Regolith production and transport at the Susquehanna Shale Hills Critical Zone Observatory, Part 2: Insights from meteoric $^{10}$Be

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Regolith-mantled hillslopes are ubiquitous features of most temperate landscapes, and their morphology reflects the climatically, biologically, and tectonically mediated interplay between regolith production and downslope transport. Despite intensive research, few studies have quantified both of these mass fluxes in the same field site. Here we present an analysis of 87 meteoric $^{10}$Be measurements from regolith and bedrock within the Susquehanna Shale Hills Critical Zone Observatory (SSHO), in central Pennsylvania. Meteoric $^{10}$Be concentrations in bulk regolith samples ($n = 73$) decrease with regolith depth. Comparison of hillslope meteoric $^{10}$Be inventories with analyses of rock chip samples ($n = 14$) from a 24 m bedrock core confirms that $>80\%$ of the total inventory is retained in the regolith. The systematic downslope increase of meteoric $^{10}$Be inventories observed at SSHO is consistent with $^{10}$Be accumulation in slowly creeping regolith ($\sim 0.2$ cm yr$^{-1}$). Regolith flux inferred from meteoric $^{10}$Be varies linearly with topographic gradient (determined from high-resolution light detection and ranging-based topography) along the upper portions of hillslopes at SSHO. However, regolith flux appears to depend on the product of gradient and regolith depth where regolith is thick, near the base of hillslopes.

Meteoric $^{10}$Be inventories at the north and south ridgetops indicate minimum regolith residence times of $10.5 \pm 3.7$ and $9.1 \pm 2.9$ ky, respectively, similar to residence times inferred from U-series isotopes in Ma et al. (2013). The combination of our results with U-series-derived regolith production rates implies that regolith production and erosion rates are similar to within a factor of two on SSHO hillcrests.


1. Introduction

[3] The physical and chemical transformation of bedrock to regolith is fundamental to the functioning and evolution of the Critical Zone, the region extending from the tree canopy to the deepest reaches of groundwater [Brantley et al., 2007; Anderson et al., 2007; Amundson et al., 2007; Brantley and White, 2009]. Much of this transformation occurs during the development and transport of regolith in the upper meters of the Earth’s surface. Regolith production influences the chemistry of surface waters and buffers atmospheric CO$_2$ concentrations through consumption and burial of carbon during silicate weathering [Raymo and Ruddiman, 1988, 1992; Gaillardet et al., 1999], and the physical breakdown of rock to mobile regolith strongly influences the rates of sediment delivery to basins [e.g., Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2010a]. Chemical and physical weathering are strongly coupled [Riebe et al., 2003], as mechanical breakdown of rock leads to a fresh supply of readily weatherable material [Stallard and Edmond, 1983]. It is well understood that the mass balance of regolith on soil-mantled hillslopes is governed by a competition between regolith production via weathering, mass lost by dissolution, and the divergence of mobile regolith flux [e.g., Gilbert, 1909; Kirkby, 1971]. The dependence of these processes on the interplay among hillslope hydrology [Dunne, 1998], biota [Moulton and Berner, 1998; Roering et al., 2010; Gabet and Mudd, 2010], climate [Millot et al., 2002; Riebe et al., 2003; 2004], and tectonics [Riebe et al., 2001; Heimsath et al., 2012], however, makes predicting...
the evolution of regolith over time challenging [Dietrich et al., 2003; Anderson et al., 2007].

[5] In the past two decades, the application of novel isotopic techniques to the study of earth surface processes [e.g., Pavich et al., 1985; Lal, 1991; Brown et al., 1995; Gosse and Phillips, 2001; Granger, 2006; Chabaux et al., 2008; Dosseto et al., 2008] has allowed, for the first time, direct measurement of the rates of mass fluxes on eroding hillslopes. The accumulation of meteoric $^{10}$Be in regolith can be a tracer of regolith residence time [Pavich et al., 1986] as well as downslope mobile regolith flux [McKeen et al., 1993; Jungers et al., 2009], whereas the concentration of in situ $^{10}$Be in weathered bedrock at the base of regolith can constrain rates of regolith production on eroding hillslopes [Heimsath et al., 1997; Small et al., 1999; Heimsath et al., 2012]. Similarly, the fractionation of uranium-series isotopes during weathering provides constraints on regolith production [Chabaux et al., 2008; Dosseto et al., 2008; Ma et al., 2010].

[6] Application of these chronologic techniques has confirmed several key notions of landscape evolution [Gilbert, 1909; Ahnert, 1987], including the suggestion that rates of regolith production depend on regolith thickness [Small et al., 1999; Heimsath et al., 1999] and that downslope transport by creep depends on both hillslope gradient [Roering, 2008] and regolith depth [Heimsath et al., 2005; Furbish et al., 2009; Pelletier et al., 2011]. Moreover, recent studies have begun to illuminate the linkages between chemical and physical weathering [Millot et al., 2002; Riebe et al., 2004; Fletcher et al., 2006; Dixon et al., 2009] and between tectonics and the rate of bedrock weathering [West et al., 2005; Molnar et al., 2007; Heimsath et al., 2012]. Despite these considerable advances, relatively few studies have directly measured fluxes associated with both regolith production and downslope transport in a single field site.

[5] In this study, we exploit the accumulation of meteoric $^{10}$Be in regolith and bedrock to determine the residence times and downslope fluxes of regolith within the Susquehanna Shale Hills Critical Zone Observatory (SSHO), a headwater catchment located in the Valley and Ridge Province of central Pennsylvania. In a companion study [Ma et al., 2013], we determine soil production rates using uranium-series isotopes in weathered regolith. The SSHO is the focus of ongoing studies of the present-day hydrologic [Li and Duffy, 2011] and ecologic [Naithani et al., 2010] functioning of regolith, as well as the evolution of regolith over geologic time [Lin et al., 2006; Jin et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2010, 2013; Lebedeva and Branleay, 2013]. The novel combination of meteoric $^{10}$Be and U-series techniques allows us to independently constrain the timescales of both regolith production and downslope transport on hillslopes in the SSHO and allows us to elucidate geomorphic transport rules that describe regolith flux.

2. Background

2.1. Geologic Setting

[6] The persistence of topography in the Appalachian Mountains has been at the center of a canonical debate over whether or not the Appalachian landscape has reached a state of dynamic equilibrium, where regional landscape metrics such as relief, slope, and elevation fluctuate about some long-term average value [e.g., Hack, 1960]. Although this debate is far from settled [Gallen et al., 2013; Miller et al., 2013; Rowley et al., 2013], determinations of short-term erosion rates ($10^5$–$10^6$ year) determined from meteoric [e.g., Pavich et al., 1985] and in situ $^{10}$Be [e.g., Matmon et al., 2003; Portenga and Bierman, 2011] are similar to long-term ($10^7$–$10^8$ year) exhumation rates determined using low-temperature thermochronometers [Spotila et al., 2004; Næser et al., 2004]. The similarity of erosion rates measured over such widely different timescales suggests that, on average, the topography in the Appalachians has been eroding steadily throughout the Cenozoic [Matmon et al., 2003].

[7] Portions of the northern Appalachians, however, were subject to fluctuations in local climatic conditions associated with repeated glaciations during the Late Cenozoic. In central Pennsylvania, widespread deposits of coarse hillslope colluvium and talus fields attest to the efficiency of periglacial frost shattering and solifluction during the recent geologic past [Clark and Ciolkosz, 1988; Braun, 1989; Ciolkosz et al., 1989]. Some suggest that erosion rates near the glacial limit in the Valley and Ridge province of Pennsylvania, ~75 km due north of our study area, were enhanced during the marine isotope stage 2 [Braun, 1989] and may have exceeded long-term averages for short periods of time.

[8] Presently, the SSHO is located in the Valley and Ridge physiographic province of the Appalachian Mountains and experiences a temperate climate with moderate amounts of rainfall (~1 m/yr) [NOAA, 2011]. SSHO is a small catchment (~80,000 m²) developed on the Silurian Rose Hill Formation, an organic-poor [Swain, 1966], Fe-rich [Meyer et al., 1992], shale with thin interbedded, fine-grained sandstone, that extends along much of the Appalachians. At SSHO, bedding is oriented NE–SW (N54°E), with dip angles ranging from 25° to 76° to the NW [Jin et al., 2010]. The SSHO is a headwater catchment bounded by ridges to the north and south and contains an ephemeral stream that flows west into the Shaver’s Creek watershed and eventually joins the Susquehanna River (Figure 1). Near the mouth of the watershed, the ridgelines are nearly perpendicular to bedding strike but become subparallel to bedding near the head of the watershed.

[9] Geomorphic aspects of the SSHO are suggestive of recent changes in sediment flux out of the catchment. Local relief between the valley floor and ridge crests at SSHO is 30 m (Figure 2a). Hillslopes in the SSHO are convex near the ridgetops but are relatively planar along their midslope sections and are characterized by only a few regions of convergent topography (“swales”—Figures 2a and 2b). Hillslope gradients, however, exhibit a pronounced asymmetry; the northern slope has a median gradient of ~15°, whereas the southern slope has a gradient of ~20° (Figures 2c and 2d). Regolith at SSHO is rich in clay, thin at the ridge tops (~30 cm), and thickens downslope [Lin et al., 2006; Jin et al., 2010]. Deposits along the axis of the valley, and in convergent swales, are significantly thicker and can reach ~300 cm along the valley floor [Lin et al., 2006]. These thicker deposits appear to be associated with a low (0.5–1 m) fill terrace along the southern valley wall (Figure 1); this surface appears to grade into a ~2–3 m terrace along the eastern valley of the Shaver’s Creek trunk
stream (Figure 1). These observations are qualitatively consistent with greater sediment discharges, relative to the transport capacity of the channel, in the recent geologic past. However, the timescales and rates associated with sediment accumulation, and whether they reflect concomitant changes in sediment production on hillslopes, remain uncertain.

