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# Holocene depositional history inferred from single-grain luminescence ages in southern California, North America.

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## Abstract

Significant sediment flux and deposition in a sedimentary system are influenced by climate changes, tectonics, lithology, and the sedimentary system's internal dynamics. Identifying the timing of depositional periods from stratigraphic records is a first step to critically evaluating the controls of sediment flux and deposition. Here, we show that ages of single-grain K-feldspar luminescence subpopulations may provide information on the timing of previous major depositional periods. We analyzed 754 K-feldspar single-grains from 17 samples from the surface to ~9 m-depth in a trench located downstream of the Mission Creek catchment. Single-grain luminescence subpopulation ages significantly overlap at least eight times since ~12.0 ka indicating a common depositional history. These depositional periods correspond reasonably well with the wetter climate periods based on hydroclimatic proxies from nearby locations. Our findings imply a first-order climatic control on sediment depositional history in southern California on a millennial timescale.

1 **Holocene depositional history inferred from single-grain luminescence ages in**  
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3  
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5 **Scharer<sup>4</sup>, Devin McPhillips<sup>4</sup>, Sally F. McGill<sup>5</sup>, and Bryan A. Castillo<sup>5</sup>**

6  
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14  
15 **Key Points:**

- 16 • Single-grain luminescence ages reveal at least eight major depositional periods in the  
17 lower Mission Creek catchment during ~12.0–0.6 ka.
- 18 • These depositional periods correspond reasonably well with the wetter periods in  
19 southern California based on paleoclimatic proxies.
- 20 • The average interval between intermittent depositional periods increases from the Late  
21 Holocene (~0.7 ka) to the Mid-Holocene (~1.6 ka).

23 **Abstract**

24 Significant sediment flux and deposition in a sedimentary system are influenced by climate  
25 changes, tectonics, lithology, and the sedimentary system's internal dynamics. Identifying the  
26 timing of depositional periods from stratigraphic records is a first step to critically evaluating the  
27 controls of sediment flux and deposition. Here, we show that ages of single-grain K-feldspar  
28 luminescence subpopulations may provide information on the timing of previous major  
29 depositional periods. We analyzed 754 K-feldspar single-grains from 17 samples from the  
30 surface to ~9 m-depth in a trench located downstream of the Mission Creek catchment. Single-  
31 grain luminescence subpopulation ages significantly overlap at least eight times since ~12.0 ka  
32 indicating a common depositional history. These depositional periods correspond reasonably  
33 well with the wetter climate periods based on hydroclimatic proxies from nearby locations. Our  
34 findings imply a first-order climatic control on sediment depositional history in southern  
35 California on a millennial timescale.

36

37 **Plain Language Summary**

38 Various environmental factors such as climate, tectonics, rock types, and internal sedimentary  
39 processes may influence sediment generation, delivery, and deposition over thousand-year  
40 timescales. To understand what controls sedimentation, we first seek to understand when periods  
41 of significant sediment transport and deposition have occurred in the past. Previous studies have  
42 shown that luminescence signals from individual sand grains may preserve information on past  
43 sunlight exposure (luminescence bleaching) and burial (luminescence regeneration) history. In  
44 this case, the overlapping ages of individual sand grain subpopulations may represent the timing  
45 of significant depositional periods that occurred prior to (and upstream of) the current deposit.

46 We collected 17 samples from a trench located on the Banning fault of the San Andreas Fault  
47 system in southern California. Using these samples, we identified at least eight Holocene  
48 overlapping luminescence ages of single-grain subpopulations. These subpopulation ages  
49 broadly match the periods of substantially wetter climate in the last 12,000 years, indicating a  
50 first-order climatic influence on sediment transport and depositional history in southern  
51 California.

