Fault interaction and strain partitioning deduced from deformed fluvial terraces of the Eastern North Qilian foreland, NE Tibetan Plateau

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Abstract

Faulting and folding of basement rocks together accommodate convergence within continental orogens, forming complex zones of intraplate deformation shaped by the fault interaction. Here we use the river terraces along the Dongda river to examine the tectonic deformation patterns of the hinterland and the foreland of the eastern North Qilian Shan, a zone of crustal shortening located at the northeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau. Five Late Pleistocene-Holocene terraces of Dongda river are displaced by three major reverse faults: Minle-Damaying fault, Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault, and Fengle fault, from south to north. Based on displaced terrace treads, we estimated vertical slip rates along the Minle-Damaying fault as 0.7-1.2 mm/a, and along Fengle fault as 0.5-0.7 mm/a. Deformed terraces suggest additional uplift of ~ 0.2 mm/a through folding of the Dahuang Shan anticline. Inhomogeneous uplift of the intermontane basins between the Minle-Damaying fault and the Dahuang Shan anticline indicates a $0.9 \pm 0.2 \text{ mm/a}$ uplift rate along the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault. Kinematic modeling of this thrust system shows that deformation propagated northward toward the foreland along a south-dipping 10° décollement rooted into Haiyuan fault at the depth of 20-25 km. This system accommodates 2.7-3.8 mm/a total crustal shortening rate. We suggest this broad thrust belt and the relatively high rate of shortening within this part of the eastern Qilian Shan is as a result of the oblique convergence along a restraining bend of Haiyuan fault system. The elevated shortening rate within this area indicates high

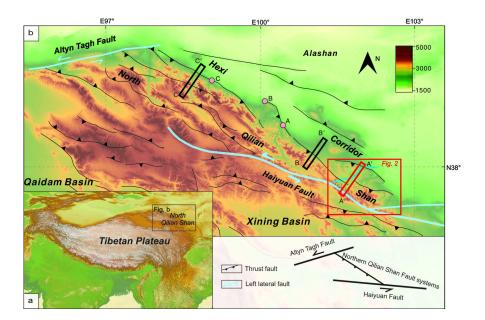
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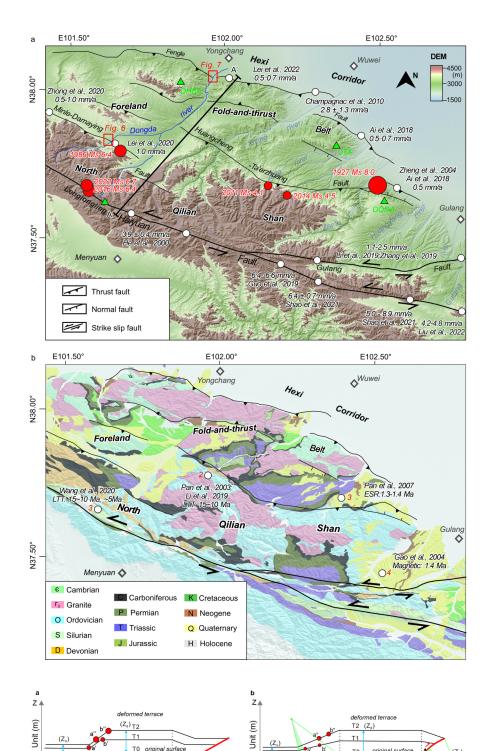
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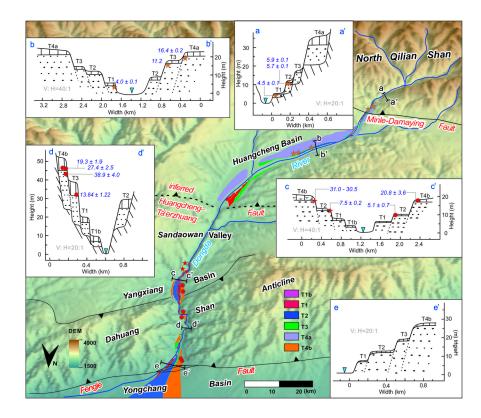
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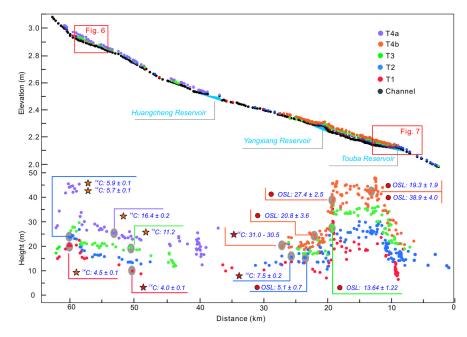
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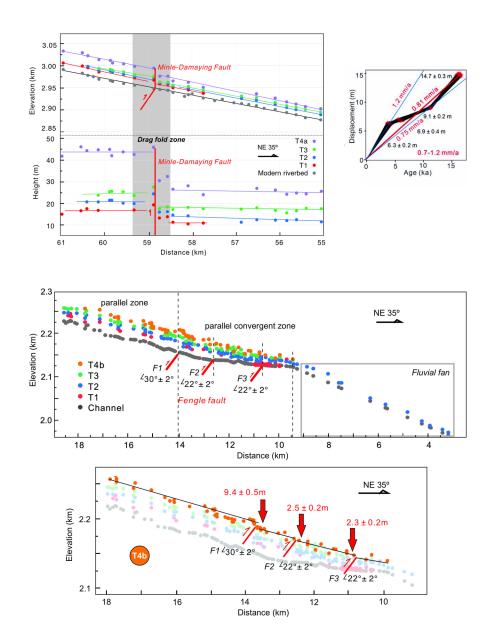
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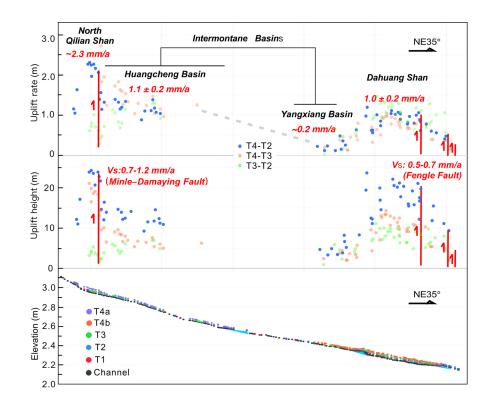
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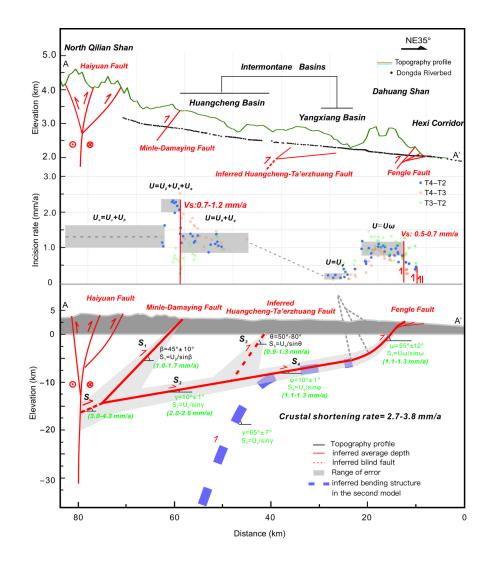
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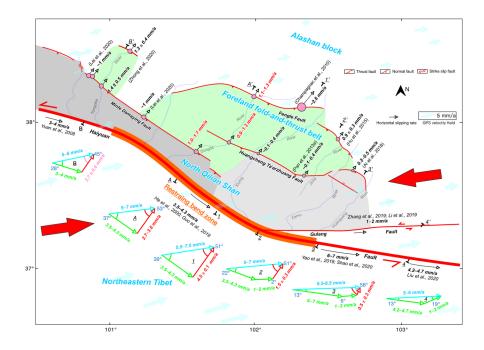












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19 Key Points:

- Eastern North Qilian is formed as a belt of northward-verging thrust faults above a ~10°
 décollement layer rooted into Haiyuan fault.
- The activity of the three active thrust systems within this 70 km-wide belt accommodates
 2.7–3.8 mm/a of crustal shortening.
- The high shortening rate here is the result of localized convergence within a restraining bend of the Haiyuan fault.

26 Abstract

Faulting and folding of basement rocks together accommodate convergence within continental 27 orogens, forming complex zones of intraplate deformation shaped by the fault interaction. Here 28 we use the river terraces along the Dongda river to examine the tectonic deformation patterns of 29 the hinterland and the foreland of the eastern North Qilian Shan, a zone of crustal shortening 30 31 located at the northeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau. Five Late Pleistocene-Holocene terraces of Dongda river are displaced by three major reverse faults: Minle-Damaying fault, Huangcheng-32 Ta'erzhuang fault, and Fengle fault, from south to north. Based on displaced terrace treads, we 33 estimated vertical slip rates along the Minle-Damaying fault as 0.7–1.2 mm/a, and along Fengle 34 fault as 0.5–0.7 mm/a. Deformed terraces suggest additional uplift of ~ 0.2 mm/a through folding 35 of the Dahuang Shan anticline. Inhomogeneous uplift of the intermontane basins between the 36 37 Minle-Damaying fault and the Dahuang Shan anticline indicates a 0.9 ± 0.2 mm/a uplift rate along the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault. Kinematic modeling of this thrust system shows that 38 deformation propagated northward toward the foreland along a south-dipping 10° décollement 39 rooted into Haiyuan fault at the depth of 20-25 km. This system accommodates 2.7-3.8 mm/a 40 total crustal shortening rate. We suggest this broad thrust belt and the relatively high rate of 41 shortening within this part of the eastern Qilian Shan is as a result of the oblique convergence 42 along a restraining bend of Haiyuan fault system. The elevated shortening rate within this area 43 44 indicates high potential seismic hazard.

45 Plain Language Summary

The eastern North Qilian Shan and its foreland basin exhibit a complex structure and spatially 46 varying shortening rate because the area is not only deformed by the North Qilian frontal thrust 47 system, but also under the influence of the adjacent Haiyuan strike-slip fault. A restraining bend 48 along Haiyuan fault leads to additional compressional strain concentrated in this area, which 49 results in the development of a widely uplifted and deformed region to the north, within the 50 Qilian Shan mountains. Through geomorphic survey of the riverbed and terrace elevations of the 51 52 Dongda river, we find the most uplift is concentrated along the northernmost, lowest range adjacent to the foreland basin (~0.6 mm/a) and at the North Qilian mountain front bounding the 53 higher peaks (~1 mm/a). We suggest that this wide zone of active faulting formed along multiple 54 strands of high angle reverse faults that sole into a single deep detachment, and this structure has 55 accommodated one of the highest rates of crustal shortening (over 3 mm/a) documented within 56 the North Qilian. This results in an elevated seismic hazard in the nearby populated foreland 57 basin. 58

59 **1 Introduction**

Foreland fold-and-thrust belts form as the compressional orogen evolves and the deformation front propagates into the foreland basin. Within an intraplate convergence zone, shortening may involve multiple pairs of fold and thrust, and each pair may have distinct history of tectonic activity (McQuarrie et al., 2005; Cooke and Dair, 2011; Horton et al., 2022; Moulin and Cowgill, 2023). As a fold-and-thrust belt evolves, the tectonic activity and the deformation pattern may change over time (Lu et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024). Youthful deformed markers, such as river terraces or uplifted relict geomorphic surfaces, may be

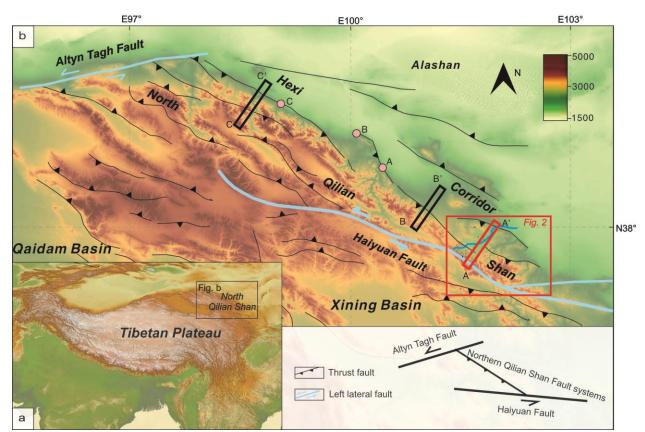
used to deduce tectonic activity of single faults (Lavé and Avouac, 2000; Burbank and Anderson,
2012; Yang and Li, 2017; Wang et al., 2020), and, if of sufficient extent, can reveal the tectonic

relationship between structures (Hoke et al., 2014; Zhong et al., 2020). By converting surface

- deformation that varies with space and time into geological cross section, it is possible to unravel
- the geometries and kinematics of a fold-and-thrust belt to better understand the evolution of its constituent thrust faults (Burbank et al., 1996; Tapponnier et al., 1990; 2001; Ori and Friend,
- 73 1984; Siks and Horton, 2011; Yonkee et al., 2019).

As the northeastern margin of the Tibetan plateau, the eastern North Qilian Shan shows complex 74 75 deformation history involving interactions between multiple fault systems. Here, oblique convergence has been accommodated both by compression along reverse faults and left slip on 76 sinistral faults since the inception of uplift ca. 15-10 Ma ago (Meyer et al., 1998; Zheng et al., 77 2013; Allen et al., 2017; Zuza et al., 2016, 2018) (Figure 1). Bounded by the Haiyuan fault to the 78 south and the Fengle fault to the north, a 70 km-wide foreland fold-and-thrust belt has developed 79 within the eastern North Qilian Shan adjacent the restraining bend of the Haiyuan fault (Figures 80 1 and 2) (Gaudemer et al., 1995). Previous geomorphology studies show that this fold-and-thrust 81 belt involves activity of multiple strands of faults (Tapponnier et al., 1990; Li and Yang, 1998; 82 Hu et al., 2015; Ai et al., 2017; Lei et al., 2020). However, most studies were only focused on a 83 single structure, while the growth and interaction of the set of structures, how the multiple active 84 structures recognized here work together to accommodate crustal shortening, and the relationship 85

- 86 of this fold and thrust belt to the kinematics of the Haiyuan fault restraining bend are not fully
- 87 understood.



88

Figure 1 a. The Tibetan plateau block and the location of North Qilian Shan b. Map of North

- 90 Qilian Shan active fault system and the location of our study area. Pink circles show the
- 91 locations for the slip rates studies of individual active faults (A: eastern Yumushan fault, Hu et
- al., 2019; B: North Yumushan fault, Tapponnier et al., 1990; C: Fodongmiao-Hongyazi fault,

- Hetzel et al., 2019), and grey stripes show the locations for integrated cross-section analysis and
- slip rates studies across the frontal thrust systems (A-A': this study; B-B': Tongziba river, Zhong
- 95 et al., 2020; C-C': Beida river, Wang et al., 2020).