Recently, the Shale Hills watershed has been the subject of focused studies on rates of weathering and regolith production. Jin et al. [2010] used mass transfer coefficients (τ), a measure of mass balance that normalizes chemical changes relative to an immobile element [Chadwick et al., 1990; Riebe et al., 2003; Brantley and White, 2009], to estimate rates of chemical weathering as well as mass flux values for solutes and sediment on SSHO hillslopes. Analysis of regolith bulk chemistry and comparison to source rock composition suggest progressive loss of major and trace elements away from the regolith-bedrock interface [Jin et al., 2010]. Jin et al. [2010] relied on a single determination of meteoric \(^{10}\)Be from stream sediment to estimate a basin-average erosion rate for SSHO. These sediments contained an average meteoric \(^{10}\)Be concentration of \(3.3 \times 10^8\) at \(g^{-1}\), corresponding to a basin-wide erosion rate of \(~15\) m My\(^{-1}\), a value consistent with the average rates reported for the Appalachians of \(17 \pm 9\) m My\(^{-1}\) [Portenga and Bierman, 2011].

In a separate study, Ma et al. [2010, 2013] exploited the disequilibrium decay of uranium-series isotopes to estimate the timescales associated with weathering at SSHO [e.g., Chabaux et al., 2008; Dossseto et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010]. Because uranium isotope ratios in regolith reflect the duration of water-rock interactions, they can provide a measure of the time elapsed since rock particles became small enough that decay products were fractionated during weathering [Chabaux et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010; Ma

Figure 1. Shaded relief perspective image of the Susquehanna Shale Hills Critical Zone Observatory (SSHO). Image created from high-resolution light detection and ranging (LiDAR) digital elevation data collected in concert with the National Center for Airborne Laser Mapping. The SSHO catchment exhibits relatively low relief and contains a subtle fill terrace into which the present-day channel is incised.

Figure 2. (a) Map view of the SSHO showing sample positions. White symbols indicate sample locations from hand augers (RT—ridgetop; MS—midslope; VF—valley floor), from a bedrock core (DC1), and from shallow subsurface cores along the valley floor (GP). The white line corresponds to the topographic profile presented in Figures 2c and 5. (b) Distribution of topographic gradient throughout the SSHO. Boxes show regions of relatively planar sections of the north and south hillslopes. (c) Topographic profile across the SSHO. The dashed box shows the area of Figure 5. (d) Histograms showing the distributions of hillslope gradients from regions in Figure 2b. These data suggest a dependence of mean hillslope gradients on aspect.
et al., 2010, 2013]. At SSHO, depletion of U-series isotopes was interpreted to reflect regolith production over 7–40 ka [Ma et al., 2010, 2013]. The shortest residence times were associated with ridgetop sites—11 and 9 ky for the north and south ridgetops, respectively. Regolith at midslope and valley floor positions exhibited significantly greater depletion, which Ma et al. [2010] interpreted as reflecting slower rates of regolith production beneath thicker soils.

2.2. Regolith Development and Transport Deduced From Meteoric $^{10}$Be

[12] Early applications of cosmogenic isotopes relied on the delivery of $^{10}$Be to landscapes in meteoric precipitation [Lal and Peters, 1967; Monaghan et al., 1983; Pavich et al., 1985; McKean et al., 1993]. Although this technique was supplanted for nearly a decade by the advent of techniques to measure extremely low concentrations associated with in situ production of $^{10}$Be [Bierman and Turner, 1995; Bierman and Steig, 1996; Heimsath et al., 1997; Heimsath et al., 1999; Riebe et al., 2004], the application of meteoric $^{10}$Be has been revived in recent years [Jungers et al., 2009; Mackey et al., 2009; Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2010a, 2010b; West et al., 2011; Bacon et al., 2012]. Inventories of meteoric $^{10}$Be in stable or eroding regolith profiles provide an estimate of the duration of time over which $^{10}$Be has accumulated, provided one can estimate the rate of $^{10}$Be delivery [Graly et al., 2010a]. Recent efforts comparing short-term (months to years) delivery rate estimates with long-term (geologic) $^{10}$Be accumulation rates [Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2010b; Reusser and Bierman, 2010; Graly et al., 2010a, 2010b] suggest that, in most climate regimes where delivery is primarily via rainfall, delivery rates for meteoric $^{10}$Be are relatively constant over time.

[13] The concentration of meteoric $^{10}$Be in regolith is controlled by several factors, including the delivery rate of meteoric $^{10}$Be, the average residence time of surface materials (set by the erosion rate), and the intensity of pedogenic processes and the consequent subsurface mobility of meteoric $^{10}$Be. Meteoric $^{10}$Be is formed in the atmosphere as a product of spallation reactions between cosmic rays and $^{16}$O and $^{14}$N [Lal and Peters, 1967]. It quickly adheres to dust in the atmosphere and is then delivered to the Earth’s surface via precipitation and dry fall. The delivery rate for meteoric $^{10}$Be by precipitation is ~1.2–2.0 × 10$^{6}$ at cm$^{-2}$ yr$^{-1}$ for midlatitudes in the Northern Hemisphere [Graly et al., 2010a; Reusser et al., 2010]. Empirically derived delivery rates for meteoric $^{10}$Be consider mean annual precipitation; however, they do not include reworked $^{10}$Be delivered by aeolian deposition, which can add substantial variability in actual $^{10}$Be delivery from site to site [Monaghan et al., 1986].

[14] Meteorically delivered $^{10}$Be is adsorbed to particle surfaces within the uppermost decimeters of regolith. The extent and distribution of $^{10}$Be accumulation is controlled by regolith pH [Pavich et al., 1986; You et al., 1989; Brown et al., 1992; Graly et al., 2010b], mineralogy [You et al., 1989; Aldahan et al., 1999], and the rate of mass removal from the land surface by erosion [Pavich et al., 1985; Graly et al., 2010b]. If steady state regolith thickness is assumed, such that regolith erosion keeps pace with regolith production, the inventory of meteoric $^{10}$Be in a regolith profile can be related to the erosion rate and, thus, a residence time [Brown et al., 1988].

[15] Residence times estimated using meteoric $^{10}$Be for hillslopes in the eastern United States range from as long as ~1 My for regolith in the Piedmont province of Virginia and South Carolina [Pavich et al., 1985; Bacon et al., 2012] to as short as ~21 ky for regolith forming on steep hillslopes in the Great Smoky Mountains, NC [Jungers et al., 2009]. One important caveat is that removal of regolith, possibly associated with land use changes during early colonization of the eastern United States [Costa, 1975; Walter and Merritts, 2008], will reduce the measured inventory of meteoric $^{10}$Be [Valette-Silver et al., 1986; Harden et al., 2002; Reusser and Bierman, 2010]. In all cases, residence time estimates using meteoric $^{10}$Be are considered minima, as the amount of surface erosion is typically not known a priori.

2.3. Dependence of Regolith Transport on Hillslope Gradient

[16] Since the recognition that hillslope gradients adjust to the mass balance of regolith flux downslope [Davis, 1892; Gilbert, 1909], workers have sought to understand the quantitative relationship between the rates of regolith production, transport, and hillslope topography [Culling, 1963; Kirkby, 1971]. For much of the last century, it has been hypothesized that the downslope flux of regolith is linearly proportional to the local hillslope gradient

$$ q = -K_i \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \quad (1) $$

where $K_i$ is a proportionality constant (L$^2$ t$^{-1}$), analogous to a diffusion coefficient [Culling, 1963]. The “diffusive” behavior described by equation (1) is typically attributed to dilatational processes such as freeze-thaw, root growth and decay, and wetting and drying cycles [e.g., Dietrich et al., 2003]. This relationship has been of great utility in landscape modeling studies [e.g., Tucker and Slingerland, 1994; Fernandes and Dietrich, 1997], has been applied successfully to models of the degradation of fault scarps in noncohesive substrate [Hanks et al., 1984; Pelletier et al., 2006], and appears to explain much of the first-order structure of landscape topography [Perron et al., 2009; Perron and Fagherazzi, 2012]. Despite its appeal, few studies have been able to confirm quantitatively this rule with direct measures of regolith flux [McKay et al., 1993; Small et al., 1999]. Moreover, it is now well established that hillslopes in steep, often tectonically active landscapes exhibit profiles that are more consistent with a nonlinear relationship between hillslope gradient and regolith flux [Roering et al., 1999, 2001; Gabet, 2003; Roering, 2008]. Although the use of such models introduces a second free parameter, an empirically estimated “critical slope” angle at which regolith flux is infinite [Roering et al., 1999], it seems clear that the transport efficiency of bioturbation [Gabet et al., 2003], dry ravel [Gabet, 2003], and tree throw [Roering et al., 2010] on steep hillslopes changes with local topographic gradient.

[17] In recent years, workers have proposed that the downslope flux of regolith depends additionally on the depth of regolith; rules of this form typically consider transport
Figure 3. Definition sketch for the derivation of mass balance of regolith and meteoric 10Be flux along a hillslope transect. D^{10}Be is the delivery rate of meteoric 10Be (at cm^{-2} yr^{-1}), \rho_{ro} and \rho_{re} are regolith and rock bulk densities, respectively (g cm^{-3}), z and \(z_b\) are the ground surface and bedrock surface elevations, respectively (cm), \(q\) is the lateral volumetric flux of regolith (cm^{2} yr^{-1}), and \(U\) is local uplift rate (cm yr^{-1}).

rates to depend on the product of local topographic gradient and regolith thickness [Heimsath et al., 2005; Yoo et al., 2007; Roering, 2008; Pelletier et al., 2011]:

\[
q = -K_2 h \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}
\]

(2)

here \(K_2\) is a rate constant (L t^{-1}) and \(h\) is the regolith thickness (L). In this case, the regolith is defined as the mobile layer that is moving downslope. This formulation broadly encompasses the “diffusive mechanisms” associated with equation (1) (freeze-thaw, root growth and decay, bioturbation, wetting and drying cycles) but acknowledges the depth-dependent nature of the magnitude of disturbances associated with these mechanisms [Heimsath et al., 1997; Gabet al., 2003; Furbish et al., 2009; Roering et al., 2010].