52

## 53 **1 Introduction**

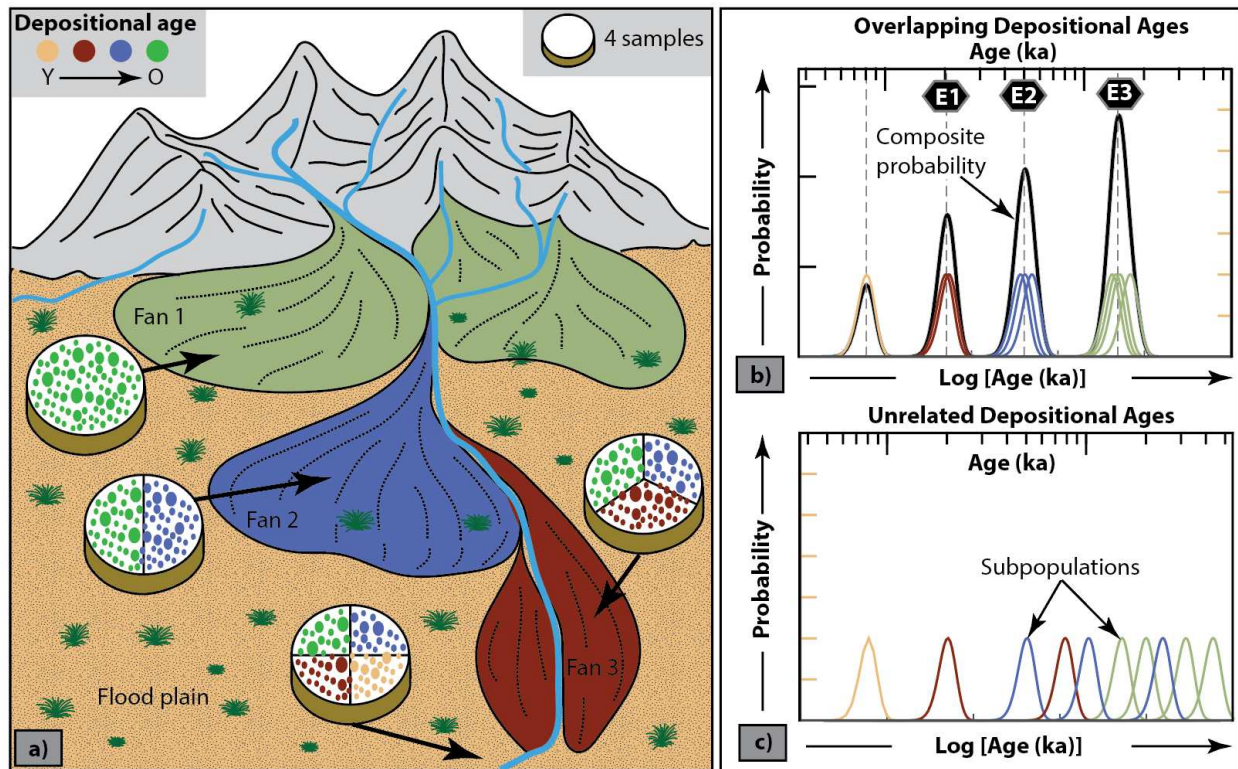
54 The geologic history of sediment flux and deposition is influenced by changes in external  
55 environmental factors such as climate and tectonics and intrinsic factors such as lithology and the  
56 sedimentary system's internal dynamics (Romans et al., 2016; Toby et al., 2019). Due to the  
57 complexity of these various factors, it is challenging to identify the first-order control, whether  
58 external (allogenic) or internal (autogenic), on sediment generation, transport, and downstream  
59 deposition (Armitage et al., 2011, 2013). In addition, how these signals are recorded in  
60 stratigraphic archives and geomorphic landforms over various geologic timescales is still poorly  
61 understood (Gray et al., 2019; Caracciolo et al., 2020). This is particularly challenging since the  
62 studies often rely on spatially and/or temporally incomplete stratigraphic sequences (Jerolmack  
63 and Paola, 2010; Miall, 2015) or suffer from poor chronological constraints (Owen et al., 2014  
64 and references therein). For example, researchers still debate whether the significant alluvial fan  
65 depositions in the American Southwest took place during relatively dry periods, especially  
66 during glacial to interglacial transitions with reduced soil moisture and vegetation cover (e.g.,  
67 Bull, 1977, 1991, 2000; Wells et al., 1987, 1990; Spelz et al., 2008) or during the wetter periods  
68 due to enhanced runoff and sediment transport capacity (e.g., Ponti, 1985; Harvey et al., 1999a,b;

69 [Inman and Jenkins 1999](#); [Warrick and Milliman 2003](#); [Miller et al., 2010](#); [Kirby et al., 2012](#),  
70 [2014](#); [Owen et al., 2014](#)).

71         Recent studies have shown that single-grain luminescence signals can be used effectively  
72 to examine variable past sunlight exposure (luminescence bleaching) and burial (luminescence  
73 regeneration) history ([Smedley et al., 2015](#); [Gray et al., 2018, 2019](#) and references therein).  
74 Before burial, some grains may experience sunlight exposure, and their luminescence clock is  
75 reset to zero ([Wintle, 1997](#); [Duller, 2004](#); [Lian and Roberts, 2006](#); [Rhodes, 2011](#)). However,  
76 other grains may suffer insufficient sunlight exposure depending on the bleachability of the  
77 targeted luminescence signal (feldspar signals bleach slower than quartz signals) and transport  
78 conditions ([Fuchs and Owen, 2008](#); [Gray et al., 2019](#); [Brown, 2020](#)). For example, a grain  
79 traveling within turbulent muddy water may experience very dim attenuated sunlight, whereas  
80 windblown grains often see a bright, full spectrum of sunlight. For feldspar grains in fluvial  
81 settings, complete signal resetting prior to burial is not guaranteed ([Wallinga, 2002](#); [Colarossi et](#)  
82 [al., 2015](#); [Gliganic et al., 2017](#); [Brill et al., 2018](#)). In that case, we can examine the age  
83 distribution of feldspar grains to estimate the most recent and perhaps previous depositional  
84 events, assuming that a portion of grains was fully bleached and the rest was not bleached at all  
85 before each burial event, respectively (e.g., [Gliganic et al., 2015, 2016](#); [Rhodes, 2015](#)).

86         In Figure 1a, we present a simple schematic of nested alluvial fans and a hybrid (fan and  
87 axial valley wash) depositional setting. Assuming that only a fraction of feldspar grains are  
88 bleached during any single flood, other grains will retain a prior depositional age, and we can use  
89 the multiple ages of single-grain subpopulations (i.e., different colors of stippling in discs  
90 representing multiple single-grain ages in Figure 1a) to represent the most recent as well as older  
91 depositional ages. If a sedimentary system is driven by significant external environmental

92 perturbation, large burial events may be preserved in distant deposits in multiple stratigraphic  
 93 units in a well-connected sediment routing system (Figure 1b). As such, single-grain  
 94 luminescence subpopulation ages from different deposits are expected to show multiple  
 95 overlapping ages likely driven by the shared perturbations (e.g., E1, E2, and E3 events in Figure  
 96 1b). If burial events are site-specific and not system-wide, likely due to autogenic processes,  
 97 single grain subpopulation ages from different deposits may be unrelated (Figure 1c).  
 98



99  
 100 Figure 1. (a) Schematic representation of a simplified sediment routing system and expected age distribution of  
 101 single-grain luminescence subpopulations. Different colors of stippling mounted on discs represent multiple single-  
 102 grain luminescence ages from three distinct fans and the floodplain (arrows show the samples' location). Different  
 103 proportions of distinct single-grain ages are expected if samples are not completely bleached before their burial. (b)  
 104 A hypothetical example of three overlapping depositional events (i.e., E1, E2, E3) derived from ten subpopulations  
 105 determined from four samples collected at distinct fans and the floodplain. This is expected if the subpopulations  
 106 share common sediment routing history. Composite probability (black line) is presented for the closely overlapped

107 subpopulations, with the dashed line highlighting the mode. The y-axes show probability corresponding to  
108  $\log[\text{age}(ka)]$  (Galbraith, 2011; see section 2.3). Note that 10% relative errors are used for the hypothetical single-  
109 grain subpopulations in log-scale, resulting in narrower composite probability peaks for older ages. (c) An  
110 alternative scenario where the subpopulations do not overlap at a specific time, likely indicating either unrelated or  
111 more complex site-specific stochastic depositional histories.

