Neogene basin infilling from cosmogenic nuclides (^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne) in Atacama, Chile: implications for paleoclimate and copper supergene enrichment.

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- the $^{10}\text{Be}/^{21}\text{Ne}$ pair of cosmogenic nuclides is useful to date Miocene sediments and exotic supergene enrichment
- Erosion rates higher to 250 m/Myr have been recorded during Middle Miocene in Atacama
- Progressive decrease of erosion rates at around 10 Myr ago in Atacama
- We date an exotic copper deposit at 10-14 Myrs. Another one is younger but older than 9.5 Myr.

Neogene basin infilling from cosmogenic nuclides (^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne) in Atacama, Chile: implications for paleoclimate and copper supergene enrichment.

Short Title: Cosmognics and exotic copper deposits in Atacama

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Abstract

Increasing evidence suggests that supergene exotic copper deposits were emplaced during periods of geomorphic quiescence and pulses of humidity in arid environments. We tested this idea in the Centinela Mining District in the Atacama Desert (northern Chile). We collected 14 sand samples at

depth (up to 110 m) in two open-pit mines (Central Tesoro and Mirador) exposing Miocene sediment, and located in the El Tesoro Basin, which hosts two exotic copper-rich layers. We inverted the ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne concentrations by using a two-box model (IMIS, Inversion of Multi Isotopes in a Sedimentary basin) composed of an eroding source of sediment and a depositional sedimentary basin, and by selecting denudation and sedimentation rate histories that can explain our data. The ages found demonstrate that the two exotic layers were deposited during a narrow period between <14 Ma (10 Ma younger than previously thought) and 9.5 Ma, when an ignimbrite covered the sedimentary sequence. The dated lower exotic copper layer was deposited during or just before a sharp decrease in the sedimentation rates (from >100 to 0.5-5 m/Ma), which is consistent with published sedimentological and carbonate isotopic data in this district. This confirms the idea that exotic deposits form during a quiescence of the geomorphic activity. Nevertheless, our model suggests that the background denudation rate providing sediment to these basins between ~14 Ma and ~9.5 Ma was surprisingly high (>250 m/Ma) for such an arid environment. These denudation rates can be explained by a relatively rapid back-scarp retreat providing most of the sediment to these basins and possibly a wetter climate compared to the present. Then, during the period 10-7 Ma, the denudation rates decreased to >50 m/Ma. This decrease may correspond to a progressive slope decrease of the hills around, or to a progressive aridification, or a combination of both phenomena.

Keywords: supergene copper deposits; Atacama; cosmogenic nuclides; denudation rates; burial dating; intramountainous basin

1 Introduction

The Atacama Desert in northern Chile and southernmost Peru hosts the biggest concentration of world-class porphyry copper deposits on Earth (Sillitoe, 2010). Nearly all of these deposits show features related to supergene processes that produce an increase in hypogene copper grades on top of porphyry copper systems through reduction-oxidation reactions occurring during weathering

phases (e.g., Sillitoe 2010). The leached copper can reprecipitate above the water table as oxidized minerals such as Chrysocolla and Atacamite or it can also be concentrated below the paleowater table as secondary sulfides (e.g. chalcocite, covelite). Fluids containing leached copper may eventually migrate laterally and transport copper up to several kilometers away from the weathered source of metal, until the copper precipitates form exotic (away from the metal source) copper deposits (e.g., Münchmeyer 1996). Although the precise balance between precipitation, uplift and denudation rate for the generation of these deposits has not been quantified yet, the formation of oxidized minerals supergene (i.e., mineralized close to the Earth's surface) is usually considered to have occurred during pulses of humidity in a context of an arid climate during the Neogene in the Atacama (e.g., Arancibia, et al., 2006; Reich et al., 2009; Palacios et al., 2011b; Reich and Vasconcelos, 2015b; Fernández-Mort et al., 2017b; Riquelme et al., 2018; Sanchez et al., 2018). Thus, the precipitation of oxidized minerals is not only of particular interest to trace exploitable deposits, but also to reconstruct past climates. Even though multi-approach studies tend to agree with the long-term aridity of the Atacama Desert, the timing of the hyperaridity onset is still matter of debate (see Figure 1 for a review and references). Nevertheless, the effect of rainfall is ambiguous. An increase in rainfall favors lixiviation and the lateral transport of fluids from which oxidized minerals will precipitate. Meanwhile, higher surface runoff favors erosion and thus removes the oxidized layer. Consequently, denudation of the porphyry copper system is a key process to understanding the formation of supergene copper deposits (Alpers and Brimhall 1988; Braxton et al. 2009). In this contribution, we show how the denudation rates of the source area may impact the formation of exotic copper.

