

Determining the slip rate and earthquake recurrence interval at the tip of a foreberg in the Gobi-Altay, Mongolia

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Abstract

The Gobi-Altay, Mongolia, includes high mountain ranges that have accommodated the compressional stresses derived from the collision between the Eurasian and Indian plates. The Gurvan Bogd, which is one of the main mountain ranges in the Gobi-Altay, is a restraining bend along the sinistral Bogd Fault. Although surface ruptures did not form near the Artz Bogd during the 1957 M_w 8.1 Gobi-Altay Earthquake, it is still active, as evidenced by a growing topography (i.e. forebergs). Six foreberg ridges have formed in the foreland of the Artz Bogd, which are considered to be the result of surface deformation of alluvial fans due to thrusting. One stream has cut down to expose a foreberg tip, providing the opportunity to explore the slip evolution of the region. Here we map a growing fault structure related to blind thrusting. We identify five faulting events from an analysis of the outcrop and apply optically stimulated luminescence dating to the faulted sedimentary layers, yielding an average slip rate of 0.045 ± 0.007 m/kyr and earthquake recurrence interval of 5.8 ± 0.5 kyr over the last ~ 32 kyr. Furthermore, the long-term (~ 600 kyr) uplift rate of the foreberg is 0.067 ± 0.007 as deduced by dividing the vertical displacement of the alluvial fan surface by the ^{10}Be surface exposure ages of boulders on the fan. The discrepancy (20%–30%) between these two deformation rates may be due to the different timescales they cover and an along-strike gradient in slip rate.

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25 **Introduction**

26 Both large- and small-magnitude earthquakes have been observed in the Gobi-Altay, Mongolia, over
27 the last century, and their locations and focal mechanisms have been mapped to elucidate regional
28 earthquake processes (Dugarmaa et al., 2002; Demberel et al., 2011; Demberel and Anatoly, 2017). The
29 distribution is localised along the Bogd Fault system and mountain-bounding faults of the Gurvan Bogd
30 which is a mountain range consisting of three mountains such as Ihk Bogd, Baga Bogd, and Artz Bogd in
31 the Gobi-Altay. The largest earthquake in the Gobi-Altay during the last century, the 1957 M_w 8.1 Gobi-
32 Altay Earthquake, also occurred along the Bogd Fault, near the Gurvan Bogd. A comprehensive analysis
33 of the focal mechanisms around the Gobi-Altay Mountain Range has indicated predominantly strike-slip
34 motion with NE–SW compression (Demberel and Anatoly, 2017).

35 Palaeoseismic information, such as fault geometry, focal mechanism, magnitude, and strain distribution,
36 provides important insights into the local seismotectonic setting of a region. Estimates of fault slip rate
37 and earthquake recurrence interval are the most fundamental components of palaeoseismic studies.
38 Several studies have previously focused on forebergs (low ridges or hills that have formed due to
39 thrusting; Florensov and Solonenko, 1963; Bayasgalan et al., 1999a, 1999b) in Mongolia to estimate the
40 slip rates of regional faults and earthquake recurrence intervals (Owen et al., 1999; Ritz et al., 2003;
41 Vassallo et al., 2005). These structures accommodate the compressional stresses that originate from the
42 collision between the Eurasian and Indian plates. Therefore, identifying the geologic and geomorphic
43 markers that capture the evolution of the NW–SE-striking forebergs in the Gobi-Altay, can yield the
44 amount of far-field stress that is accommodated in an intraplate tectonic setting.

45 The previous palaeoseismological research approaches are based primarily on the age dating of faulted
46 deposits. Numerous studies have applied radiocarbon analysis using charcoal or plant debris embedded in
47 the sedimentary layers of fluvial deposits to determine the slip rate and earthquake recurrence interval
48 (Weldon and Sieh, 1985; Niemi and Hall, 1992; Thompson et al., 2002; Lin et al., 2017). Cosmogenic
49 radionuclide (^{10}Be and ^{26}Al) surface exposure dating has been applied to identify the age of geomorphic
50 markers and constrain the local slip rate (Bierman et al., 1995; Ritz et al., 1995; van der Woerd et al.,
51 2002, 2006; Seong et al., 2011). While luminescence dating is not a preferred method due to limitations
52 such as incomplete bleaching before final deposition, which is commonly the case in high-density flow
53 deposits, it is employed in conjunction with ^{10}Be surface exposure dating in arid regions owing to the
54 absence of organic material for radiocarbon dating (Fattahi et al., 2006; Rizza et al., 2011).

55 Here we document the timing, occurrence, slip rate, and recurrence interval of an earthquake sequence

56 at the tip of a foreberg along the Artz Bogd, Gobi-Altay, Mongolia. We applied optically stimulated
57 luminescence (OSL) dating to the faulted deposits in an excavated trench to determine the timing and slip
58 rate of faulting events over a short timescale (10^3 to 10^4 yrs). We also measured *in situ*-produced
59 cosmogenic ^{10}Be to date an alluvial fan surface that was deformed by a blind thrust, based on the
60 assumption that foreberg uplift reflects the cumulative vertical displacement, and determined the vertical
61 slip rate over a long timescale ($>10^4$ yrs). These palaeoseismic analyses allowed us to infer earthquake
62 processes at short and long timescales in this region.

63

64 Study area

65 The Bogd Fault, one of the main fault systems in Mongolia, is an approximately E–W-trending strike-
66 slip fault with a minor dip-slip component, which developed along a slip line that was conditioned by the
67 collision between the Indian and Eurasian plates (Fig. 1; Tapponnier and Molnar, 1976). It is a sinistral
68 fault that contributed to the development of the Gobi-Altay Mountain Range in southern Mongolia
69 (Bayasgalan et al., 1999a; Ritz et al., 2006). Gurvan Bogd (meaning ‘three saint mountains’ in
70 Mongolian), which is the eastern segment of the Gobi-Altay Mountain Range, includes the Ikh Bogd,
71 Baga Bogd, and Artz Bogd (Fig. 2). These three mountains occur at restraining bends on the Bogd Fault
72 system, whereby the northern and southern margins of each mountain are bounded by strike-slip faults
73 with a dip-slip (reverse) component, representing a flower structure (Bayasgalan et al., 1999a; Vassallo et
74 al., 2007a).

75 The 1957 M_w 8.1 Gobi-Altay Earthquake occurred along the Bogd Fault in the western Gurvan Bogd,
76 generating about 260 km of surface rupture to the north of the Ikh Bogd and Baga Bogd and causing a
77 gigantic landslide in the Ikh Bogd range (Fig. 2; Florensov and Solonenko, 1963; Kurushin et al., 1997).
78 However, the earthquake did not trigger any surface rupture or deformation along the mountain-bounding
79 fault of the Artz Bogd, which maintains a right-stepping *en echelon* relationship with the Ikh Bogd and
80 Baga Bogd (Bayasgalan et al., 1999b; Ritz et al., 2006).

81 The region around the Artz Bogd is still tectonically active, even though no surface deformation
82 accompanied the 1957 earthquake. The Artz Bogd is the easternmost restraining bend in the Gobi-Altay
83 Mountain Range. Its northern margin is bounded by N-vergent active thrusts and left-lateral oblique-slip
84 faults, and its southern margin is bounded by S-vergent thrusts and left-lateral wrench zones, defining a
85 flower structure (Cunningham, 1997). The river channels draining the mountain range have formed a
86 large bajada in the foreland of the Artz Bogd, and several lines of small forebergs lie on this bajada (Fig.
87 3a). The forebergs developed via thrusting in the foreland of the mountain-bounding fault, and the thrusts
88 dip toward the main mountain range (Florensov and Solonenko, 1963; Bayasgalan et al., 1999a; Owen et
89 al., 1999). There are six forebergs in a left-stepping *en echelon* arrangement within the left-lateral shear
90 zone near the Artz Bogd. The westernmost foreberg (FB1 in Fig. 3a) is located in the overlapping region
91 of the Baga Bogd and Artz Bogd. Foreberg FB1 has different topographic features to the other five
92 forebergs, possessing a southern slope that is much steeper than the northern slope. Forebergs FB2 and
93 FB3 formed along S-dipping thrust faults, which are inferred to be faults that branched from the
94 mountain-bounding fault of the Artz Bogd; the surface ruptures and fault scarps from these thrust faults

95 are clearly observed on these forebergs (Bayasgalan et al., 1999a; Vassallo et al., 2005). There are no clear
96 ruptures or fault traces on and around the surfaces of forebergs FB4–FB6, except for one fault trace to the
97 northern side and the other one on the eastern side of foreberg FB6 (inset in Fig. 3a and inset in Fig. 3c).

98 The largest river in the region, Khovd Gol (‘gol’ means ‘river’ in Mongolian), drains the Artz Bogd to
99 the north, crossing a topographic low between forebergs FB5 and FB6. The river cuts the western tip of
100 foreberg FB6 (Fig. 3a and 3b), exposing a portion of the faulted structure (outcrop location in Fig. 3c). We
101 excavated a trench at this exposure and conducted a detailed analysis of the geometry and kinematics of
102 the fault and its relationship to the growth of foreberg FB6 to constrain the local palaeoseismic properties.

103

104 **Methods**

105 **Luminescence dating**

106 We collected 12 samples for OSL dating from the faulted outcrop by inserting stainless steel and PVC
107 pipes into the sedimentary layers in the outcrop (Fig. 4a). We obtained the samples from the uppermost
108 sedimentary layers that were cut by each fault strand to constrain the maximum age of each faulting event.
109 The samples were collected far from the section that was deformed via faulting or soft sediment
110 deformation to avoid any earthquake-induced disturbance and derive the exact timing of deposition of
111 each layer.

112 All of the pre-treatment and measurement procedures for OSL dating were conducted at the Korea
113 Basic Science Institute (KBSI), Ochang, Korea. The coarse (90–250 μm) quartz fraction was extracted
114 from each sample via wet sieving and acid treatment. The separated grains were examined under infrared
115 to confirm that feldspar grains had been removed. The infrared stimulated luminescence signals were
116 negligible during the test, accounting for $\ll 10\%$ of the blue-LED stimulated luminescence signals, which
117 indicates the absence of feldspar contamination.

118 We used 16 8-mm aliquots for each sample during the OSL signal measurements and employed the
119 single-aliquot regenerative-dose (SAR) procedure for the equivalent dose estimation (Murray and Wintle,
120 2000; Table 1). The OSL signals were measured using an automated measurement system (Risø TL/OSL-
121 DA-20) at KBSI. The samples were irradiated during the first and fourth steps of the SAR procedure
122 using a $^{90}\text{Sr}/^{90}\text{Y}$ beta source that was delivered at $0.086 \pm 0.001 \text{ Gy}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. The blue-LED stimulation light
123 source ($470 \pm 30 \text{ nm}$) was delivered at $\sim 101 \text{ mW}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ to the sample position during the third and sixth
124 steps to generate the luminescence signals. The stimulation was carried out for 40 s at 125°C to avoid
125 charge retrapping, and the signals were detected using a 7-mm Hoya U-340 filter.

126 The dose rate of each sample was calculated based on the radionuclide concentrations that were
127 measured via low-level high-resolution gamma spectrometry. The radionuclide concentrations were
128 converted to dose rates using the dose rate conversion factors of Adamiec and Aitken (1998), and the beta
129 attenuation factor was taken into account (Mejdahl, 1979). The dose rate was calibrated based on the
130 water content in the sample (Aitken, 1985) and the cosmic ray contribution (Prescott and Hutton, 1994).