112

113 To test this hypothesis, we examine luminescence ages in single-grain K-feldspars using  
114 the post-Infrared Infrared Stimulated Luminescence (p-IR IRSL; Reimann et al., 2012; Rhodes,  
115 2015) technique from seventeen sediment samples collected from the surface to ~9 m depth at  
116 the Banning fault trench site, southern California, located downstream of the Mission Creek  
117 catchment (Figure 2). We first identified significant depositional periods shared in multiple  
118 samples from distinct stratigraphic units. Then, we compared these depositional periods with the  
119 regional hydroclimatic proxies from nearby sites in southern California.

120

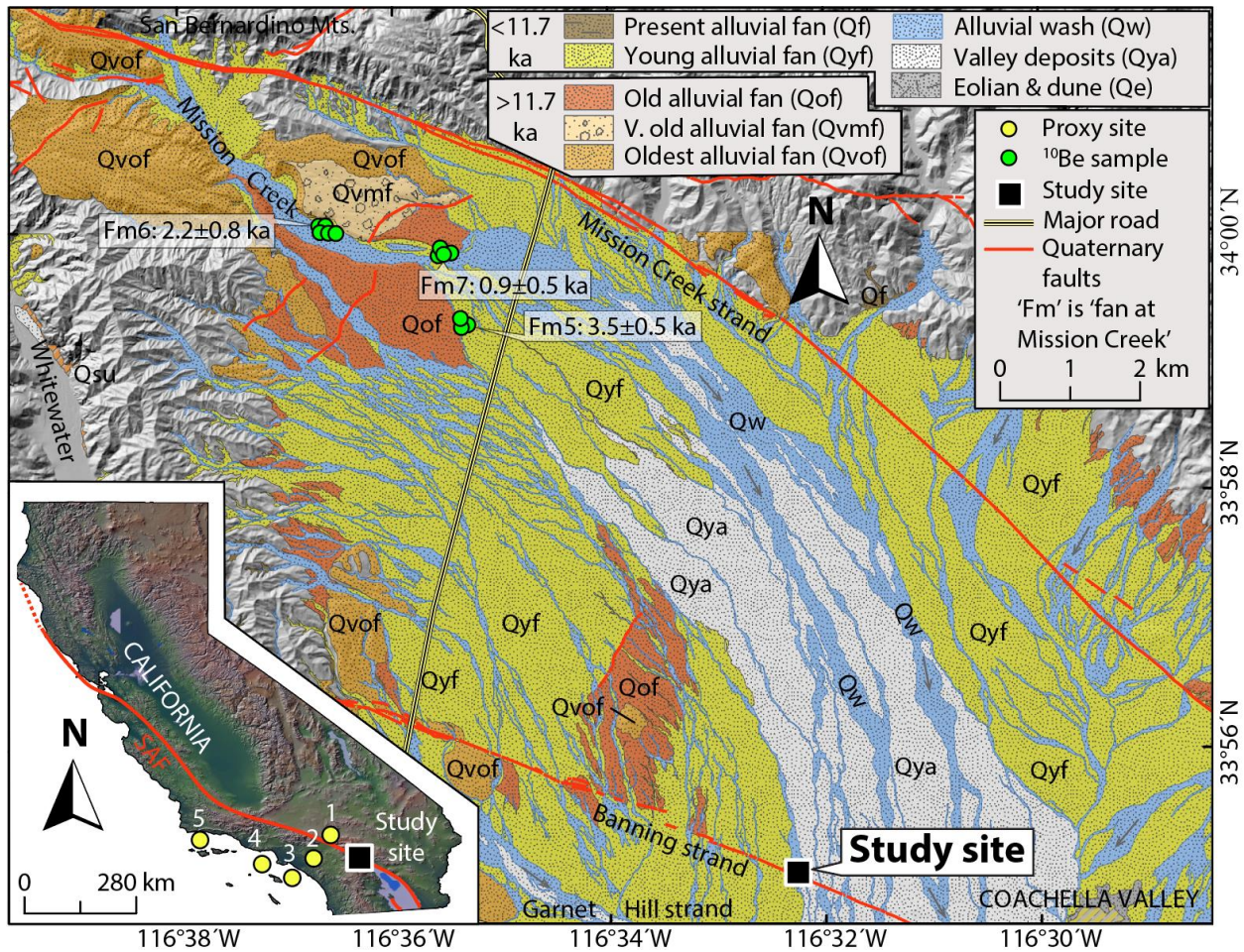
## 121 2 Methods

### 122 2.1 Sample Collection and Preparation

123 Seventeen sediment samples were collected from a ~92 m-long and ~8 m-deep N–S  
124 trending trench (Figures 2, S1; Castillo et al., 2020), which is located in a hybrid depositional  
125 environment (Figure 2; e.g., Miller et al., 2010). The trench is located ~18 km downstream from  
126 the oldest alluvial fan's apex at the Mission Creek catchment on the Banning strand of the San  
127 Andreas Fault (SAF). The upstream catchment represents a typical range-front semi-arid nested  
128 alluvial fan setting (e.g., Bowman, 1978; Colombo, 2005), with at least four main sets of alluvial  
129 fans (Matti and Cossette, 2007; Matti et al., 2010; Owen et al., 2014; Kendrick et al., 2015;  
130 Fosdick and Blisniuk, 2018).