In the Centinela Mining District (Antofagasta region, Chile, Figure 2), recent sedimentological and thermochronological studies have demonstrated that supergene copper mineralization related to porphyry copper systems formed during pedimentation periods in the Miocene, corresponding to the waning of the Domeyko range with mean denudation rates in the order of 100 m/Ma (Riquelme et al. 2018; Sanchez et al. 2018). In this district, Fernández-Mort et al. (2017) evidenced the role of

sedimentary environments in controlling exotic copper mineralization: copper minerals infilling the sediment porosity in beds truncated by erosion indicate that exotic mineralization is syngenetic to sedimentation and occurs near the surface under high evaporation rates, as expressed by C and O isotopy. Fernández-Mort et al. (2017) showed that some exotic copper deposits form in ephemeral distal lakes mainly by evaporation, while exotic copper deposited later mainly corresponds to the erosion of pieces of previously formed exotic copper deposits and their downstream deposition in sedimentary traps. Previous studies have suggested that low denudation and sedimentation rates are needed for the deposition of exotic copper deposits. On the contrary, there has been no quantitative estimate of the porphyry copper denudation rate and sedimentation rate in sedimentary traps during the formation of exotic copper deposits.

Recent developments in cosmogenic nuclide analytical techniques for sediment have provided new methods for estimating their paleo-denudation rates or burial ages (e.g., Balco and Shuster 2009; Charreau et al. 2011; Sartégou et al. 2018), with applications to the Atacama Desert (Davis et al. 2014; Madella et al. 2018). Here, we develop an approach based on two cosmogenic isotopes, ^{10}Be (radioactive, half-life 1.39 Ma) and ^{21}Ne (stable). We collected 14 sand samples in a Neogene sedimentary sequence exposed in two mine pits found in the Centinela Mining District (Figure 2): the Tesoro Central pit, hosting two exotic copper deposits, and the Mirador pit, where supergene mineralization and the related porphyry copper system outcrop. We developed a new two-box model (called IMIS, Inversion of Multi Isotopes in a Sedimentary basin), with one box for the eroding source of sediment and the other for the basin where they deposit. For various denudation and sedimentation rates (either fixed or random) in these two boxes, the model predicts the ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne concentrations through time in the sedimentary sequence. Using a Monte Carlo approach, we minimize the difference between predicted and measured concentrations to infer the best-fit scenario of denudation and sedimentation and to establish a modeled age for the sediment sequence. This approach reveals subtle variations through time and constrains the age of the studied exotic copper deposit. From these

results, we also discuss the age and the sedimentary response to the Late Miocene aridification of the Atacama region.

2 Geological background and sampling

2.1 Geological background

The Centinela Mining District is located at approximately 23°S, in the Precordillera physiographic unit of the Andean forearc (see location in Figure 1). It is bordered by the Central Depression to the west and by the Atacama Salar to the east. In the district, several copper mines are currently exploited: the Tesoro Central, Tesoro NE, Esperanza, Telegrafo, Mirador and Encuentro with few exploration projects still under development (Tomlinson and Blanco 1997; Mpodozis and Cornejo 2012).

In the Precordillera, the Paleozoic-Triassic basement and the sedimentary cover (Jurassic marine to Upper Cretaceous continental volcano-sedimentary rocks) host intrusives, related to the Late Cretaceous to Eocene magmatic arc (Marinovic and García 1999; Mpodozis and Cornejo 2012). These rocks have been faulted during the Eocene tectonic phase by the Domeyko Fault System (Mpodozis et al. 1993; Amilibia et al. 2008; Mpodozis and Cornejo 2012). At the regional scale, the activity of the fault system resulted in the creation of intra-mountainous basins such as the Centinela Basin (Mora et al. 2004; Riquelme et al. 2018). This tectonic episode was synchronous to the emplacement of the Eocene metallogenic belt. In the Centinela Basin, porphyry copper systems were emplaced synchronously to the movement of faults related to the Domeyko Fault System, such as the Tesoro Central, Tesoro NE, Llano, Centinela, and Esperanza faults (see Figure 2). Late (< 10 Ma) fault activity has resulted in the uplift of the western block where the central Tesoro mining pit is located, with respect to the eastern block where the Mirador mining pit is located (Mpodozis and Cornejo 2012).