In this study, we document the activity of the eastern North Qilian Shan from folding and 96 faulting of river terraces of the Dongda river. A sequence of river terraces record deformation 97 98 across the entire fold-and-thrust belt, revealing how thrusting partitions between different structures. Through integrating tectonic geomorphology and Quaternary geochronology, we 99 describe the uplift rate distribution along the Dongda River. Through kinematic modeling, we 100 develop a structural model to explain surface deformation across the thrust belt. Through 101 comparing the shortening rate along the Dongda River with surrounding areas, we summarize the 102 deformation pattern along the eastern North Qilian Shan fold-and-thrust belt. 103

104 2 Geological Setting

The eastern North Qilian Shan in our research area reaches an elevation of 5217 m and is 105 characterized by steep hillslopes and deep valleys. Over the Cenozoic, significant exhumation, 106 107 revealed via low temperature thermochronology, suggests that the present topography of the North Qilian Shan was developed mostly since the Miocene (Pan et al., 2013b; Li et al., 2019; 108 Wang et al., 2020) (Figure 2a). As the thrust belt propagated toward the foreland, reverse 109 faulting has led to development of a series of Cenozoic intermontane basins and low hills, 110 forming a ~70 km wide foreland fold-and-thrust belt (Figure 2b). Previous studies suggest that 111 the foreland fold-and-thrust belt was developed due to deformation surrounding a restraining 112 bend of the Haiyuan Fault (Gaudemer et al., 1995; Li et al., 2019). A series of earthquakes with 113 magnitude greater than M4.0 have taken place around the region since 1920 AD (Figure 2a) 114 (Deng, 2007). The restraining section of the Haiyuan fault, known as the Lenglongling segment, 115 is characterized by a major left-lateral strike-slip component and a minor dip-slip component 116 within the upper Dongda River basin. The Haiyuan fault has a Quaternary lateral slip rate of 3.5-117 6.9 mm/a (Gaudemer et al., 1995; He et al., 2000; Guo et al., 2019; Yao et al., 2019; Shao et al., 118 2020; Liu et al., 2022), and has been identified as source of the 2016 Ms6.4 and 2022 Mw6.7 119 Menyuan earthquake, as well as the 1920 Ms8.0 Haiyuan earthquake east of our study area (Guo 120 et al., 2017; Luo and Wang, 2022; Niu et al., 2023). The Gulang fault (Figure 2) branches off 121 from the Haiyuan fault, with a lateral slip rate of 1–2 mm/a (Zhang et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019). 122 This fault, or one of the faults within the adjacent fold and thrust belt, may have been the source 123 for the 1927 Ms8.0 Gulang earthquake (Gaudemer et al., 1995; Guo et al., 2020). 124

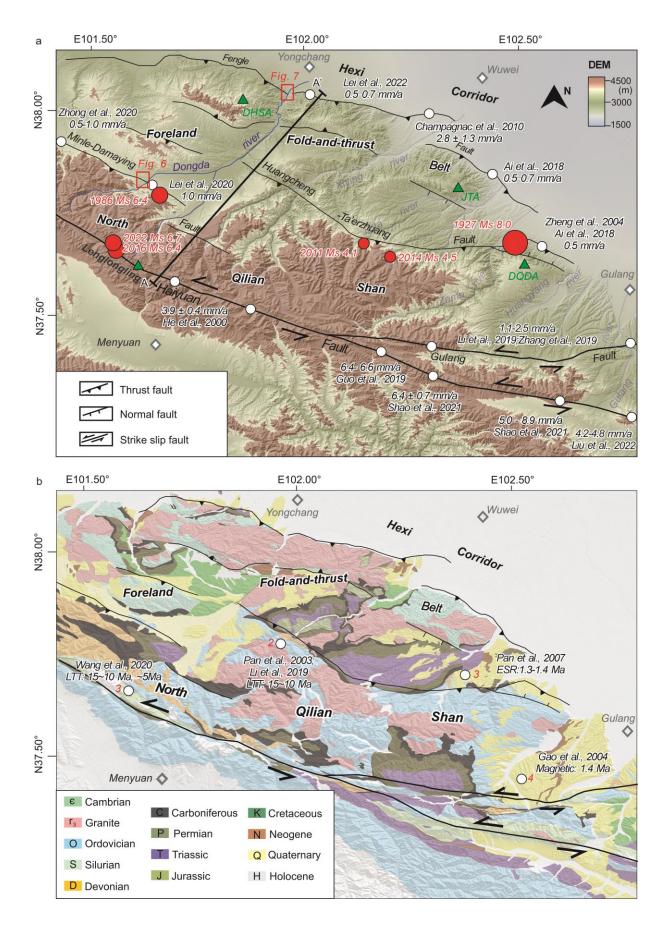


Figure 2 a. The active fault systems and the river systems of the area. The white circle with black characters shows the study sites for Quaternary thrust vertical slip rates and left lateral slip rates. The green triangle signs the locations for the specific fold segments. DQDA: Dongqingding anticline, JTA: Jinta anticline, DHSA: Dahuang Shan anticline. **b**. General geologic setting of the eastern Qilian Shan. The white circle shows the study site for Low Temperature Thermochronology (LTT), and the loess-and-paleosol sequences (ESR and Magnetic).

Several major rivers, Dongda, Xiying, Jinta, Zamu, and Huangyang River, originate from the 133 eastern North Qilian Shan and drain northeastward through the foreland fold-and-thrust belt into 134 the Hexi Corridor. These rivers cross three major reverse faults within the North Qilian Shan 135 mountain front and foreland basin: Minle-Damaying fault, Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault, and 136 Fengle fault (Figure 2a). Fluvial terraces of the major rivers, often covered by thick layers of 137 loess, have all been deformed by these faults, and have been the focus of active fault study in this 138 area (e.g. Pan et al., 2013a; Hu et al., 2015). The southernmost fault, the Minle-Damaying fault is 139 the frontal fault of the Minle basin which is west of our study area, and was the seismogenic fault 140 of the 1986 Ms 6.4 earthquake (He et al., 2020). Offset terraces of the Tongziba river and Xie 141 river support an uplift rate of 0.5-1.0 mm/a across this fault with a dip angle between $30-45^{\circ}$ at 142 surface (Xiong et al., 2017; Lei et al., 2020; Zhong et al., 2020). 20 km north of the Minle-143 144 Damaying fault, Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault ruptured the late Pleistocene alluvial fan surfaces at the Dongqingding point, with a vertical slip rate of 0.5 mm/a (Hou, 1998; Zheng et 145 al., 2004; Ai et al., 2017), and it is identified as the seismogenic fault for the 2011 Ms4.1 and 146 2014 Ms4.5 earthquakes. The vertical uplift rate of the northernmost Fengle fault varies from 147 0.5-0.7 mm/a (Lei et al., 2021), to $2.8 \pm 1.3 \text{ mm/a}$ (Champagnac et al., 2010), then to 0.5-0.7148 mm/a (Ai et al., 2017) from west to east based on displaced alluvial fans. Slip on the Fengle fault 149 is associated with folding of the Dahuang Shan anticline in the Dongda river area (Gaudemer et 150 al., 1995; Hu et al., 2015). To the south, the fold backlimb is bounded by a north-dipping back 151 thrust (Gaudemer et al., 1995). 152

Pre-Cambrian to Cretaceous basement rocks are widely exposed within the eastern North Qilian 153 Shan and the adjacent fold-and-thrust belt (Gansu Bureau of Geology and Mineral Resources, 154 1989) (Figure 2b). In our research area, along the Dongda River, Cambrian to Silurian rocks, the 155 156 basement of this region, are deformed, metamorphosed and intruded by Caledonian age granodiorites and granite (Li et al., 2019). The highly deformed Devonian Laojun Shan group, a 157 typical continental molasse deposit consisting of sandstone with mudstone, is widely distributed 158 within the North Qilian Shan and separated from the crystalline basement by an unconformity 159 (Gansu Bureau of Geology and Mineral Resources, 1989) (Figure 2b). Above these deposits are 160 Carboniferous black shale with interbeds of fossiliferous marine limestone, covered by a 161 sequence of Permian-Triassic continental sandstone and conglomerates. These rocks are mainly 162 exposed at the hanging wall of Minle-Damaying fault and between the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang 163 fault and the Dahuang Shan anticline. This sequence implies a transformation from shallow 164 marine to continental clastic sedimentation (Gaudemer et al., 1995). A set of Cretaceous 165 sandstone and conglomerates are exposed between the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault and the 166 back thrust of Dahuang Shan anticline, implying the deposition within the pull-apart basin or 167 synclinal trough at that time (Gaudemer et al., 1995). Between the Haiyuan Fault and Minle-168 Damaying Fault, no Mesozoic and Cenozoic strata are preserved. In the footwall of the Minle-169 Damaying Fault, an unconformity between Cretaceous and Neogene-Quaternary deposits 170 suggests that there was a major sedimentary hiatus during the Paleogene. Reddish Neogene 171

sandstones and siltstones, at least 500 m thick, distributed between the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang

fault and the Dahuang Shan anticline, reflect deposition within a foreland basin during an earlier

phase of uplift of the North Qilian Shan. Over the Pleistocene, folding and thrusting has

propagated to the north of the Minle-Damaying fault to the Fengle fault. This region was also blanketed with loess up to hundreds of meters thick as it was uplifted. Geochronology studies of

deformed terrace deposits beneath the oldest loess deposits suggest that uplift was underway by

178 1.3–1.4 Ma (Gaudemer et al., 1995; Pan et al., 2007).

179 **3 Method**

180 3.1 Fieldwork

Aided by analysis of Google Earth imagery and a 90 m resolution digital elevation model (DEM) 181 from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (Farr et al., 2007), we mapped the Dongda river 182 terrace surfaces in the field (Figure S1). Terrace elevations (Table S1) were measured using a 183 hand-held differential Global Positioning System (GPS) with 2 to 5 cm horizontal and vertical 184 185 precision and the Truepulse200x laser rangefinder with 4 cm horizontal errors for targets within 400 m distance, 15 cm horizontal errors for targets between 400-1000 m, and 0.1° degree of 186 inclination accuracy. Stratigraphy of terrace deposits were described based on natural outcrops, 187 including contacts, bedding thickness, bed geometry, grain size and internal sedimentary 188 structures. We then reconstructed the sedimentary facies and depositional architecture and 189 establish terrace cross sections (Figure 4). 190

191 3.2 Geochronology

We estimated terrace abandonment ages by dating the bottom of aeolian loess cover, as it has been proved in this area that loess accumulation started right after the abandonment of terrace treads since early Pleistocene (Gao et al., 2004). We also collected samples from sand interbeds within the fluvial gravels, which we use to constrain the maximum age of terrace abandonment. In this work, we report six new optical stimulated luminescence (OSL) and three ¹⁴C dates, and we incorporated the earlier dating results reported by Xiong et al. (2017) and Lei et al. (2020) to further bracket the age of the terraces. The results are reported in Tables 1 and 2.

199 3.2.1 ¹⁴C-dating

Charcoal for ¹⁴C-dating was collected from loess or colluvium deposits overlying each terrace 200 tread (Figure S2). As these charcoal samples are post-fire remains, in situ or detrital, the age 201 should be similar or older than the overlying sediments. These charcoal samples were analyzed 202 at the School of Archaeology and Museology, Peking University. In the laboratory, each sample 203 was pretreated using the acid-alkali-acid (AAA) sequence to remove contaminants (Vries and 204 Barendsen, 1954) and was then transformed into graphite under standard procedures. Accelerator 205 Mass Spectrometry (AMS) was employed to measure ¹⁴C concentration in samples of these 206 materials relative to modern standards based on the approach of Talma and Vogel. (1993). All 207 sample ages were determined with Libby's half-life (5,568 years), and the results were calibrated 208 by IntCal20 atmospheric curve (Reimer et al., 2020) in the software OxCal v4.4 (Ramsey, 2009). 209

210 Dates are reported as years before present (present = AD 1950).

211 3.2.2 OSL dating

Late Pleistocene aeolian loess provides reliable OSL dates because long-duration exposure to 212 sunlight prior to deposition ensures complete bleaching (Aitken, 1998). Five samples were taken 213 from the bottom of capping loess deposits, constraining the minimum age of abandonment of the 214 paleo-riverbed, and one sample were taken from the fine sand layers from the upper section of 215 216 the gravel layers, constraining the maximum abandonment age of the paleo-riverbed (Figure S2). All these samples were collected by hammering 25 cm long stainless steel cubes into loess or 217 sand layers that were buried at least 30 cm deep. Sample tubes remained sealed with opaque 218 materials until processed in the lab. Sample measurements were conducted in the OSL 219 Chronology Laboratory of the Institute of Crustal Dynamics, China Earthquake Administration. 220 In the lab, the polymineralic fine-grained (4~11 µm) minerals were extracted and pretreated for 221 222 equivalent dose determination. Equivalent dose (De) measurement was determined using the Simplified Multiple Aliquot Regenerative-dose (SMAR) procedure, and the environmental dose 223 rate (D), U, Th, and K contents in the samples were measured using Canberra GC4018 (Aitken, 224 1998). All these samples show no obvious saturated trend for De. Thus, OSL date for the 225 measured sample was calculated from ratio of the acquired De to environmental dose rate, D. 226

227 3.3 Fault structure analysis

To interpret the tectonic signal and deduce underlying structure from the terrace surfaces, we 228 correlate the terrace surfaces using both the absolute elevations and the relative heights above the 229 present channel perpendicular to thrust-fault strike (Figures 5, 6, 7). The tectonic uplift from the 230 231 North Qilian mountain front to its fold-and-thrust belt in Hexi Corridor were interpreted using the relative incision rates calculated for different terrace levels (Figure 8). These interpretations 232 of surface tectonic deformation are combined with the regional topography, fault displacement 233 from field survey, and knowledge of fault orientation and fault activity from previous research to 234 construct a schematic regional cross section (Figure 9) and to constrain the overall structure and 235

- estimate the cumulative shortening.
- 237 3.3.1 Fault scarp offsets

238 To measure tectonic deformation (throw) across individual faults, we projected the terrace longitudinal profile to a vertical plane (striking NE35°) perpendicular to the strike of the North 239 240 Qilian thrusts. Where drag folding has formed near the fault plane, or when faulting is distributed across several strands we project terrace surfaces from outside of the deformation zone to 241 constrain fault throw (Figure 6). For faults with several fault branches, we also measure offset 242 from scarp height on individual strands (Figure 7). Fault throw measurements are combined with 243 the fault dip measured from outcrops or palaeoseismic trenches, to infer shortening and 244 displacement rate for each fault. 245

246 3.3.2 Fault-related-fold model

To deduce the geometry and kinematics of the active structures of eastern North Qilian Shan, we

modeled the shape of deformed river terraces with various fault geometries. We consider two

end-member models for folding over a fault: fault-bend folding produced by a discrete change in

fault dip (Suppe, 1983) (Figure 3a), and tilting over a listric bend (Erslev et al., 1986) (Figure

251 3b). The model built is based on kinematics solutions for the slip embedded in different domains, 252 and then tracked the marker terrace surfaces on the cross section to generate the estimates for

- surface deformation (Amos et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2007; Hu et al., 2015). A best-fit model for
- underlying fault location, geometry and kinematics was developed through comparing these uplift estimates to terrace deformation.

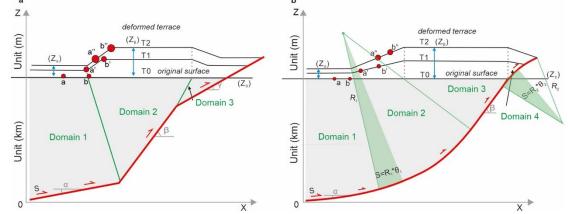


Figure 3 a, b Comparison of deformation over a fault-bend fold versus a listric fault. The length and progressive tilting of the fold backlimb may be used to determining the correct model.