131

132 ¹⁰Be surface exposure dating

133 High-energy cosmic rays from our solar system and other galaxies regularly bombard the Earth and its
134 atmosphere, and primarily react with atoms in the atmosphere, which subsequently produce various
135 cosmogenic nuclides and a cascade of secondary cosmic rays. These secondary cosmic rays then react
136 with the atoms in minerals on the exposed rock surfaces on Earth, producing *in situ* cosmogenic nuclides
137 (e.g. ³He, ¹⁰Be, ¹⁴C, ²¹Ne, ²⁶Al, and ³⁶Cl) (Lal, 1991; von Blanckenburg, 2005). Cosmogenic surface
138 exposure dating has therefore become one of the most commonly used and reliable numerical methods for
139 dating various geomorphic surfaces, such as alluvial fans, fluvial and marine terraces, and moraines
140 (Bierman et al., 1995; Nishiizumi et al., 2005; Granger, 2013).

141 We collected three samples from large boulders, which can be separated into two groups according to
142 their locations on the alluvial fan, which belong to the northern limb of the foreberg FB6 (Figs. 3c and 3d),
143 assuming that these boulders represent the depositional age of the alluvial fan surface. We chose large (>1
144 m) boulders to exclude the possibility of sampling material that was reworked or had otherwise migrated
145 during sporadic intense precipitation and uplift due to faulting. However, we were unable to obtain a
146 desirable number of boulder samples (>5) because gravel and sand are the dominant fractions on the
147 alluvial fan surface near foreberg F6. The samples were collected within ~5 cm of each boulder surface.
148 The sample locations were determined with a handheld global positioning system. Weathering
149 information, such as lichen growth, varnishing, and pitting, was recorded, and the skyline was measured
150 at 30° intervals.

151 We conducted all of the chemical treatments on the samples at the Geochronology Laboratory, Korea
152 University, following the community standard procedure for ¹⁰Be extraction (Kohl and Nishiizumi, 1992;
153 Seong et al., 2016). The samples were crushed, with the 250–500 μm fractions separated via dry sieving.
154 The sieved samples were first leached using a HCl–HNO₃ mixture to remove carbonate minerals and
155 organic materials. They were then leached using a HF–HNO₃ mixture on heating roller for 9 hours to
156 remove other minerals, such as feldspar and mica. We removed the magnetic minerals and reprecipitated
157 fluoride with a magnet and handpicking, respectively, between two leaching processes. The entire process
158 yielded ~15 g of pure quartz for each sample. The quartz samples were spiked using a ⁹Be carrier with a
159 low background ¹⁰Be level and dissolved in a highly concentrated HF and HNO₃ mixture on a hotplate.
160 The fluoride was then removed via HNO₃ and HClO₄ fuming, and Be was separated using an ion
161 exchange column, where it was separated at pH > 7. Be was precipitated as BeOH in NH₄OH. The BeOH
162 in the quartz crucible was dried in a warm (~80°C) bath and then calcined into BeO at 800°C for 10

163 minutes to remove water and ammonium salt. We mixed the resultant BeO with niobium powder to form
164 the targets. The targets were measured using a 6 MV accelerator mass spectrometer at Korea Institute of
165 Science and Technology, Seoul, Korea.

166 The measured $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$ ratios were normalised to a ^{10}Be standard (5-1; $2.709 \times 10^{-11} \text{ }^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$) prepared
167 by Nishiizumi et al. (2007) using a ^{10}Be half-life of 1.38×10^6 years (Chmeleff et al., 2010; Korschinek et
168 al., 2010), and converted into ^{10}Be concentrations after correcting the ratios with a process blank ($2.679 \times$
169 $10^{-15} \pm 1.120 \times 10^{-15} \text{ }^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$). We then calculated the ^{10}Be surface exposure ages using the CRONUS-
170 Earth online calculator version 3.0 (Balco et al., 2008); the resultant exposure ages are listed in Table 3.

171

172 **Results**

173 **Trench**

174 We identified 23 layers in the trench (Fig. 4a). The grain size distribution in the trench wall was
175 predominantly in the silt to sand size range (0.2–200 μm), although there were angular to subangular
176 pebble clasts in the silt–sand matrix, particularly in layers L1, L6, L8, L12, L16, and L20. Layers L1, L16,
177 and L20 are matrix-supported, whereas layers L6, L8, and L12 are clast-supported, which is indicative of
178 sheet-flow deposits. A thick (~20 cm) carbonate layer (L22) caps the sedimentary layer (L21) and is
179 overlain by a ~20-cm-thick matrix-supported sheet-flow deposit (L23). Most of the layers display some
180 type of bedding, although layers L2, L3, L13, L15, L17, L18, L19, and L21 are massive in structure.

181 Total 23 layers were observed, and eight main fault strands (F1–F8) were identified in the trench wall
182 (Fig. 4b). We divided all layers in the trench into nine deformation units based on the observed
183 deformation along each fault strand, with the uppermost layer of each unit marking the uppermost layer
184 that was cut by a given fault strand; note that L22 and L23 were not cut by any fault strands, which
185 belong to deformation unit 9. The uppermost layers are layers L3, L7, L8, L10, L14, L19, L20, and L21.
186 The fault strands all possess a similar orientation, striking N60–86°W and dipping 61–70°SW, with the
187 dip decreasing toward the surface (30–52°SW). The faults have an almost pure dip-slip (reverse)
188 component, with a small strike-slip (sinistral) component, as shown by the orientation of slickenlines (Fig.
189 4c), which have a rake angle of 87–89°N in the clockwise direction with respect to the fault strike.

190 The trench orientation was N20–30°E, almost normal to the fault strike. The dip separations and
191 vertical displacements were measured at the boundary of layers L2 and L3, as bedrock was not present in
192 the footwall, and the boundary between layers L1 and L2 was not clear in some parts of the trench.
193 Example piercing points that we referenced are marked by the characters in black squares in Fig. 4b. The
194 dip separation and vertical displacement (values in parentheses) between a–a', b–b', and c–c' are 0.34 m
195 (0.27 m), 0.62 m (0.41 m), and 0.50 m (0.47 m), respectively, with each displacement having a
196 measurement error of 10%, as the trench was excavated almost normal to the fault strike, and slickenlines
197 indicate almost pure dip-slip movement.

198

199

200 **Luminescence dating**

201 The equivalent dose was calculated following the central age model estimation (Galbraith et al., 1999),
202 and the depositional timing of each layer was calculated by dividing the equivalent dose by the annual
203 dose rate for each sample (Table 2). OSL samples ABA4-OL-03, -07, -08, -10, -14, -19, and -21 were
204 collected from the uppermost layers that were cut by the fault strands. We could not insert an OSL pipe
205 into layer L20 to collect a sample due to the presence of numerous large pebble clasts. The oldest
206 uppermost layer cut by the fault was layer L3, which was deposited at 32.34 ± 3.72 ka, and the youngest
207 was layer L21, which was deposited at 9.86 ± 0.60 ka.

208 The OSL dating results show inversion in some sections of the trench, although we did not observe any
209 evidence of stratigraphic inversion to support these results. Incomplete bleaching of the luminescence
210 signal prior to final deposition can result in an overestimate the depositional age (Alexanderson and
211 Murray, 2012; Yang et al., 2012), whereas depositional disturbances due to soil-forming processes,
212 earthquake shaking, plant roots, and tunnelling by ants and rodents can result in an underestimate of the
213 age (Stevens et al., 2006). For example, the measured age of layer L3 is younger than that of layer L7,
214 even though layer L3 is lower than layer L7. An overestimation due to incomplete bleaching may arise
215 because of the depositional environment or the physical properties of the sedimentary deposits
216 (Alexanderson and Murray, 2012). Fluvial deposits are likely to contain both well-bleached grains and
217 insufficiently bleached grains, as they are mixed and transported by water (Murray et al., 1995; Olley et
218 al., 1998; Galbraith et al., 1999). Furthermore, it is possible for the sediments in sedimentary layers that
219 were deposited by a highly concentrated massive flow to be only partially bleached during deposition.
220 These deposits usually have either an unsorted texture, massive structure or no clear sedimentary
221 structures. Therefore, we interpreted that the mass flow deposits in the trench might be incompletely
222 bleached, yielding overestimated ages. We performed a regression analysis to resolve the age inversion
223 problem, where we derived a linear relationship between the depths and ages of the layers under the
224 assumption of a constant depositional rate (Fig. 5; Table 2).

225

226

227 **¹⁰Be surface exposure dating**

228 Three samples were collected from boulder surfaces to constrain the age of the alluvial fan (Figs. 3c
229 and 3d). The sampled boulders were red-coloured conglomerate.

230 The boulders were likely sourced from the Artz Bogd and transported during formation of the alluvial
231 fan. There should be many boulders near foreberg FB6 if they were sourced from the foreberg itself (i.e.
232 reworked) or had an *in situ* origin. However, there are few boulders in and around foreberg FB6.
233 Furthermore, the bedrock around the Artz Bogd includes conglomerate and red beds (Cunningham et al.,
234 1997), and we observed many boulder- and cobble-sized blocks of red-coloured conglomerate in the
235 valley bottom along the Artz Bogd and near the apex of the alluvial fan. The boulders that we sampled on
236 foreberg FB6 may have been deposited during the formation of the alluvial fan and subsequently uplifted
237 due to thrusting forming the foreberg. Therefore, we believe that ¹⁰Be surface exposure dating of the
238 boulders can constrain the age of the alluvial fan surface.

239 The boulder ages can be separated into two groups based on their locations (Fig. 8; Table 3). The first
240 group includes two samples, ABC001 and ABC002, which have similar exposure ages of 40.7 ± 3.2 ka
241 and 43.8 ± 3.5 ka, respectively. The second group includes only one sample (ABC004), which has an
242 exposure age of 612.7 ± 61.6 ka. The difference between the ages of these two groups is extremely large
243 (>500 kyr). Given the site-specific conditions of the two sites and previous reports on the antiquity of
244 mountain surface of potential candidate source of alluvial fan in the region (Vassallo et al., 2007b; Oh et
245 al., 2019), the older sample on the original, gentler surface may indicate the true depositional age of the
246 alluvial fan rather than those on the uplifted hill. This discrepancy is considered in the discussion.

247

248

249 **Discussion**

250 **Timing of faulting**

251 The OSL ages of the sedimentary layers represent the timing of deposition. Layers L3, L7, L8, L10,
252 L14, L19, L20, and L21 are the uppermost layers cut by faults F1–F8, respectively. The OSL age of the
253 uppermost layer for a given deformation unit generally indicates the maximum age of that faulting event,
254 and the OSL age of the overlying unit defines the minimum age of the following event, since the faulting
255 event in a given unit is assumed to occur after the deposition of its uppermost layer and before the
256 deposition of the overlying unit, and each fault is assumed to cut the entire unit during faulting. All of the
257 faults, except for faults F3 and F4, are interpreted to have cut the entire unit. However, the timings of the
258 faulting events along faults F6 and F7 cannot be constrained based on this hypothesis because we do not
259 have age data for unit 7. We therefore treat unit 7 as a gap between the ages of units 6 and 8 (Fig. 6a).

260 However, if a given fault did not cut the entire unit, then there should be fault-induced deformation,
261 such as folding or soft sediment deformation, in the intact layers. The maximum age of the faulting event
262 is the age of the intact layer including folding structure in this case, and the minimum age can be
263 constrained by the age of the overlying unit. We interpreted that unit 4 had already been deposited when
264 the faulting along fault F3 occurred because fault F3 cut through unit 4 but did not cut into unit 4, while
265 unit 4 was folded by fault F3 (a black empty box in Fig. 4b). Therefore, we interpret that the F3 faulting
266 event occurred between the deposition of units 4 and 5 (Fig. 6a).