Supergene copper mineralization over substratum rocks and exotic copper mineralization hosted by gravel deposits can be found in the Centinela Basin (Fernández-Mort et al. 2017). The age of the exotic copper mineralization is unclear due to the lack of datable material within the mineralized sequence. Detailed sedimentary studies have identified four main gravel groups (Mora et al. 2004; Riquelme et al. 2018). The Esperanza and Atravesado gravels are younger than ~45 Ma and ~40 Ma respectively (constrained by detrital zircon ages within the sedimentary sequence, Riquelme et al. 2018). The topmost sequence consists of the Tesoro and Arrieros gravels (Figure 2), in which a 9.5 Ma-old ash layer is intercalated (De Silva, 1989, (Riquelme et al., 2018).

In the Atacama Desert, several types of supergene minerals have been dated by $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and K/Ar and recently, for the first time, chrysocolla minerals were also dated from the Chuquicamata mine using U-Pb; all together, these minerals yield ages mostly ranging from 25 to 9 Ma as well as a few ages as young as the Pleistocene (Arancibia et al., 2006). A similar age range (25-12 Ma) has been found in the Centinela District using $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and K/Ar methods on supergene minerals (Sillitoe and McKee 1996; Perelló 2010; Tapia et al. 2012; Riquelme et al. 2018). In the Tesoro NE mine (eastern pit), a single exotic supergene mineral age obtained in a copper-rich layer was estimated at ~21 Ma. It has been proposed that the layer bearing this age is a stratigraphic equivalent of the exotic copper layer observed in the Teroso Central mining pit (Tapia et al. 2012; see location in Figure 2 and Figure 4). These two mining pits (Tesoro Central and Tesoro NE pits) are structurally separated by the Tesoro Fault (see Error! Reference source not found. et al., 2018).

2.2 Geomorphic background: denudation rates and paleoclimate

Long-term denudation rates in the Centinela District have been determined by low-temperature thermochronology on Paleocene intrusives and Eocene porphyry copper deposits (Sanchez et al. 2018). These data suggest that most of the exhumation had occurred before 30 Ma, and that the denudation rates have dropped drastically since then (Maksaev and Zentilli 1999; Sanchez et al. 2018). The supergene mineral ages in the area are younger than the main exhumation phase

(Arancibia et al., 2006; Sanchez et al., 2018) confirming that supergene copper mineralization occurs in flat landscapes characterized by low relief and low denudation rates (Mortimer 1973; Alpers and Brimhall 1988; Clark et al. 1990; Mote et al. 2001; Quang et al. 2005; Sanchez et al. 2018).

Several studies have estimated erosion (denudation) rates at the regional scale. In the Atacama Desert in northern Chile (18-30°S), for example, the current denudation rates measured by river sediment loads range from 0.1 to 10 m/Ma with a notable exception on the Lluta River (~43 m/Ma, Carretier et al. 2018). At the millennium scale range, cosmogenic nuclides record catchment-scale denudation rates up to ~60 m/Ma (Kober et al. 2009; Cortés-Aranda J. et al. 2012; Carretier et al. 2013; see Figure 3).

At a local outcrop scale, cosmogenic nuclides have recorded *maximum* denudation rates values in the range 0.01-50 m/Ma, with a median value lower than 1 m/Ma (Dunai, Lopez, and Juez-Larre 2005; Nishiizumi et al. 2005; Kober et al. 2007; Evenstar et al. 2009; Gattacceca et al. 2011; Cortés-Aranda J. et al. 2012; Owen et al. 2011; Placzek et al. 2014; Martinod et al. 2016; Ritter, Stuart, et al. 2018; Amundson et al. 2012). The currently observed low denudation rates may have lasted for millions of years, without significant change in elevation (Blard et al., 2019). Gypsisoil development may provide evidence of ~10 Ma of hyper-aridity and landform stability (rainfall < 40 mm/yr, Rech et al. 2006): this geomorphological stability is further confirmed by the regional observation of the Artola ignimbrite dated at $\sim 9.52 \pm 0.02$ Ma covering most of the landscape surface, affected by minor reworking after deposition (Riquelme et al. 2018).

On the contrary, there are few records of the paleo-denudation rate. Based on the cosmogenic ^{10}Be data, from north of our studied area, Madella et al. (2018) determined paleo-denudation rates ranging from 0.5 to 15 m/Ma for the period 10.3-12.8 Ma ago. On the basis of estimations of porphyry copper weathering rates, Arancibia et al. (2006) estimated that the denudation was less than 16–35 m/Ma from the Oligocene to Late Miocene. Finally, Alpers and Brimhall (1988) determined that erosion rates on the order of 100m/Ma enabled the exhumation of the La Escondida porphyry copper

sometime between 33.7 and 18 Ma. These authors postulate that erosion dramatically decreased to less than 10m/Ma after ~15 Ma due to the onset of hyperaridity.