3. Derivation of Mass Balance of Meteoric 10Be on Eroding Hillslopes

[18] Although meteoric 10Be has previously been used as a tracer of regolith flux [Monaghan et al., 1992; McKeen et al., 1993; Jungers et al., 2009], we present here a full derivation of the mass balance for an eroding hillslope. This discussion highlights necessary assumptions and simplifications that underlie the application to measure regolith flux. We calculate meteoric 10Be inventories following Brown et al. [1988],

\[
I_{\text{Be}} = \int_{z_b}^{z} N \rho_{ro} dz
\]

(3)

where \(I_{\text{Be}}\) is the total inventory of 10Be calculated for a given sample (at cm^{-2}), \(z\) is the elevation of the land surface (cm), \(z_b\) is the elevation of the bedrock-regolith interface (cm), \(N\) is the measured 10Be concentration (at g sample^{-1}), \(\rho_{ro}\) is the depth-averaged regolith density of the sample (g cm^{-3}), and \(dz\) is the sample depth interval (cm). For the total inventory to be calculated, the total sampling depth must extend to the base of the regolith (here defined as the mobile regolith layer) or to the furthest penetration of meteoric 10Be.

Assuming the delivery rate of meteoric 10Be has been constant over the recent geologic past and the inventory of 10Be in regolith is at a steady state between delivery and removal, a minimum regolith residence time can be calculated using the equation

\[
t = \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \right) \ln \left( 1 - \frac{1}{C_0} \right)
\]

(4)

where \(t\) is time in years, \(\lambda\) is the radioactive decay constant for 10Be, equal to \(5.1 \times 10^{-7}\) year^{-1} [Nishiizumi et al., 2007], and \(D\) (at cm^{-2} yr^{-1}) is the delivery rate. This relationship is limited to settings such as ridgetops where no net 10Be accumulation results from regolith transport. Likewise, regolith erosion rates can be estimated along ridgetops assuming steady state (i.e., where regolith erosion is balanced by regolith production) using measured meteoric 10Be inventories

\[
E = \frac{(D - \lambda I_{\text{Be}})}{\rho_{ro}}
\]

(5)

where \(E\) is the erosion rate (cm yr^{-1}) and \(\rho_{ro}\) is the 10Be concentration in the uppermost surface sample (at cm^{-3}), inferred to be the eroding material [Brown et al., 1988].

[20] One can calculate volumetric flux rates of regolith, the weathered material available to move downslope by gravity-driven processes, along a hillslope by invoking the conservation of mass of both mobile regolith and adsorbed meteoric 10Be in two dimensions (Figure 3). We begin this derivation with a statement of conservation of mass of regolith and bedrock in a Cartesian reference frame (Figure 3). Definitions of relevant variables are given in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(C_{e}(x,t))</td>
<td>Concentration of 10Be atoms in regolith in units of mass of 10Be per unit mass of regolith (dimensionless)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C_{e}(x,t))</td>
<td>Concentration of 10Be atoms in bedrock in units of mass of 10Be per unit mass of bedrock (dimensionless)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(m_a)</td>
<td>Mass of a 10Be atom (g at^-1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(D(t))</td>
<td>Atmospheric 10Be delivery rate to the ground surface (at cm^{-2} yr^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(V=q/h)</td>
<td>x-directed, depth-averaged regolith velocity (volumetric regolith flux per unit width divided by regolith thickness, cm yr^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(z_b)</td>
<td>Elevation of bedrock-regolith interface (cm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(z)</td>
<td>Elevation of ground surface (cm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\rho_{ro})</td>
<td>Bulk density of regolith (g cm^{-3})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\rho_{re})</td>
<td>Bulk density of bedrock (g cm^{-3})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\lambda)</td>
<td>Radioactive decay constant (5.1 \times 10^{-7} year^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(W)</td>
<td>Bedrock weathering rate (cm yr^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(U)</td>
<td>Uplift rate (cm yr^{-1})</td>
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(cm), $q$ is the flux of regolith down the hillslope ($cm^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$), equal to the product of $h$ and the depth-averaged creep velocity ($V$, $cm \text{ yr}^{-1}$), and $U$ is the uplift rate ($cm \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Here the left-hand side (LHS) represents the time rate of change of bedrock and regolith mass, and the terms on the right-hand side (RHS) represent the flux of regolith into the control volume, the regolith flux out of the control volume (by Taylor series expansion), and the upward flux of bedrock mass into the control volume. The unit value (1) is merely a place holder to explicitly denote unit width. Assuming spatial and temporal constancy of $\rho_{re}$ and $\rho_{ro}$, the equation can be simplified to

$$\frac{\partial \rho_{ro}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{re}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + \rho_{ro} U = 0 \tag{7}$$

By definition, $h = z - z_h$ and expanding the second term on the LHS produces

$$\frac{\partial \rho_{ro}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{re}}{\partial t} + \rho_{ro} \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + \rho_{ro} U = 0 \tag{8}$$

Dividing through by $\rho_{re}$ produces

$$\frac{\partial \rho_{ro}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{re} \rho_{ro}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + \rho_{re} U \tag{9}$$

Combining terms produces an expression for conservation of regolith mass on a hillslope

$$\frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{re} C_{ro}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + \rho_{re} U \tag{10}$$

Incorporating a second conservation of mass, that of meteoric $^{10}$Be on a hillslope, allows us to write

$$\frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re} h}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial x} + D_{ma} \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial x}$$

where $C_{ro}$ and $C_{re}$ are the dimensionless concentrations of meteoric $^{10}$Be in the bedrock and regolith and $m_{a}$ is the atomic mass of $^{10}$Be (kg atom$^{-1}$). Equation (11) can be simplified by assuming that $\rho_{re}$ and $\rho_{ro}$ are temporally and spatially constant, dividing through by $1dx$ and using the product rule on the derivatives to yield

$$\frac{\partial \rho_{ro} h C_{re}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re} h}{\partial t} + \rho_{ro} C_{re} \frac{\partial \rho_{ro}}{\partial t} + \rho_{re} C_{re} \frac{\partial \rho_{re}}{\partial t} = -\rho_{re} \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} h C_{re}}{\partial x} + D_{ma} + \rho_{ro} C_{re} U$$

By definition, $h$ is the difference between the elevation of the bedrock-regolith interface ($z_b$) and the surface elevation (defined here as $z$); therefore, the second term on the left-hand side (LHS) of equation (12) can be expanded, producing

$$\frac{\partial \rho_{ro} h C_{re}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} h C_{re} h}{\partial t} + \rho_{ro} C_{re} \frac{\partial \rho_{ro}}{\partial t} + \rho_{re} C_{re} \frac{\partial \rho_{re}}{\partial t} = -\rho_{re} \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} h C_{re}}{\partial x} + D_{ma} + \rho_{ro} C_{re} U$$

Dividing by $\rho_{re}$ and grouping terms yields

$$h \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial x} W \frac{\rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \rho_{re} \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + \rho_{ro} C_{re} Z \rho_{ro} C_{re} U = 0 \tag{13}$$

The second line of equation (14) contains a statement of conservation of regolith mass that sums to zero and can be dropped, as the following steps illustrate. By conservation of bedrock mass, we know that

$$\frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} W \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \rho_{re} \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} - \rho_{ro} C_{re} U = 0 \tag{14}$$

and therefore the LHS of the second line of equation (14) expands to

$$h \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial x} W \frac{\rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \rho_{re} \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} - \rho_{ro} C_{re} U = 0 \tag{15}$$

or

$$h \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial x} W \frac{\rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \rho_{re} \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} - \rho_{ro} C_{re} U = 0 \tag{16}$$

By conservation of regolith mass (equation (10)), we know that

$$\frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} - \left[ \frac{\partial \rho_{ro}}{\partial t} - 1 \right] W + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial x} - U = 0 \tag{17}$$

Notice that this differs from the second line of equation (17) by a factor of $C_{re}/C_{re}$. Because the LHS of equation (18) sums to zero, we can subtract it from equation (17) to yield

$$h \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial x} W \frac{\rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\partial t} + \rho_{re} \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} - \rho_{ro} C_{re} U = 0 \tag{19}$$
Thus, after multiplying through by \( C_{re}/h \) (here, essentially dividing through by \( h/C_{re} \) terms introduced by the product rule expansion), equation (20) becomes

\[
\frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial t} + \frac{\rho_{ro} h \partial C_{re}}{\rho_{re} C_{re}} \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial x} = \frac{D_{ma}}{\rho_{re}} \frac{\partial^2 C_{re}}{\partial x^2} + \frac{q}{\rho_{re}} \frac{\partial C_{re}}{\partial x} + \lambda h + \frac{\rho_{ro} h C_{re} - C_{ro}}{\rho_{re}} \left[ \frac{C_{re} - C_{ro}}{h} \right] W = 0
\]

(20)

This result is similar to the formulation presented by Monaghan et al. [1992] and McKeen et al. [1993], but we retain the full derivation here to emphasize the necessary assumptions. Evaluating equation (25) allows an expression for regolith flux,

\[
q = \frac{D_{ma}}{C_{req}} \left( x - x_0 \right)
\]

(26)

Furthermore, in regions of the landscape where the time rate of change of meteoric \(^{10}\)Be concentration in regolith has reached zero, i.e., where the rate of addition from rainfall, dilution from the conversion of bedrock to fresh regolith, and transport downslope sum to zero, equation (22) reduces to

\[
\frac{dC_{re}}{dx} = \frac{D_{ma}}{V h_{re}} \frac{\rho_{ro} C_{re}}{\rho_{re} h} W
\]

(23)

This result is similar to the formulation presented by Monaghan et al. [1992] and McKeen et al. [1993], but we retain the full derivation here to emphasize the necessary assumptions. Evaluating equation (25) allows an expression for regolith flux,

\[
q = \frac{D_{ma}}{C_{req}} \left( x - x_0 \right)
\]

(26)

Thus, the velocity at any position \( x \) downslope can be calculated as

\[
V = \frac{D_{ma} \left( x - x_0 \right)}{I_{Be}}
\]

(30)

[41] Equation (30) is similar to the formulation presented by Jungers et al. [2009] but remains consistent with our definition of the control volume and mass balance.