To constraint the relative uplift within the planar fault segments, we assume that slip rate (S) remains approximately constant along every segment of the fault plane. When the fault changes its dip angle from α , to β , and , the tectonic uplift rate at the corresponding domains associated with fold growth over time t may be expressed as follows.

$$263 \qquad \frac{Z_{\alpha} - Z_0}{\sin \alpha} = \frac{Z_{\beta} - Z_0}{\sin \beta} = S * t$$

where Z_{α} , Z_{β} respond to the elevation of different terrace segments above the paleo-river elevation, Z_0 . This equation may be simplified as

266
$$\frac{Z_{\alpha} - Z_{\beta}}{\sin \alpha - \sin \beta} = S * t (1) \text{ (Thompson et al., 2002)}$$

For the planar fault-bend fold, we expect flights of terraces parallel to each other (Figure 3a). When terraces deformed above a fault bend (dip angle α to β), we trace the points a, b across the planar bend, the slope of deformed points a', b' at T1 (with distance and elevation of $X_{a'}, X_{b'}$; and $Z_{a'}, Z_{b'}$, respectively) and that of a'', b'' at T2 (with distance and elevation of $X_{a''}, X_{b''}$; and $Z_{a''}, Z_{b''}$, respectively) would be expressed as function (2), illustrating that slope of the relative terrace profile keeps constant, which can be calculated from the change of the fault dip

273 slope
$$= \frac{Z_{b'} - Z_{a'}}{X_{b'} - X_{a'}} = \frac{Z_{b''} - Z_{a''}}{X_{b''} - X_{a''}} = \frac{\sin\beta - \sin\alpha}{\cos\beta}$$
 (2) (Figure 3b)

274 For the listric model, we divide the deformed terrace tread geometry into divergent and convergent zones where terrace tread dip increases with age. Over a convex listric fault, the 275 upward rotation of the terrace surfaces increases with terrace age, forming a divergent zone. Like 276 the planar fault, we trace the points a, b across the listric bend, the slopes between points a', b' at 277 T1 (with distance and elevation of $X_{a'}, X_{b'}$; and $Z_{a'}, Z_{b'}$, respectively), and that of points a'', 278 b" at T2 (with distance and elevation of $X_{a''}, X_{b''}$; and $Z_{a''}, Z_{b''}$, respectively) would express 279 as function (3). For a concave, or antilistric fault, the downward rotation of the terrace surfaces 280 also increases with terrace age, but in an opposite sense, forming the convergent zone. Above a 281 listric segment, we assume a cylindrical fault with single radius of curvature, R. For the slip rate 282

S = R * θ (Figure 3b), we divide the curvature into units of arcs of θ . After a given time t, the gradient of deformed terrace can be expressed as (3)

285 slope
$$= \frac{Z_{b'} - Z_{a'}}{X_{b'} - X_{a'}} = \frac{Z_{b''} - Z_{a''}}{X_{b''} - X_{a''}} = \tan(t\theta)$$
 (3) (Figure 3b)

We employed Origin Lab and MATLAB software, to compute the terraces height and gradient 286 relative to the riverbed with uncertainties. We simulated the vertical slip rate by sampling errors 287 from linear fits to terrace tread profiles, abandonment ages, and fault dips from their respective 288 frequency distributions. We approach these interrelated uncertainties with Monte Carlo 289 simulation, over 10^3 trials to constraint the results with 95% confidence. Based on the interpreted 290 surface deformation data, we conduct the MATLAB simulation to estimate the geometry and slip 291 behavior of underlying faults, the dip angle, and accumulated depth with uncertainties are 292 explored with constraints from surface observations of fault location and dip. 293

294 **4 Results**

- 4.1 Terrace sequences and structures
- ²⁹⁶ Flights of fluvial terraces are well developed and preserved along the Dongda river (Figure S1).
- 297 We divide the Dongda River into six segments from south to north: North Qilian Shan,
- Huangcheng basin, Sandaowan valley, Yangxiang basin, Dahuang Shan anticline and Yongchang basin (Figure 4).

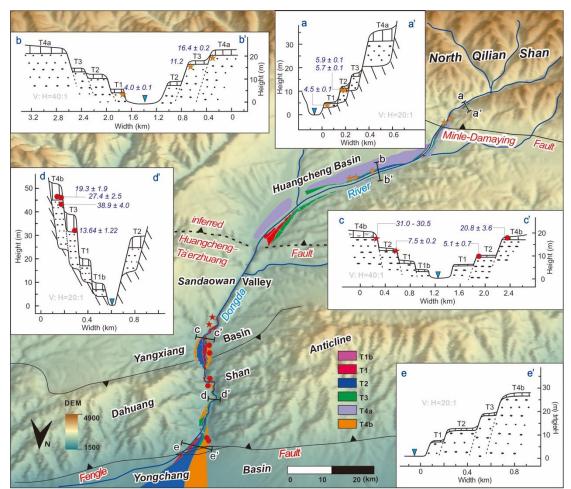


Figure 4 Elevation map the Dongda River zone, and the schematic cross-sections of terrace stratigraphy, keyed to numbered locations in the elevation map. The basin is divided into North Qilian Shan, Huangcheng basin, Sandaowan valley, Yangxiang basin, Dahuang Shan anticline and Yongchang basin. Note that this map is oriented south side up. The orange stars indicate location of ages from Xiong et al. (2017) and Lei et al. (2020), and the red stars and the circles indicate the locations for the charcoal samples and the OSL samples, respectively, in this work.

There are four continuous terrace levels preserved along the Dongda River within the North Qilian Shan segment (T4a, T3, T2 and T1) (Figures 4, S1). The highest, T4a, is a fill terrace with tread elevations between 25 to 46 m above the riverbed and fluvial fill 9–12 m thick. The aeolian loess covering the T4a tread has a thickness between 6 m and 10 m. T3 and T2, have thinner, 5–8 m thick, gravel fills, with treads 17–30 m, and 12–22 m above riverbed, respectively. T1 is a strath terraces of which the bedrock strath is covered by a thin (2–4 m) gravel layer of rounded cobbles and boulders. Loess layers covering T1, T2, and T3 are each less than 2 m thick.

Relative to the North Qilian Shan segment, the river valley is broader, and each terrace is wider and less elevated above the riverbed in the Huangcheng basin segment (Figures 4, S1). T4a is the best preserved and most continuous terrace; its fill is more than 17 m thick, and the thickness of the covering aeolian loess gradually decreased from 6–10 m to around 2–3 m downstream. T3 has a narrow terrace surface and gradually disappears downstream, likely eroded by lateral incision before deposition of T2. T2 and T1 here were filled with around 5–8 m and 12–15 m thick fluvial gravels, respectively.

Terraces are sparsely preserved in the narrow Sandaowan Valley segment, and the fluvial 321 322 deposits were either covered by or mixed with colluvium. Downstream, river terraces are distributed widely within the Yangxiang basin segment (Figures 4, S1). We identify the terrace 323 sequences here as T4b, T3, T2 and T1, of which T4b, T2 and T1 are preserved continuously, 324 while T3 is mostly absent. The thickness of the T4b fluvial deposits is 15–18 m, capped with 325 loess of 50-80 cm thick within the Yangxiang basin and 9-14 m thick near the Dahuang Shan 326 anticline. T3 has a narrow surface (<50 m) in this area; it has around 13 m of fluvial gravel, 327 covered by 15-25 cm thick of loess. T2 is much wider than T3, and its tread is 10-12 m on 328 average above the current riverbed. The T1 terrace is around 6-8 m above the riverbed and 329 covered by 10-30 cm of loess. The loess layers covering T3-T1 have all increased their thickness 330 toward the Dahuang Shan anticline, similar to T4b. 331

All four levels of terraces are well preserved on both sides of the Dahuang Shan Valley (Figures

4, S1). T4b has 11–20 m thick gravel fill, capped with 7–12 m thick loess, and its tread lies about 44 \pm 4 m above the riverbed within the central Dahuang Shan. Within the center of the Dahuang

Shan anticline, T3, T2, and T1 have 10-20, 8-15, and 5-10 m thick gravel fill covering the

bedrock strath; their treads lie 34 ± 3 , 25 ± 2 , and 18 ± 2 m above riverbed, respectively.

337 At the piedmont of the Dahuang Shan, terraces expanded and grade into alluvial fans within the

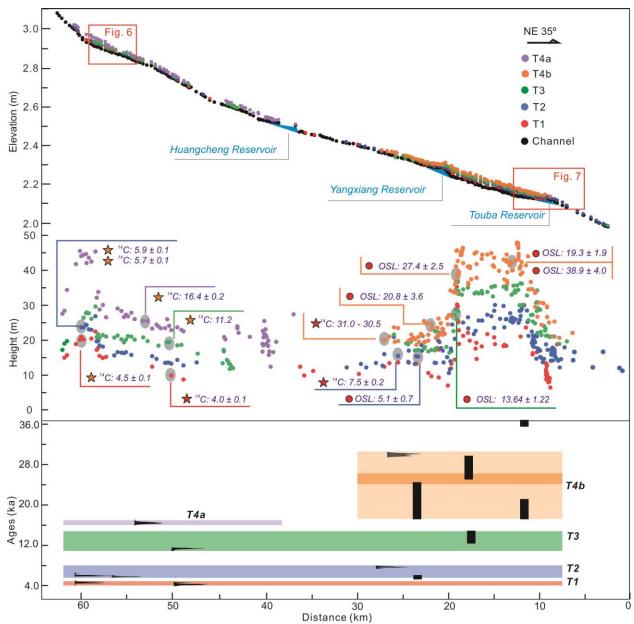
338 Yongchang basin. In the basin, T3 gradually merges with the T2-equivalent alluvial fan, which

in turn buries the T4b fan surface underneath. The T1 terrace is absent here (Figures 4, S1).

340 Presently the Dongda river incises into the fan deposits, forming a 9 m deep braided channel.

341 4.2 Dating results

We obtained a charcoal age of 30.7 ± 0.3 cal kyr BP (Field. No 93) (Figures 5, S2, Table 1) from 342 hillslope debris within the bottom layers of T4b overlying loess at the southern end of the 343 Yangxiang basin. In the Dahuang Shan anticline, located 5–8 km north of the previous sample 344 site, two OSL samples were collected from the basal loess capping the T4b tread, rendering 345 younger age results of 20.8 \pm 3.6 ka (Field. No YX03) and 27.4 \pm 2.5 ka (Field. No DT3-1), 346 respectively (Figures 5, S2, Table 2). At the northern end of the Dahuang Shan, two OSL 347 samples, one from the coarse sand layer ~30 cm below the T4b tread and another from the 348 bottom of the T4b covering loess, render age results of 38.9 ± 4.0 ka (Field. No DT4-1) and 19.3 349 ± 1.9 ka (Field. No DT4-2), respectively (Figures 5, S2, Table 2). 350



351

Figure 5 Top: Longitudinal profiles of the Dongda River terraces (Table S1) and riverbed (upper) and the terrace relative heights above the riverbed (lower). Each points represent the survey point of the terrace tread. The red stars, circles with the characters show the radiocarbon, and OSL dating results in this work, respectively. Orange stars show the charcoal ages results in previous studies of Xiong et al. (2017) and Lei et al. (2020). Bottom: Age model for the terrace sequences along Dongda River. Bars show 95% confidence range of OSL ages, and ¹⁴C ages shown as probability density functions.

359 **Table 1** Radiocarbon Dating Results for the Abandonment of Each Terrace Tread

Lab.No	Sample location	Terrace	Material	Field. No	¹⁴ C ages (BP)	Calibration age (±2σ) (kyr. BP)	Cited references
BA17004	$\begin{array}{c} 101.64768\\ 7 \\ 37.88602 \end{array}$	³ T4a	Charcoal	60-61-2	13.600±50	16.4±0.2	Lei et al., 2020

BA170057	37.98520	Charcoal	93	26440±100	30.8±0.2	
BA170053	3 101.75263 37.88554 T3	Charcoal	74-1	9760±35	11.2	Lei et al., 2020
HC29*	101.57629 37.84665	Charcoal	HC29	5200±30	5.9±0.1	Xiong et al.,2017
HC30*	101.57629 37.84665 T2	Charcoal	HC30	4980±30	5.7±0.1	Xiong et al.,2017
BA170060) 101.94764 37.99827	Charcoal	101-102	6545±45	7.5±0.2	
BA170055	5 101.75256 37.88542 101.57040 T1	Charcoal	74-3	3640±30	4.0±0.1 (68.2%)	
HC24*	101.57948 ¹¹ 37.84829	Charcoal	HC24	3995±30	4.5±0.1	Xiong et al., 2017

Note: * means the results from Xiong et al. (2017) done by Beta laboratory and that from Lei et al. (2020) done by AMS 14C dating laboratory of Peking University. New carbon dating was

analyzed at AMS 14C dating laboratory of Peking University. All the errors were corrected to 2σ

363 (95.4%).

364 **Table 2** OSL Dating Results from Loess Cover of Dongda River Terraces

Lab.No	Sample location		Field. No		U	Th	Ra	К	Annual denses	Equiv. dense	Ages(ka) (±2σ)
			110		(Bq/kg)				(Gy/ka)	(Gy)	()
17- 386	101.9796 38.0982		DT4-1	1.2	28.7±1.0	38.4±1.4	390.8±21.2	28.1±6.7	3.1±0.2	120.3±8.9	38.9±4.0
17- 387	101.9796 38.0982	T4b	DT4-2	1.5	61.8±2.0	68.2±2.4	543.4±29.4	64.0±11.7	5.1±0.4	98.9±6.0	19.3±1.9
17-388	101.9584 38.0485	140	DT3-1	1.7	44.2±1.4	61.4±2.2	552.5±29.8	44.5±10.8	4.5±0.3	124.2±6.6	27.4±2.5
18- 294	101.9565 38.0333		YX03	9.8	52.3±1.6	55.3±1.8	579.4±28.1	62.9±12.2	4.5±0.6	94.4±11.1	20.8±3.6
17- 389	101.9600, 38.0464	Т3	DT2-2	1.4	42.4±1.4	65.8±2.4	568.7±30.7	37.7±8.3	4.6±0.3	63.2±3.3	13.6±1.2
18- 293	101.9550, 38.0270	T2	YX01	1.2	80.2±2.4	82.2±2.5	768.2±36.9	138.8±14.3	37.3±0.9	37.3±1.8	5.1±0.7

Note: Optically stimulated luminescence dating was conducted at the OSL Chronology Laboratory of the Institute of Crustal Dynamics, China Earthquake Administration. Results are reported with 2σ errors.

We obtained new ages for the younger T3 and T2 terraces. For the T3 terrace tread, we obtained one OSL age, 13.6 ± 1.2 ka (Field. No. DT2-2) from the bottom of the overlying loess from the backlimb of the Dahuang Shan (Figures 5, S2, Table 2). For the T2 terrace, at the southern end of the Yangxiang basin, one charcoal sample was collected from the covering loess ~10 cm above the tread, giving an age of 7.5 ± 0.1 cal kyr BP (Field. No. 101-102). An OSL samples from the base of the loess covering the terrace, collected at the northern end of the Yangxiang basin, gives an age of 5.1 ± 0.7 ka (Field. No. YX01) (Figures 5, S2, Table 2).