2.3 Sampling

A total of 14 samples were collected in the Centinela District, distributed in two different mine pits (nine samples from the Tesoro Central pit and five from the Mirador pit, see the location in Figure 4).

These two mines present different types of secondary copper mineralization. In the Mirador mine, the porphyry copper and related supergene mineralization is visible at the bottom of the pit. In the case of the Tesoro Central mine, the copper mineralization is within a gravel sedimentary sequence and corresponds to an exotic type copper deposit (described in Fernandez-Mort et al., 2017) (see Figure 4 and Figure 5). In the Tesoro Central pit, samples were collected at depths between 65 and 135 meters, with a denser sampling around the copper-rich exotic layer (see details in Figure 4 and Figure 5). In the Mirador pit, sampling was performed between 10 and 65 meters deep (see Figure 4 and Figure 5), above and below the 9.5 Ma-old Artola ignimbrite. On each sampling point, nearly 500 g of fine-to-coarse sediment was collected.

3 Methods based on cosmogenic nuclides

3.1 Basic systematics

In-situ cosmogenic nuclides are produced within the Earth’s surface material through nuclear reactions (mostly spallation but also muonic capture) caused by cosmic rays. Spallation processes occur within a couple of meters below the Earth’s surface (e.g., Lal 1991; Gosse and Phillips 2001). The concentration of *in situ*-produced nuclides (i.e., produced within the crystal lattice) reflects the time the mineral spent in the production zone (c.a. from the surface to a few meters below the surface). This is controlled by

the date of exposure initiation, the local **denudation rate and the local production rate** (e.g., Bierman and Steig 1996; Brown et al. 1995). Moreover, it has been shown that due to fluvial processes, it is possible to determine **that the concentrations of cosmogenic nuclides in detrital sediments have reached steady-state and can be used to determine** the catchment-wide spatial average denudation rate (Brown et al., 1995; Granger, Kirchner, and Finkel 1996). **In addition, as some of the cosmogenic nuclides are radioactive (e.g. ^{26}Al , ^{10}Be), a decay term must be considered, but it does not depend on the surface processes.**

Apart from the 'simple exposure' scenario resolved by a single nuclide, two cosmogenic nuclides can be analyzed together to calculate the rock burial duration after having been exposed to cosmic rays at the Earth's surface (Granger and Muzikar, 2001). This technique relies on the fact that two cosmogenic nuclides are similarly produced **at the Earth's surface, when the production ratio is known. When the host minerals are buried, their concentration in the various cosmogenic nuclides decay differently, therefore the ratio between them evolves.** This is most often achieved using the $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$ pair of cosmogenic nuclides (Balco and Shuster 2009). The burial time t_b is given by Equation 1, where N_A and N_B are nuclide concentrations at time t , P_A and P_B are the respective production rates, λ_A and λ_B are the respective decay constants (value of 0 for stable nuclides) and f is the scaling factor at the exposure location (Blard et al., 2019).

$$\frac{P_A}{N_A}e^{-\lambda_A t_b} - \frac{P_B}{N_B}e^{-\lambda_B t_b} = \frac{\lambda_A - \lambda_B}{f} \quad (\text{equation 1})$$

For a detrital basin such as the one studied here, the single clast cosmogenic nuclide concentration reflects a two-step-history (Figure 6).

First, the pre-burial (initial) ratio of the paired nuclides ($R_{AB}(0)$) depends on the production rates and on the duration of the sediment residence in the source. $R_{AB}(0)$ is acquired either during steady-state denudation rates (ϵ in Figure 6) or following a more complex exposure history in the uplands with successive temporary storage along hillslopes and along the river system (Lal 1991; Balco and Shuster 2009). Although transport durations of several tens of thousands years have been recently evidenced

for large pebbles in a modern Atacama river (Carretier et al., 2019), the subsequent transport duration from the catchment to the sedimentary basin is generally not long enough for a significant concentration to build up. This pre-burial step, usually called “inheritance”, is fundamental as it produces the cosmogenic nuclide content of newly-deposited sediments, which are used to decipher the history. In the case where some of the sediments underwent various cycles of exposure and burial, stable ^{21}Ne record the pre-burial history in a more dramatic manner than radioactive ^{10}Be . The homogeneity of the results discussed in the following makes the possibility of a complex pre-exposure improbable, except for two samples with high $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{10}\text{Be}$ ratios (e.g., samples ET-04 and MIR-11, Table 4). Finally, deposition within the sedimentary basin (at a rate S_r , Figure 6) leads to the second step of cosmogenic nuclide build-up, and this latter step is more important for low sedimentation rates. In the definition of t_b , it is assumed that the amount of cosmogenic nuclides produced during this step is negligible. This assumption may be wrong during the Centinela Basin infilling: in this case, t_b instead corresponds to a minimal estimation for the deposition time.