267 We also interpret that the F4 faulting event occurred between the deposition of units 5 and 6 (Fig. 6a),
268 as fault F4 cut through unit 4 but did not cut into unit 5. However, it is difficult to determine whether the
269 F3 and F4 faulting events occurred simultaneously based on their fault geometries and a potential
270 relationship between the two faults. Fault F4 branched from a different fault strand to fault F3, whereas it
271 branched from the same fault strand as fault F5. Strain localizes along the fault plane when a fault is
272 active. Therefore, when fault F3 was active, the strain localised along the F3 fault plane, such that it was
273 less likely for fault F4 to activate contemporaneously with fault F3. It is worth noting that the faults in
274 this trench define a N-vergent thrust system in a break-back sequence, which implies that the younger
275 faults developed in the hanging walls of the older faults. Therefore, we prefer to interpret that faults F4
276 and F5 branched from the same fault strand and were active simultaneously, based on the geometrical
277 properties of the faults (Fig. 6).

278

279 **Palaeoseismic implications**

280 We first estimated the slip rate and earthquake recurrence interval based on the true displacement of the
281 sedimentary layers in the trenched wall and the timing of each faulting event. We then constructed a
282 model for the faulting events by restoring the events in an inverse order during the late Quaternary.

283 The slip rate was calculated by dividing the cumulative displacement by the age of the displaced layer
284 since it was derived from the total slip amount for the five faulting events. We calculated the slip rate
285 using the cumulative true displacement of layer L3 and the fitted age of layer L3. The cumulative true
286 displacement of layer L3 is 1.46 ± 0.14 m (considering 10% of measurement error), and its fitted OSL age
287 is 32.49 ± 3.72 ka (Fig. 4b; Table 2), yielding a cumulative slip rate of 0.045 ± 0.007 m/kyr. Our slip rate
288 is similar to Owen et al.'s (1999) cumulative rate of 0.050 ± 0.003 m/kyr based on one OSL age of the
289 deformed, oldest layer and a pure thrust geometry in a natural exposure.

290 We identified five faulting events and constructed a model for the sequence of events (Fig. 7) based on
291 the timing of the events (Fig. 6). The first faulting event occurred along fault F1 between 32.49 and 23.57
292 ka. The second took place between 23.57 and 21.02 ka along faults F2 and F3. The third event occurred
293 between 21.02 and 12.96 ka along faults F4 and F5, and the fourth between 12.96 and 9.56 ka along faults
294 F6 and F7. The final event took place along fault F8 after 9.56 ka. We then estimated the earthquake
295 recurrence interval based on the central age of each event, yielding $\sim 5.8 \pm 0.5$ kyr for the last 32 kyr (Fig.
296 6b).

297

298

299 **Estimation of the long-term deformation rate**

300 We estimated the uplift rate of foreberg FB6 (Fig. 3) under the assumption that the foreberg developed
301 via faulting after the alluvial fan was deposited. The uplift rate was calculated by dividing the amount of
302 foreberg uplift by the age of the undeformed alluvial fan surface.

303 The amount of foreberg uplift was derived from a high-resolution (0.5 m/pixel) digital elevation model
304 (DEM) that was generated using ~7000 aerial images acquired by a drone (DJI Phantom 4 pro) in June
305 2018. We acquired a series of cross-sectional profiles around the boulder sampling sites (Figs. 3 and 8)
306 and restored the original surface of the alluvial fan by fitting the undeformed alluvial fan surface. The
307 fitted surface possessed a slope of $\sim 1^\circ$, which is indicative of flat alluvial fans (Blissenbach, 1954). The
308 amount of uplift was estimated by subtracting the elevation of the restored fan surface from the foreberg
309 elevation, which indicates the vertical displacement between the deformed and original surfaces. The
310 maximum amount of uplift is 41.0 ± 0.8 m.

311 The boulders can be separated into two groups based on their locations (Fig. 8), as previously
312 mentioned. The first group (ABC001 and ABC002) is on the top of a small, uplifted hill, which is an
313 incipient foreberg, and show ages of 40.7 ± 3.2 ka and 43.8 ± 3.5 ka. The second group (ABC004) lies on
314 the original, flat alluvial fan surface and has an age of 612.7 ± 61.6 ka. The boulders in the first group
315 may have been toppled or overturned during the uplift due to thrusting, such that they yield an
316 underestimate of the age of the alluvial fan surface. Therefore, the boulder in the second group may
317 indicate the true timing of deposition. It is worth noting that the old age (~ 600 kyr) of the alluvial fan
318 surface in our study region is similar to other ages reported in and around the Gurvan Bogd (Vassallo et
319 al., 2007b, 2011; Oh, et al., 2019).

320 We estimated the long-term uplift rate of foreberg FB6 from the amount of foreberg uplift and the ^{10}Be -
321 derived age of the alluvial fan surface, which is 0.067 ± 0.007 m/kyr. Our calculated slip rate is largely in
322 agreement with previous results. Owen et al. (1999) derived a vertical slip rate of 0.050 ± 0.003 m/kyr
323 based on displaced sedimentary layers and their ages for foreberg FB6. Vassallo et al. (2005) derived a
324 slip rate of 0.13 ± 0.01 m/kyr based on a displaced surface and its age for foreberg FB2 (Figs. 2 and 3a),
325 which lies near the Artz Bogd. Numerous studies have been conducted on the forebergs along the Bogd
326 Fault, which is the main fault in the region, and near the Ikh Bogd and Baga Bogd, with vertical slip rates
327 ranging from 0.10 ± 0.01 to 0.23 ± 0.05 m/kyr (Fig. 2; Hanks et al., 1997; Carretier, 2000; Ritz et al.,
328 2003; Vassallo et al., 2005). Given that the vertical slip rates from those studies were obtained near the
329 Bogd Fault, whereas our study area is distal to the Bogd Fault, we would expect our slip rate to be lower

330 because the slip rate decreases toward the fault tip. Therefore, we interpret our uplift rate of 0.067 ± 0.007
331 m/kyr for foreberg FB6 as a reasonable estimate.

332 However, this uplift rate is based on the displaced geomorphic surface and its age, which is inconsistent
333 with the slip rate that we estimated from the trench. The long-term uplift rate is 0.067 ± 0.007 m/kyr₂ and
334 the vertical slip rate is 0.045 ± 0.005 m/kyr. This discrepancy may result from (1) the different timescales
335 for the short-term and long-term uplift rates, and (2) the different locations where the slip rate calculations
336 were made.

337 The timescale for the slip rate derived from the trench only covers the past ~32 ka, which is the age of
338 the oldest layer in the section, whereas the uplift rate based on the geomorphic surface covers the past
339 ~612.7 ka, which is the age of the undeformed alluvial fan surface. Therefore, it can be interpreted that
340 the long-term uplift rate over the past ~612.7 ka is higher than the short-term slip rate that spans the past
341 ~35.03 ka. Furthermore, the trench is located at the tip of foreberg FB6, whereas the alluvial fan surface
342 that is used for the vertical growth measurement and ¹⁰Be exposure dating is ~700 m away from the tip.
343 The slip rate generally exhibits a gradual decrease toward both tips along the fault strike, reaching a
344 maximum at the centre. This trend suggests that the discrepancy between these two rates can be explained
345 by a slip rate gradient along the fault strike.

346

347

348 **Conclusion**

349 We conducted a palaeoseismic study on a foreberg that has grown on an alluvial fan that drains the Artz
350 Bogd and preserves fundamental information on the frequency of earthquakes and their associated slip in
351 the Gobi-Altay, Mongolia. Forebergs grow both vertically and laterally on the alluvial fan surface when
352 thrusting either propagates or branches from the mountain-bounding fault, forming the main fault system
353 in the study area. The main conclusions are as follows.

354 1) We identified eight fault strands in a trenched outcrop containing 23 sedimentary layers and bedrock
355 at the western tip of the foreberg. We identified five faulting events based on the stratigraphic sequence,
356 cutting relationships, and timing of faulting along these fault strands.

357 2) We estimated a cumulative slip rate of 0.045 ± 0.007 m/kyr and an earthquake recurrence interval of
358 5.8 ± 0.5 kyr for the past ~32 kyr based on the displacement of sedimentary layers and their OSL ages.

359 3) The long-term (~600 kyr) uplift rate is 0.067 ± 0.007 m/kyr, which we determined by dividing the
360 vertical displacement of the geomorphic surface (alluvial fan surface) by the ^{10}Be -derived age of the
361 alluvial fan.

362 4) These inconsistent vertical growth rates of the foreberg may be due to the different time scales they
363 cover and a gradient in slip rate along the fault strike of the foreberg.

364

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1 Table 1. Single-aliquot regenerative-dose protocol for OSL dating (modified from Murray and Wintle, 2000).

Step	Treatment ^a	Observed
1	Give dose, D_i	-
2	Preheat ^a (260°C for 10s)	-
3	Blue Stimulation for 40s at 125°C	L_i
4	Give test dose, D_t	-
5	Cut-heat ^b to 220°C for 0s	-
6	Blue Stimulation for 40s at 125°C	T_i
7	Return to step 1	-

2 ^a For the natural sample, $i=0$, and $D_0 = 0$.3 ^b Aliquot cooled to less than 60°C after heating. In step 5, the TL signal from the test dose can be observed, but it is
4 not made in the use of routine applications.

5

6

7 Table 2. OSL ages of sedimentary layers in the trenched exposure.

Sample Code	Depth (cm)	Dose Rate (Gy/ka)	Equivalent Dose ^a (Gy)	Aliquots used ^b (n/N)	OSL age ^a (ka, 1 σ SE)	Fitted age ^{a, c} (ka, 1 σ SE)
ABA4-OL-01	400	3.26 \pm 0.08	53 \pm 1	15/16	16.25 \pm 0.50	35.03 \pm 0.50
ABA4-OL-02	385	2.93 \pm 0.08	166 \pm 11	16/16	56.65 \pm 4.06	33.76 \pm 4.06
ABA4-OL-03	370	3.03 \pm 0.08	98 \pm 11	16/16	32.34 \pm 3.72	32.49 \pm 3.72
ABA4-OL-07	265	3.34 \pm 0.09	121 \pm 12	15/16	36.22 \pm 3.72	23.57 \pm 3.72
ABA4-OL-08	265	2.83 \pm 0.08	47 \pm 1	16/16	16.60 \pm 0.58	23.57 \pm 0.58
ABA4-OL-10	275	3.20 \pm 0.10	55 \pm 4	14/16	17.18 \pm 1.36	23.15 \pm 1.36
ABA4-OL-12	250	3.01 \pm 0.08	39 \pm 2	15/16	12.95 \pm 0.74	22.30 \pm 0.74
ABA4-OL-13	240	3.22 \pm 0.10	73 \pm 7	16/16	22.67 \pm 2.28	21.45 \pm 2.28
ABA4-OL-14	235	3.21 \pm 0.10	83 \pm 9	15/16	25.85 \pm 2.91	21.02 \pm 2.91
ABA4-OL-17	225	3.54 \pm 0.11	62 \pm 4	15/16	17.51 \pm 1.25	20.17 \pm 1.25
ABA4-OL-19	140	3.48 \pm 0.11	52 \pm 4	16/16	14.94 \pm 1.24	12.96 \pm 1.24
ABA4-OL-21	100	3.75 \pm 0.11	37 \pm 2	16/16	9.86 \pm 0.60	9.56 \pm 0.60

8 ^a Central age \pm 1 σ standard error.9 ^b n/N refers to the ratio of (the number of aliquots used for data analysis)/(total number of aliquots loaded in the OSL
10 measurement system).11 ^c Fitted ages were calculated based on the linear fitting of depth and measured OSL age of each sedimentary layer
12 (Fig. 5).