Our OSL and ¹⁴C results for T4b terrace suggest a wide range of possible abandonment age (19–

376 39 ka) (Figure 8). However, it is worth noting that the oldest sample, 39 ka (Field No. DT4-1), is

from fluvial deposits (Figure S2), while the second oldest sample, 31 ka (Field No. 93), is

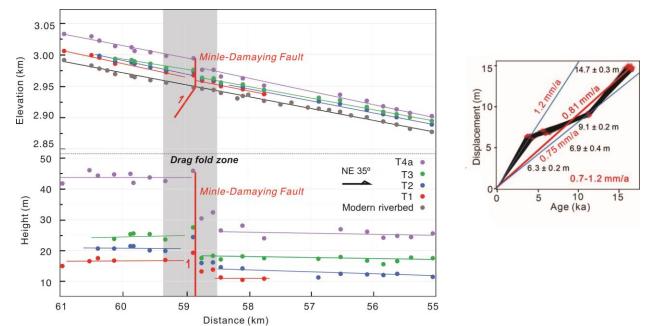
378 collected from colluvial deposits (Figure S2) and the possibility of the charcoal being reworked

379 cannot be excluded. Therefore, we suggest that both sample ages can only be treated as the upper

bound and the T4b abandonment is likely later than 31 ka ago. The remaining three other OSL 380 dating results are all from the base of the loess cap, which indicates the lower bound of the T4b 381 abandonment age should be around 19–27 ka (Figure 8). Previous research show that the T4b 382 equivalent alluvial fan at the piedmont of Dahuang Shan has OSL ages of ~27 ka, ~24 ka, and 383 ~21 ka, for samples collected from the coarse sand layers below the alluvial fan surface, and 384 from the overlying loess 10 cm, and 50 cm above the gravel surface respectively. Considering 385 the age sequences along the Dongda River and from the abandoned alluvial fans, we suggest the 386 OSL age of 27.4 \pm 2.5 ka is the closest approximation of the T4b abandonment age of the 387 Dahuang Shan area (Figure 8). Within the upstream Huangcheng basin, previous research from 388 Lei et al. (2020) reported a ¹⁴C age at the loess bottom of T4a (T6 in his work) as 16.4 ± 0.2 cal 389 kyr BP (Figures 4, 5, S3 Table 1; Field. No 60-61-2*). The disagreement in ages for T4a 390 between the Qilian Shan-Huangcheng area (~16.4 ka) and the T4b at Yangxiang basin-Dahuang 391 Shan -Yongchang basin area (~ 27.4 ka) suggests that either they represent the ages of two 392 different terrace levels, or the abandonment of T4 was diachronous due to the growth of the 393 Dahuang Shan anticline (Figure 8). Apart from the T4 terrace, our age results for T1- T3 394 terraces are in good agreement with previous studies (Xiong et al., 2017; Lei et al., 2020) along 395 396 the river (Figures 4, 5, 8, Tables 1, 2). We therefore suggest that the three younger terrace levels were abandoned synchronously along the river around 11-14 ka, 6-8 ka, and ~ 4 ka, 397 respectively. 398

- 399 4.3 Terrace deformation and tectonic uplift rate distribution
- 400 4.3.1 Terrace offsets and Active faults

At the mountain front of North Qilian Shan, all four terrace levels are displaced due to activity of 401 402 the Minle-Damaying fault (Figures 6 and S3). A small scale (~800 m wavelength) drag fold is developed near the fault tip. Upstream of the fault trace, terrace treads of T1-T4a are 42–47, 24– 403 29, 20-23, and 15-19 m above the riverbed. Downstream of the fault trace, the terraces treads 404 are 25–30, 16–18, 12–14, and 10 m above the riverbed respectively. The vertical distances 405 between the best-fit lines of each terrace within 2~4 km range both upstream and downstream of 406 the Minle-Damaying fault suggest accumulated fault throw of 14.7 ± 0.3 m, 9.1 ± 0.2 m, $6.9 \pm$ 407 0.2 m and $6.3 \pm 0.2 \text{ m}$ since the abandonment of T4a, T3, T2, and T1, respectively. 408



409

Figure 6 The river terrace tread deformation across the Minle-Damaying fault. Left: Terrace tread profiles in height above riverbed and elevation at the mountain front of North Qilian Shan. linear fits of the hangingwall and footwall. Right: tread offsets and the linear fits for the fault offset on each terrace, and the regressed slip rate for average, and range of 95% confidence.

At the mountain front of the Dahuang Shan, the displaced terrace surfaces indicate that there are 414 three active fault strands of the Fengle fault, F1, F2, and F3 distributed across a 3.2 km wide 415 fault zone (Figures 7 and S4). Outcrops in near Dongda river outlet suggest the dip angles are 416 $30^{\circ}\pm2^{\circ}$, $22^{\circ}\pm2^{\circ}$, and $22^{\circ}\pm2^{\circ}$ for F1, F2, and F3, respectively (Figure S4). Downstream, within 417 the footwall, T4b, T3 and T2 merge into a single alluvial fan, while T1 gradually lowers its 418 height and disappears into the present channel. All three fault branches displacedT4 surface, 419 while T1-T3 terraces show no obvious sign of offset. The vertical distances between the best-fit 420 line of the T4 tread up-and-downstream of the fault traces indicate 9.4 \pm 0.5 m, 2.3 \pm 0.2 m, and 421 2.5 ± 0.2 m of throw for F1, F2, and F3, respectively. 422

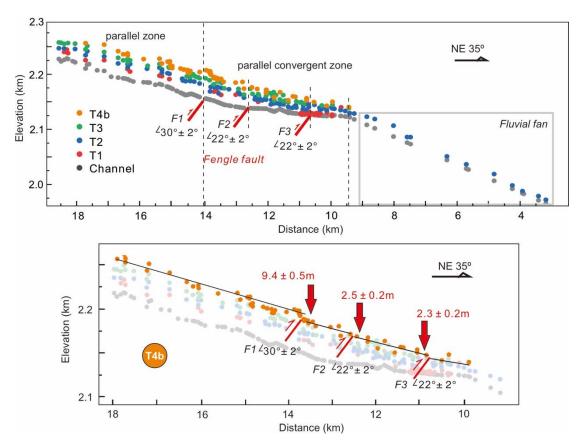


Figure 7 The river terrace deformation across the Fengle fault. Top: River terrace profiles in elevation within the Yongchang basin. Bottom: linear fits and surface offsets of T4b tread.

In between the Minle-Damaying fault and the Fengle fault, we found no obvious terrace offsets
along the Dongda river. Instead, the relative heights between the four levels of terraces vary from
south to north, indicating the possibility of changing uplift rate due to folding.

429 4.3.2 terrace deformation and active structures

Combining the fault vertical offset and the abandonment ages for each terrace tread, we estimate 430 the vertical slip rate along the Minle-Damaving fault as 0.7-1.2 mm/a, and along Fengle fault as 431 0.5-0.7 mm/a. Apart from surface displacement, the vertical uplift of the region can be known 432 from the relative heights between different terrace levels. We demonstrate this by subtracting T3 433 and T2 elevation from T4 terrace profile, and by subtracting the T2 elevation from T3 terrace 434 profile; these data are then projected to a NE35° vertical plane, perpendicular to the strike of the 435 Fengle and Minle-Damaying faults. We interpret these relative height profiles to represent the 436 vertical uplift patterns during different periods (Figure 8), with the assumption that the original 437 elevation of T2-T4 were similar when they were formed. This assumption can be justified by the 438 fact that these three terraces are all fill terraces in all channel reaches, indicating they were 439 formed under similar hydrological conditions, and therefore likely share similar original channel 440 gradients. In addition, in the footwall of the Fengle fault within the Yongchang basin, T2-T4 441 merge into the same fan surface while T1 seemingly merges into the modern riverbed, indicating 442 the base levels were the same during the formation period of T2-T4. 443

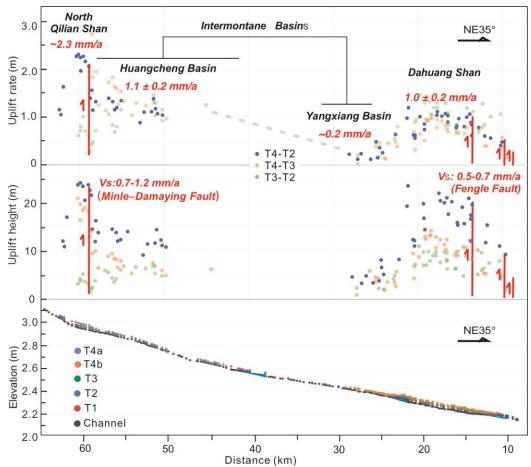


Figure 8 Bottom: the projected longitude profile of the absolute elevation for each terrace. Top: relative terrace height and uplift rate estimated from differencing elevations of T2, T3 and T4 terraces.

Dividing the vertical incision data with the duration between the abandonment of two terraces, 448 we interpret an uplift rate profile of the region (Figure 8). The uplift rates between T2 and T3, 449 and between T3 and T4 correlate well in Dahuang Shan region, while across the Minle-450 Damaying fault, the uplift rate seems to be more variable since the abandonment of T4 (Figure 451 7). Here, we choose the incision profile between the abandonment of T4 and T2 as the average 452 uplift rate for further analysis and to compare between different channel reaches. Throughout the 453 Donga River drainage, the uplift rate profile features two anticlines, a southern anticline uplifting 454 the North Qilian Shan, and a northern anticline uplifting the Dahuang Shan, linked by a pair of 455 intermontane basins with inhomogeneous uplift. The uplift rate quickly drops to zero north of the 456 Fengle fault zone (Figures 8, 9). The Dahuang Shan anticline has a maximum uplift rate of $1.0 \pm$ 457 0.2 mm/a at its 6.8 km long crest. The uplift rate gradually drops to ~ 0.2 mm/a toward south, 458 forming a 5 km long backlimb. South of the Dahuang Shan, the uplift rate seems to be stable at 459 $\sim 0.2 \text{ mm/a}$ within the 2 km wide Yangxiang basin, while the Huangcheng basin in the south has 460 a higher uplift rate of 1.1 ± 0.2 mm/a. Lacking terrace data along the 15 km long reach between 461 Yangxiang and Huangcheng basin makes it impossible for us to determine whether this change 462 of uplift rate is gradual, due to faulting, or abruptly changes across an active fault. However, our 463 field survey found no evidence of surface faulting in this area. Further south, the activity of the 464 Minle-Damaying fault raises the total uplift rate to 2.3 ± 0.3 mm/a at the North Qilian Shan 465

Mountain front. Though poor preservation of terraces within the North Qilian Shan prevents us from further constraining the uplift rate pattern here, this high uplift rate appears to decrease to

468 approximately 1.0–1.6 mm/a further into the mountains based on the few terrace survey points

469 we collected.

470 **5 Discussion**

471 5.1 Regional fault structure and crustal shortening rate

Using the uplift rate profile and the kinematic fault bend fold model under the assumption that 472 the slip rate remains constant within a fault segment, we deduce the overall geometry of the 473 474 thrust system underlying the eastern North Qilian Shan. Combining the fault dip information from the previous trench work across each fault (Lei et al., 2020; Zhong et al., 2020), we 475 estimate the slip rate along the $45^{\circ} \pm 10^{\circ}$ dipping Minle-Damaying fault is 1.0–1.7 mm/a. Along 476 the Fengle fault, a fault slip rate of 1.1-1.3 mm/a is distributed across three sub-branches dipping 477 30°, 22°, 22°, respectively. Assuming the slip rate remains constant at depth, the main Fengle 478 fault underneath the Dahuang Shan anticline, where the three sub-branches merge into, should 479 have a dip angle of $55^{\circ} \pm 12^{\circ}$ for the 1.3–1.5 mm/a slip rate and the 1.0 \pm 0.2 mm/a vertical uplift 480 rate at the axil top of the fold (Figure 9). We suggest this planar fault then bends into a listric 481 section at ~3.2 km depth, leading to southward tilting of the backlimb (Figures 9 and S5). The 482 fault then soles into a décollement at ~7.8 km depth beneath the Yangxiang basin, which is 483 constrained by the location of the lower axis of the backlimb of the Dahuang Shan anticline. We 484 suggest the lowest uplift rate that we documented at the northern end of the Yangxiang basin, 485 ~0.2 mm/a, results from slip along a gently south dipping décollement, with dip angle estimated 486 to be $10^{\circ} \pm 1^{\circ}$. 487

The increase of uplift rate between Yangxiang and Huangcheng basin may be explained by two 488 alternative models. The first model correlates this surface deformation slip on an active, blind 489 490 strand of the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault, while the second model suggests this change of uplift rate is the result of increasing dip angle of the décollement. We prefer the first model for 491 two reasons. First, for the second model, uplift rate increases from ~0.2 mm/a to 1.1 mm/a 492 suggests the $10^{\circ} \pm 1^{\circ}$ décollement may have to transfer into a steep (~65°) ramp at ~15 km 493 depth. Considering the width of the area south of Yangxiang basin, this deep ramp would have to 494 extend >40 km depth (Figure 9). This is well beyond the depth of seismicity (10-25 km) in the 495 area (He et al., 2020; Deng et al., 2020). Second, previous work on the Xiving and Jinta river 496 suggests a ~0.5 mm/a difference of incision rate across the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault trace 497 (Pan et al., 2013a) (Figure 2b). This is similar to the uplift pattern we observed between 498 Yangxiang and Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang basins. Therefore, we model the Huangcheng-499 Ta'erzhuang fault as an active blind fault which soles into the décollement at ~ 15 km depth. 500 Adopting a dip for the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault of 50°-80°, similar to that observed at 501 Dongdingqing (Hou, 1998; Zheng et al., 2004), we infer a slip rate of 0.9–1.3 mm/a, and that the 502 total slip rate along the 10° décollement increases to 2.3 ± 0.3 mm/a. 503

504 The high uplift rate, ~2.3 mm/a, of the North Qilian mountain front, results from the combined 505 activity along the south dipping décollement, the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault, and the Minle-

506 Damaying fault. The slip along the décollement and the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault leads to

 $\sim 1.1 \text{ mm/a of uplift, and the slip along the Minle-Damaying fault leads to <math>0.7-1.2 \text{ mm/a of uplift.}$

508 Further south, the uplift rate quickly drops to 1.1–1.6 mm/a, which we suggest is because this

area is only under the influence of the décollement and the Minle-Damaying fault, and effect of

the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault diminishes. In this area, we predict that the Minle-Damaying

fault gradually soles into the décollement at ~20 km depth, which is consistent with the results from previous geologic studies (i.e., Gaudemer et al., 1995) and InSAR inversion (Daout et al.,

2016). With this model, we estimate a total slip rate of 3.0–4.3 mm/a before the décollement

514 merges into the Haiyuan fault.

In summary, we find evidence for three active fault strands distributed across a 70 km-wide fold 515 and thrust belt of the eastern North Qilian Shan. The northernmost strand is the Fengle fault 516 system, which accommodates a shortening rate of 1.1-1.3 mm/a, contributing to uplifting and 517 folding of the Dahuang Shan anticline as well as uplifting of the intermontane Yangxiang basin. 518 The intermediate strand is a blind westward continuation of the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault, 519 absorbing 0.9–1.3 mm/a of shortening and contributing to uplift of Huangcheng basin and part of 520 the North Qilian Shan. The southernmost Minle-Damaying fault system slips at a rate of 1.1–1.7 521 mm/a, leading to 0.7-1.2 mm/a of shortening, responsible for additional uplift of the North 522 Qilian Shan. Together, these fault systems accommodate 2.7–3.8 mm/a of total crustal shortening 523 across a ~70 km wide frontal thrust system north of the Haiyuan fault (Figures 9 and 10), in 524 agreement with the present-day shortening rate of ~3 mm/a measured by GPS (Wang and Shen, 525

526 2020).