3.2 In situ cosmogenic ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne sample processing and measurements

Samples were prepared using the standard procedures (see supplementary information). Once pure quartz was obtained, the samples were split in two aliquots. The first one was used for ^{10}Be analysis, at GET and ASTER (except MIR-10, see **Error! Reference source not found.**).

The second quartz aliquot was used to measure the cosmogenic ^{21}Ne concentration at the CRPG Nancy noble gas lab (Table 3). During sample preparation, the grain morphology was checked. Some particular grain shapes were observed. For instance, quartz minerals present bipyramidal shapes (Figure 7) in sample MIR13-01, just above the 9.5 Ma-old ignimbrite (De Silva 1989; Riquelme et al. 2018). This crystal automorph shape suggests that it has a volcanic origin and was not transported over a long distance. MIR13-01 quartz minerals are likely to come from upstream erosion of the 9.5 Ma-old ignimbrite.

3.3 Simple burial

Following the systematics of cosmogenic nuclides, it is possible to derive a simple burial duration knowing the present-day concentrations of two nuclides with different radioactive half-lives as well as the scaling factor f (Equation 1). In practice, both the pre-burial exposure duration (or denudation rate) and the local production rate determines the pre-burial nuclides ratio, $R_{AB}(0)$ (Blard et al., 2019). However, when it is buried at low depth (< 10 m) or shielded by a slow sedimentation rate (< 10 m/Ma), the material is still exposed to cosmic rays. Hence, this results in an apparent burial duration (t_b) shorter than its real value. Burial durations computed with Equation 1 without any post deposition correction thus yield an end-member that is a minimum deposition time (t_b).

3.4 Inversion

We developed an R (R Core Team 2014) inversion program, called IMIS (available at <https://github.com/regard-vincent/IMIS>). It is based on a Monte Carlo approach, taking into account the evolution of the cosmogenic nuclide concentrations in a two-step clast history (Figure 6). The first step corresponds to the catchment denudation (box 1, Figure 6), neglecting the duration of the fluvial sediment transport to the basins. The catchment elevation is set to the current elevation of the basin. This choice is motivated by the following reasons: (1) there is evidence that the ancient total catchment relief was low (no more than several hundreds of meters; (2) the elevation of the basin may have changed, which means that our results are still valid, as mentioned in the discussion; and (3) further sensitivity tests indicate this is not critical for our analysis. The catchment denudation rate is allowed to vary in the code but is fixed in the inversions as presented in the following. This step allows to estimate the nuclide concentration from Equation 2 where P is the surface production, λ is the decay constant, ϵ is the denudation rate, ρ is the density and Λ is the attenuation coefficient; i denotes the various production pathways, usually spallation, and fast and stopped (negative) muons (see Brown et al. 1995; Granger, Kirchner, and Finkel 1996; Heisinger et al. 2002a; Heisinger et al. 2002b; Dunai 2010; Braucher et al. 2011). P depends on the elevation of the source rock; the sensitivity tests showed that,

in this context, potential changes in elevation did not significantly impact the results presented hereafter.

$$C = \sum_i \frac{P_i}{\lambda + \frac{\rho \varepsilon}{\Lambda_i}} \text{ (Equation 2)}$$

The second step corresponds to the sedimentation in the basin (box 2, Figure 6).

In our model, the basin infill is divided into periods, each being bounded by well-defined events such as the current surface, or in our case, the emplacement of the Artola ~9.5 Ma-old ignimbrite layer. A period is divided into various sub-periods with a random duration and a random sedimentation rate; the duration and thicknesses follow uniform laws whereas the sedimentation rate corresponds to the ratio between thickness and duration. The number of sub-periods is fixed to seven, typically. The total sedimentation during a period is adjusted (by a multiplication ratio) to satisfy its stratigraphic thickness. The basement rock and sediment densities are set to 2700 kg/m³ and 2300 kg/m³, respectively. Once a scenario has been drawn with its succession of sub-periods with specified sedimentation rates and durations, the model time is subsampled into time steps of 5 ka to compute the ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne concentrations, as described in the following.

