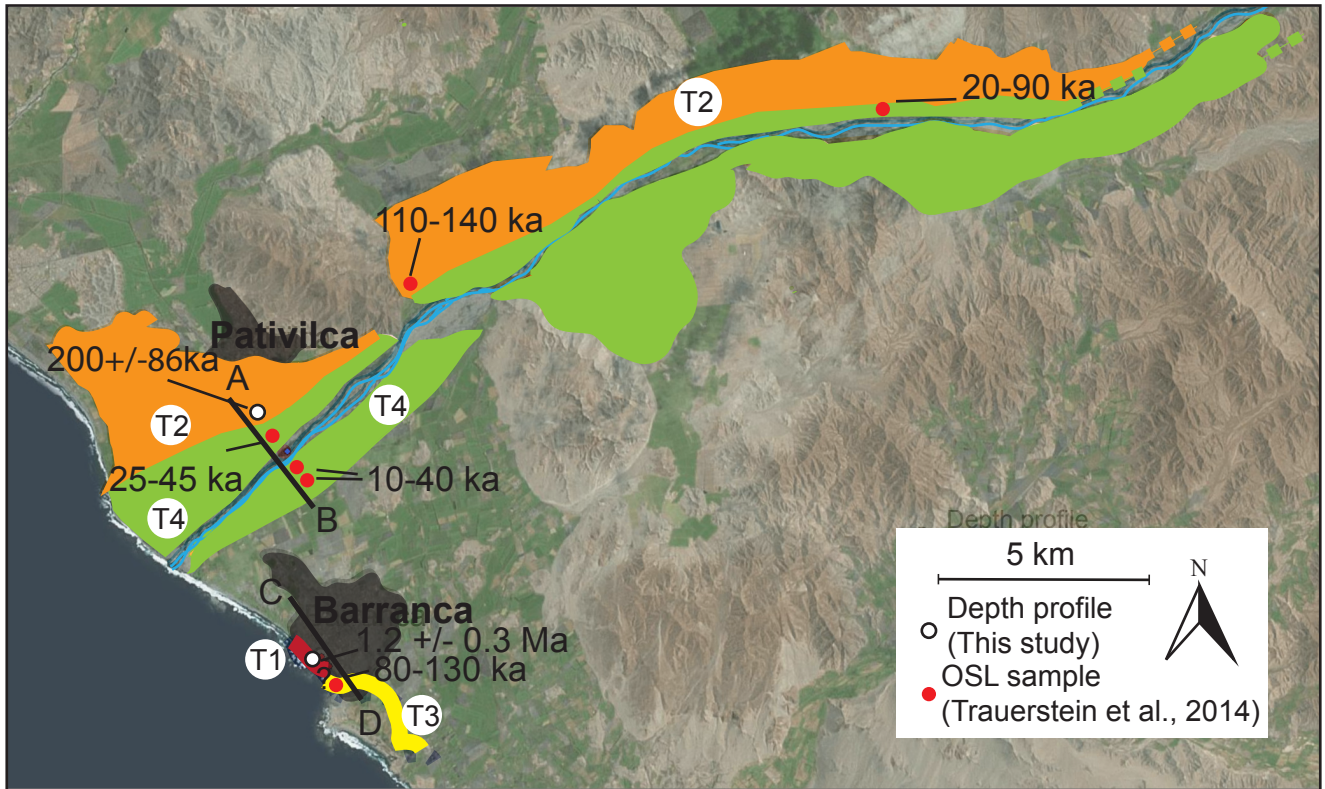