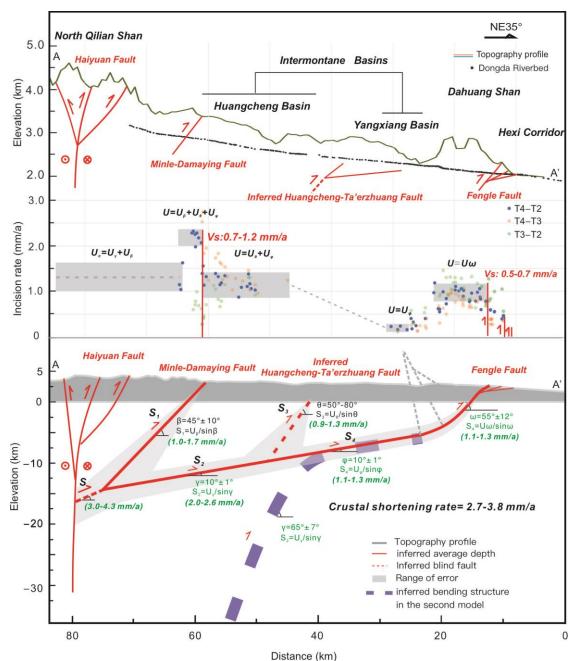


Figure 9 Top: The topography profile A-A' in Figure 2b and projected riverbed profile, Middle: The projected uplift rate profile. Bottom: Schematic block diagram showing the river terrace deformation and coupling results of underlying fault structure involve the entire seismogenic crust of the eastern Qilian Shan with respect to the Haiyuan fault. The red line within the light grey strips illustrates the average depth with errors in 95% confidence. Dashed blue line shows alternative fault geometry where steepening of décollement explains higher uplift rate of the Huangcheng basin.

535 5.2 Thrust propagation associated with the restraining bend of the Haiyuan fault systems

536 Oblique convergence across the eastern North Qilian Shan is accommodated by strike-slip on the 537 Haiyuan fault and thrusting of the Qilian frontal and foreland fault system (Figure 9 and that in

Gaudemer et al., 1995; Hu et al., 2015). First proposed by Gaudemer et al. (1995), the growth of 538 539 the foreland fold-and-thrust belt in our research area may be further enhanced by the development of a double restraining bend along the Haiyuan fault where its strike changes from 540 east to southeast and then eastward again (Figure 1). Synthesizing our findings with previously 541 published results from areas to the east and west shows an along-strike distinct pattern of 542 shortening rate consistent with the restraining bend model. We find high shortening rates along 543 the outer faults and surrounding restraining section of the Haiyuan fault, and relatively lower 544 shortening rates along the inner faults and to the east and west of the bend. The Late-Pleistocene 545 shortening rate along the Fengle Fault is up to 2.8 mm/a, much larger than the <1.3 mm/a 546 shortening rate along the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang Fault and that of ~1.5 mm/a along the Minle-547 Damaying fault. At the western end of the bend, the Yonggu anticline was developed, 548 accommodating 2.7 ± 0.6 mm/a shortening rate together with the Minle-Damaying Fault (Zhong 549 et al., 2020). To the east, in the Dongda River area, the total shortening rate increases to 3.2 ± 0.5 550 mm/a (this study). Further east, by assuming that all the reverse faults sole into the same 10° 551 décollement, we recalculated the total shortening rates along Xiying, Jinta and Zamu River as 4.5 552 ± 1 mm/a, 1.5 ± 0.3 mm/a, 0.5 ± 0.3 mm/a, respectively (Champagnac et al., 2010; Pan et al., 553 2013a; Hu et al., 2015; Ai et al., 2017). East of the restraining bend, both the foreland fold-and-554 thrust belt and the North Qilian Shan diminish. In contrast, the slip rate of Haiyuan fault, 555 constrained by displaced late Pleistocene terraces, increases from 3.9 ± 0.5 mm/a south of the 556 557 Tongziba river (Yuan et al., 2008) and Dongda-Xiying river region (He et al., 2000), to 6.4 ± 0.7 mm/a east of Jinta river region near the intersection with the Gulang Fault (Guo et al., 2017, 558 2019; Yao et al., 2019; Shao et al., 2020) (Figures 2 and 10). Further east, the Gulang Fault slips 559 left-laterally at a rate of 1–2 mm/a (Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019), whereas the Haiyuan 560 Fault slips at a rate of 4.4–4.8 mm/a (Liu et al., 2020) (Figures 2 and 10). 561

This pattern of cumulative shortening and fault slip shows that oblique convergence between the 562 Tibetan Plateau and the Alashan Block is accommodated more by thrust faulting and folding in 563 the restraining bend area, whereas left-lateral slip of the Haiyuan Fault and Gulang Fault 564 accommodates most of the convergence east of the restraining bend. The eastward diminishing 565 shortening rate across the foreland fold-and-thrust belt and the North Qilian Shan is likely a 566 result of the changing orientation and increasing slip rate of the Haiyuan Fault and Gulang Fault. 567 Adding up the vectors of strike-slip and shortening by thrust faulting in each area, we find the 568 total oblique convergence rate remains constant at $\sim 5-7$ mm/a with an azimuth of $85-95^{\circ}$ across 569 the restraining bend (Figure 10), which is consistent with the GPS velocity data (Wang and Shen, 570 2020). 571

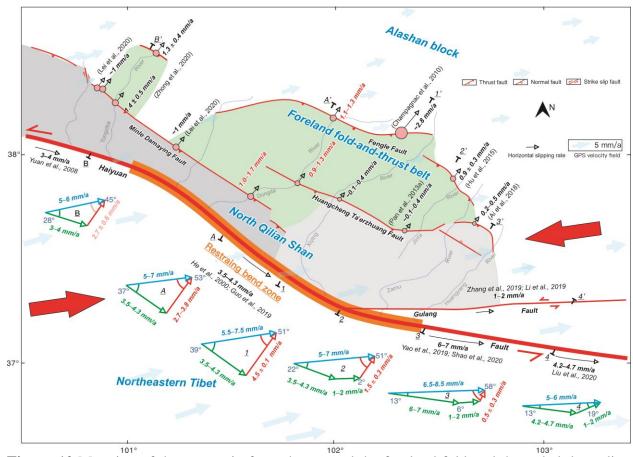


Figure 10 Mapping of the mountain front thrusts and the foreland fold-and thrust belt bounding 573 the restraining bend of Haiyuan fault, and the crustal shortening rates accommodated by the 574 variable strike slip and the dip-slip components within the restraining bend zone. The dark and 575 light gray zone depicts the northern Qilian Shan, and the light green depicts the foreland fold-576 and-thrust belt. The blue vector represents the azimuth of relative block motion (since late 577 Pleistocene) through a linear combination of strike slip components (green vector) and dip-slip 578 components (red vector). The light bold blue vector represents the azimuth of relative block 579 580 motion (GPS velocity) (Wang and Shen, 2020). The bold red arrows indicate the direction of the regional convergence stress. 581

582 5.3 Concentration of crustal shortening in the eastern North Qilian Shan

572

The regional convergence associated with the restraining bend of the Haiyuan fault explains the 583 higher shortening rate in the eastern North Qilian Shan compared to middle and western North 584 Qilian Shan. Previous research suggests a shortening rate is 1.8 ± 0.4 mm/a in Zhangye area 585 (Tapponnier et al., 1990; Hu et al., 2019) (A, B in Figure 1) and 1–2 mm/a (Hetzel et al., 2019; 586 Wang et al., 2020, 2024; C, C-C' in Figure 1) in Jiuquan area. In addition to a higher rate of 587 shortening, the eastern Qilian Shan exhibits a more developed and much wider active frontal 588 fault system in our research area than the western North Qilian Shan: the maximum distance 589 between Fengle and Minle-Damaving fault is ~50 km, and the relief of the Dahuang Shan 590 anticline reaches ~1500 m (Figure 9). In contrast, the zone of active shortening within the 591 western North Qilian Shan is typically less than ~15 km of width (i.e., the Yumen anticline; 592 Figure 1). 593

This difference indicates a larger seismic hazard in the eastern Qilian Shan foreland. Previous 594 595 research has shown Gulang and Haiyuan Fault east of the restraining bend are seismically active and are the epicenters of multiple historical large earthquakes (e.g., 1920 and 1927 Ms 8.0 596 597 earthquake) (Figure 2b). The high shortening rate across the mountain front and the foreland fold-and-thrust belt related to the restraining bend suggests that the thrust belt also has high 598 seismic risk, especially for the area around and west of Dongda-Xiying River. In fact, frequent 599 earthquake events with magnitudes greater than Ms 6.0 have taken place in the area during the 600 past few years, (e.g., 1986 Ms 6.4, 2016 Ms6.4 and 2022 Mw6.7 Menyuan earthquake) (Figure 601 2b). In addition, the relatively high convergence rate north of the Fengle Fault and the northward 602 propagation of the foreland fold-and-thrust belt both indicate potential risks in the foreland basin 603 north of the Fengle Fault. 604

605 6 Conclusions

Northward propagation of the North Qilian Shan thrust system and the activity of the foreland 606 fold-and-thrust belt are recorded by deformation of the Dongda river terraces of the eastern 607 North Qilian Shan. Mapping and surveying of the river terraces show that two major reverse 608 faults, the Minle-Damaying fault and Fengle fault, are active and have offset Late Pleistocene to 609 Holocene terrace surfaces. Offset terrace treads indicate a minimum vertical slip rate of 0.5-0.7 610 mm/a for Fengle fault and a vertical slip rate of 0.7–1.2 mm/a for the Minle-Damaying fault. The 611 differential incision rate between the Huangcheng basin and Yangxiang basin also suggests 612 activity of a blind strand of the Huangcheng-Ta'erzhuang fault that accommodates ~0.9 mm/a of 613 614 uplift.

The deformation of the terrace profiles indicates folding in Dahuang Shan area as a result of the 615 activity of the underlying Fengle fault. Our modeling result suggests the underlying fault 616 structure is likely a 55° fault ramp that soles into a 10° décollement at 7.8 km depth. Our model 617 further suggests the 10° décollement underlies the entire fold and thrust bet of the eastern North 618 Qilian Shan. Both the 50-80° dipping Huangcheng- Ta'erzhuang fault and the 45° dipping 619 Minle-Damaying fault sole into this décollement at 15 km and 20 km depth, respectively. The 620 décollement then merges into the Haiyuan fault further south. From north to south, the 621 shortening rate is 1.1-1.3 mm/a across the Dahuang Shan area, 0.9-1.3 mm/a across the 622 Huangcheng- Ta'erzhuang fault, and 0.7–1.2 mm/a across the Minle-Damaying fault. Together, 623 this 70 km wide frontal fold-and-thrust system accommodates 2.7-3.8 mm/a of crustal 624 shortening. 625

This crustal shortening rate along the Dongda river is one of the highest shortening rates in the 626 North Qilian Shan and its foreland. We suggest this elevated shortening rate is related to the 627 concentration of compressional strain adjacent to a restraining bend of the Haiyuan fault, as 628 originally proposed by Gaudemer et al. (1995). Summing up slip rates along strike-slip faults and 629 shortening rates across thrust faults, we find the total oblique convergence rate is a consistent 5-7 630 mm/yr along the restraining bend. Therefore, the eastward diminishing shortening rate of the 631 North Qilian Shan can be explained by increased slip and more optimal orientation of both the 632 Haiyuan fault and the Gulang fault east of the restraining bend. We further surmise that the 633 foreland fold-and-thrust belt of the eastern North Qilian Shan has relatively high seismic hazard 634 635 due to its high crustal shortening rate.

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644 **Open Research**

Figures S1-S5 and the river terrace survey data (Table S1) in the supporting information were available at (Hu et al., 2024).

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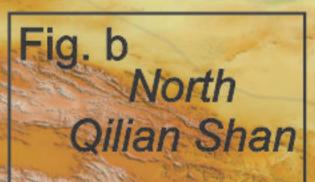
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Figure 1.





Tibetan Plateau

E97°

North

Altyn Tagh Fault

b

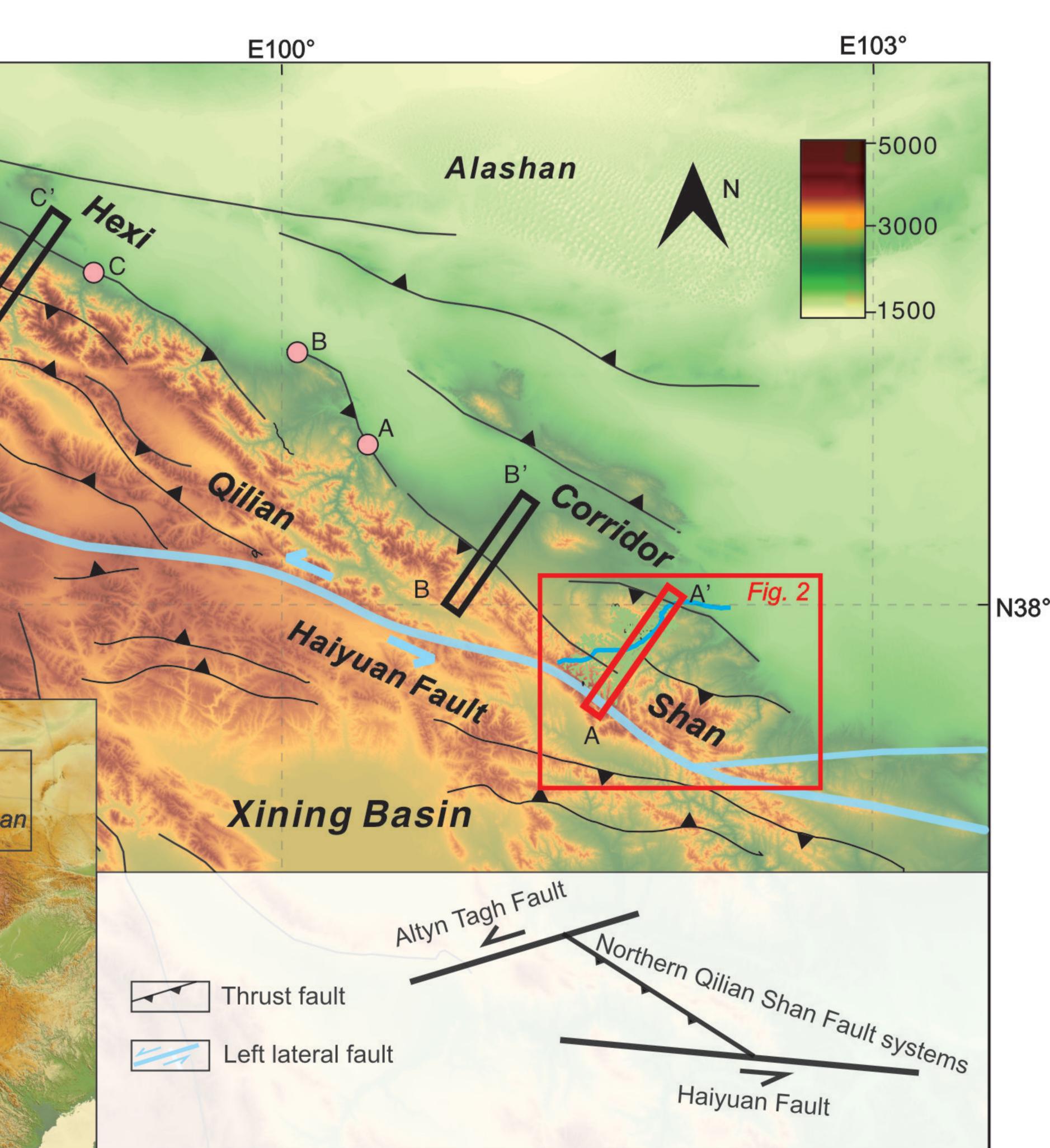
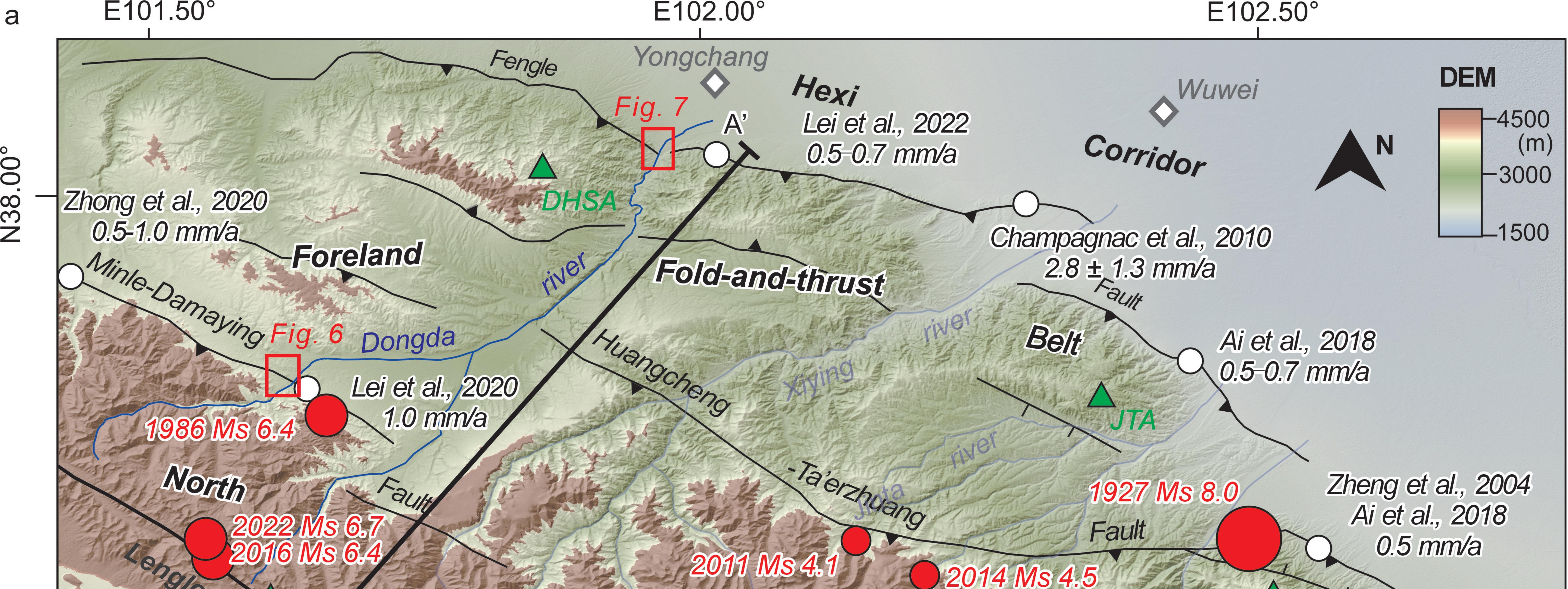