13

Table 3. ^{10}Be exposure ages of the boulders on the foreberg FB6.

Name	Latitude (°N, DD)	Longitude (°E, DD)	Elevation (m asl)	Thickness ^a (cm)	Shielding factor	Quartz ^b (g)	Be carrier (g)	$^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}^{\text{c,d}}$ (10^{-13})	^{10}Be concentration ^{d,e} (10^5 atoms/g)	Exposure age ^{d,f} (ka)
ABC001	44.63845	102.13025	1574	6	0.9985	15.9652	0.3921	3.465 ± 0.021	5.60 ± 0.07	40.7 ± 3.2
ABC002	44.63835	102.13036	1575	4	0.9986	9.8940	0.3911	2.360 ± 0.012	6.11 ± 0.07	43.8 ± 3.5
ABC004	44.63833	102.12856	1575	4	0.9985	5.6309	0.3843	16.477 ± 0.534	74.40 ± 2.53	612.7 ± 61.6

^a Tops of the exposed boulder surfaces.

^b Density of rock ($2.7\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$) was used.

^c Ratios of $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$ were normalized with 07KNSTD reference sample 5-1 ($2.71 \times 10^{-11} \pm 1.09 \times 10^{-13}$) of Nishiizumi et al. (2007) and ^{10}Be half-life of 1.38×10^6 (Chmeleff et al., 2010; Korschinek et al., 2010).

^d Uncertainties are calculated at the 1σ confidence level.

^e A mean value of process blank samples ($2.68 \times 10^{-15} \pm 1.12 \times 10^{-15}$; $n = 2$) was used for correction of background.

^f Ages are calculated assuming zero erosion via the CRONUS-Earth online calculator (version 3.0) of Balco et al. (2008) with scaling factors of Stone (2000).

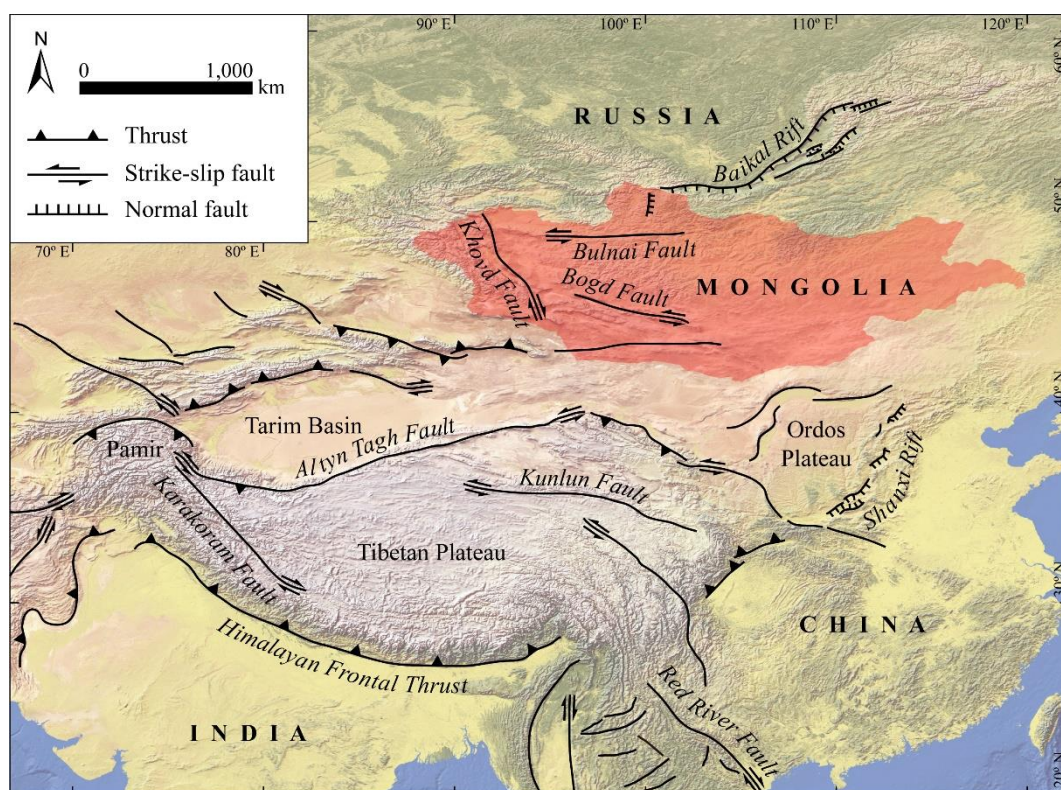


Figure 1. Simplified tectonic map of central Asia. The Bogd Fault formed along the slip line made by the collision between the Eurasian and the Indian plates (modified from Tapponnier and Molnar, 1976).

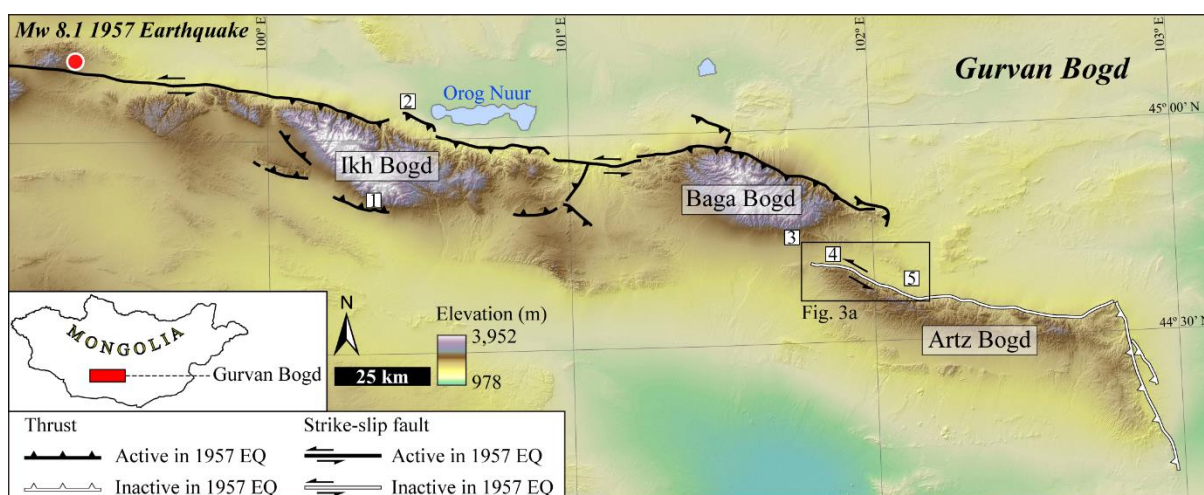


Figure 2. Map of the study area (Gurvan Bogd) and epicentre of the 1957 earthquake in the Gobi-Altay, Mongolia. The numbers (1 through 5) in the small rectangle indicate the vertical slip rates reported from previous studies. 1: 0.14 ± 0.03 m/kyr (Ritz et al., 2003), 0.19 ± 0.05 to 0.23 ± 0.05 m/kyr (Vassallo et al., 2005), 0.12 ± 0.02 to 0.13 ± 0.02 m/kyr (Vassallo et al., 2005); 2: 0.10 ± 0.01 m/kyr (Hanks et al., 1997); 3: 0.11 ± 0.03 m/kyr (Carretier, 2000); 4: 0.13 ± 0.01 m/kyr (Vassallo et al., 2005); 5: 0.05 ± 0.003 m/kyr (Owen et al., 1999).

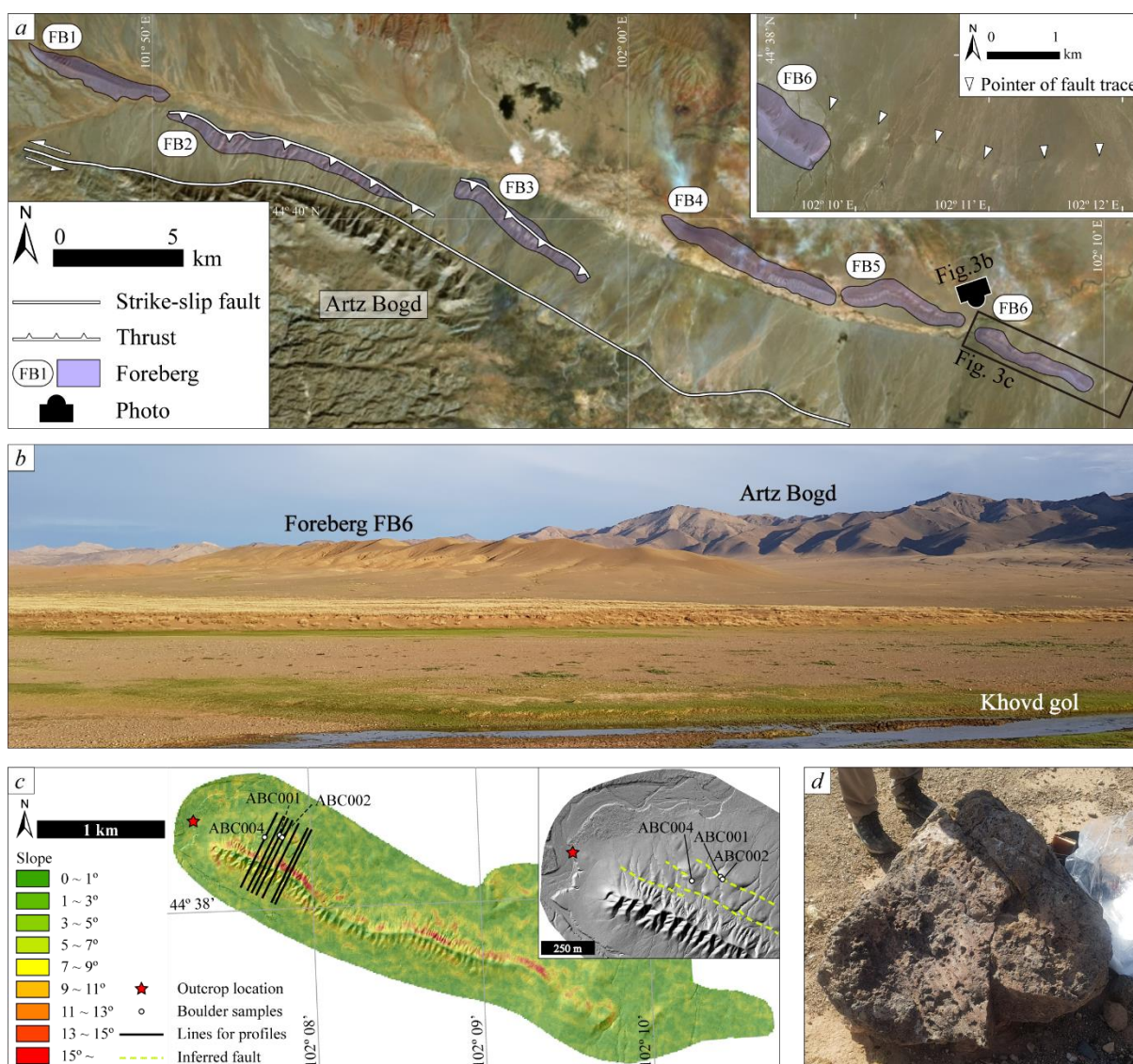


Figure 3. Detailed maps of the study area. (a) Foreberg development on the alluvial fans that are sourced from the Artz Bogd. (b) Image of foreberg FB6, with the Artz Bogd in the background. The approximate camera angle for this image is shown in Fig. 3a. (c) Slope analysis around foreberg F6 based on the 12.5-m resolution ALOS PALSAR DEM. The locations of the trenched outcrop (red star), ^{10}Be surface exposure dating sites (white circles) and cross-sectional profiles for deriving the alluvial fan slope (black lines) are shown. The inset image is a hillshade DEM of the study area that was constructed from ~7000 drone images (50-cm resolution); the dashed yellow lines denote inferred faults. (d) Image of a large (>1 m) boulder (ABC004) that was sampled for ^{10}Be surface exposure dating.