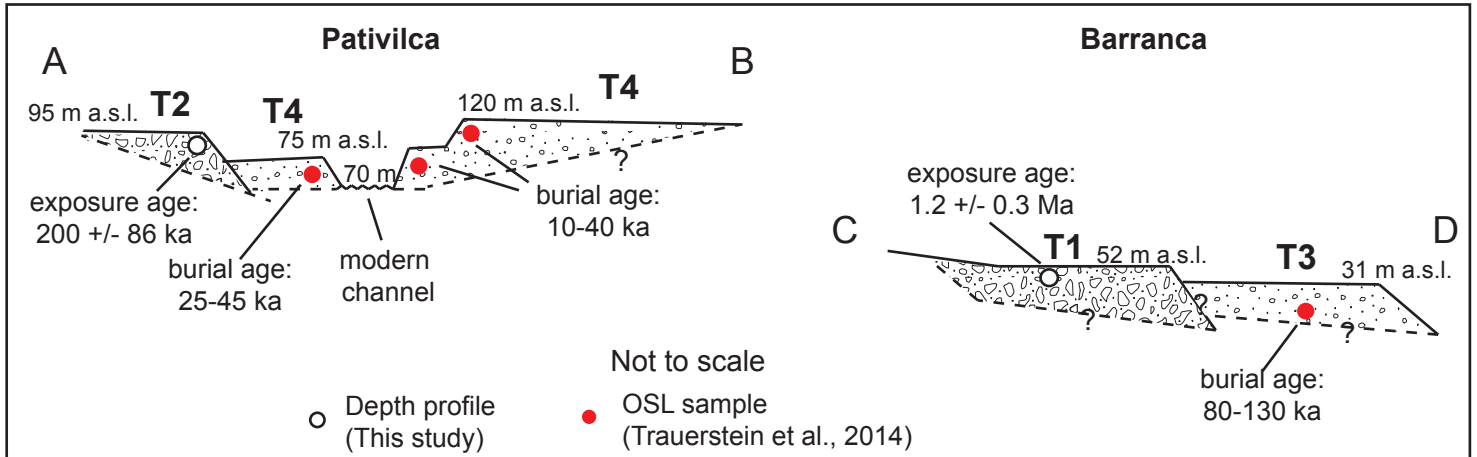