Figure 2.



37.50°

Ζ

3.9 ± 0.4 mm/a He et al., 2000

Qilian

Menyuan





Normal fault



Strike slip fault

1.1-2.5 mm/a Li et al., 2019;Zhang et al., 2019

DQDA

6.4- 6.6 mm/a Guo et al., 2019

Shan

6.4 ± 0.7 mm/a Shao et al., 2021

> 5.0 - 8.9 mm/a Shao et al., 2021 4.2-4.8 mm/a Liu et al., 2022

Faull

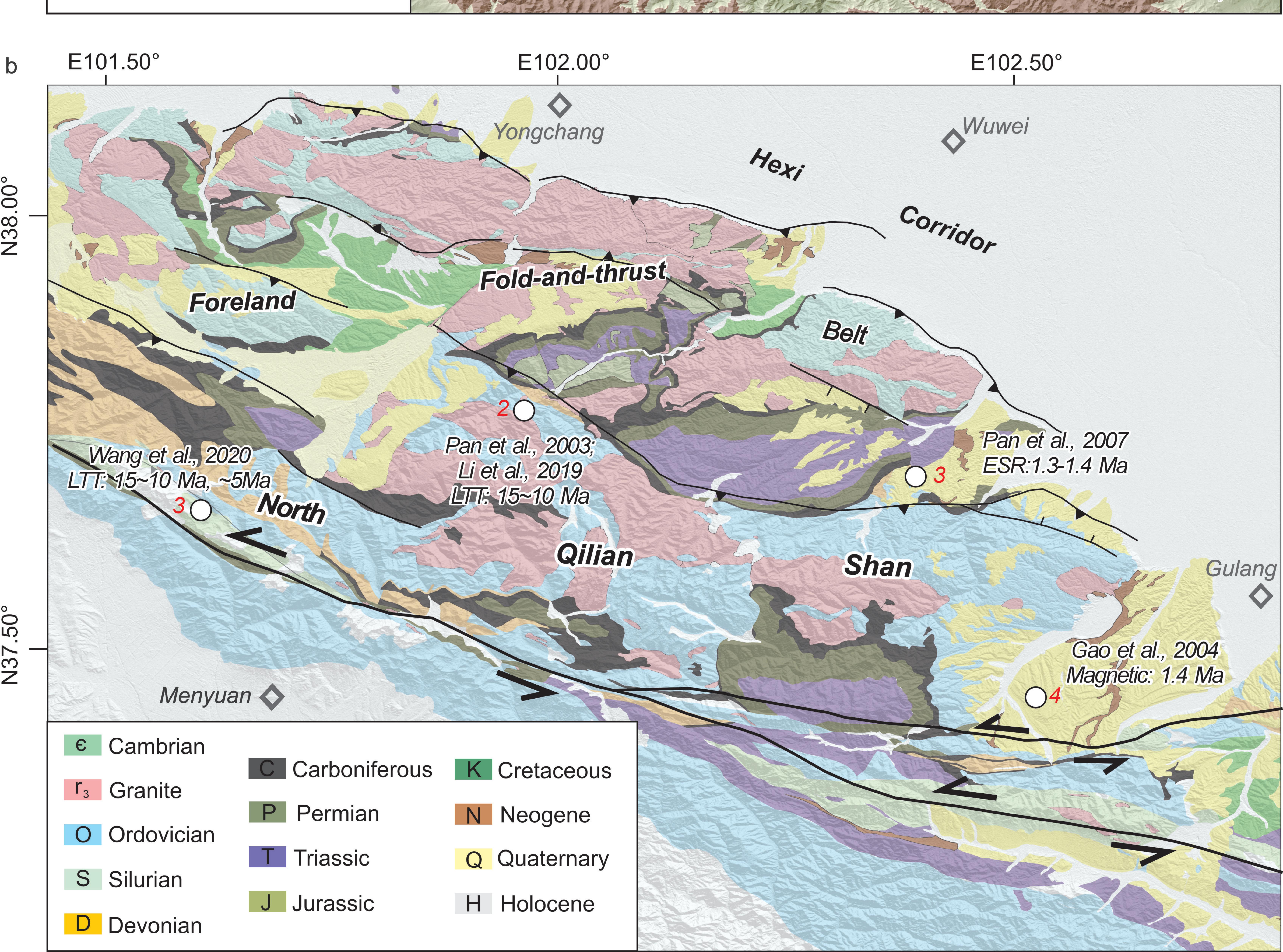


Figure 3.

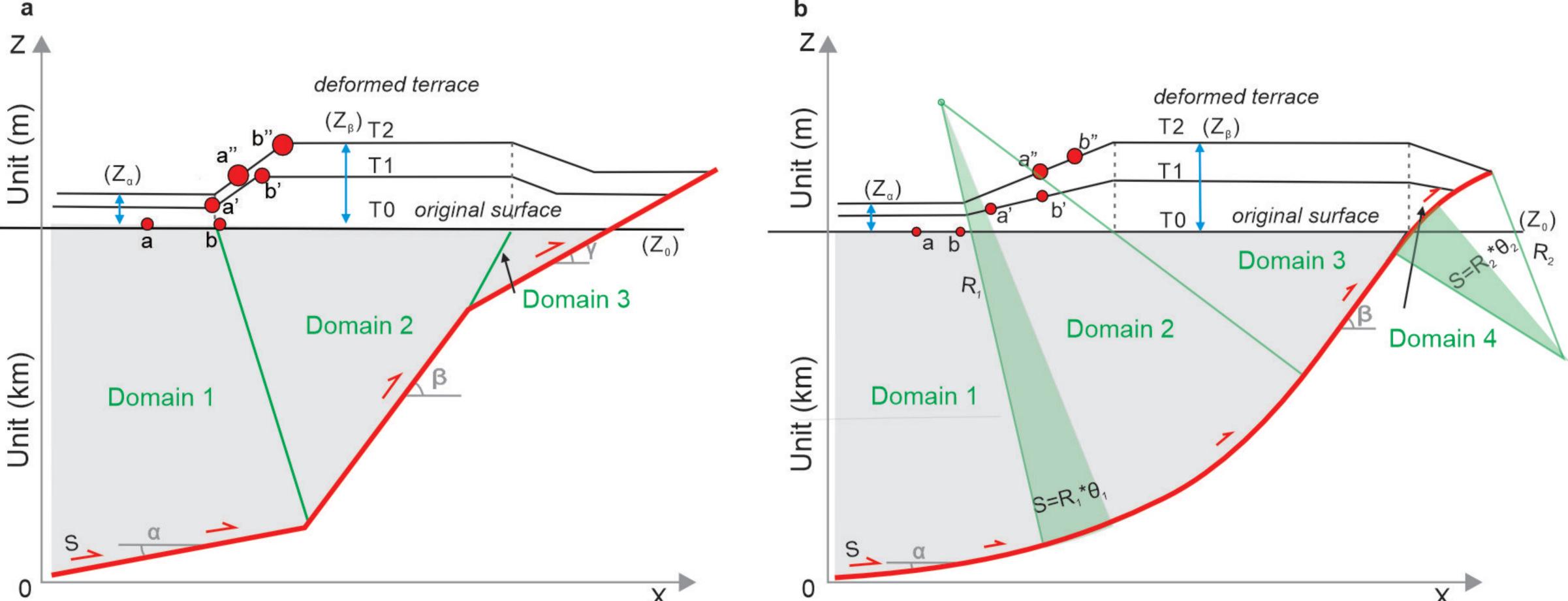
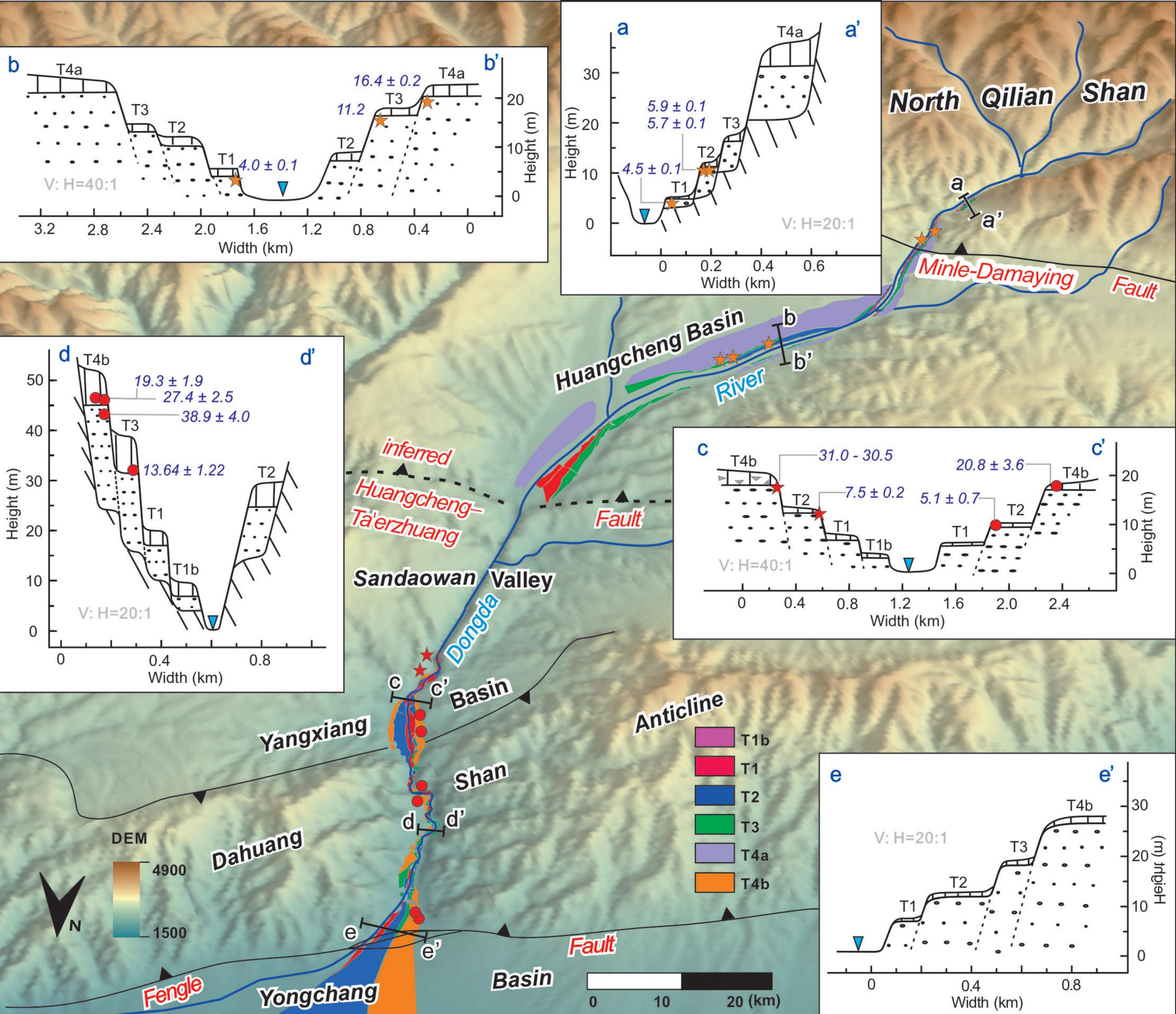


Figure 4.