During each time step, we compute the concentrations of ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne in two steps, first in box 1 and then in box 2. In box 1, the ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne concentrations are calculated depending on their respective production rates at the elevation of the catchment, and the average catchment denudation (Equation 2). These concentrations are attributed to the newly deposited surface layer in the basin in box 2. At each time step, the ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne concentrations in all of the deeper layers in the basin are updated taking both the decay of ¹⁰Be and the undersurface production of ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne over the last 5 ka (duration of one-time step) into account. This production strongly depends on the production scheme. The production at depth is often modelled with an exponential attenuation (although not for model HS, see below):

$$P_i(z) = P_i(z=0).e^{-\rho z / \Lambda_i}. \text{ (Equation 3)}$$

Since there are different models describing the attenuation of ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne production at depth that we explore in this study; we detail these models below. In the eroding areas (box 1), we only use one exponential attenuation scheme, while we use several schemes in the sedimentation area, called GH, BH, HS, BR (See **Error! Reference source not found.** and Figure 8 for more details). The first letter stands for the ^{10}Be production scheme: G for Granger and Muzikar (2001), B for Braucher et al. (2011), H for Heisinger et al. (2002). The second letter is indicative of the ^{21}Ne production scheme: H and S for Heisinger et al. (2002) and R for Braucher et al. (2011); ^{10}Be production SLHL is set to 4.15 at/g/a (Martin et al., 2017), and the $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{10}\text{Be}$ ratio is 4.12 (Balco and Shuster 2009a; Kober et al., 2011). As we will see, the production parameter choice has a strong influence on the modeled concentration and subsequently on the misfit between the measured concentrations and their modeled values.

Once the ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne concentrations have been updated, new ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne concentrations are computed for box 1, which themselves are assigned to a new surface layer of box 2 and so on for the different time steps until the total duration of the modeled period is reached. This endpoint is reached when the basin is filled.

The procedure described above constitutes a forward model that is run 5,000 times for different denudation and sedimentation scenarios in a Monte Carlo simulation. The best model parameters are then selected by minimizing the χ^2 misfit metric between the predicted and measured ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne concentrations, defined by Equation 2.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \left(\frac{C_{obs,i} - C_{mod,i}}{Err_i} \right)^2 \quad (\text{Equation 4})$$

where $C_{obs,i}$, $C_{mod,i}$ and Err_i are, respectively the observed concentration, the modelled concentration and associated analytical uncertainty for the sample n# i. For each Monte Carlo set of inversions, we calculated three minimum χ^2 values, one for each single nuclide (the concentrations in Equation 2 are only ^{10}Be or ^{21}Ne ones) and one considering together the misfit for the two nuclides (χ^2 calculated on the entire set of ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne data).

In order to validate our inversion model, IMIS, we tested it on Davis et al.’s dataset (2014) from the Atacama Desert gravels near our study zone. It provides similar results to the inversions processed by Davis et al. (2014); see supplementary material.

4 Results

4.1 Concentrations

Concentrations (Tables 2 and 3) are comprised between $(6 \pm 4) \times 10^6$ and $(1.38 \pm 0.09) \times 10^8$ at/g for ^{21}Ne (plus three samples that are below the detection limit) and are measurable for ^{10}Be (from $(1.8 \pm 0.3) \times 10^3$ at/g to $(9.70 \pm 0.32) \times 10^5$ at/g), indicating that the minimum burial duration must be less than ~18 Ma (in the case where the initial concentration is high, as in the present case), the time corresponding to the minimum detectable ^{10}Be concentration (Table 2 and Table 3).

4.2 Burial ages

Assuming that these samples underwent a single and instantaneous burial episode, these data indicate a burial duration (i.e. minimum deposition time) ranging from 6 to 18 Ma (Error! Reference source not found.). In the Tesoro Central pit, the obtained burial ages are relatively homogeneous along the stratigraphic column, around 11 Ma. These burial ages slightly increase from ~11 (~59 m-deep) to ~13 Ma 111 m below the surface (cf. Error! Reference source not found.). The samples located near the enriched copper layer display ages between 11 and 13 Ma. In the Mirador pit, the burial times reflect the stratigraphic order from ~7 Ma for the top samples, to ~14 Ma at a depth of 45 m below the surface. We decided to discard ET-04, because it is hard to reconcile it with the other data, as the burial duration of this sample is at odds with the stratigraphic order. This material probably underwent several exposure-burial cycles. Moreover, taking ET-04 into account increases the minimum χ^2 by one order of magnitude. Our reference inversion (production parameter BR, denudation rate = 5.10^{-4} m/a,

discussed below) gives two important clues. First, the deposition of the copper-rich layer is likely 10-14 Ma old (Figure 9), and is followed by a stage of rapid sedimentation ($\sim 10^{-4}$ m/a, cf. appendix). In fact, our misfit metric χ^2 is not very sensitive to input parameters, because the uncertainties are high compared to the measured concentrations (10-30% for ^{10}Be , **Error! Reference source not found.**, 6-70% for ^{21}Ne , Table 3). Our interpretations are thus robust and have limited dependency on the production scheme used (see appendix).