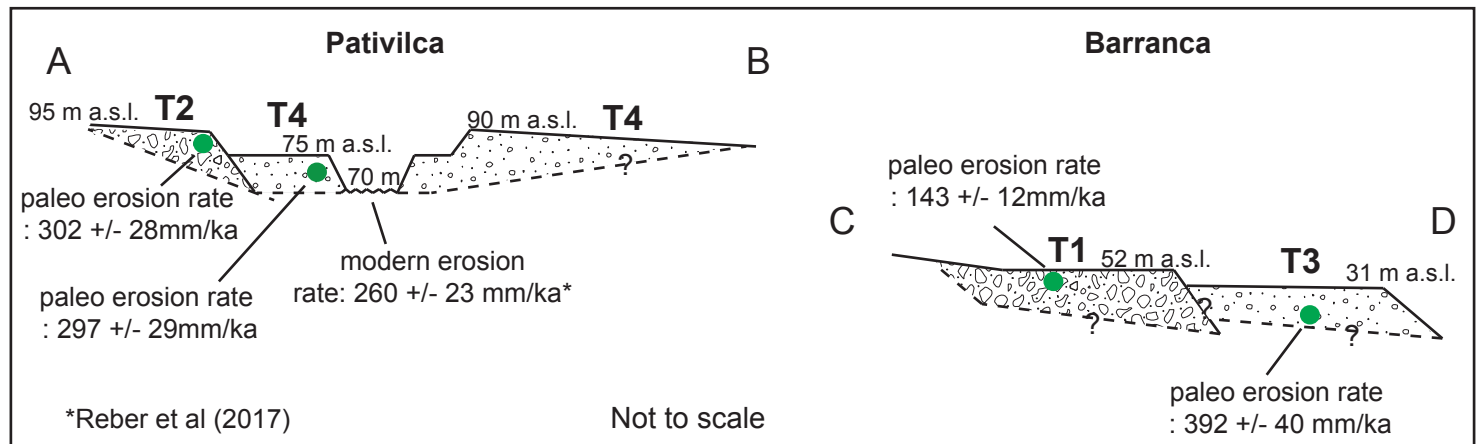
Figure 9



A. Ages



B. Erosion rates



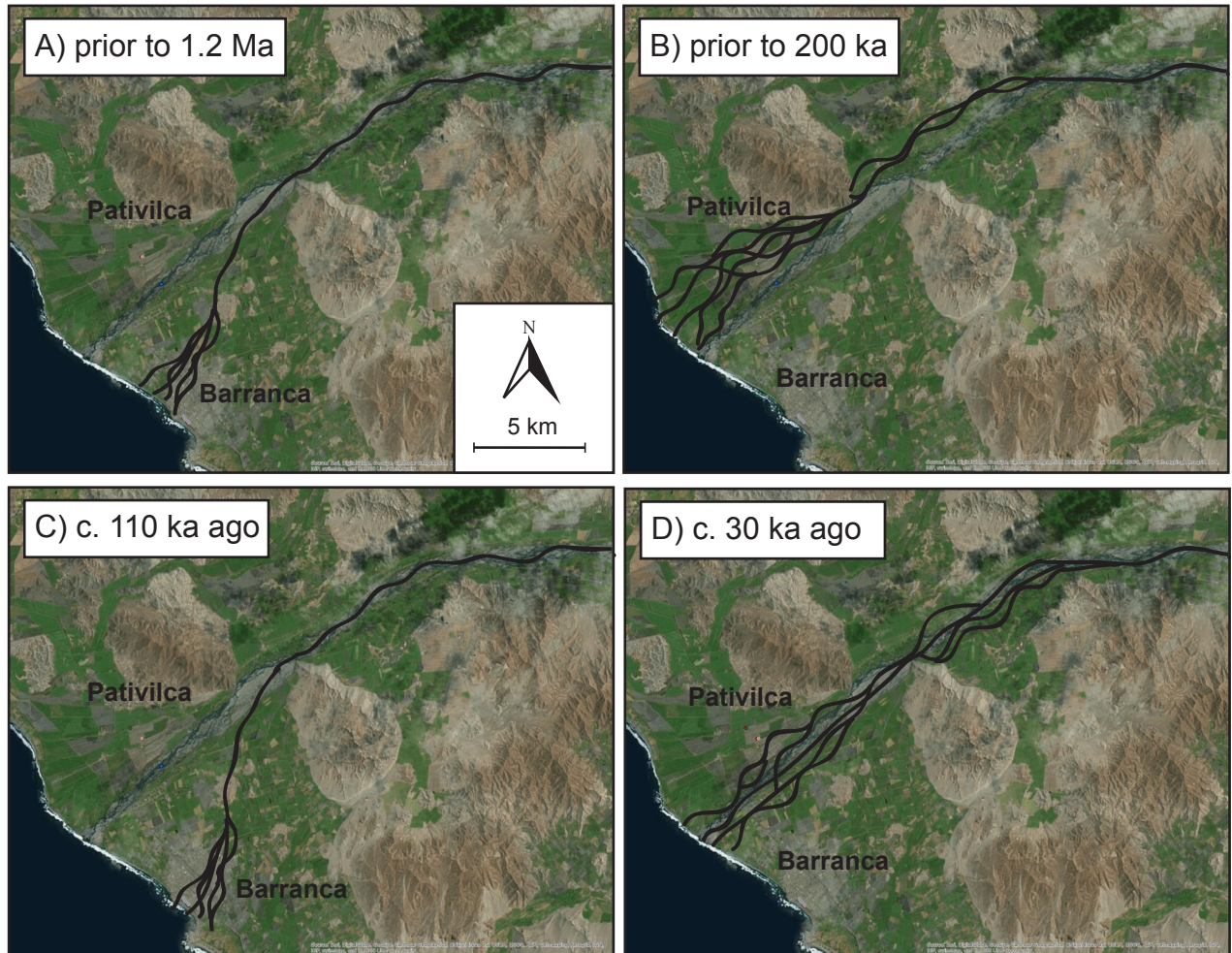


Figure