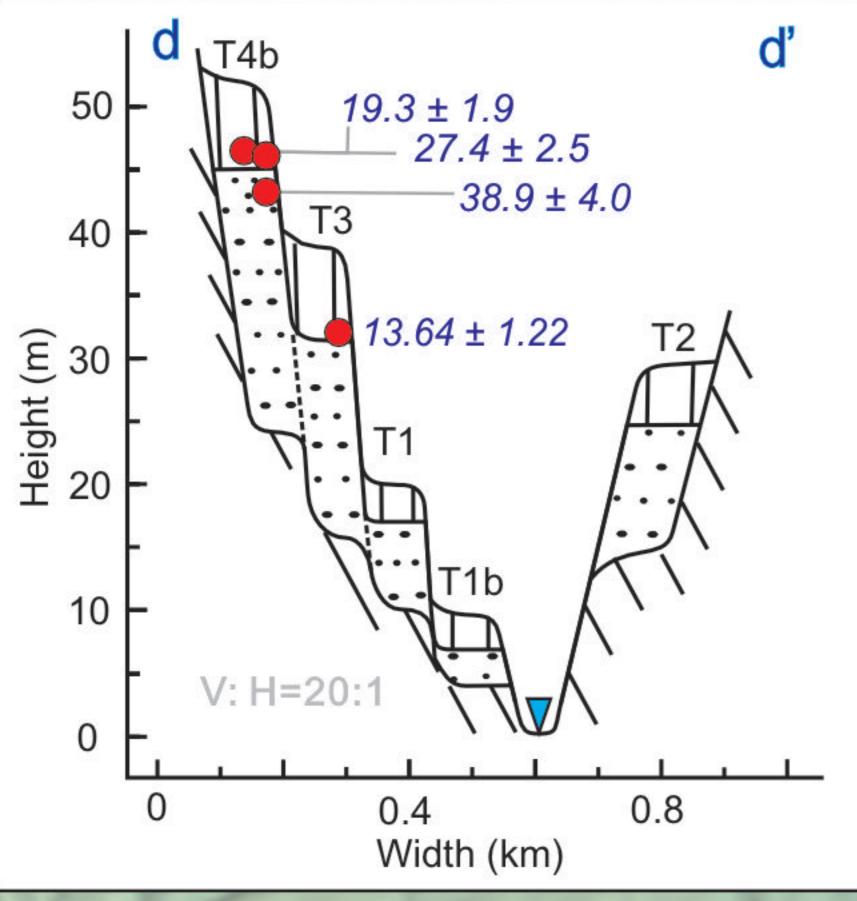


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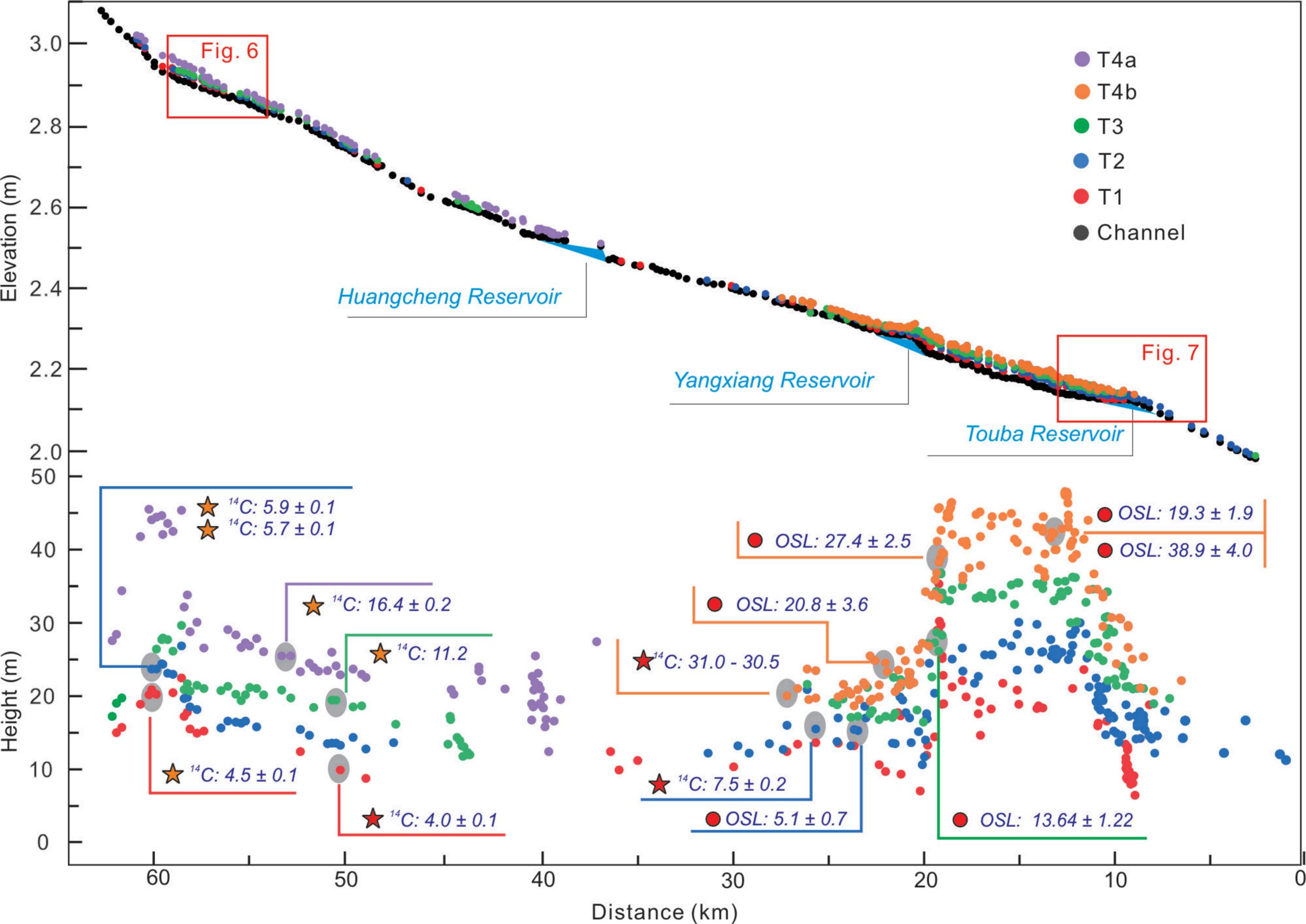
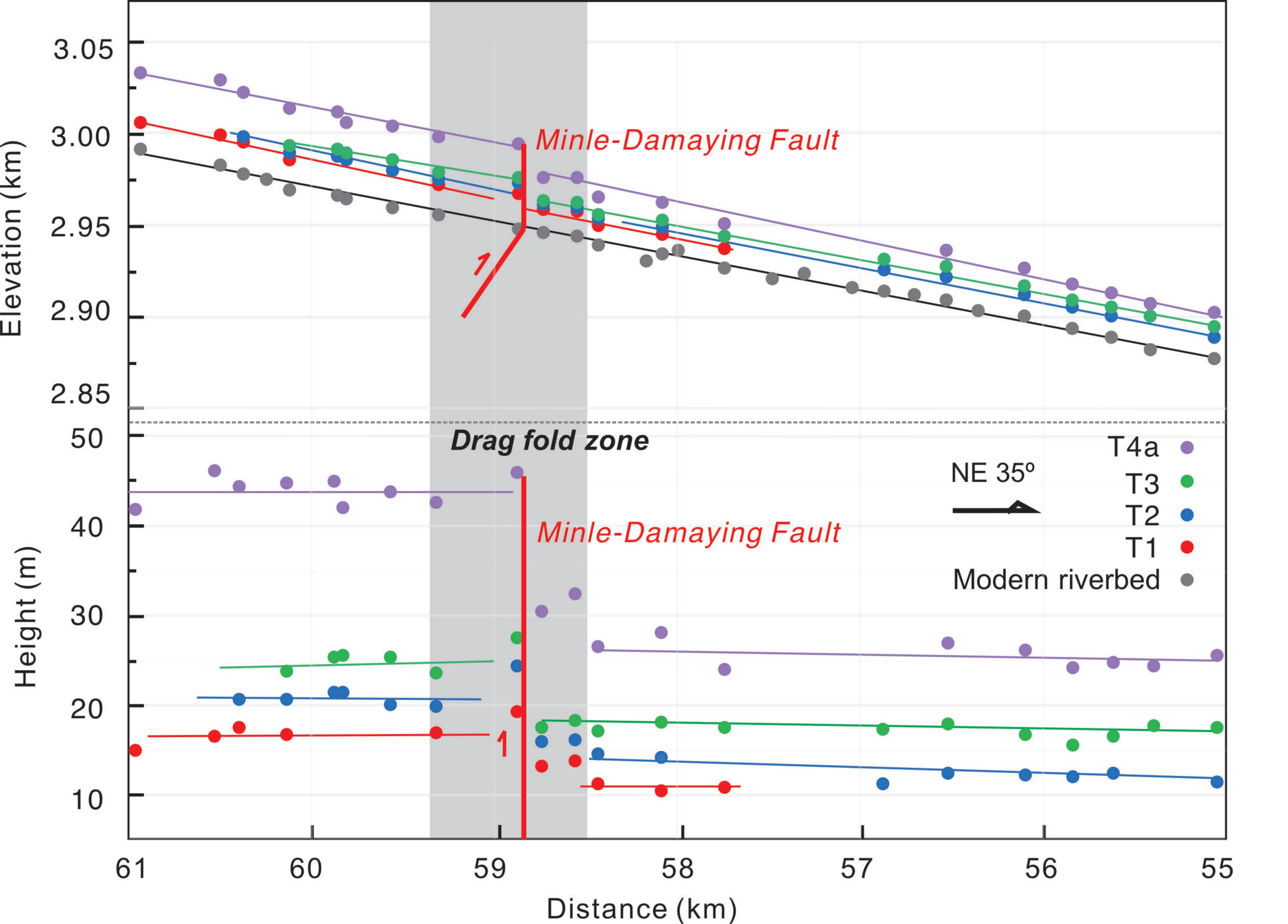


Figure 6.



Displa 5

.

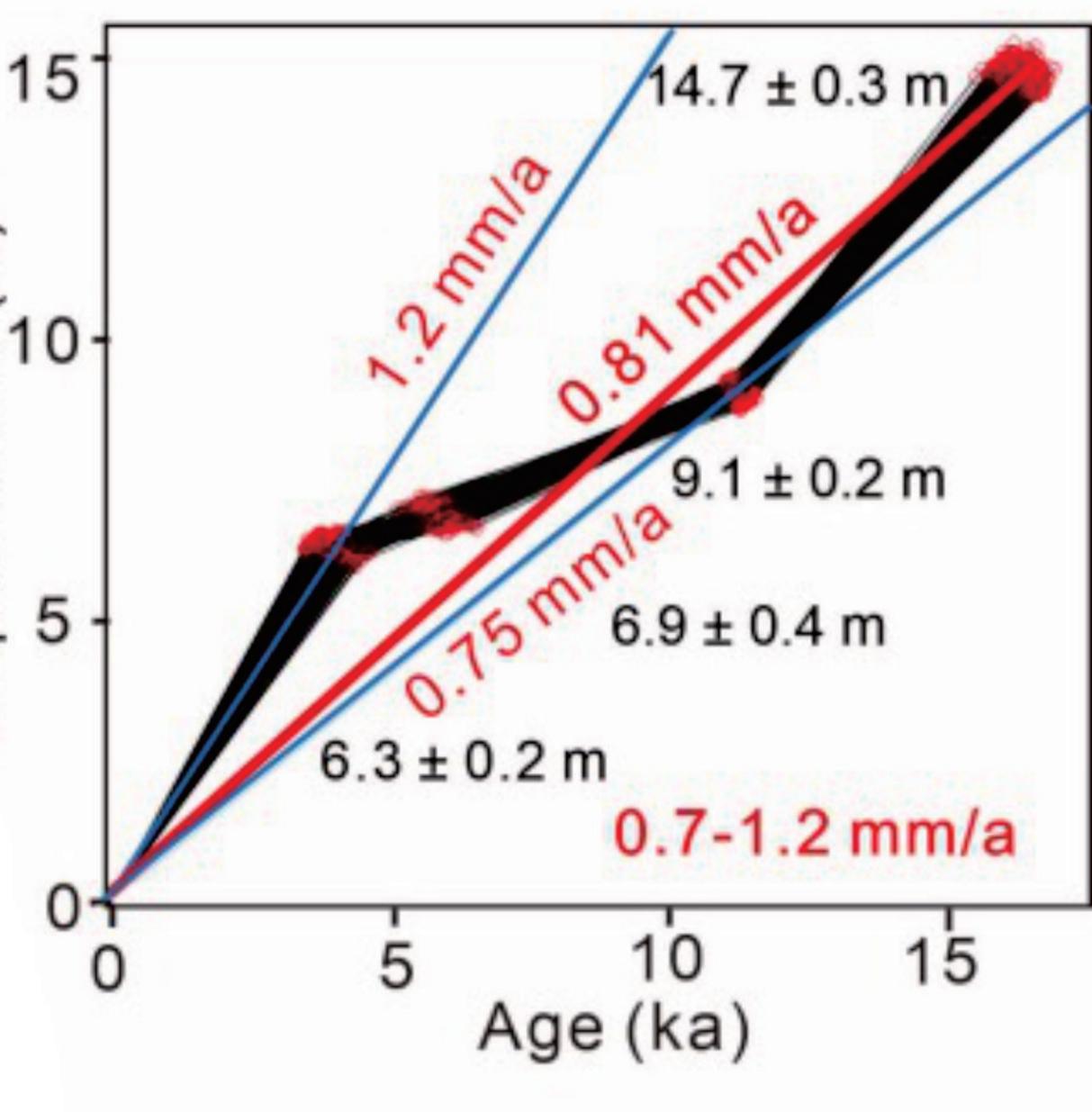
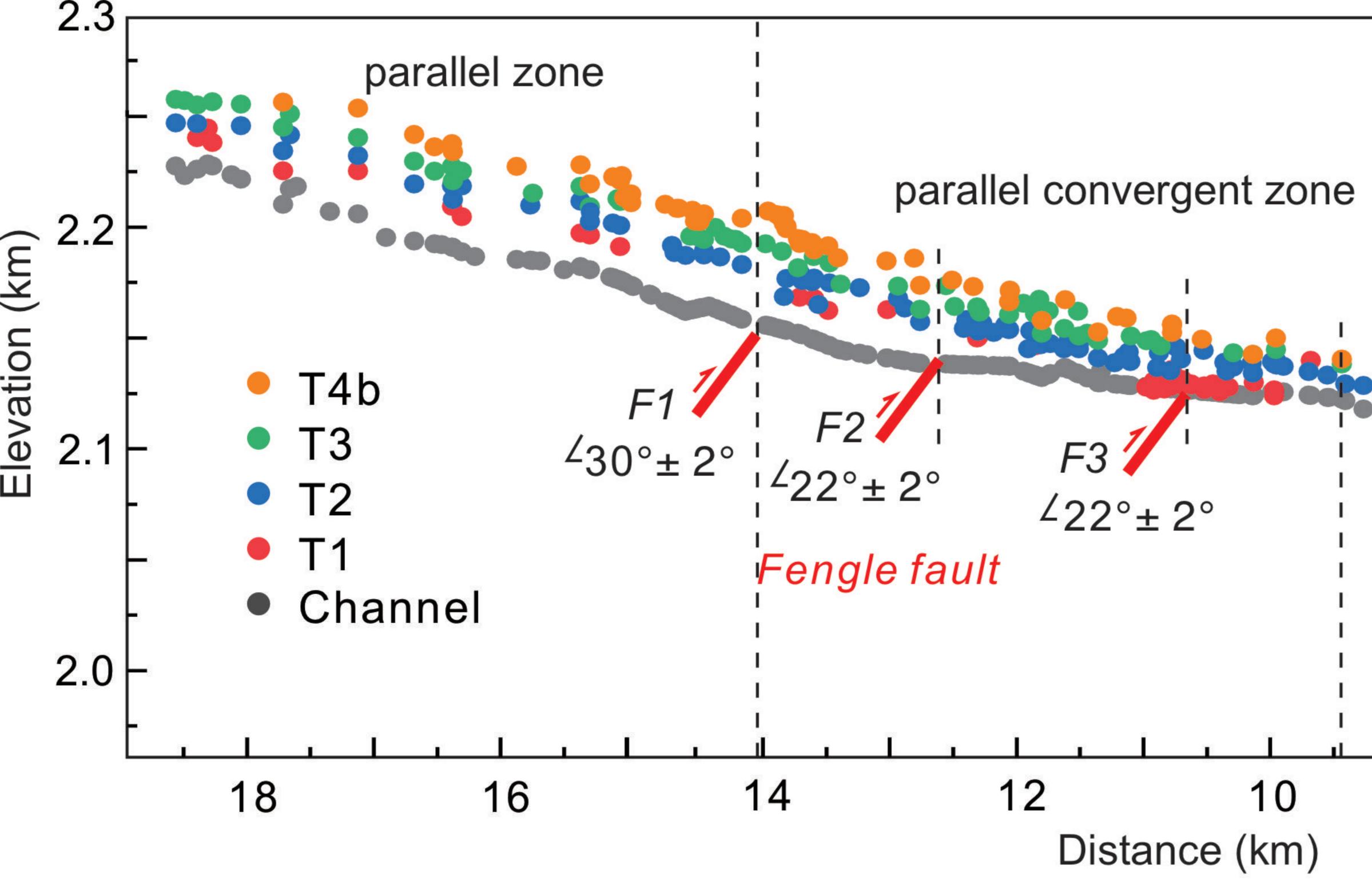
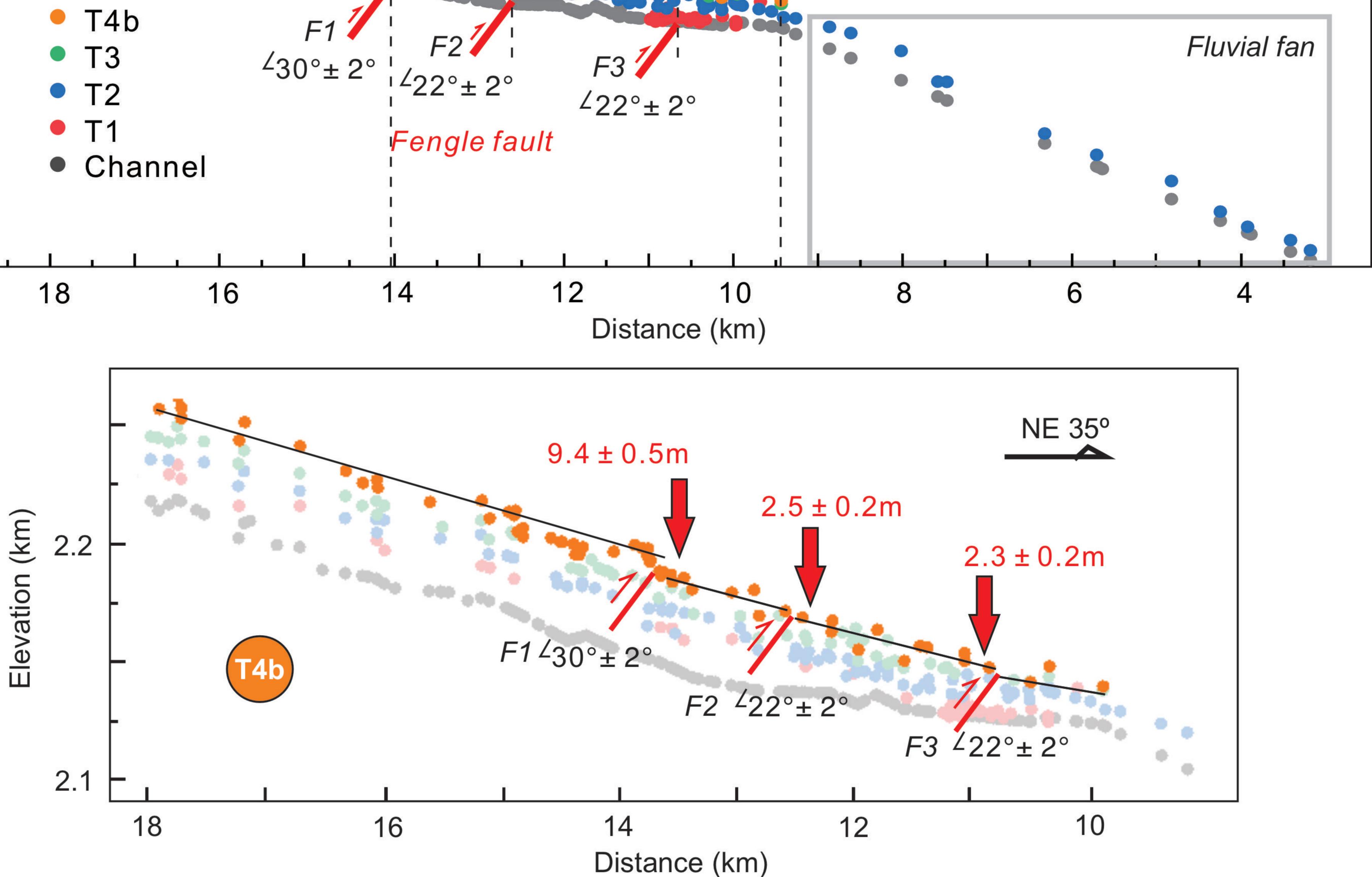