4. Methods

4.1. Sampling and Analysis for Meteoric \(^{10}\)Be

[42] We measured meteoric \(^{10}\)Be depth profiles using 44 samples of bulk regolith from two ridge-to-valley transects along the northern (\( n = 28 \)) and southern (\( n = 16 \)) hillslopes of the SSHO watershed (Figure 2a). Profile samples were collected at three locations along the transects, representing the north and south planar ridge top (NP-, SPRT), middle slope (NP-, SPMS), and toe slope or valley floor positions (NP-, SPVF). These hillslopes are characterized by nonconvergent sediment flow and thus have been termed “planar” in previous studies to distinguish them from swales with greater topographic curvature [Jin et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2010]. The profile sample sites are coincident with
samples from both Jin et al. [2010] and Ma et al. [2010; 2013] and were collected at ~10 cm depth intervals using a 2 in. soil auger until refusal. Samples were homogenized over each depth interval. For the purposes of this work, we consider hand auger refusal to represent the depth of mobile regolith. Field observations of regolith cross sections observed in excavated trenches support the interpretation that the entire augerable thickness is mobile (A. Dere, personal communication, 2010). We will refer to hand-augerable material as mobile regolith throughout the remainder of this paper.

[43] Twenty-nine additional bulk mobile regolith samples were collected and analyzed to assess the variability of \(^{10}\text{Be}\) across each hillslope. Sample locations formed a grid-like pattern across each hillslope (Figure 4). Single, depth-averaged (from mineral-soil surface to base of mobile regolith) samples were taken at ridge top, midslope, and valley floor sample sites, and the homogenized samples were used for meteoric \(^{10}\text{Be}\) measurements. Samples collected between the ridge top, midslope, and valley floor positions (labeled upper slope US and lower slope LS—Figure 4 and Table 6) were mixed before analysis, and a single, amalgamated meteoric \(^{10}\text{Be}\) measurement was taken to represent the average \(^{10}\text{Be}\) concentration at that position. Bulk regolith density (\(\rho_{\text{req}}\)) was calculated for each sample as a depth-averaged density, using depth-dependent regolith bulk densities measured by Jin et al. [2010].

[44] To test the assumption that \(^{10}\text{Be}\) is retained in mobile regolith and is not transported to depth below the regolith-bedrock boundary, we analyzed samples from a deep (24 m) core drilled into the north ridge (\(n=14\), Figure 2a). Bedrock samples were collected using an air rotary drill, collecting chips at 10–20 cm intervals [Jin et al., 2010]. Samples were homogenized from individual depth ranges before analysis. Because we cannot preclude mixing of chips from varying depths during drilling, our samples may represent mixing beyond the 10–20 cm depth interval. Nonetheless, these data provide a first-order evaluation of the mobility of meteoric \(^{10}\text{Be}\) in the SSHO substrate.

[45] Samples, including several process blanks, were prepared in batches of 16 in the University of Vermont cos-mogenic nuclide extraction laboratory following a modification of the flux fusion method presented by Stone [1998]. Approximately 0.5 g of finely milled material was mixed with KHF and NaSO\textsubscript{4} along with ~300 \(\mu\)g of \(^{9}\text{Be}\)-carrier (SPEX brand). The mixture was fused over a natural gas/O\textsubscript{2} flame in a Pt crucible for several minutes until the resulting melt was clear. After cooling, the crucible containing the solidified fusion cake was plunged into a Teflon beaker containing Milli-Q (18.2 Mohm) water where it remained for a 24 h leaching period. Excess K in the leachate was removed by HClO\textsubscript{4} precipitation, and the remaining Be was precipitated as a hydroxide. The hydroxide was burned to BeO, mixed with an equimolar amount of Nb metal powder, and loaded into stainless steel cathodes for \(^{10}\text{Be}/^{9}\text{Be}\) ratio measurements by accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) at the Center for Accelerator Mass Spectrometry, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory.

[46] Beryllium isotopic ratios were measured in multiple data acquisitions of each target using post accelerator stripping to reduce \(^{10}\text{B}\) isobaric interference. Analyses of each target were repeated between 2 and 4 times. Three secondary standards were run repeatedly to verify linearity of the isotopic analyses over a range of ratios. Results were normalized to the 07KNSTD series of standards, using a primary standard with a reported \(^{10}\text{Be}/^{9}\text{Be}\) ratio of 2.85 \(\times\) 10\(^{-12}\) [Nishizumi et al., 2007]. Standard-corrected isotopic ratios ranged widely from 2.79 \(\times\) 10\(^{-14}\) to 1.99 \(\times\) 10\(^{-11}\). We made a blank correction by subtracting the average of the process blanks run with two batches of samples (\(n=2\), \(\sigma=2.3 \pm 1.1 \times 10^{-14}\) from each sample ratio. Because most of these samples contained so much \(^{10}\text{Be}\) and the average ratio was high, the resulting blank correction is inconsequential except for the deepest core samples.

### 4.2. Sampling and Analysis of Stratigraphic Cores

[47] To explore the character and thickness of deposits in the valley floor, we collected 15 shallow subsurface cores, using a Geoprobe 6620 direct push corer. Hollow, 5 cm diameter sample rods lined with acetate sleeves were hammer-embedded vertically through the regolith until refusal, the depth of competent bedrock. Samples were collected and stored in the acetate sleeves until preparation for analysis. A 2.5 cm wide cut was taken from the length of the sleeve before analysis to allow for direct observation of the regolith layer without disturbing the intact core. The cores were collected perpendicular to the channel across the valley floor just downstream of the south hillslope transect (Figure 2a).

[48] Core spacing was approximately 3 m and spanned the subtle fill terrace present at the valley floor (Figures 2a and 2c). Our motivation for the core collection across the valley floor was to determine the nature and provenance of valley fill material that comprises the low terrace surface (Figure 1). Major changes in sediment characteristics with depth were recorded and included rock/grain type, grain size, grain sorting, grain packing, Munsell color, relative moisture content, and the amount of organic material present. Fence-type diagrams were then constructed using the logged core data to develop an understanding of the unconsolidated subsurface of the valley floor at SSSH. Two pieces of charcoal debris found in the core were collected using a steel trowel and stored in aluminum foil. The charcoal was analyzed at Beta Analytic, Inc. for \(^{14}\text{C}\) content. The samples were pretreated sequentially with acid, alkali, and acid prior to combustion and analysis using accelerator mass spectrometry. \(^{14}\text{C}\) ages were calibrated using INTCAL04 [Reimer et al., 2004].

### 5. Results

[49] The hillslopes at SSSH examined in this study are characterized by broad, convex ridge tops, relatively planar midsections, and concave toe slopes (Figure 5). As noted above, the hillslopes along the southern side of the catchment have higher gradients (20.1° ± 3.3°) than northern slopes (15.3° ± 1.7°). This shape is characteristic of our specific sample localities; throughout its midsection, the southern slope exhibits mean gradients of ~20°, whereas the northern slope averages ~15° (Figure 5). Topographic profiles extracted from the LiDAR digital elevation model reveal that the northern hillslope exhibits a pronounced planar midsection, but the southern hillslope is more convex-concave (Figure 5).
Observations of mobile regolith depth in hand-augered sample sites reveal that mobile regolith on the ridgetops is relatively thin and thickens downslope on both sides of the catchment (Figures 5a and 5b). On the northern hillslope, mobile regolith thickens slightly downslope from $28 \pm 8$ cm ($n = 5$) at the ridge top to $39 \pm 9$ cm ($n = 5$) near the base of the transect. At the valley floor, the augerable thickness is $101 \pm 15$ cm ($n = 5$, Figures 5a and 5b).

Figure 4. Detailed sampling and analysis strategy for the north and south hillslopes at SSHO. White stars indicate locations of meteoric $^{10}$Be concentration depth profiles. White squares indicate locations at which we measured a single depth-averaged meteoric $^{10}$Be concentration. Partially filled squares indicate sample positions where samples were amalgamated along contour lines to yield a single average measure of meteoric $^{10}$Be concentration.

Figure 5. Topographic profiles along the (a) north and (b) south sample transects (dashed lines). X axes are flipped in Figures 5b and 5d to reflect the landscape profile if viewing from the mouth of the watershed. Note that these transects are traced along the $^{10}$Be profile transects on the north and south hillslopes, not the transect shown in Figure 2c. Data show average depth of refusal for regolith on the north and south hillslopes at SSHO (Figures 5a and 5b). Error bars indicate 1 standard deviation from the mean at each hillslope position. Local topographic gradient along the (a) north and (b) south hillslope transects. Gradients are generally higher along the south hillslope than the north hillslope. The dark line represents a moving average [of 3 pixels] of individual pixel-to-pixel gradients.
contrast, mobile regolith thickness on the southern hillslope increases somewhat systematically from 27 ± 4 cm (n = 5) at the ridge top to 60 ± 29 cm (n = 5) at the valley floor position. Not only does the mean thickness increase downslope but so does the spatial variability in thickness across the hillslope (standard deviation of regolith thickness at the SPRT location—σSPRT = 15%, standard deviation of regolith thickness at the SPVF location—σSPVF = 48%). This pattern is not as pronounced on the northern hillslope (σSPRT = 15%, σNPVF = 27%).