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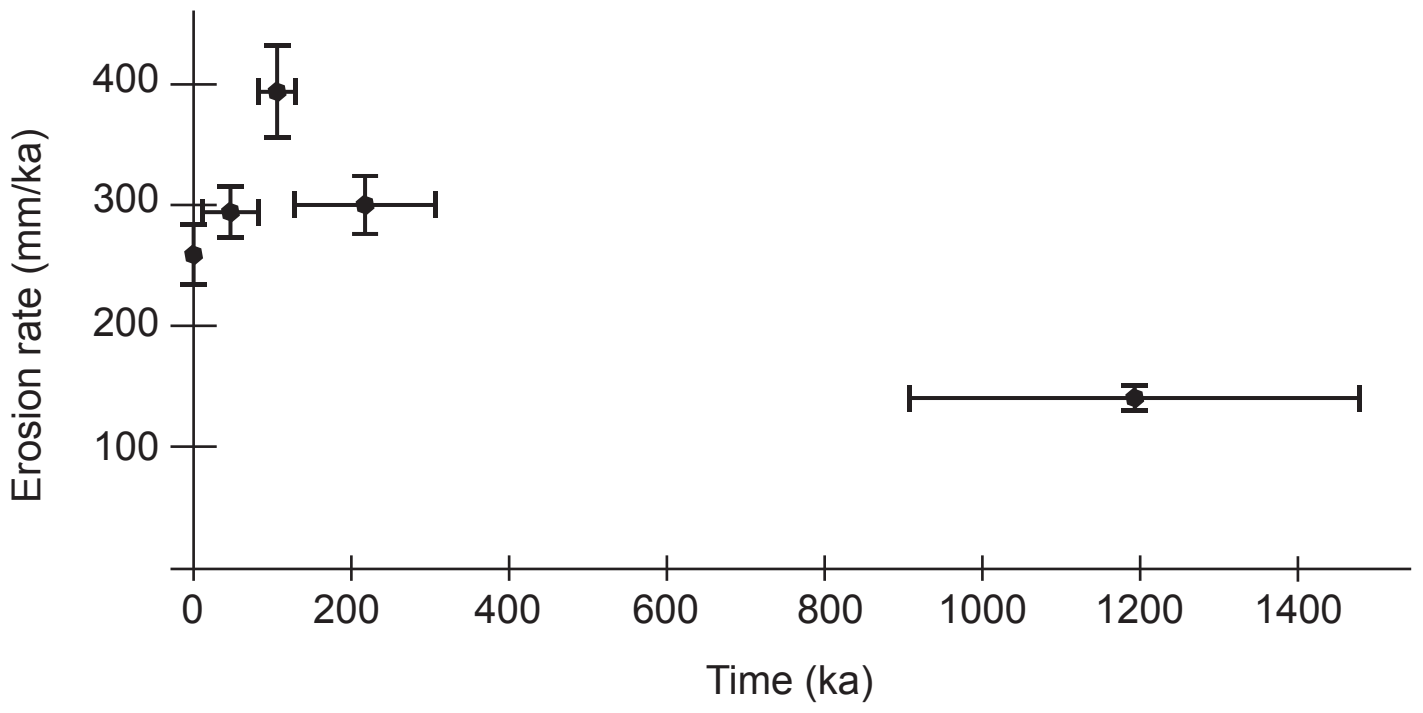


Table 2

Input parameters for the Monte Carlo simulator in Matlab (Hidy et al., 2010).