131 The exposure along the east and west trench walls indicate consistent lateral continuity of  
 132 several stratigraphic units with sharp contacts between layers (Figure S1; [Castillo et al., 2020](#)).  
 133 We collected seven and ten samples from the east and west trench walls, respectively. Each  
 134 sample was from distinct stratigraphic units that did not show evidence of bioturbation or  
 135 liquefaction (Figures S1, S2). An opaque 5 cm-diameter tube was pushed horizontally into  
 136 freshly cleaned walls at each sample location and capped immediately to protect from sunlight.  
 137 We isolated K-feldspar grains of 175–200  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter and density of  $<2.565 \text{ g/cm}^3$  from the  
 138 rest of the samples under dim amber LED light conditions at the UCLA Luminescence  
 139 Laboratory following the procedure of [Rhodes \(2015\)](#) (Supporting Information Text S1).  
 140



141

142 Figure 2. The surficial deposit and fault map of the Mission Creek catchment modified after the Quaternary  
143 geological map of southern California (e.g., [Lancaster et al., 2012](#); [Kendrick et al., 2015](#)) and the Quaternary Fault  
144 and Fold Database of the United States ([Hart et al., 2001](#)), respectively. The surficial deposit map is superimposed  
145 on a hillshade map generated from the 10-m Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) Digital Elevation Model  
146 (DEM) (USGS, accessed 10/12/2020). Four main sequences of nested alluvial fans (Qvof, Qvmf, Qof, Qyf) at the  
147 upper Mission Creek catchment are shown along with  $^{10}\text{Be}$  ages of the selected Holocene fans ([Owen et al., 2014](#)).  
148 Our study site (black square) is located on the Banning strand of the San Andreas Fault (SAF). The inset map in the  
149 lower-left shows the location of our study site and the nearby hydroclimatic proxy sites in southern California: 1)  
150 Lower Bear Lake ([Kirby et al., 2012](#)), 2) Lake Elsinore ([Kirby et al., 2010, 2013](#)), 3) Newport submarine fan  
151 ([Covault et al., 2010](#)), 4) Hueneme submarine fan ([Romans et al., 2009](#)), and 5) Santa Barbara Basin ([Du et al.,](#)  
152 [2018](#)).

153

## 154 2.2 Luminescence Measurements and Age Determination

155 We carried out the p-IR IRSL measurements using a TL-DA-20 Risø automated reader  
156 equipped with a single-grain IR laser (830 nm, at 90% of 150 mW; [Bøtter-Jensen et al., 2003](#)).  
157 Emissions were detected using an EMI 9235QB photomultiplier tube fitted with a BG3 and  
158 BG39 filter combination, allowing transmission around 340–470 nm. A single-grain p-IR IRSL  
159 SAR protocol ([Buylaert et al., 2009](#); [Rhodes, 2015](#)) was used with a preheat 250°C for 60s and  
160 stimulation temperatures of 50°C and 225°C (Text S1).

161 The total environmental dose rate for each sample was estimated using the *in-situ*  
162 measured gamma dose rate (except for sample J1286), and elemental concentrations of U, Th  
163 and, K determined using ICP-MS and -OES ([Liritzis et al., 2013](#)), estimated internal potassium  
164 content of  $12.5 \pm 0.5$  wt.% ([Huntley & Baril, 1997](#)), and the contribution from cosmic rays was  
165 estimated following [Prescott & Hutton \(1994\)](#). We determined the water content for each sample  
166 from their weights before and after drying. In addition, we also tested for the presence of

167 athermal fading (Huntley & Lamothe, 2001) for timescales ranging from ~300 seconds to 7 days  
168 (Text; Figure S3A). None of the samples show fading (e.g., Buylaert et al., 2009), and no  
169 correction was needed.

170 The most recent depositional age for each sample was estimated using the minimum age  
171 model (MAM; Galbraith et al., 1999) and the central age model (CAM; Galbraith et al., 1999)  
172 with overdispersion (OD) of  $>15\%$  and  $<15\%$ , respectively (Figure S1a; Castillo et al., 2020).  
173 OD is a measure of unexplained equivalent dose variability among grains. We used the DRAC  
174 1.2 online calculator (Durcan et al., 2015) to calculate the most recent depositional ages (Figure  
175 S1b) and single-grain ages, assuming a constant radiation dose environment. The analytical  
176 uncertainties of single-grain ages due to variable radiation doses and water content were also  
177 examined (Figure S3b).

178 We used the semi-parametric three-parameter finite mixture model (FMM), assuming an  
179 OD of  $15\%$  to model the ages of single-grain subpopulations (imposing  $k$  age components). By  
180 minimizing the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) score from FMM results, one can estimate  
181 the most probable number of age components within a population and estimates the age  $\pm 1\sigma$   
182 standard error for each component assuming that each component has a Gaussian distribution  
183 (hereafter FMM-subpopulations) (Text S1; Figure S4; Galbraith and Green, 1990; Galbraith and  
184 Laslett, 1993; Galbraith, 2005; Kreutzer et al., 2012). Since the average relative standard error  
185 for single grains in this study is  $\sim 10\%$ , we justify using the FMM (c.f. Brandon, 1992). The  
186 probability density distribution of single-grain ages for each sample is also shown using the  
187 kernel density estimate (KDE) (Figure S4; Kreutzer et al., 2012).