5.1. Valley Floor Stratigraphy

[51] Although mobile regolith on upland hillslopes is relatively thin, subsurface cores collected across the valley floor of SSHO reveal that coarse alluvial and colluvial sediments extend to several meters depth beneath the axis of the valley (Figure 6). All cores were collected until refusal, and relatively fresh, competent bedrock was observed at the base of the cores. Fractures and/or bedding planes are present in this bedrock but are generally closed with little to no open pore space. Open fractures in fresh rock were observed at the base of only a few cores located south of the present-day channel. In general, deposits above this bedrock are poorly sorted with moderately to poorly sorted, structureless mobile regolith. Fractures and/or bedding planes are present in this section only represents the lower portions of the SSHO catchment as shown in Figure 2c and does not represent the entire landscape topographic profile. Lithostratigraphic units are derived from core logs and are divided into three categories. Unit 1 represents alluvial deposits immediately adjacent to the present-day channel. Unit 2 represents poorly stratified colluvial material, interbedded with layers of more well-sorted sands and silts. Unit 3 represents massive, unstratified soil and mobile regolith on upland hillslopes.

Table 2. Radiocarbon Ages Measured From Valley Fill Charcoal\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample ID</th>
<th>Measured Age</th>
<th>(^{13})C/(^{12})C</th>
<th>Conventional Age</th>
<th>2 Sigma Calibration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GP-04</td>
<td>840+/−40 BP</td>
<td>−26.9‰</td>
<td>810+/−40 BP</td>
<td>Cal A.D. 1160 to 1280 (Cal BP 790 to 670)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GP-05</td>
<td>1030+/−30 BP</td>
<td>−25.3‰</td>
<td>1030+/−30 BP</td>
<td>Cal A.D. 980 to 1030 (Cal BP 970 to 920)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Ages calibrated using INTCAL04 (2004).
South of the channel, Unit 3 overlies Unit 2 and also
interfingers with Unit 1 adjacent to the channel.

[55] The moderately well-sorted nature of Unit 1 is consist-
tent with alluvial deposition along the paleochannel axis. In
contrast, the unsorted and disoriented nature of Unit 2
appears to be more consistent with deposition from hillslope
and colluvial processes. The structure of Unit 2 is qualita-
tively similar to the relict periglacial deposits described by
Clark and Ciołkosz [1988], commonly found in the Valley
and Ridge province of central Pennsylvania. Unit 3 appears
to represent a mantle of mobile regolith developing atop
in situ bedrock on the upper slopes of the watershed that is
being transported and deposited above older stratigraphic
units in the valley floor (Figure 6) and is thus equivalent to
the augerable regolith that has been discussed previously
[Jin et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2010].

[56] Our stratigraphic divisions of valley fill material are
generally consistent with pedologic descriptions of the
Ernest soil formation [Lin et al., 2006] with deep alternating
layers of sandy loam and poorly sorted layers of coarse rock
fragments and clay at depths greater than 50 cm. Our observa-
tions of the two northernmost cores (GP-10 and GP-11)
are more consistent with pedologic descriptions of the
Weikert and Berks series, which are shallower units that
exhibit a general fining upward trend [Lin et al., 2006].

[57] Two charcoal samples were collected within Unit 3
south of the present-day channel within cores GP-04 and
GP-05. These samples appeared to be charred woody debris,
occuring as single pieces, each one approximately 1 cm in
diameter. Radiocarbon dating of these samples yielded ages
of 810 ± 40 and 1030 ± 30, respectively. Calibration of these
ages to calendar years yields dates of 1160–1280 A.D. and
980–1030 A.D. (Table 2). Although this material is detrital
charcoal and may be reworked, the consistency of both ages
at the same stratigraphic depth imply that the upper 30–40 cm
of Unit 3 in the valley floor has accumulated over the last ~1000 years.

[58] The depth of the base of Unit 3 inferred from our
stratigraphic analysis is very near the depth of refusal for
hand augering, and thus nearly all of the samples that we
collected for 10Be analysis correspond to Unit 3. However,
Unit 2 appears to extend across the south side of the valley
floor, and the depth of our samples from the SPVF site
overlaps with the presence of this unit in our cores. Thus,
we consider it likely that the deepest samples analyzed for
10Be from the SPVF site represent material at the transition
between Units 2 and 3.

5.2. Meteoric 10Be Distribution in Bedrock

[59] The 14 samples analyzed from the deep core (DC1,
Figure 2) contain relatively low concentrations of meteoric
10Be, suggesting that only limited amounts of this isotope
penetrate to bedrock beneath the mobile regolith at SSHO.
Meteoric 10Be concentrations in bedrock samples decline
sharply with depth, decreasing by an order of magnitude
from 1.7 × 10^8 at g⁻¹ in the 0–18 cm interval to 5.0 × 10^7 at
g⁻¹ in the 18–30 cm interval (Figure 7a and Table 2). Concentrations remain low throughout the length of the bed-
rock core, ranging from 7.2 × 10⁶ at g⁻¹ to <1.3 × 10⁶ at g⁻¹.
At depths of 30–49, 150–170, and 1070–1090 cm, 10Be con-
centrations are slightly elevated relative to neighboring
samples (Figure 7a) but are still on the order of 10⁷ at g⁻¹.

Although these locally elevated concentrations could reflect
some transport of meteoric 10Be along fracture networks in
the subsurface, it is also likely that these may reflect
contamination by material falling from higher intervals into
the borehole.

[60] The original regolith at the drill pad site was signifi-
cantly modified during (and perhaps before) drilling, which
prevents a direct comparison of bedrock 10Be concentra-
tions with those in overlying regolith. The drill site is adjacent
to an access road that has been used over the past several
decades for forest management activities. Thus, the upper-
most samples from DC1 are not considered representative
of undisturbed ridge top regolith, but rather reflect some
mixture of mobile regolith and bedrock. Below, we compare
inventories of meteoric 10Be in the uppermost bedrock
samples to evaluate the degree to which 10Be is sequestered
in the mobile regolith.

5.3. Meteoric 10Be in Hillslope Regolith

[61] Meteoric 10Be concentrations in mobile SSHO rego-
lith are, on average, an order of magnitude higher than those
measured at the top of the bedrock core and up to two orders
of magnitude greater than concentrations at the base of the
deep core (Figures 7c and 7d). At all 6 profile sample loca-
tions along the north and south hillslopes transects, meteoric
10Be concentrations decrease with depth (Figures 7c and
7d). At the northern ridge top site, meteoric 10Be concen-
trations decrease from 7.49 × 10⁸ at g⁻¹ at the surface to
1.28 × 10⁹ at g⁻¹ at the base of mobile regolith (39 cm,
Table 3). At the midslope position, meteoric 10Be concen-
trations decrease from 1.03 × 10⁹ at g⁻¹ at the surface to
2.41 × 10⁸ at g⁻¹ at 40 cm. The concentration profile of mete-
oric 10Be at the midsite position resembles an exponential
decrease with depth. At the valley floor site, meteoric 10Be
concentrations decrease from 5.7 × 10⁸ at g⁻¹ to 1.43 × 10⁸
at g⁻¹ at depth (118 cm).

[62] Meteoric 10Be concentration profiles measured on
the southern hillside closely resemble those measured on
the northern hillside. At the southern ridge top site, meteoric
10Be concentrations decrease from 6.6 × 10⁷ at g⁻¹ at the
surface to 2.6 × 10⁶ at g⁻¹ at 30 cm (Table 4). 10Be concen-
trations at the midsite on the valley floor decrease from 9.6 × 10⁸ at g⁻¹ at the
surface to 2.3 × 10⁷ at g⁻¹ at 60 cm. Similar to the NPM site,
the profile at SPMS also appears exponential. At the valley
floor site, although concentrations decreased with depth from
5.5 × 10⁸ at g⁻¹ at the surface to 2.7 × 10⁸ at g⁻¹ by 67 cm,
the profile does not appear exponential (Figures 7c and 7d).