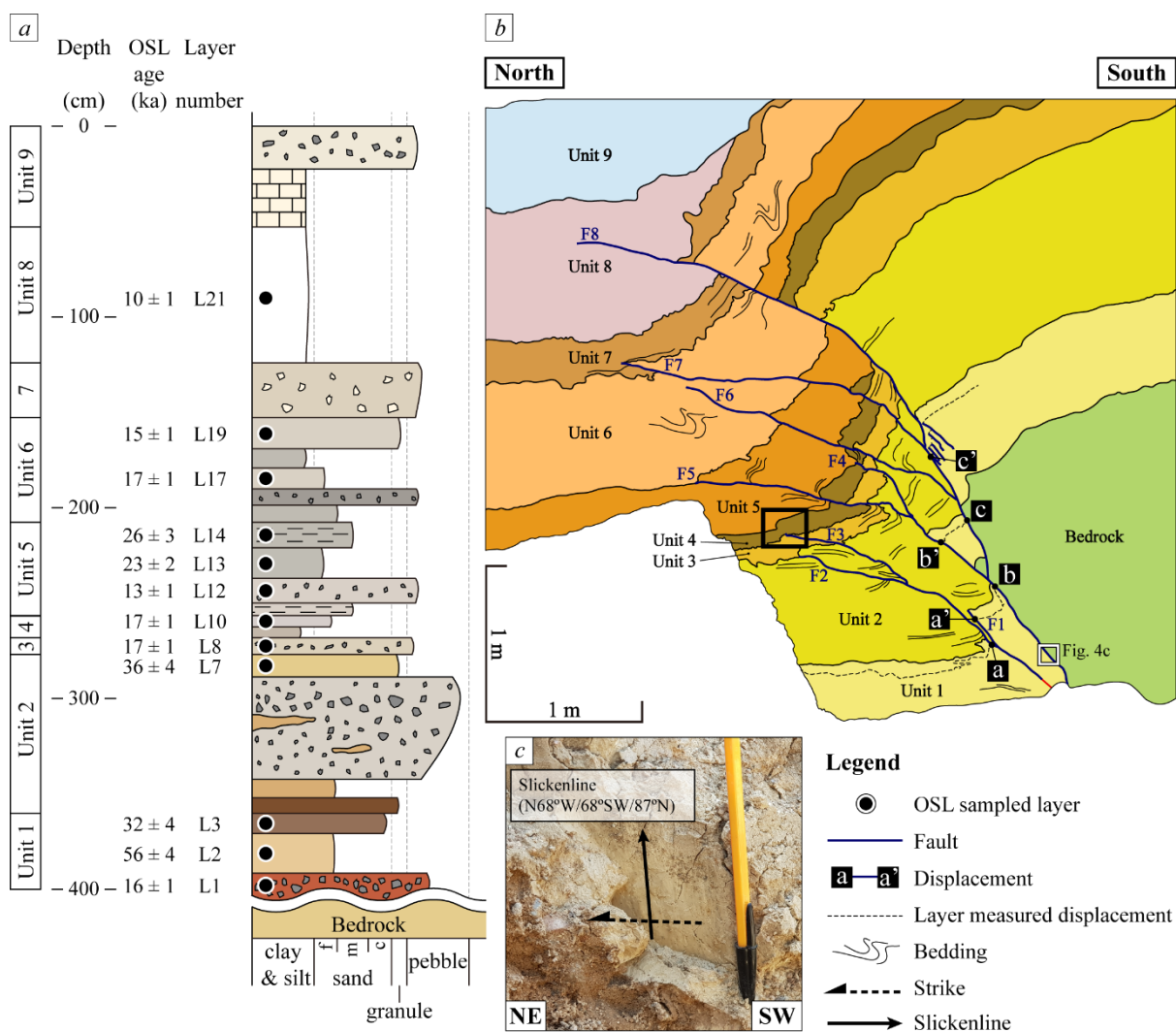


Figure 4. Information on the trenched exposure and OSL dating of sedimentary layers. (a) Stratigraphic section of the sedimentary layers in the trenched exposure. (b) Simplified sketch of the faulted outcrop. The black box highlights an example of deformation in the unit above a terminated fault tip. The white box identifies the location of the image in Fig. 4c. (c) Image of a bedrock slickenline, which indicates sub-vertical slip.

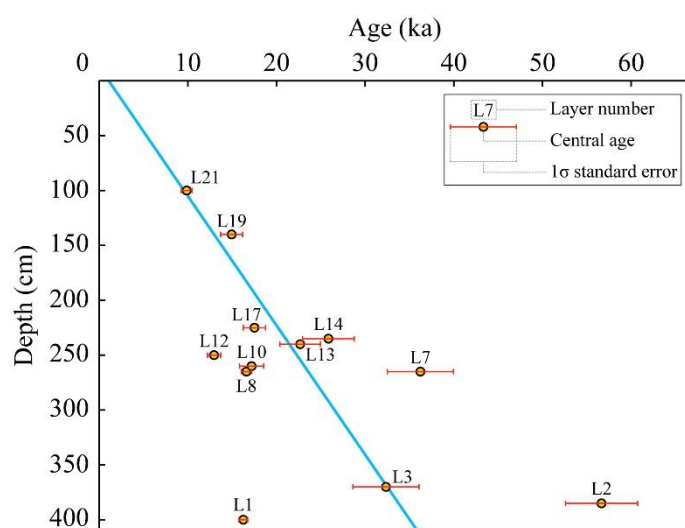


Figure 5. Linear fit of the OSL ages, with $R^2 = 0.333$. The measured and fitted ages are listed in Table 2.

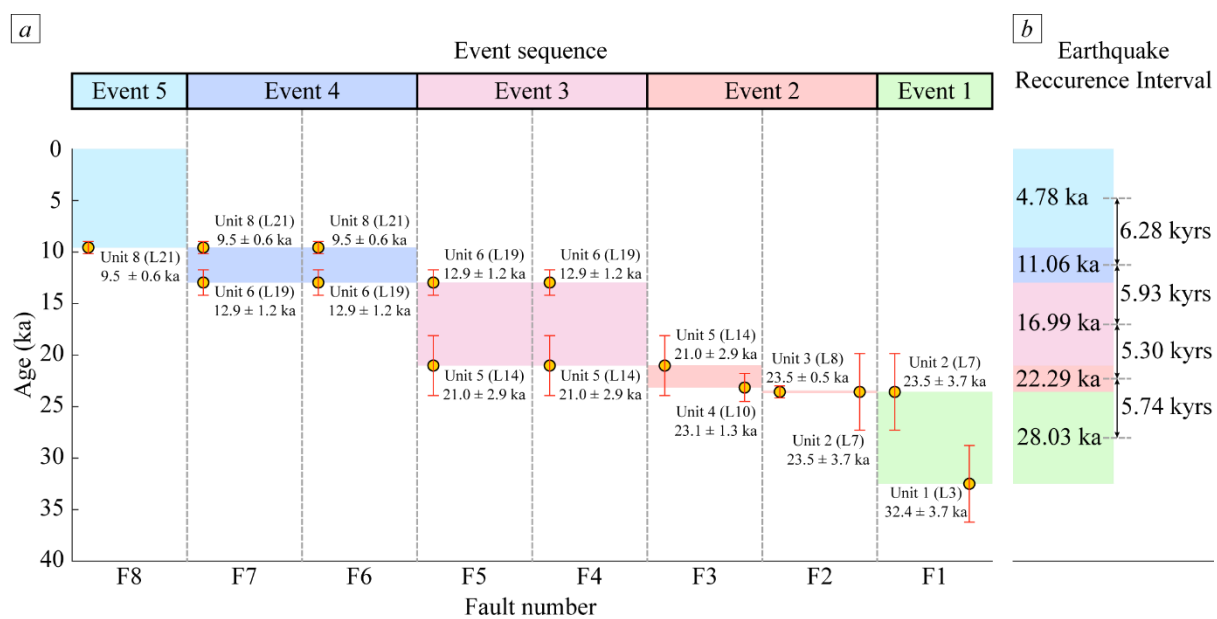


Figure 6. (a) Sequence of faulting events and (b) deduced earthquake recurrence interval in the study area. The recurrence interval was based on the central age of each event (see Table 2).

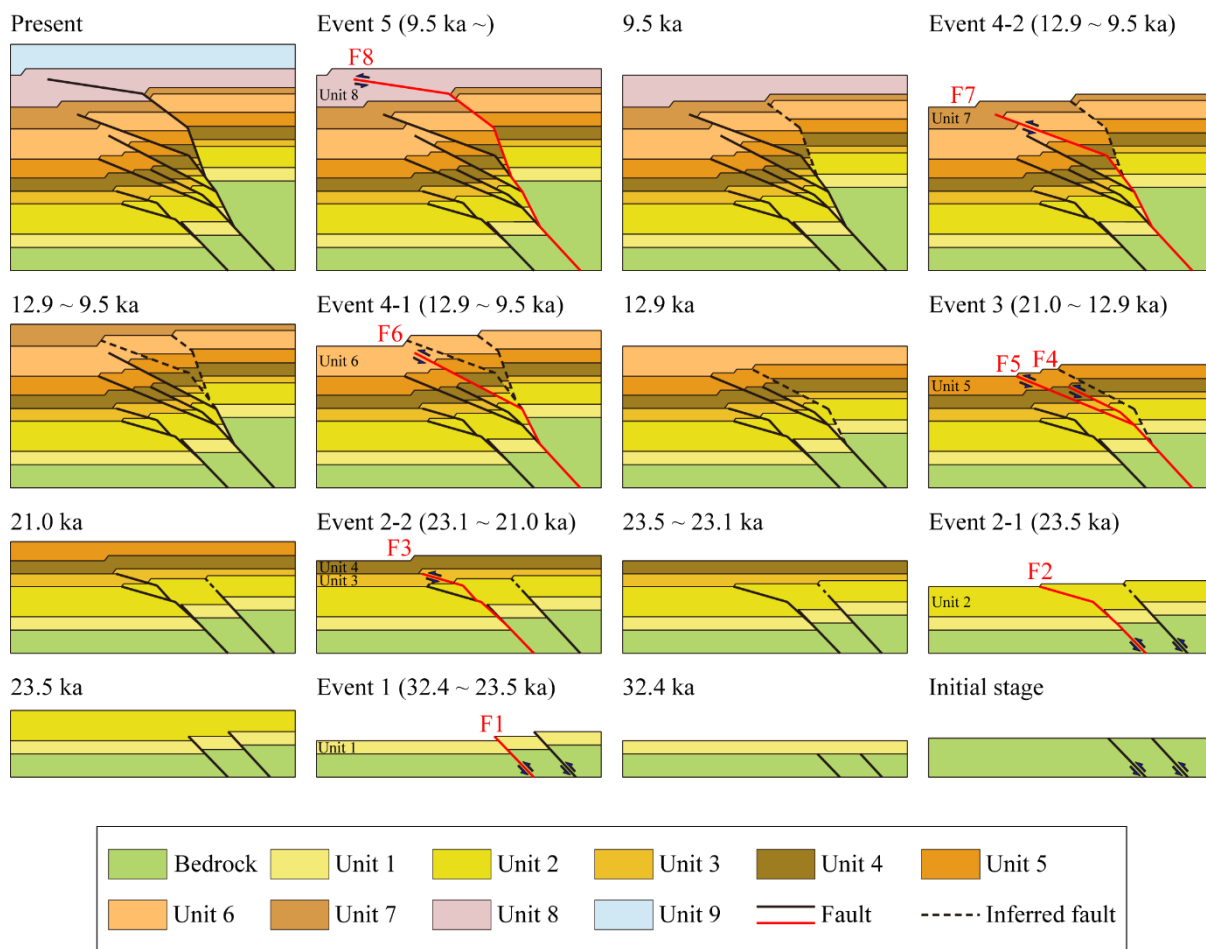


Figure 7. Restoration of deformation in the trenched exposure in reverse order. The best-fit OSL ages are provided for each panel.