188

### 189 2.3 Depositional History from Single-grain Luminescence Subpopulation Ages

190 To examine the distribution of single-grain subpopulation ages in all samples collected  
191 from multiple stratigraphic units, we calculated individual and composite probability  
192 distributions of FMM-subpopulations (Figure S5a). The composite probability density function  
193 (PDF) was calculated by summing PDFs of all FMM-subpopulations. However, the potential of  
194 recording past subpopulation ages for each sample is restricted to the age ranges older than its  
195 last depositional age. Thus, the composite probability for a given age interval was normalized by  
196 the total number of samples available for that age interval (Figure S5a). This normalized  
197 composite probability shows the relative probability density distribution of depositional ages  
198 corrected for sample's availability (hereafter, relative composite probability). For reference, we  
199 also showed how (1) the number of samples that can record (henceforth, available samples), (2)  
200 the number of samples whose  $2\sigma$  range overlap (hereafter, overlapping samples), and (3) the  
201 fraction of overlapping samples relative to available samples vary with the given age interval  
202 (Figure S5c).

203 In addition, since older ages tend to have larger absolute errors than younger ages (i.e., as  
204 age increases, uncertainty increases; e.g., [Berger 2010a, 2011](#); [Ivy-Ochs et al., 2007](#)), the  
205 probability distribution for older ages often exhibit subdued modal heights (Figure S5a). The  
206 opposite is true for young ages with high precision, which often produce overly sharp peaks  
207 (Figure S5a). To minimize this bias, we plotted the individual and relative composite probability  
208 of FMM-subpopulation ages on a log scale with the corresponding relative probability,  
209 calculated based on the Jacobian transformation described in [Galbraith \(2011\)](#) (Text S1; Figures  
210 3a, S5b). The logarithmic scale use of ages and corresponding probability makes it easier to  
211 identify multiple modes within the relative composite probability generated from distinctive  
212 clusters of FMM-subpopulation ages.

213 We then identified significant local maxima (modes) in the relative composite probability  
214 using the 'findpeaks' function in MATLAB's Signal Processing Toolbox (Text S1). The ages of  
215 local maxima identified in both relative composite probability in linear and log scales are  
216 identical within 0.1 ka (Figures 3a, S5). Any age clusters identified with <3 overlapping FMM-  
217 subpopulations are considered less probable ages. We also did not consider >12 ka FMM-  
218 subpopulations since they are comprised of <7 single grains. These are excluded from further  
219 analysis (shown with a question mark (?) in Figure 3a; Text S1). We estimated modal age  $\pm 1\sigma$   
220 error for each identified local maxima using the Probabilistic Cosmogenic Age Analysis Tool (P-  
221 CAAT; [Dortch et al., in review](#)). Although P-CAAT is designed to analyze cosmogenic ages, it  
222 is useful to separate closely overlapped Gaussian components from the distant ones (i.e., outliers)  
223 and estimate the best-fit age  $\pm 1\sigma$  for the modeled Gaussian distribution (Text S1; Figure S6).

224 Finally, the modal ages (Figure 3a) were compared with the selected terrestrial and  
225 offshore hydroclimatic proxies (Figure 3b–e) to evaluate whether the modal ages correspond  
226 with the periods of certain hydroclimatic conditions.

227

### 228 **3 Results**

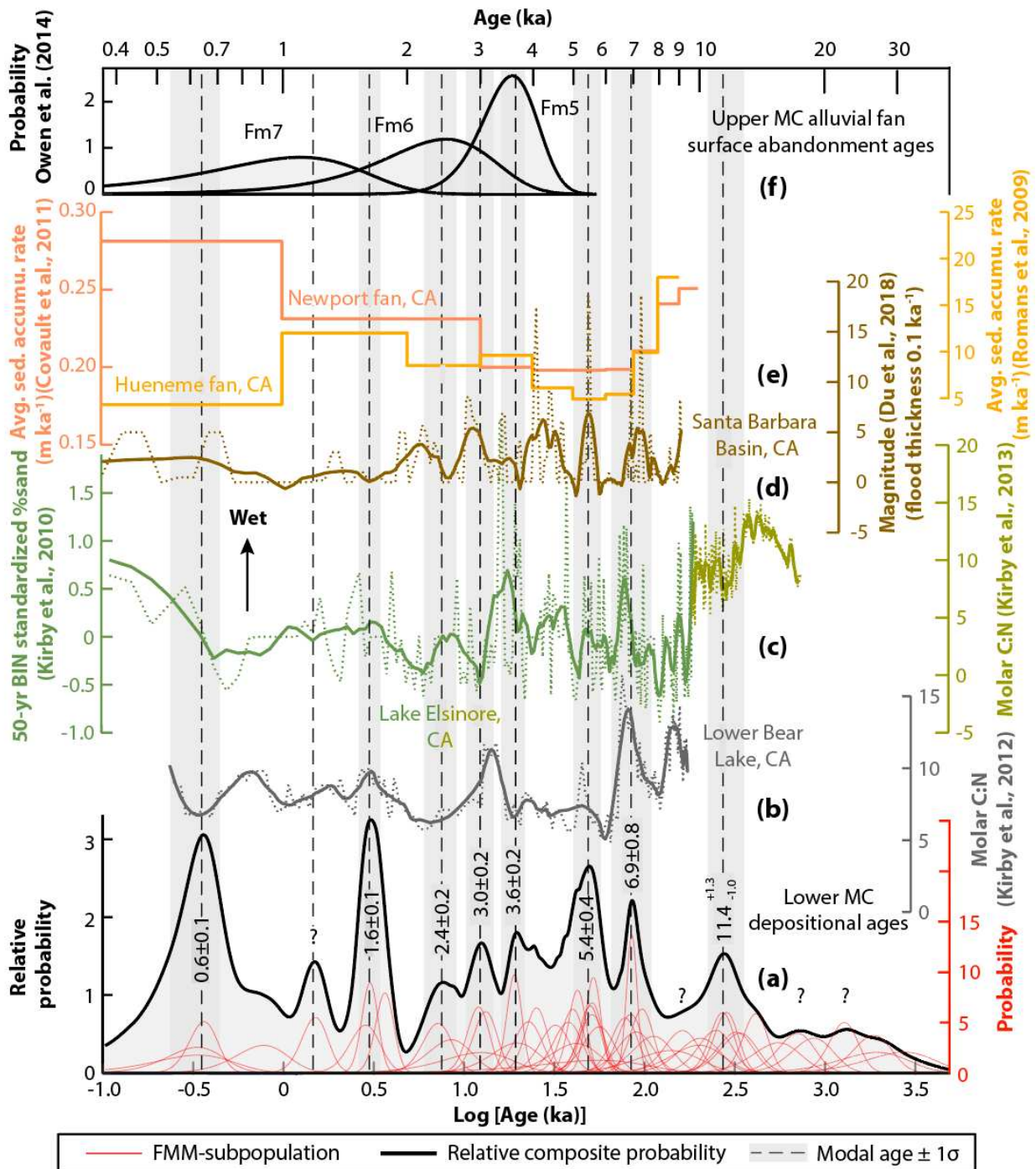
229 16 of the 17 samples dated using K-feldspar single-grain p-IR IRSL<sub>225</sub> show OD ranging  
230 from ~21–85% (Table S1), yielding much higher OD values than the 15% typical for well-  
231 bleached samples from southern California ([Rhodes, 2015](#)). Only the sample J1286 is completely  
232 bleached with an OD of  $9\pm 6\%$  (Table S1), so the CAM was used to date the sample. We used the  
233 MAM for the rest of the 16 samples to date the trench's stratigraphic layers for paleoseismic  
234 studies (Figure S1b; [Castillo et al., 2020](#)). The ages of the stratigraphic units, which are likely the  
235 last depositional ages, range between ~8.0 and 0.6 ka. They show a close correspondence with  
236 the youngest detrital <sup>14</sup>C ages at  $\pm 1\sigma$  preserved in those units ([Castillo et al., 2020](#)).