[63] We calculated the inventories of meteoric 10Be for
each of the 35 sample locations on the north (n = 18) and
south (n = 17) hillslopes of SSHO, using equation (3). As
indicated above, single, depth-averaged regolith bulk
densities were used for each sample position for samples that
were homogenized. Depth-specific regolith bulk densities
were used for profile samples. Inventories at the ridge top,
midslope, and valley floor positions were then averaged to
represent the inventory at each hillslope position, for
comparison to inventories measured for the amalgamated
samples collected in between (US and LS, Figure 4). On both
hillslopes, mean inventories increase systematically
downslope, with the exception of the SPVF position
(Figure 8 and Table 5). At the northern ridge top, the average
meteoric 10Be inventory is 1.89 ± 0.55 × 10¹⁰ at cm⁻².
The uncertainties reported here are propagated from one standard deviation of the mean (1σ) mobile regolith depth for the five ridge top sites, and 1σ (~1–2%) uncertainty from the AMS measurements. The inventory immediately downslope of the northern ridge top is $1.68 \pm 0.42 \times 10^{10}$ at cm$^{-2}$, and increases at the midslope position to $2.54 \pm 0.62 \times 10^{10}$ at cm$^{-2}$, the lower slope position ($2.92 \pm 0.73 \times 10^{10}$ at cm$^{-2}$), and the valley floor ($6.97 \pm 0.67 \times 10^{10}$ at cm$^{-2}$). At the

Table 3. Meteoric $^{10}$Be Distribution in Bedrock at DC1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Name</th>
<th>Depth Interval (cm)</th>
<th>$^{10}$Be$^b$ (atoms/g $\times 10^{7}$)</th>
<th>Sample Density (g/cm$^3$)$^c$</th>
<th>Inventory (atoms/cm$^2$ $\times 10^{8}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DC1-1</td>
<td>0–18</td>
<td>$16.7 \pm 0.37$</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-2</td>
<td>18–30</td>
<td>$5.01 \pm 0.09$</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-3</td>
<td>30–49</td>
<td>$7.18 \pm 0.13$</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-4</td>
<td>49–61</td>
<td>$3.43 \pm 0.07$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-5</td>
<td>61–79</td>
<td>$2.34 \pm 0.062$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-8</td>
<td>110–120</td>
<td>$1.08 \pm 0.052$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-11</td>
<td>150–170</td>
<td>$6.85 \pm 0.012$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>35.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-14</td>
<td>240–260</td>
<td>$0.1 \pm 0.051$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>5.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-17</td>
<td>340–350</td>
<td>$0.27 \pm 0.048$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-26</td>
<td>610–630</td>
<td>$0.58 \pm 0.05$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-29</td>
<td>1070–1090</td>
<td>$2.34 \pm 0.062$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-32</td>
<td>1520–1540</td>
<td>$0.128 \pm 0.043$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-35</td>
<td>1980–2000</td>
<td>$&lt;0.120$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC1-37</td>
<td>2290–2300</td>
<td>$0.134 \pm 0.048$</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.349</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$07KNSTD standard used for normalization with assumed $^{10}$Be/$^{9}$Be ratio of 2.85 $\times 10^{-12}$ [Nishiizumi et al., 2007]. DC1-##—Deep Core 1, naming convention from Jin et al. [2010].

$^b$Uncertainty reported represents 1 standard deviation from mean AMS measurement.

$^c$Densities estimated from chip densities reported by Jin et al. [2010].
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Table 4. Meteoric $^{10}$Be in North Planar Hillslope Soils$^a$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Name</th>
<th>$^{10}$Be (atoms/g × 10$^3$)$^b$</th>
<th>Depth (cm)</th>
<th>Bulk Density (g/cm$^3$)$^c$</th>
<th>Inventory (atoms/cm$^2$ × 10$^3$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NPRT0010</td>
<td>7.94 +/−</td>
<td>0.0533</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.94 +/−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPRT1020</td>
<td>5.42 +/−</td>
<td>0.0818</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPRT2030</td>
<td>4.65 +/−</td>
<td>0.0299</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPRT3037</td>
<td>2.39 +/−</td>
<td>0.0429</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPRT3739</td>
<td>1.28 +/−</td>
<td>0.0115</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRT1</td>
<td>4.79 +/−</td>
<td>0.0455</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRT3</td>
<td>6.39 +/−</td>
<td>0.0494</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRT4</td>
<td>5.08 +/−</td>
<td>0.0509</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.0581</td>
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<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPMS2251</td>
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<td>0.0259</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.0423</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.0229</td>
<td>32</td>
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<td>0.0386</td>
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<td>0.0407</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0.0366</td>
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<td>NPVF2836</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>0.0291</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0.0264</td>
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<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.0260</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
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<td>2.59 +/−</td>
<td>0.0217</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
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<td>0.0207</td>
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<td>2.24 +/−</td>
<td>0.0196</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPVF8891</td>
<td>2.19 +/−</td>
<td>0.0184</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPVF91103</td>
<td>2.30 +/−</td>
<td>0.0193</td>
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<tr>
<td>NPVF103115</td>
<td>1.22 +/−</td>
<td>0.0109</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPVF115118</td>
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<td>0.0125</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NVF2</td>
<td>3.49 +/−</td>
<td>0.0340</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NVF3</td>
<td>4.57 +/−</td>
<td>0.0442</td>
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<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NVF4</td>
<td>5.45 +/−</td>
<td>0.0524</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NVF5</td>
<td>4.50 +/−</td>
<td>0.0438</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$10°KNSTD standard used for normalization with assumed $^{10}$Be/$^{9}$Be ratio of 2.85 × 10$^{-12}$. NPRT####—North Planar Ridge Top, depth interval in centimeters. NPMS####—North Planar Mid Slope, depth interval in centimeters. NPFV####—North Planar Valley Floor, depth interval in centimeters.

$^b$Uncertainty reported represents 1 standard deviation from mean AMS measurement.

$^c$Bulk densities estimated from data reported by Jin et al. [2010].

Figure 8. Mean inventories of meteoric $^{10}$Be along the (a) north and (b) south hillslopes at SSHO. The error bars indicate 1 standard deviation from the inventory mean at each hillslope position. The SPVF sample location (gray) exhibits a meteoric $^{10}$Be inventory considered not to be representative of the total inventory at that location (see text for discussion).
Table 5. Meteoric $^{10}$Be in South Planar Hillslope Soils$^{a}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Name</th>
<th>$^{10}$Be (atoms/g $\times 10^6$)</th>
<th>Depth (cm)</th>
<th>Bulk Density (g/cm$^3$)</th>
<th>Inventory (atoms/cm$^2$ $\times 10^5$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPRT010</td>
<td>6.6 +/−</td>
<td>0.0779</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.6 +/− 0.0779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPRT020</td>
<td>5.44 +/−</td>
<td>0.0515</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.61 +/− 0.0721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPRT030</td>
<td>2.65 +/−</td>
<td>0.0271</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.77 +/− 0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRT1</td>
<td>4.56 +/−</td>
<td>0.0444</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15.04 +/− 0.1467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRT2</td>
<td>4 +/−</td>
<td>0.0389</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11.03 +/− 0.1074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRT3</td>
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<td>0.0517</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21.61 +/− 0.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.0454</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.63 +/− 0.1905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPV1</td>
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<td>0.0351</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>20.77 +/− 4.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMS0010</td>
<td>9.62 +/−</td>
<td>0.0909</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.62 +/− 0.909</td>
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<td>SMS1020</td>
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<td>0.0575</td>
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<td>6.98 +/− 0.0805</td>
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<tr>
<td>SMS2030</td>
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<td>0.0347</td>
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<td>6.52 +/− 0.0624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>10</td>
<td>5.6 +/− 0.081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.0265</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.64 +/− 0.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMS5059</td>
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<td>0.0276</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.71 +/− 0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMS1</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0.0308</td>
<td>32</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.0243</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>34.69 +/− 2.334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.0336</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26.54 +/− 1.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFLS</td>
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<td>0.0308</td>
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<td>41.97 +/− 7.019</td>
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<td>0.087</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.51 +/− 0.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.0284</td>
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<td>5.12 +/− 0.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPVF2030</td>
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<td>0.0338</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.49 +/− 0.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2.92 +/−</td>
<td>0.0357</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.26 +/− 0.064</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.0392</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.42 +/− 0.0705</td>
</tr>
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<td>SPVF5060</td>
<td>2.57 +/−</td>
<td>0.0336</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.63 +/− 0.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPVF607</td>
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<td>0.0506</td>
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<td>3.43 +/− 0.0912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVF1</td>
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<td>105</td>
<td>43.95 +/− 4.399</td>
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<tr>
<td>SVF2</td>
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<td>38.51 +/− 2.739</td>
</tr>
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<td>3.53 +/−</td>
<td>0.0351</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21.17 +/− 2.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVF4</td>
<td>5.01 +/−</td>
<td>0.0394</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21.04 +/− 1.654</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^{a}$KMNSTD standard used for normalization with assumed $^{10}$Be/Be ratio of 2.85 $\times 10^{-12}$. SPRT####—South Planar Ridge Top, depth interval in centimeters. SPM####—South Planar Mid Slope, depth interval in centimeters. SPVF####—South Planar Valley Floor, depth interval in centimeters.

$^{b}$Uncertainty reported represents 1 standard deviation from mean AMS measurement.

$^{c}$Bulk densities estimated from data reported by Jin et al. [2010].

southern ridge top site, the average meteoric $^{10}$Be inventory is $1.63 \pm 0.41 \times 10^{10}$ at cm$^{-2}$. Inventories increase immediately downslope to $2.08 \pm 0.45 \times 10^{10}$ at cm$^{-2}$, and continue to increase until the valley floor position from $3.06 \pm 0.69 \times 10^{10}$ at cm$^{-2}$ to $4.20 \pm 0.70 \times 10^{10}$ at cm$^{-2}$. At the valley floor, however, the average meteoric $^{10}$Be inventory decreases to $3.23 \pm 1.06 \times 10^{10}$ at cm$^{-2}$ (Figure 8 and Table 5). As discussed below, we believe this reflects an incomplete sampling (by hand augering) of mobile regolith depth at this locality.

6. Discussion

6.1. Meteoric $^{10}$Be in the SSHO Subsurface

[64] The results of our measurements indicate that most meteoric $^{10}$Be delivered to the SSHO is retained in the upper decimeters of regolith and does not penetrate deeply into bedrock. As presented by Jin et al. [2010], the two uppermost samples from the DC1 core are comprised of regolith from the drill pad site and do not represent bedrock. Excluding these two regolith samples, we find that the inventory of meteoric $^{10}$Be from the upper meter of bedrock is ~17% of that retained in ridgetop regolith. This suggests that at SSHO, most of the $^{10}$Be delivered by meteoric precipitation is retained in the upper, mobile regolith, and that these inventories can be used to track mobile regolith transport [e.g., McKean et al., 1993].