In the Mirador mining pit, the burial times reflect the stratigraphic order, from ~ 7 Ma for the top samples to ~ 14 Ma at a depth of 45 m below the surface. The upper ~ 7 Ma samples stand just above the 9.5 Ma-old Ar/Ar dated Artola ignimbrite, while the ~ 14 Ma deep samples are located dozens of meters below this (Figure 5). This observation indicates that the $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{10}\text{Be}$ burial durations (despite being minimal, not taking the production during deposition into account) are in agreement with the stratigraphic order (**Error! Reference source not found.**). Data from the Mirador pit better constrain sedimentation rate than the burial times, because the sedimentation rate is more efficient at varying the concentrations than radioactive decay.

4.3 Paleo-denudation and sedimentation rates, determined by forward modelling

The initial ^{21}Ne concentration in the sediments is the sum of ^{21}Ne acquired before the deposition, mostly during the material exhumation by denudation on hillslopes and ^{21}Ne produced during sedimentation. In the particular case of similar sedimentation and denudation rates, occurring at a similar elevation, half of the ^{21}Ne concentration comes from exposure on eroding hillslopes and half from sedimentation. In this case, Equation 2 can be inverted to obtain an integrated sedimentation and denudation rate. This sedimentation/denudation rate should therefore be interpreted as a

minimum estimate for both denudation and sedimentation. For Mirador, this minimum is in the range 0.9-12 m/Ma, a value that can be regarded as similar to modern values (cf. Martinod et al. 2016; Carretier et al. 2018). For Tesoro Central, this minimum is higher, except for ET-04 and lies around 20 m/Ma. The apparent disagreement likely comes from the fact that the samples are from different stratigraphic layers with different ages and therefore corresponding to different periods in the basin infilling history.

Various forward calculations were performed, with different source area denudation rates. First, for The Tesoro Central pit, the denudation rate is set to a low value for the last 10 Ma (its value has little implication for the inversion), and to a higher value for the older stages. A denudation rate of 500 m/Ma is used for reference; as seen in the following, a high denudation rate is needed to explain the low cosmogenic nuclide concentrations observed in the sedimentary column. Inversions can hardly produce low cosmogenic nuclide concentrations, irrespective of the muonic production scheme. The surface position did not vary much for the last 10 Ma, leaving time for significant production at depth. Hence, low concentrations cannot be easily modeled (modeled concentrations are most often too high compared to the observed data, Figure 10). Furthermore, we found that the inversions for the Tesoro Central pit cannot reach satisfactory values for source denudation rates lower than 250 m/Ma for the pre-9.5 Ma period (see Figure 11 and Table 5).

For the post-10 Ma period, we performed a forward model on the Mirador dataset, with different post-10 Ma denudation rates. For these latest stages, the results are affected by a lower uncertainty since the sampling of the Mirador site is denser. Best fits (low χ^2) yield relatively high denudation rates, higher than 50 m/Ma for the period 7-9.5 Ma (Figure 12. Figure 12).

4.4 Additional constraints on the copper-rich layer (Tesoro Central)

Our $^{10}\text{Be}/^{21}\text{Ne}$ data constrain the deposition age of the copper-rich layer in the Tesoro Central mining pit between 14 and 10 Ma. Moreover, the ^{10}Be concentration clearly increases towards the surface (Figure 10.A) as does ^{21}Ne (due to larger analytical uncertainties, this tendency is however questionable

for ^{21}Ne , Figure 10.B). This suggests either a slow sedimentation rate during the deposition of the copper-bearing layer or a hiatus just after its deposition: the ^{10}Be best fits usually imply a sedimentation rate of the order of 0.5-5 m/Ma. This observation is confirmed by inversions for ^{10}Be , where the modelled concentrations exhibit a peak of concentration near the top of the copper-bearing layer (Figure 10), with minimum sedimentation rates of 0.5-5 m/Ma for best fit scenarios. These features are observed for 90-100% of the ^{10}Be best inversion models (i.e. with varying sedimentation rates and production schemes); these conclusions are not sensitive to the muonic production scheme.