237 We further analyzed the samples using the FMM. Fifty-one FMM-subpopulations were  
238 identified from 17 samples, with notable overlap for several time periods (Table S1; Figures 3a,  
239 S4). The multiple local maxima shown in KDE plots also closely correspond with those of the  
240 FMM populations in each sample (Figure S4).

241 We identified at least eight prominent local maxima in the past ~12.0 ka from the relative  
242 composite probability of the IRSL data (Figure 3a). Seven of the eight local maxima (peak  
243 values) estimated using the relative composite probability and the modal ages estimated using P-  
244 CAAT are identical at the nearest 0.1 ka (Text S1; Figure 3a). The modal ages that constitute  
245 those local maxima are  $11.4^{+1.3}_{-1.0}$ ,  $6.9\pm 0.8$ ,  $5.5\pm 0.2$ ,  $3.6\pm 0.2$ ,  $3.0\pm 0.2$ ,  $2.4\pm 0.2$ ,  $1.6\pm 0.1$ , and  
246  $0.6\pm 0.1$  ka (Figures 3a, S5c). Three additional peaks at ~22.3, ~17.2, ~1.2 ka were also identified  
247 as local maxima. However, we did not consider these three modal ages further due to limited  
248 overlapping Gaussians (<3 subpopulations) or single-grain ages (<7 grains) (Text S1).  
249 Additionally, six overlapping FMM-subpopulations cluster around ~9.9 ka (~30%; Figure S5c).  
250 However, due to the large errors, they fail to generate any modal distribution distinct from the  
251 ~11.4 ka local maxima in the composite probability (Figures 3a, S5a). Similarly, two FMM-  
252 subpopulations are observed around ~4 ka, but relative composite probability failed to generate  
253 any distinct peak around that time (Figure 3a).

254 The average interval between significant depositional periods inferred from the modal  
255 ages increases with age at the Mission Creek catchment. The average intervals are estimated as  
256 ~1.6 ( $\pm 0.23$ ) ka during the Mid- to Late Holocene (~7–3.6 ka) and ~0.7 ( $\pm 0.03$ ) ka during the  
257 Late Holocene (~3.6–0.6 ka) (Figure S7) based on piecewise linear fits. The depositional periods  
258 can also be fitted with an exponential curve giving an appearance of longer intervals between  
259 depositional periods back through time (Figure S7).

260



261

262 Figure 3. Comparison between the depositional periods, regional hydroclimatic proxies, and upstream alluvial fan  
 263 surface abandonment ages. (a) The probability distribution of single-grain subpopulation ages was derived using the  
 264 FMM. The individual subpopulation and their relative composite probability distribution are shown in red and black  
 265 lines, respectively. The probability is shown for age (ka) in the natural log scale (Galbraith, 2011; see section 2.3).

266 At least eight prominent Holocene local maxima are identified from the relative composite probability, which likely  
267 represents the timing of major depositional periods (modal ages $\pm 1\sigma$  are shown in gray dash lines and shaded bar,  
268 respectively). Question marks indicate less probable local maxima. The hydroclimatic proxies are selected from the  
269 nearby terrestrial (b, c) and offshore (d, e) sites. These include (b) Lower Bear Lake (Kirby et al., 2012), (c) Lake  
270 Elsinore (yellow-green [19–9 ka] from Kirby et al., 2013 and dark green [9.7–0.2 ka] from Kirby et al., 2010), (d)  
271 the Santa Barbara Basin (Du et al., 2018), and (e) the Hueneme and the Newport submarine fans (Romans et al.,  
272 2009; Covault et al., 2010). The original and smoothed variations of proxy values are shown in dotted and solid  
273 lines, respectively. The ages of all proxies are adjusted to start from AD 2018, consistent with our depositional ages.  
274 (f) The probability distribution is based on  $^{10}\text{Be}$  surface boulder ages from alluvial fans at the Mission Creek  
275 catchment, recalculated from Owen et al. (2014). We used the youngest cluster of each fan (Fm) ages, derived using  
276 the P-CAAT model (Text S1).