[65] The systematic decrease of $^{10}$Be concentrations with depth in hillslope regolith is consistent with addition of meteoric $^{10}$Be to the ground surface and efficient $^{10}$Be adsorption to mineral surfaces. Herndon et al. [2010] reported elevated Mn concentrations in SSHO regolith that are a direct result of industrial inputs via dry fall. The similarity between meteoric $^{10}$Be profiles and Mn suggests that both reflect surface addition, with little subsequent physical mixing or geochemical redistribution [Ma et al., 2011]. The clay-rich regolith at SSHO [Lin et al., 2006; Jin et al., 2010] provides high surface area for adsorption [You et al., 1989] and thus regolith at SSHO has a relatively high capacity for retaining $^{10}$Be. The declining $^{10}$Be profiles we observed suggest that regolith is eroding relatively quickly or that SSHO regolith is young and that $^{10}$Be has not yet been able to penetrate to greater depth [Graly et al., 2010a, 2010b], consistent with the inventories described above.

[66] That these depth-dependent relationships persist at all positions along the hillslope suggests that the mixing rate of mobile regolith is slower than the rate of chemical profile establishment. This conclusion is consistent with those described by Jin et al. [2010] for chemical profiles at SSHO and Kaste et al. [2007], who observed pronounced $^{7}$Be addition profiles in regolith at the Hubbard Brook Experimental Forest, NH, suggesting that physical mixing by bioturbation is limited in New England soils.

6.2. Rates and Duration of Mobile Regolith Transport in the SSHO

[67] Conventional interpretations of cosmogenic isotope concentrations at ridgetops allow for the calculation of...
regolith residence times and erosion rates under the assumption of steady regolith thickness [Brown et al., 1988, Portenga and Bierman, 2011]. Using equation (4) and assuming that the delivery rate of meteoric 10Be has been constant over the recent geologic past at a rate of 1.8 × 10^6 atoms cm^{-2} yr^{-1} (±20%), a reasonable value for our field site [Graly et al., 2010a], the inventories at the north and south ridgetop positions correspond to 10.5 ± 3.7 ky and 9.1 ± 2.9 ky of meteoric 10Be accumulation, respectively (Table 5). Thus, one possible end-member interpretation of the 10Be inventories in ridgetop regolith at SSHO is that they reflect growth and thickening of regolith throughout Holocene time [e.g., Ma et al., 2010, 2013]. However, the alternative interpretation of the inventory data is that they reflect steady lowering of the ridgetops while maintaining a constant regolith thickness. In this interpretation, 10Be inventories reflect lowering rates (using equation (5)) of 16.1 ± 5.6 m My^{-1} and 19.4 ± 6.2 m My^{-1} on the north and south ridgetops, respectively (Table 5). We note that these rates are consistent with the catchment average (~15 m My^{-1}) [Jin et al., 2010].

At positions farther downslope, however, it is inappropriate to interpret meteoric 10Be inventories as residence times or lowering rates, as the measured 10Be inventory reflects downslope transport and accumulation of 10Be with creeping mobile regolith [Monaghan et al., 1992]. Although downslope increases in 10Be inventories could theoretically develop in immobile regolith of different age, we see no reason to believe that regolith remains in place on SSHO hillslopes (15°–20°) and therefore, the most parsimonious interpretation of downslope increases in 10Be is that they reflect regolith transport [e.g., McKea et al., 1993]. Here we use the depth-averaged concentration of meteoric 10Be in mobile regolith to calculate downslope transport rates (equation (26)) [Monaghan et al., 1992; McKea et al., 1993]. On the northern hillslopes, volumetric regolith flux rates increase linearly with position downslope from 6.2 ± 1.4 just below the ridgetop to 31.8 ± 7.0 cm^2 yr^{-1} at the valley floor (Figure 10a). On the southern hillslopes, volumetric regolith flux rates increase from 5.1 ± 1.1 just below the ridge top to 12.1 ± 2.7 cm^2 yr^{-1} just upslope of the valley floor (Figure 10b and Table 6).

As noted previously, stratigraphic evidence reveals that SSHO is underlain by coarse colluvial sediment along the sides of the valley floor. The deepest samples from the SPVF profile were likely collected from the colluvial material described as Unit 2. The presence of deep sediments at this position on the southern hillslope suggests that the 67 cm of hand augerable material collected at the south valley floor site is an incomplete sample of the mobile regolith thickness. Thus, the inventory of 10Be we measured at the SPVF site is considered to be a minimum value and excluded from our calculations of regolith flux.

Assuming that creep is the dominant form of regolith transport on hillslopes at SSHO, the differences between the meteoric 10Be inventories at different positions provide an estimate of average velocity (equation (30)). Creep velocities are relatively constant along each hillslope and are similar, within uncertainty, between north and south hillslopes. On the northern hillslopes, the measured differences in meteoric 10Be correspond to creep velocities of

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**Table 6. Meteoric 10Be Inventory, Residence Time, Erosion Rate, and Flux for North and South Hillslopes at SSHO**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Position</th>
<th>Inventory^a (atoms/cm^2 × 10^{10})</th>
<th>Minimum Residence Time^b (ky)</th>
<th>Erosion Rate^b (m/My)</th>
<th>Flux^b (cm^2/yr)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPRT</td>
<td>1.63 +/- 0.41</td>
<td>9.1 +/- 2.9</td>
<td>19.4 +/- 6.2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPUS</td>
<td>2.08 +/- 0.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.12 +/- 1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPMS</td>
<td>3.06 +/- 0.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9.88 +/- 2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPLL</td>
<td>4.20 +/- 0.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12.07 +/- 2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPVF</td>
<td>3.23 +/- 1.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPRT</td>
<td>1.89 +/- 0.55</td>
<td>10.5 +/- 3.7</td>
<td>16.1 +/- 5.6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPUUS</td>
<td>1.68 +/- 0.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.21 +/- 1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPMS</td>
<td>2.54 +/- 0.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.02 +/- 1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPLLS</td>
<td>2.92 +/- 0.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18.88 +/- 4.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPVF</td>
<td>6.97 +/- 0.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>31.82 +/- 7.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aUncertainties reflect 1 standard deviation from the mean inventory measured at all sites at each hillslope position.

^bAssuming a meteoric 10Be delivery rate of 1.8 × 10^6 at cm^-2 yr^-1.
0.26 ± 0.08, 0.31 ± 0.10, 0.48 ± 0.15, and 0.27 ± 0.06 cm yr$^{-1}$ for positions sequentially downslope. On the southern hillslope, the creep velocities are similar to those measured on the northern hillslope (within uncertainty) but are slightly lower, at 0.16 ± 0.05, 0.22 ± 0.07, and 0.21 ± 0.07 cm yr$^{-1}$.

Using depth-averaged regolith densities for each hillslope position, the volumetric fluxes measured on the northern hillslope correspond to increases in mass flux rates from 8.3 ± 1.9 just below the ridge top to 55.0 ± 12.1 g cm$^{-2}$ yr$^{-1}$ at the valley floor. Similarly, the volumetric fluxes measured on the southern hillslope correspond to increases in mass flux rates of 7.3 ± 1.6 to 19.2 ± 4.2 g cm$^{-2}$ yr$^{-1}$. The mass flux rates presented here are consistent with sediment flux values presented for the southern hillslope by Jin et al. [2010], calculated using chemical depletion factors, which increase with position downslope from ~6 to 20 g cm$^{-2}$ yr$^{-1}$. These sediment fluxes incorporated only material moving by diffusive creep, as particulate loss through pore space was incorporated in the weathering flux values presented by Jin et al. [2010]. The consistency between mass flux values calculated using meteoric $^{10}$Be and chemical depletion factors provides a compelling argument that meteorically delivered $^{10}$Be is moving with mobile regolith particles and is likely not geochemically redistributed in mobile regolith at the SSSH.

Our results suggest that regolith fluxes at SSSH are considerably lower than those inferred from studies of meteoric $^{10}$Be accumulation on hillslopes in coastal California [McKean et al., 1993] and in the Smoky Mountains [Jungers et al., 2009]. Bedrock at the Black Diamond Mines Regional Preserve in coastal California is an Eocene marine shale, the hillslopes are of similar gradient to SSSH (~15°), and regolith fluxes range from 52 to 82 cm$^{2}$ yr$^{-1}$ [McKean et al., 1993]. Our data imply significantly slower creep velocities (0.2–0.5 cm yr$^{-1}$) than those in CA (0.9–1.2 cm yr$^{-1}$) [McKean et al., 1993]. Likewise, creep velocities observed at SSSH are significantly slower than those observed on upland hillslopes of the Flat Creek watershed in the Smoky Mountains (1.2 to 1.7 cm yr$^{-1}$) reported by Jungers et al. [2009]. Hillslopes in the upper section of the Flat Creek watershed also have gradients similar to SSSH (~14°) and are underlain by metamorphosed sandstone. Presumably, the differences observed between SSSH and other field locales are a reflection of the climatic, biologic, and lithologic controls on transport mechanisms and efficiency [e.g., Perron et al., 2009]. Overall, it seems clear that transport velocities and low volumetric fluxes in the SSSH reflect relatively limited transport efficiency at our field site.