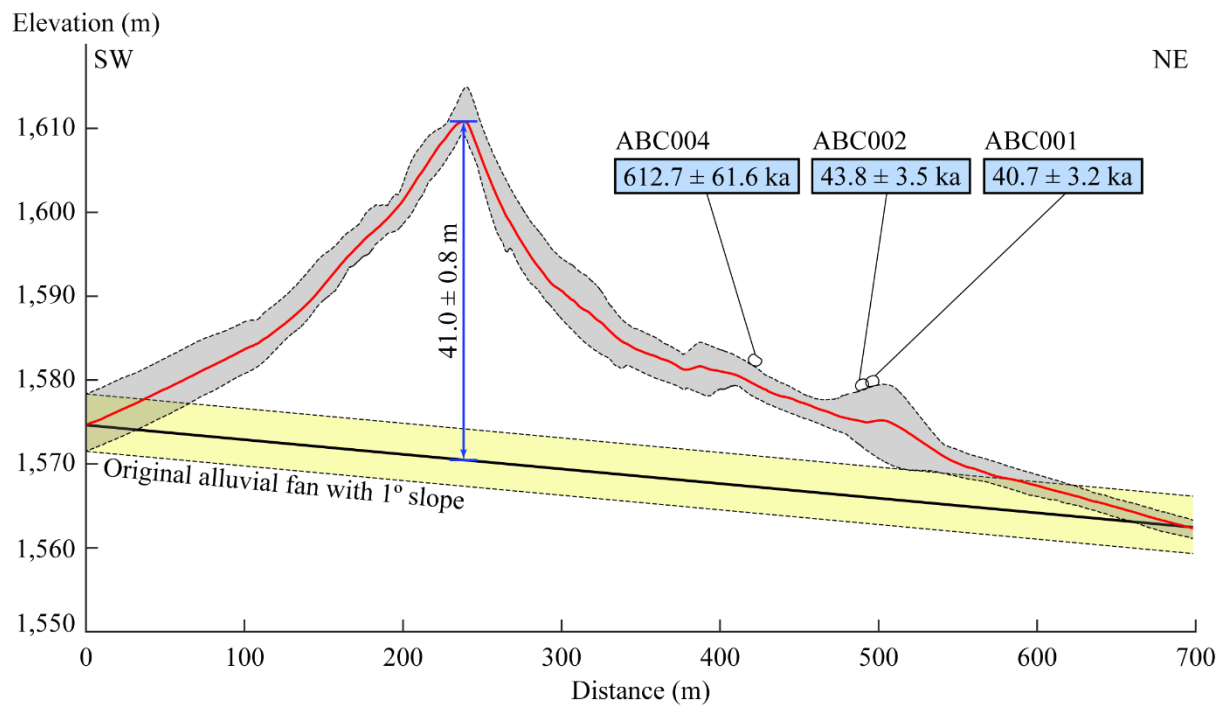
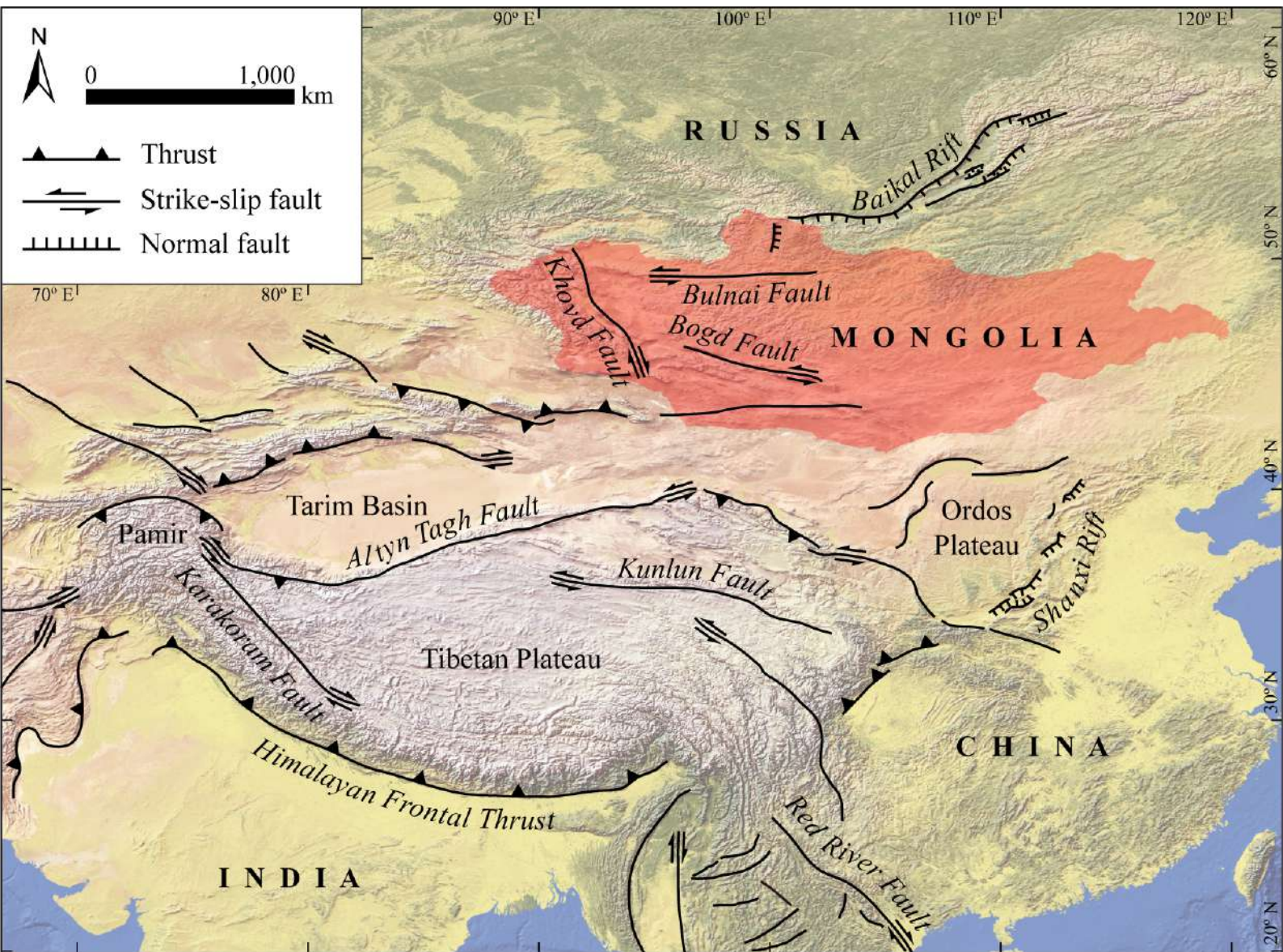
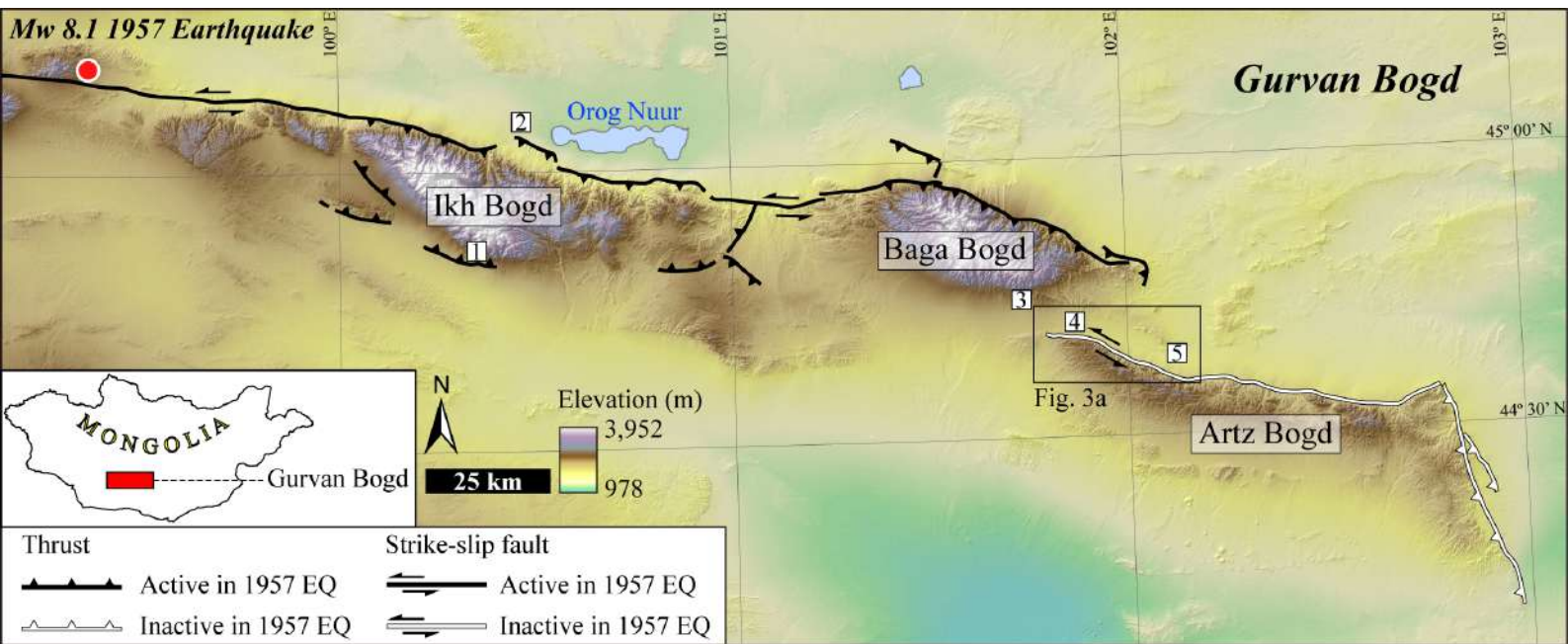
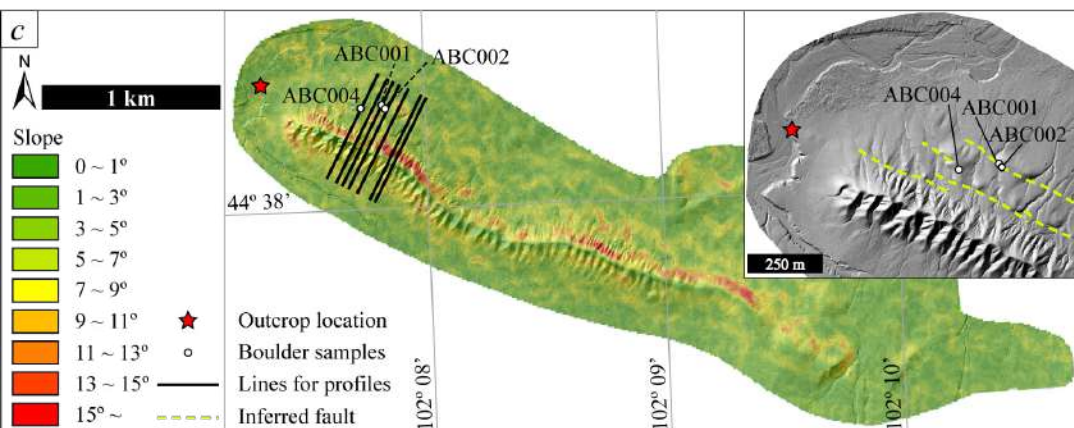