Barranca		Pativilca	
Parameter	Value	Parameter	Value
Latitude (degree)	-10,758	Latitude (degree)	-10,704
Longitude (degree)	-77,765	Longitude (degree)	-77,776
Altitude (m)	53	Altitude (m)	96
Strike (degree)	0	Strike (degree)	0
Dip (degree)	0	Dip (degree)	0
Shielding correction factor	1	Shielding correction factor	1
Cover correction factor	1	Cover correction factor	1
Uncertainty of 10Be Half-life (%)	1	Uncertainty of 10Be Half-life (%)	1
Local spallogenic production rate (at g-1 a-1)	2,50	Local spallogenic production rate (at g-1 a-1)	2,50
Error in local spallogenic production rate (at g-1 a-1)	± 0.5	Error in local spallogenic production rate (at g-1 a-1)	± 0.5
Depth of muon fit (m)	6	Depth of muon fit (m)	6
Error in total production rate (%)	5	Error in total production rate (%)	5
Density (g cm-3)	1.6-2.1	Density (g cm-3)	1.6-2.1
X2 value	20	X2 value	3
Numbers of profiles	100,000	Numbers of profiles	100,000
Age (a)	700,000-2,200,000	Age (a)	30,000-500,000
Erosion rate (cm ka-1)	0.04-0.12	Erosion rate (cm ka-1)	0.2-4
Total erosion threshold (cm)	75-400	Total erosion threshold (cm)	75-400
Inheritance (at g-1)	0-70,000	Inheritance (at g-1)	0-58,000
Attenuation length (g cm-2)	160 ± 5	Attenuation length (g cm-2)	160 ± 5

		Table Barranca		
A		Results of the Monte Carlo simulations with Matlab		
	Age (ka)	Inheritance (atom/g)	Erosion rate (cm/ka)	
Mean	1254.3	8300	0.07	
Median	1239.4	6400	0.07	
Mode	1197.1	300	0.07	
Minimum X2	1261.5	1200	0.06	
Maximum	1503.0	5,8000	0.09	
Minimum	1043.2	0	0.05	

		Table Pativilca		
B		Results of the Monte Carlo simulations with Matlab		
	Age (ka)	Inheritance (atom/g)	Erosion rata (cm/ka)	
Mean	200.6	3,5500	0.52	
Median	200.3	3,5500	0.51	
Mode	204.1	3,5100	0.48	
Minimum X2	217.6	3,7800	0.35	
Maximum	314.3	4,3800	0.89	
Minimum	125	2,7100	0.25	

Sample name	Paleo/modern erosion rates	Age of the deposits	Latitude (DD.DD) WGS84	Longitude (DD.DD) WGS84	Altitude of the top of the terrace (m.a.s.l)	Sample depth (cm)	Quartz dissolved (g)	9Be spike (mg)	Measured $^{10}\text{Be}/^{9}\text{Be}$ ratio (10^{-12})	AMS error (%)	^{10}Be concentration (at/g)	Concentration at the time of deposition (at/g)	Denudation rates (mm/ka)
PAT-ME	Modern erosion rates	Modern Pativilca river	10.717°S	77.767°W	71	Surface	50.11	0.1991	0.24	4.0	6,4052 +/- 2695	6,4052 +/- 2695	260 +/- 23
PAT-DP6	Paleo erosion rates	Terrace T1 (Pativilca) : 200 ka	10.704°S	77.775°W	95	465 cm	49.88	0.1743	0.24	4.6	5,6219 +/- 2634	5,5203 +/- 2539	302 +/- 28
PAT-PE	Paleo erosion rates	Terrace T3 (Pativilca) : 40 ka	10.708°S	77.772°W	75	400 cm	49.97	0.1953	0.22	5.5	5,6468 +/- 3144	5,6004 +/- 3080	297 +/- 29
BAR-DP6	Paleo erosion rates	Terrace (Barranca) : 1.2 Ma	10.758°S	77.765°W	52	315 cm	33.25	0.1744	0.30	4.4	10,2942 +/- 4574	11,6020 +/- 2464	143 +/- 12
BAR-PE2	Paleo erosion rates	Terrace (Barranca) : 100 ka	10.759°S	77-764°W	33	400 cm	41.24	0.1984	0.14	6.3	4,4416 +/- 2823	4,2570 +/- 2682	392 +/- 40