277

#### 278 **4 Discussion and Conclusions**

279 We identified at least eight prominent local maxima in the relative composite probability  
280 in the last ~12 ka, which likely represents the timing of significant depositional periods in the  
281 lower Mission Creek catchment, southern California (Figure 3a). When compared with the  
282 regional hydroclimatic proxies (Figure 3b–e), we found a reasonable correspondence between  
283 the timing of major depositional periods and the periods of substantially wetter hydroclimatic  
284 conditions in southern California over the sub-millennial to millennial timescale (Kirby et al.,  
285 2010, 2012, 2013, 2015; Du et al., 2018).

286 The ~11.4 ka depositional period coincides nicely with the onset of enhanced wetter  
287 conditions that prevailed regionally during the Early Holocene (~11.7–7.5 ka). This is shown in  
288 the terrestrial molar C:N ratio from Lake Elsinore (Figure 3c) and percent clay from Silver Lake,  
289 CA (Kirby et al., 2015). An additional depositional period is possible around ~9.9 ka (Figure 3a)  
290 and is highlighted in all the proxies presented in Figure 3 (b–e). However, we failed to generate



291 any peak around ~9.9 ka in our relative composite probability. Further data is required to test this  
292 hypothesis. Enhanced summer North American Monsoons (NAM) due to sea surface  
293 temperature (SST) change in the Gulf of California (Koehler et al., 2005, Holmgren et al., 2009;  
294 Barron et al., 2012) likely triggered high runoff (Kirby et al., 2005, 2007, 2010, 2012; Benson et  
295 al., 2002; Bird and Kirby, 2006; Bird et al., 2010; Glover et al., 2017), high soil productivity  
296 (Kirby et al., 2015), and increased sediment flux during this time.

297 Previous studies reported an arid climate in southern California during the Mid-Holocene  
298 (~7.5–4.0 ka) with reduced sediment supply, shown by the general decline in molar C:N and  
299 weighted-average sediment accumulation rates from Lower Bear Lake and Hueneme and  
300 Newport submarine fans, respectively (Figure 3b, e; Romans et al., 2009; Covault et al., 2010;  
301 Pigati et al., 2014; Kirby et al., 2012). However, several brief high precipitation/runoff intervals  
302 (e.g., ~7.3–6.6, ~5.6–4.7 ka) are recorded in high-resolution terrestrial (e.g., the Lower Bear  
303 Lake and the Lake Elsinore cores; Figure 3b, c) and offshore proxies (Santa Barbara Basin ocean  
304 cores; Du et al., 2018; Figure 3d), which correspond reasonably well with our depositional  
305 periods recorded at ~6.9 and ~5.5 ka (Figure 3a). Substantially wetter intervals are also recorded  
306 around ~4.8–4.0 ka in Lake Elsinore and Santa Barbara Basin cores (Figure 3c, d), but  
307 interestingly no peaks are identified around that time in the relative composite probability plot  
308 (Figure 3a). Although two FMM-subpopulation peaks around ~4 ka are shown (Figure 3a),  
309 additional data is required to evaluate any deposition around this time. Frequent enhanced winter  
310 storms and winter precipitation regulated by the complex interplay between El Niño and  
311 Southern Oscillations (ENSO) and warm Pacific Decadal Oscillations (PDO) likely triggered  
312 these brief sediment depositions in an otherwise arid period (Barron et al., 2003; McCabe-Glynn  
313 et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Kirby et al., 2015).

314 Southern California experienced a return to slightly wetter conditions during the Late  
315 Holocene (Kirby et al., 2012, 2015) with more frequent ephemeral lakes and periods of increased  
316 sediment flux at ~3.7–3.6, ~3.4–3.0, ~2.4, ~2.0–1.4, and 0.9–0.7 ka, as shown in terrestrial lake  
317 cores from Lower Bear Lake and Lake Elsinore (Figure 3b, c; Kirby et al., 2010, 2012, 2013)  
318 and ocean sediment cores at the Santa Barbara Basin and the Newport deep-sea fan (Figure 3e, f;  
319 Covault et al., 2010; Du et al., 2018). Competing climate forcing where insolation forced  
320 summer cooling (i.e., weaker NAM) is overridden by ENSO regulated favorable SSTs in the east  
321 Pacific (i.e., more winter storms) is likely responsible for this wetter condition during the Late  
322 Holocene (Clement et al., 1999). These wetter periods correspond well with the significant  
323 deposition at ~3.6, ~3.0, ~2.4, ~1.6, and ~0.6 ka identified in our study site (Figure 3a).

324 Among the proxies used, the significant Holocene depositional periods inferred from  
325 luminescence ages, especially at ~6.9, ~5.4, ~3.0, and ~1.6 ka, shows the best match with the  
326 wetter periods determined by molar C:N from the Lower Bear Lake in the San Bernardino  
327 Mountains (Figures 3). This proxy is the most proximal to our study site (~52 km). However, the  
328 proxies themselves do not show an excellent match except for a few periods due to variable  
329 temporal-resolutions and the age models used. This also makes quantification using spectral  
330 analysis (e.g., Ólafsdóttir et al., 2016) challenging and statistically a poor fit.