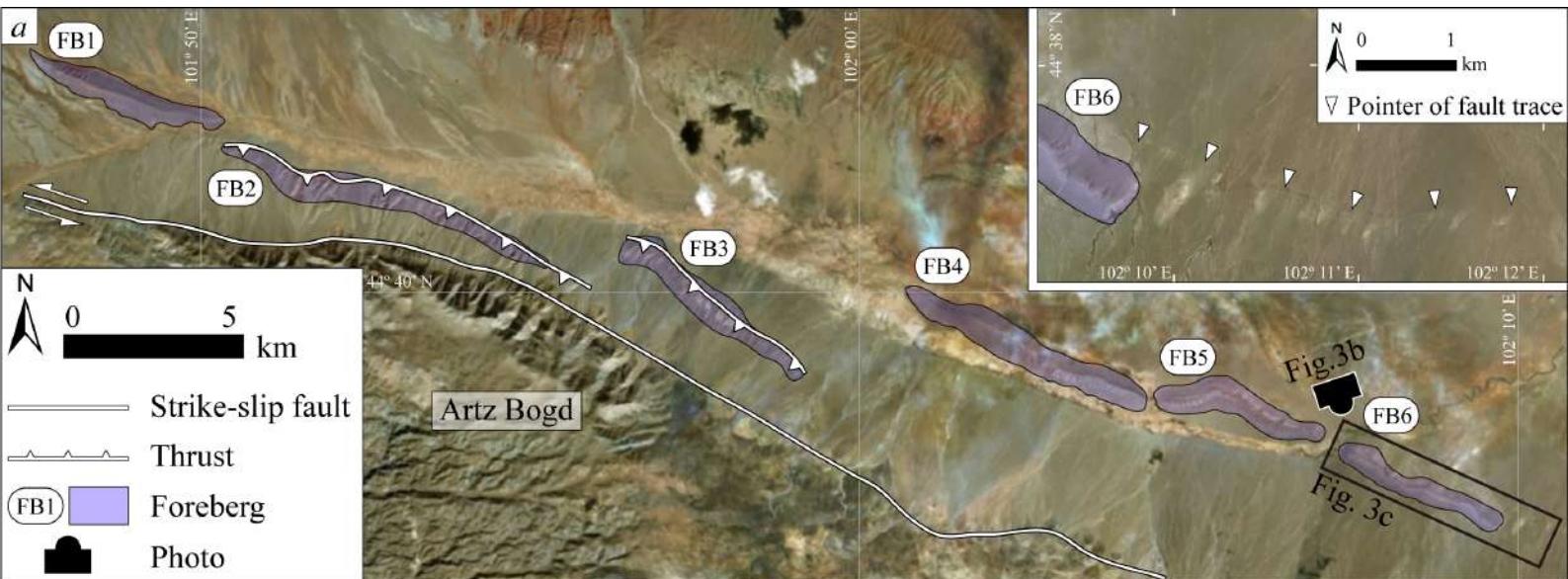
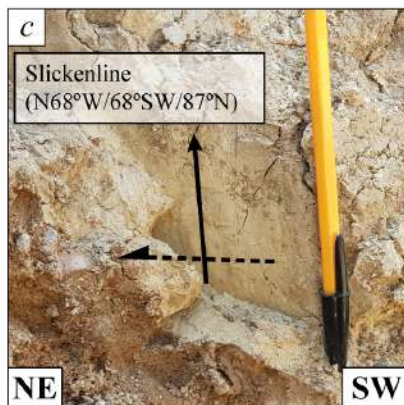
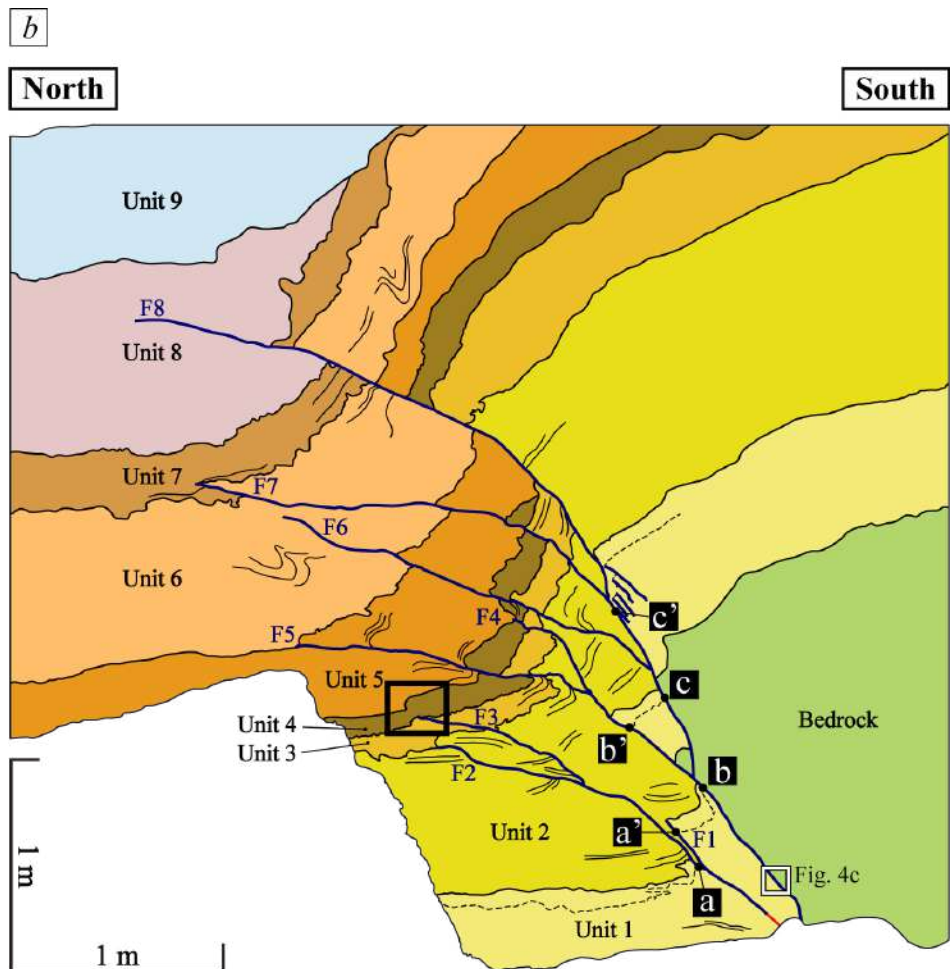
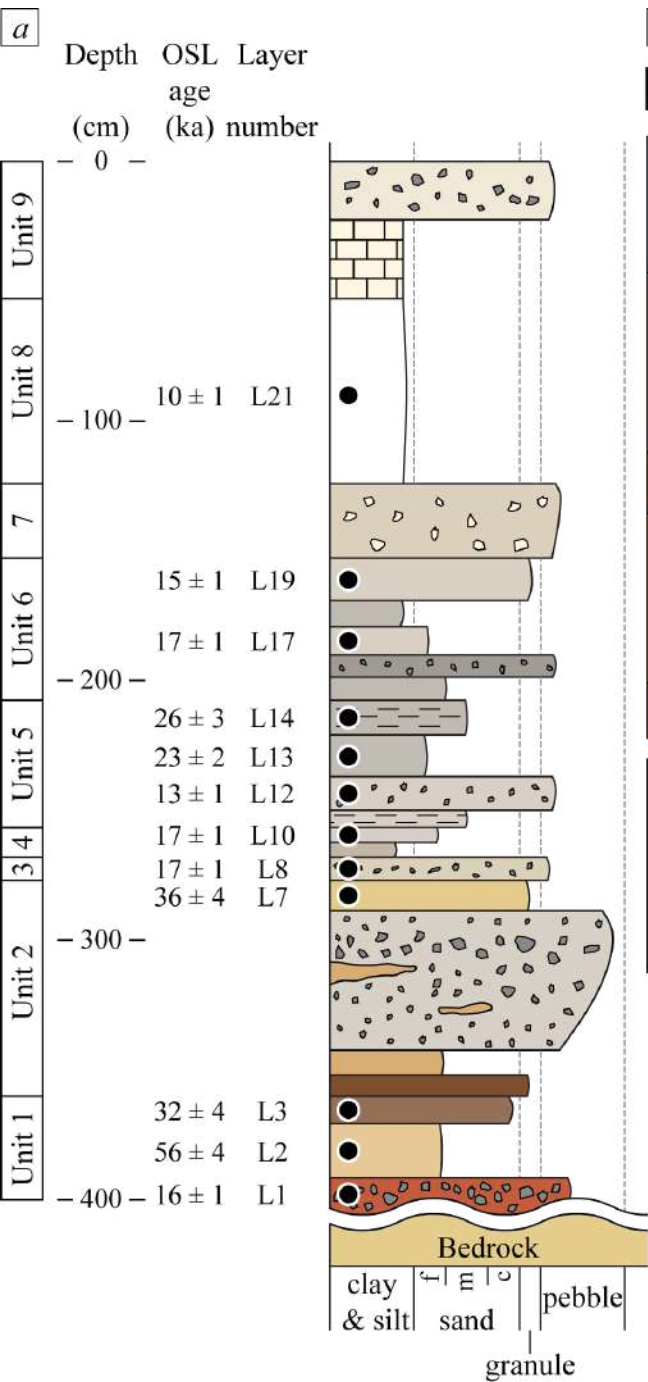