Figure 7.





NE 35°

Figure 8.

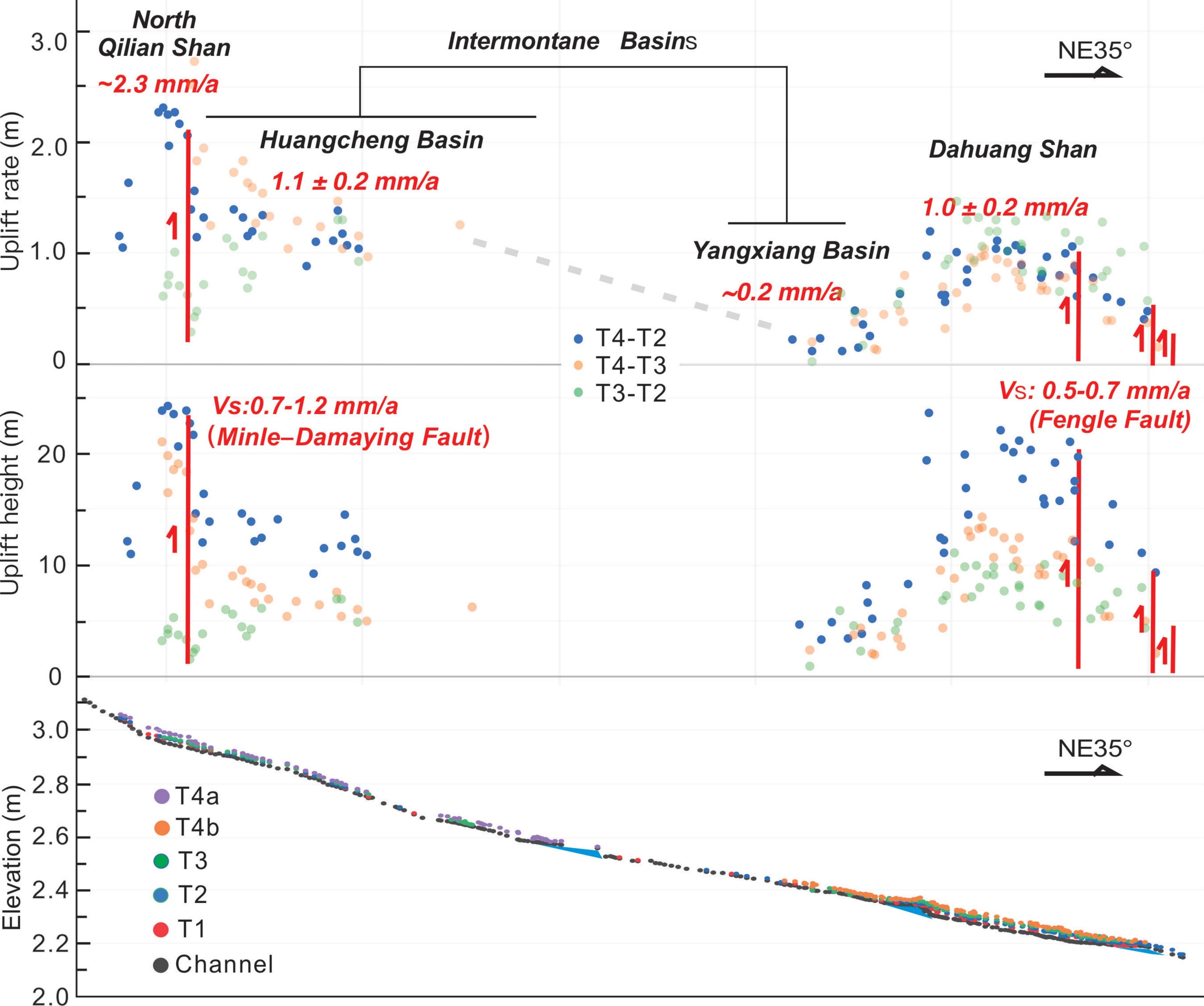




Figure 9.

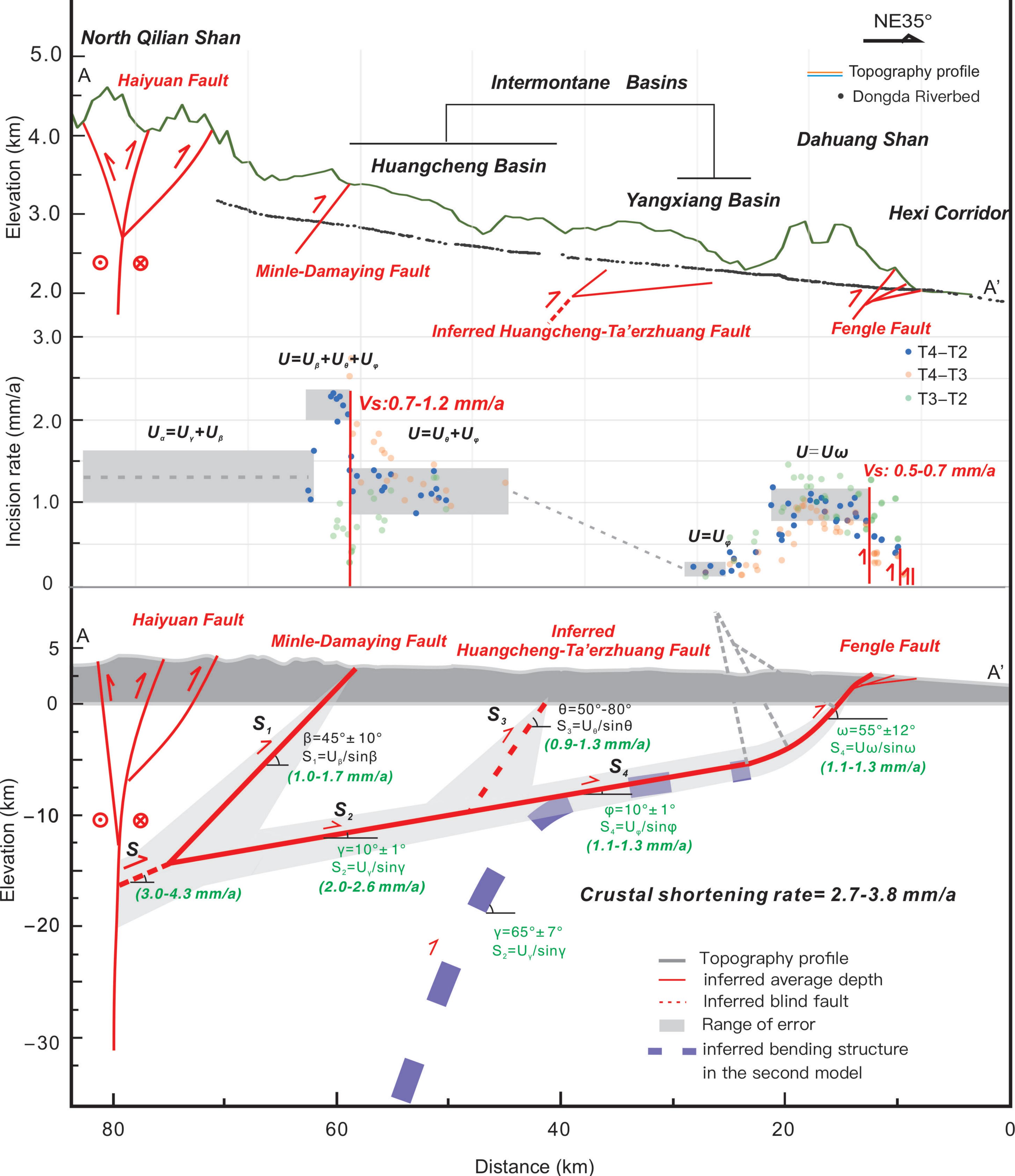
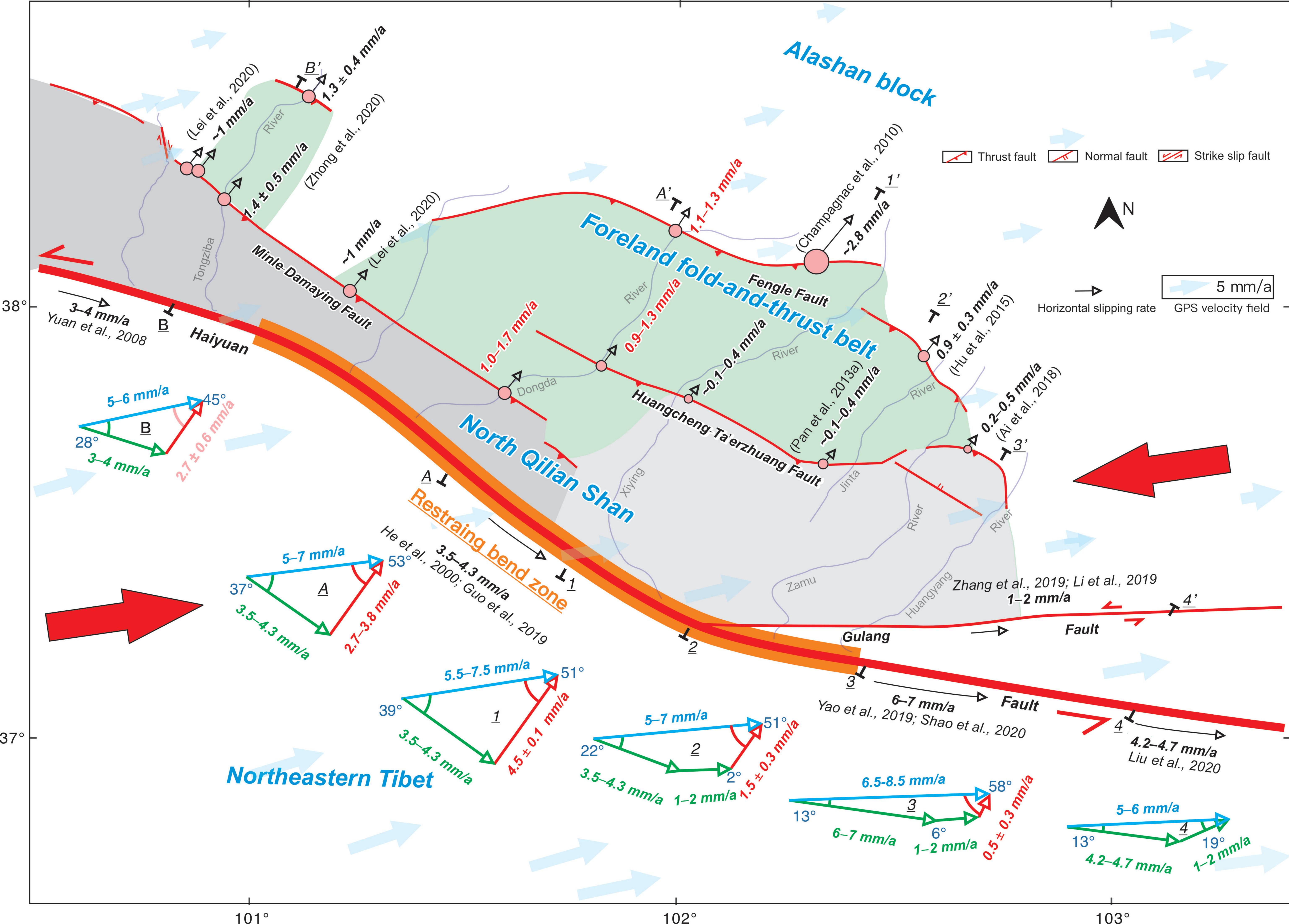


Figure 10.



103°