7. Implications

7.1. Regolith Transport Rules

Our meteoric $^{10}$Be data add to a growing body of work that test rules governing regolith flux on regolith-mantled hillslopes [McKean et al., 1993; Small et al., 1999; Heimsath et al., 2005; Yoo et al., 2007; Pelletier et al., 2011]. The data suggest that, to first order, regolith fluxes at
SSH0 increase linearly with position downslope (Figure 9). Because hillslope gradients remain relatively constant downslope of the ridgetop, this result also implies that, in general, regolith flux along the north and south hillslopes at SSH0 is linearly proportional to the local topographic gradient. Along the first ~40 m downslope from the northern ridge, where regolith is thin, mobile regolith flux is adequately predicted by a linear dependence on local gradient (Figure 10a, $R^2 = 0.96$). On the southern hillslope, regolith flux rates along nearly the entire length of the hillslope are highly correlated to local gradient (Figure 10b), with an $R^2$ value of 0.92. The transport efficiency ($K_1$) implied by these data are similar, ranging from $29 \pm 5$ cm$^2$ yr$^{-1}$ on the north slope and $27 \pm 4$ cm$^2$ yr$^{-1}$ on the south (Figure 10). We note that our data do not preclude the possibility of a nonlinear relationship between regolith flux and local slope [e.g., Roering, 2008]. Because topographic gradients at SSH0 are relatively gentle, our results do not sample fluxes at gradients approaching thresholds for nonlinearity [Roering, 2008].

[74] At the lowest sample positions on the north and south hillslopes at SSH0, where regolith is thickest, however, we observe a departure from a linear dependence of flux on gradient (Figure 10). This observation prompts us to consider whether regolith transport near the valley floor may be better described by a transport rule that depends on both gradient and regolith depth [Heimsath et al., 1997; Gabet et al., 2003; Furbish et al., 2009; Roering, 2008]. To test the possibility of a depth-dependent transport rule, we compare fluxes inferred from meteoric $^{10}$Be to the product of mobile regolith depth and local gradient (Figures 10c and 10d). Near the northern ridge top, a depth-slope rule provides a slightly poorer fit to regolith flux ($R^2 = 0.84$), relative to the local gradient regression. When the lower two data points are considered, however, a depth-slope rule is a better predictor ($R^2 = 0.90$) than a simple linear dependence on slope. A depth-slope rule is a slightly better predictor of flux on the southern hillslope, with $R^2$ value 0.97, although we acknowledge that this is not a significant improvement over the simple, slope-dependent rule (Figure 10b). The possibility that a depth-dependent flux rule describes regolith transport at SSH0 may reflect a number of possible transport mechanisms, such as freeze-thaw, wetting and drying, and bioturbation. Under these conditions, the magnitude of transport events may be strongly modulated by regolith depth [Gabet et al., 2003; Roering et al., 2010].

[75] Interestingly, if we consider the implied transport efficiencies for a transport rule that is proportional to the product of regolith depth and gradient, our data hint at a potential difference between the northern and southern hillslopes (Figure 10). The transport coefficient ($K_2$) along the northern hillslope is greater than that along the southern hillslope ($1.1 \pm 0.2$ and $0.59 \pm 0.1$ cm yr$^{-1}$, respectively). This asymmetry suggests that differences in efficiency may be related to topographic aspect [Ma et al., 2013] and consequent solar insolation. However, we emphasize that the apparent control of regolith depth on flux rate depends heavily on two data points (Figure 10). Much of our data may be explained by a simple, slope-dependent transport rule with efficiencies that are uniform, at least near the ridge crest. Additional work will be required to determine the range of transport mechanisms, associated transport rules and their distribution in the SSH0.

7.2. Implications for Timescales of Regolith Transport

[76] Our meteoric $^{10}$Be data imply that regolith atop ridge crests in the SSH0 is relatively young and has developed largely during Holocene time. However, the nature of the valley fill suggests that the SSH0 retains a stratigraphic record of transport processes that predate this time period. Although we cannot determine the exact age of the colluvial deposits that underlie the mobile regolith, the $^{14}$C age of detrital charcoal from the alluvial material along the valley axis indicates that this material must be older than ~1000 A.D. The depth of the charcoal samples (~30 cm) suggests relatively slow aggradation at SSH0 during colonial times; we do not observe significant aggradation as seen elsewhere in the eastern United States [Walter and Merritts, 2008]. Thus, if there was significant soil loss during colonial deforestation, the sediment was swept out of the SSH0.
catchment. The nature of valley floor sediment below ~30 cm—thick, coarse colluvium—and the position of these deposits largely along the axis of the valley and southern toe slope position are consistent with a periglacial origin and transport [Clark and Ciolek, 1988; Braun, 1989]. Thus, the augerable, mobile regolith (Unit 3) was likely deposited on top of or formed from relict deposits (Units 1 and 2) from a previous time.

7.3. Implications for the Balance Between Regolith Production and Transport

[77] Our study presents a unique opportunity to compare mobile regolith transport rates off ridgetops with independently determined rates of regolith production [Ma et al., 2010, 2013; Jin et al., 2010]. Mobile regolith residence times at SSHO, calculated using meteoric \(^{10}\text{Be}\) and U-series disequilibrium, are similar; on the northern ridge these are \(10.5 \pm 3.7\) \((^{10}\text{Be})\) and \(15 \pm 8\) My (U-series) [Ma et al., 2013], while on the southern ridge these timescales are \(9.1 \pm 2.9\) \((^{10}\text{Be})\) and \(-6.7\) ky (U-series) [Ma et al., 2010].

[78] Although these results suggest that each method is measuring approximately similar regolith residence times, the corresponding regolith production and erosion rates are somewhat different. On the northern ridge top, the mean mobile regolith erosion rate, \(16.1 \pm 5.6\) m My\(^{-1}\) \((^{10}\text{Be})\), is approximately half that of the production rate, \(39.8 \pm 22.3\) m My\(^{-1}\) (U-series). Similarly, on the southern ridge top, the mobile regolith erosion rate is slower than the production rate at \(19.4 \pm 6.2\) \((^{10}\text{Be})\) and \(45 \pm 12\) m My\(^{-1}\) (U-series) [Ma et al., 2010, 2013]. Notably, the mean erosion rates appear to be approximately a factor of two lower than regolith production, although we note that rates are within uncertainty of each other (at 2\(\sigma\)). Thus, although our results permit the possibility that regolith production has actually outpaced erosion during the Holocene, within uncertainty regolith production and erosion are in balance along ridgetops in the SSHO.

[79] To allow for direct comparison between our mobile regolith flux results and the regolith production rates reported by Ma et al. [2010, 2013], we convert the regolith production rates to volumetric fluxes (Figure 11). We extrapolate the ridge top regolith production rates presented by Ma et al. [2010, 2013] across the distances between each ridge top and the corresponding sampling position immediately downslope (i.e., the product of production rate and \(d\)x, Figure 11) to estimate volumetric fluxes across the regolith-bedrock interface at the ridge tops. This calculation suggests that the upward fluxes of material transforming from bedrock to regolith per unit width on the northern ridge crest are \(960 \pm 530\) m\(^2\) My\(^{-1}\). The flux of mobile regolith downslope of this position, measured using meteoric \(^{10}\text{Be}\), is \(\sim 620 \pm 140\) m\(^2\) My\(^{-1}\). Likewise, on the southern ridge crest, the volumetric flux of material due to weathering is \(850 \pm 220\) m\(^2\) My\(^{-1}\), and the mobile regolith flux downslope is \(510 \pm 110\) m\(^2\) My\(^{-1}\) (Figure 11b). Thus, our data indicate that the downslope regolith flux from the north ridge top is 65% of production while that off the south ridge top is \(\sim 60\%\) of production. Considering the relatively large uncertainties in our calculations, the production and transport fluxes are within uncertainty of one another. As above, this could be interpreted to imply that regolith production on the SSHO ridge tops has outpaced downslope transport during the Holocene. However, it is also plausible that regolith production and transport may have reached a quasi-steady condition during this time.

[80] To evaluate the potential impact of soil erosion during colonial deforestation [Walter and Merritts, 2008], we examine the influence that removal of 10 cm of the upper regolith would have on the meteoric \(^{10}\text{Be}\) inventories. We fit an exponential function to the depth profiles at SSHO ridge crests to project the additional inventory represented by additional regolith. This would result in a reduction of estimated erosion rates \((\sim 11\) m My\(^{-1}\)\) and lead to an approximate doubling of residence time \((\sim 26\) ky\). Thus, if significant depths of regolith were removed from SSHO ridge crests, this would exacerbate the differences between the calculated rates of regolith production and downslope flux. Thus, although we cannot rule out a role for enhanced erosion in colonial times, we do not find it necessary to explain our results.

[81] It should be noted, however, that the estimated \(^{10}\text{Be}\) delivery rate used in our calculations of erosion rate, residence time, and flux does not account for potential inputs via dry fall. If the actual delivery rate, including dry fall, is higher than the value we use, then the erosion rate would be higher than what we report.

8. Conclusions

[82] Our results show that meteoric \(^{10}\text{Be}\) is a reliable tracer for mobile regolith flux at SSHO, as it is quantitatively retained in the mobile regolith and not significantly lost to bedrock. Mobile regolith fluxes along hillslopes in the SSHO suggest that over much of the watershed, transport is linearly proportional to the local topographic gradient but that near the valley floor, mobile regolith flux may be a function of both gradient and mobile regolith depth. Additionally, although transport efficiency \((K_t)\) appears to be uniform near north and south ridge crests, we find a potential asymmetry in the rate coefficients for a depth-dependent transport rate \((K_z)\) between north and south hillslopes.

[83] The combination of our results with previous determinations of regolith production rates provides some of the first direct evidence that regolith production and erosion rates are within a factor of two on forested hillslopes in the eastern United States. Given the large uncertainties associated with these data sets, we are presently unable to distinguish whether regolith on ridge crests in the SSHO has reached a steady state or whether regolith is thickening as a response to the climatic shift associated with retreat of the Laurentide ice sheet and the onset of Holocene climate/vegetation. Deep sediments in the valley floor appear to retain a record of enhanced colluvial transport in the recent geologic past and suggest that the present-day, slow creep velocities and low mass flux rates may not be representative of previous conditions at SSHO.

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