Figure 8. Vertical displacement of the alluvial fan surface due to thrusting and ^{10}Be surface exposure ages of the boulder samples from foreberg FB6. Shaded regions along each curve represent the surface elevation range along the cross-sectional profiles.



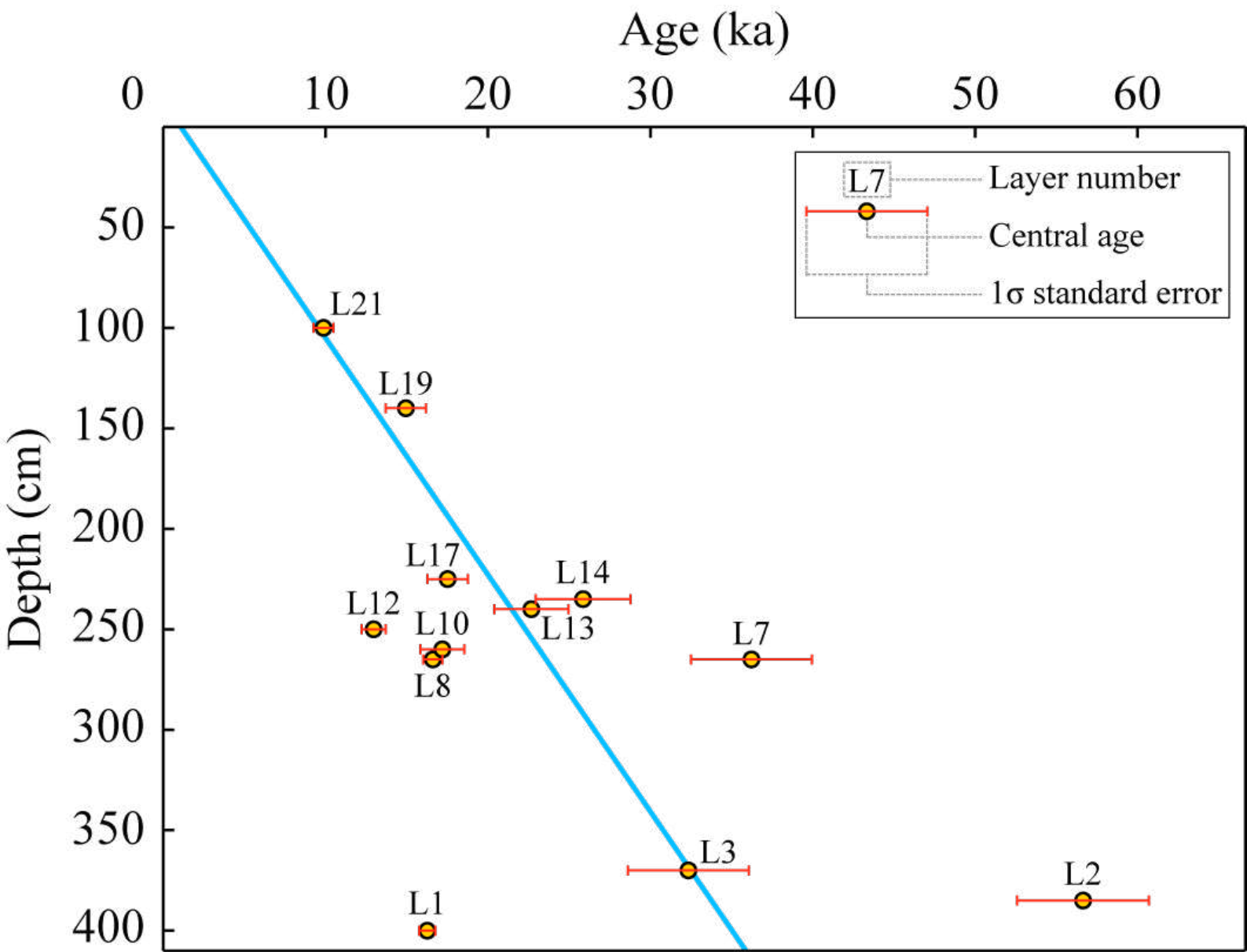


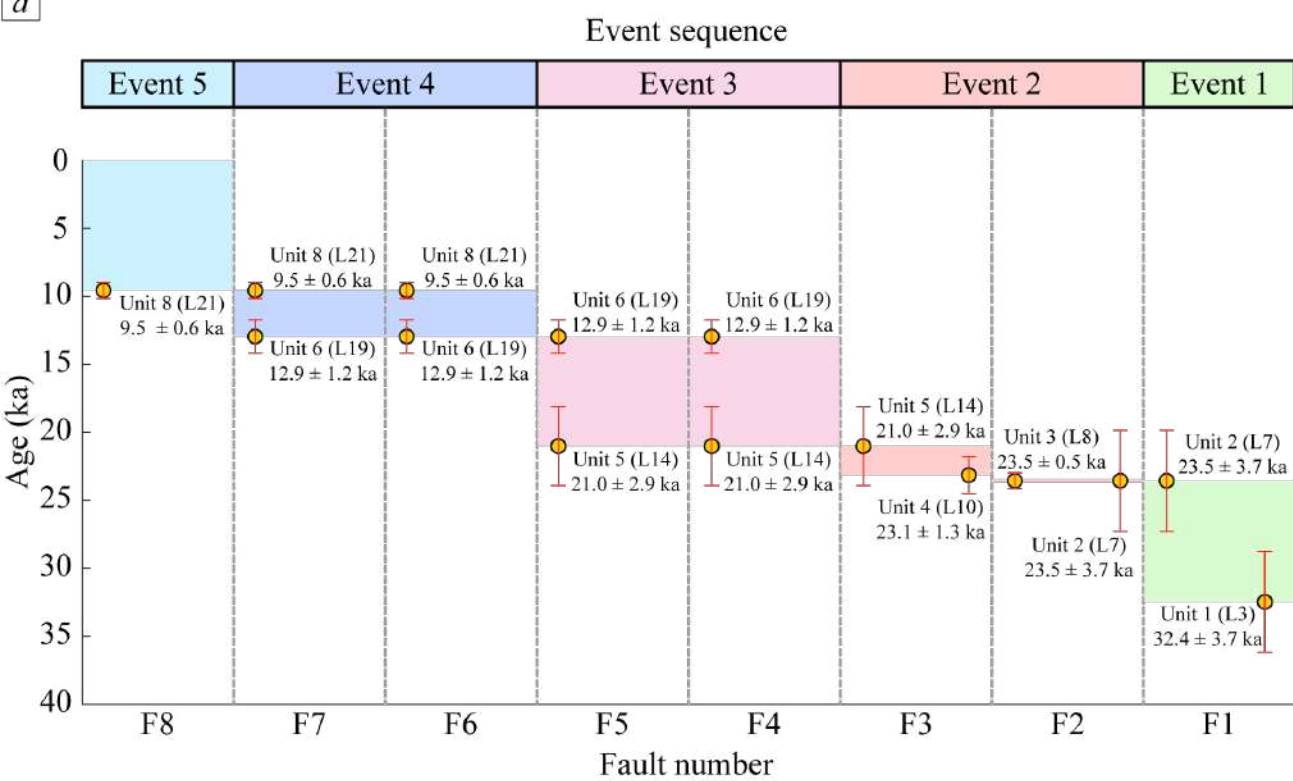




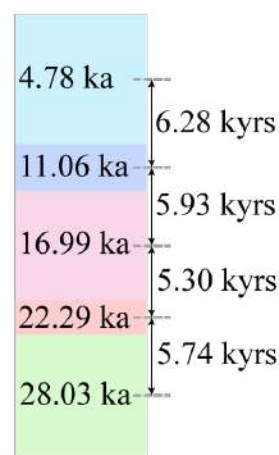
Legend

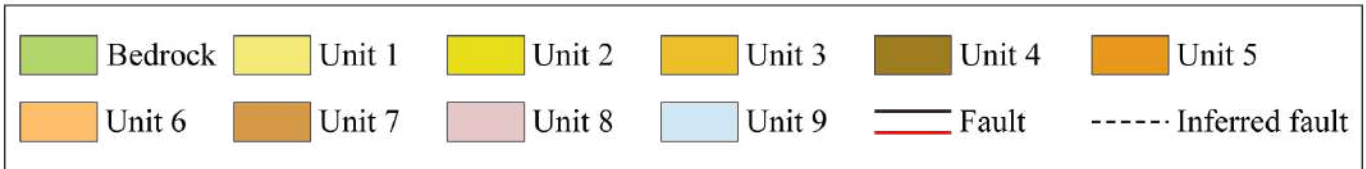
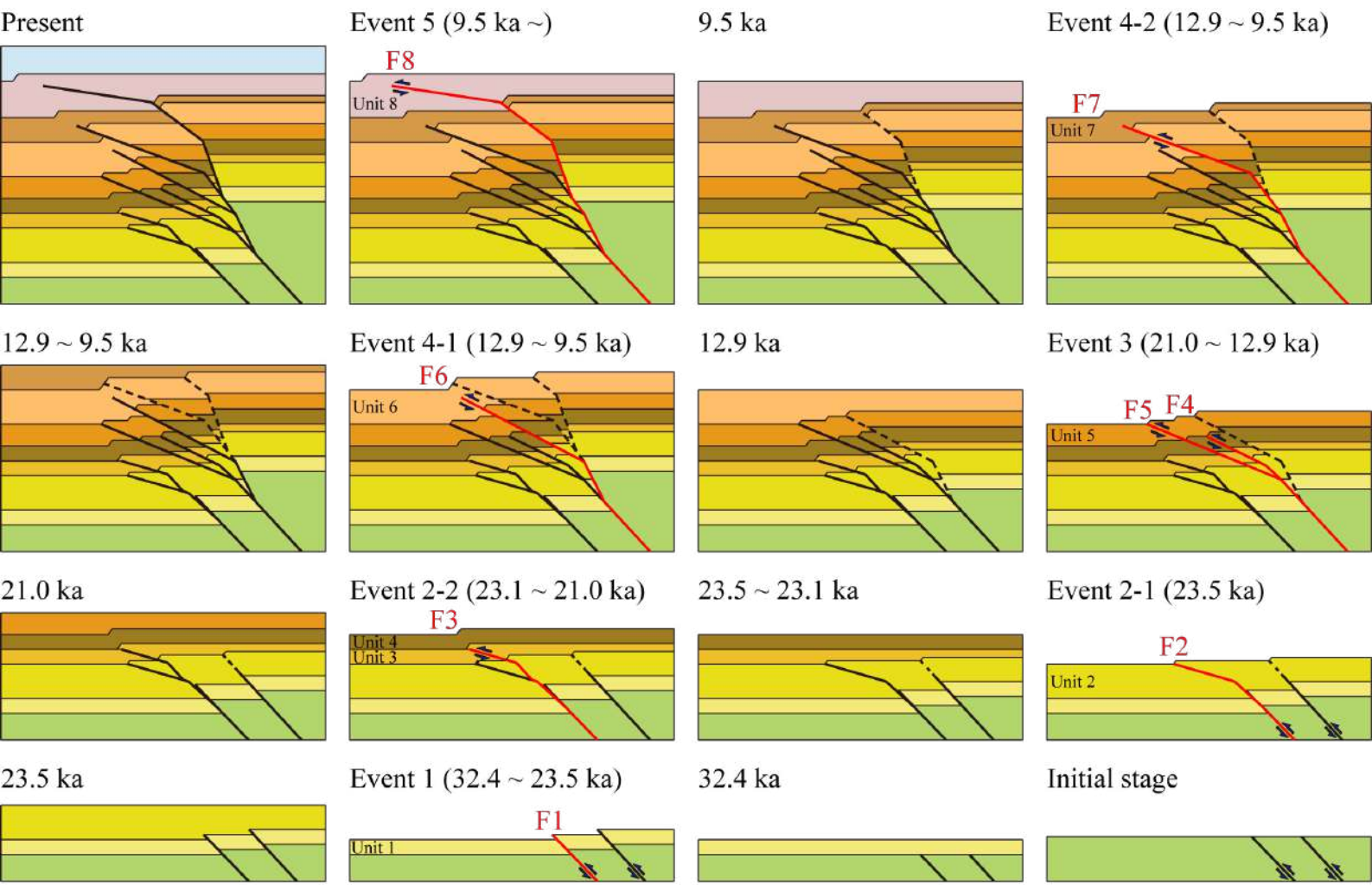
- OSL sampled layer
- Fault
- a**—**a'** Displacement
- Layer measured displacement
- SS Bedding
- ←- - - - Strike
- Slickenline



a**b**

**Earthquake
Recurrence Interval**





Elevation (m)