331 When compared regionally, the inferred Holocene depositional periods also broadly  
332 corresponds with the wetter climatic oscillations ( $\pm 1\sigma$ ) in the western U.S. identified using rock  
333 varnish (e.g., at ~11.8–10.4, ~7.4–6.0, 2.9, 1.5, ~1.2–1.0, ~0.7–0.4 ka; Liu and Broecker, 2007,  
334 2008). Previous studies also showed widespread alluvial fan deposition during wet periods in the  
335 American Southwest instead of the arid periods (e.g., Ponti, 1985; Harvey et al., 1999a,b;  
336 DeLong and Arnold, 2007; Mahan et al., 2007; Sohn et al., 2007; Liu and Broecker, 2008; Miller

337 [et al., 2010](#); [Miller et al., 2010](#); [Owen et al., 2014](#)). Our findings are consistent with this  
338 interpretation of significant alluviation in southern California. Interestingly, we also found a  
339 broad correspondence between the youngest  $^{10}\text{Be}$  age clusters of the alluvial fans (Fm) upstream  
340 of the Mission Creek catchment ([Owen et al., 2014](#)), likely representing the timing of surface  
341 abandonment (e.g., [D'Arcy et al., 2019](#)) and the downstream depositional periods ( $\pm 1\sigma$ ) at  $\sim 3.6$ ,  
342  $\sim 2.4$ ,  $\sim 1.2$  ka from our site (Figures 1, 3f). However, due to considerable uncertainty in  $^{10}\text{Be}$  ages  
343 (14–56%), we cannot establish direct sediment routing relationships (e.g., [Allen and Heller,](#)  
344 [2012](#); [Allen et al., 2013](#); [Hoffmann, 2015](#); [Allen, 2017](#)).

345 While a comprehensive global comparison is beyond this study's scope, similar timing of  
346 abrupt climate shifts regulated by changes in the North Atlantic SST during the Holocene is also  
347 reported elsewhere in the world ([Bond et al., 1997](#)).

348 We estimated the average intervals of depositional periods to be  $\sim 0.7$  ka during the Late  
349 Holocene and  $\sim 1.6$  ka during the Mid- to Late Holocene (Figure S7). This apparent increase in  
350 the average intervals still exists when we consider the less probable peaks (Figure S7). The  
351 changes in period intervals may reflect a shift from Mid-Holocene aridity to Late Holocene  
352 pluvial condition ([Kirby et al., 2012, 2015](#)). However, these differences could also be the  
353 artifacts of preservation bias (e.g., [Sadler and Jerolmack, 2015](#); [Miall, 2015](#)) or the limited  
354 precision in old ages.

355 The work presented here is based on simple assumptions and has some limitations. First,  
356 we assumed that postdepositional grain mixing due to pedoturbation was limited to none. We  
357 collected our samples away from faults and observable liquefactions to minimize the influence of  
358 earthquake or ground-shaking induced grain mixing. Additionally, laterally continuous fine sand  
359 and silt layers in the trench walls indicate significant pedoturbation likely did not occur,

360 especially below 1 m-depth (Figure S1). However, possible grain mixing due to bioturbation at  
361 millennial timescale is widely reported for ~0.3–1.5-m depths (e.g., [Lomax et al., 2011](#); [Gliganic  
362 et al., 2015, 2016](#)). Hence, the likelihood of undetected grain mixing at shallower depth is  
363 possible after the deposition of each stratigraphic unit. Second, because there is no direct way to  
364 quantify the dose rate history experienced by a sample, we assume that the past variability in  
365 environmental dose rate is within the uncertainty. To evaluate this assumption, we performed a  
366 Monte Carlo simulation to estimate the ages based on the range of measured dose rates (i.e., ~4.9  
367 and 6.4 Gy/ka; Text S1) and assumed 5–20% water contents (Figure S3). Our results show that  
368 the majority (~76–79%) of the age difference ( $\pm 1\sigma$ ) from the ages estimated using constant dose  
369 rate and measured water content (used in this study) lies within 20%. These differences are  
370 roughly within the  $1\sigma$  error for most of the Holocene ages. Thus, we argue that this assumption  
371 has a negligible impact on our inferred depositional periods. Third, luminescence residuals in  
372 feldspar single-grains may introduce age overestimation in some young grains ([Li and Li, 2011](#);  
373 [Gliganic et al., 2017](#); [Brill et al., 2018](#)). We did not correct for this effect. Fourth, we did not  
374 identify the significant periods of erosion. Hence, our estimated depositional periods may be  
375 biased by preservation (e.g., [Holbrook and Miall, 2020](#)).

376         Nonetheless, our study shows that luminescence ages of single-grain subpopulations can  
377 be used to infer the sediment depositional history beyond the most recent depositional periods.  
378 We identified at least eight major Holocene depositional periods at ~11.4, ~6.9, ~5.5, ~3.6, ~3.0,  
379 ~2.4, ~1.6, and ~0.6 ka. These depositional periods indicate that climate, especially substantially  
380 wetter climate, likely plays the first-order control on sediment deposition over the millennial  
381 timescale in southern California (e.g., [Akciz and Arrowsmith, 2013](#)). Sediment deposition  
382 probably occurred as intermittent pulses with an average interval of ~0.7–1.6 ka controlled by

383 regional and local hydroclimatic variations (e.g., [Burt and Allison, 2010](#); [Allen, 2017](#); [Caracciolo](#)  
384 [et al., 2020](#)). Our work therefore has important implications for tectonic or paleoclimatic studies  
385 that rely on stratigraphic completeness, especially in terrestrial settings (e.g., [Washburn et al.,](#)  
386 [2003](#); [Béon et al., 2018](#)), and must be considered when interpreting the fault slip rates or  
387 paleoclimatic events in southern California.

388

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390

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398

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