5 Discussion

Cosmogenic nuclide data show that the deposition of the copper-rich layer occurred during or just before a period of low sedimentation rates sometime between 10 and 14 Ma ago.

Robustness of the analysis

The analysis was performed for a source elevation of 2200 m, similar to the current mining pit elevation. It is possible that the source elevation was different at the time of deposition. The effect of this would be a higher initial content in cosmogenic nuclides (the production at 3000 m above sea level is 50% more than at 2200 m). Assuming an elevation that, 15 Ma ago, was 1000 m higher than today and considering that an important episode of Andean uplift has been documented as having occurred in the Miocene (probably a maximum given that the apatite fission tracks and U-Th/He ages are older than 30 Myr in this area; Sanchez et al. 2018) the difference in the cosmogenic nuclide concentration due to a production rate variation would be lower than those due to the variations in the denudation rates that we explored (1-1000 m/Ma). As a result, we consider our findings to be robust regardless of the initial elevation: the denudation rate thresholds discussed in the next paragraph are slightly offset towards higher denudation rates for higher source areas. It is also possible that the Chilean forearc was uplifted ~1 km in late Miocene (e.g., Riquelme et al. 2003; Jordan et al. 2014). In that case, all of

our samples may have been eroded and deposited at lower elevation, with a smaller production rate. Again, this difference is included in the range of denudation rates tested. We also tested the effect of the density used for the sedimentary column: varying it between 1800 and 2500 kg/m³ only changes our conclusions with regards to younger sedimentation ages for denser sediment infilling. It does not significantly affect our deductions and only shifts our conclusions towards slightly younger sedimentation ages if the material density is considered (cf. Supporting Information). The fit is slightly better for higher densities because a higher density limits the cosmogenic nuclide production in samples at great depth. For these samples, the predicted cosmogenic nuclide concentrations are too high, particularly with low source denudation rates.

The two pits investigated are complementary and provide information about the history of the denudation/sedimentation rates (Table 5). Data from the Tesoro Central pit show that, before 9.5 Ma ago, there was a period of rapid sedimentation (more than 50 m/Ma) of a material produced in a source area subject to high denudation (more than 250 m/Ma). This period was probably short, spanning about 1 Ma, the exact timing of which remains unclear: sometime between 14 and 10 Ma ago. The short duration of this episode of rapid sedimentation makes it compatible with the long-term averaged low denudation rates recorded in the area (16-35 m/Myr from the Oligocene to late Miocene; Arancibia, Matthews, and De Arce 2006). After 9.5 Ma (and before ~7 Ma ago), the source denudation rate and basin sedimentation dropped but remained significant, probably higher than 50 m/Ma. This is higher than what was observed by Davis et al. (2014) for the same period further south (1-10 m/Ma). In the two pits, the sedimentation rate post 9.5 Ma is lower than 2 m/Ma, which is similar to what Davis et al. (2014) observed (Table 5).

Currently, the Centinela Basin is fed by a 2041 km²-wide catchment. The sedimentary basin itself has a surface area of 204 km², or one tenth of the catchment area. If all of the sediment was retained by the basin, its long-term sedimentation rate would be ten times the denudation rate. If a sediment by-pass occurred, this rate should be less. Assuming that the feeder catchment has not changed much

over the last 15 Ma, which seems reasonable for the Atacama, a catchment denudation rate as high as 250 m/Ma would have filled the Centinela Basin in a very short amount of time (50 ka). This duration may be correct, corresponding to a very transitory stage; our data cannot rule it out. This duration could also be overestimated due to a smaller contributing area, as proposed below.

High denudation rates for the Atacama

It is surprising that large denudation/sedimentation rates occurred after the exotic copper deposition (sometime between 10 and 14 Ma BP) and before the 9.5 Ma-old ignimbrite, while hyper-aridity was established (e.g., Sillitoe and McKee 1996; Dunai, Lopez, and Juez-Larre 2005; Rech et al. 2006; Rech et al. 2010; Evenstar et al. 2009; Jordan et al. 2014; Oerter et al. 2016). Sedimentation rates up to 100 m/Ma and denudation rates of more than 250 m/Ma are unexpected and have never been mentioned in the literature (Carretier et al. 2018), with the exception of the very rapid incision rate of the Loa River in the Pleistocene (~1800 m/Ma; Ritter et al., 2018). For example, paleo-denudation rates deduced from ^{10}Be concentrations in sediment from the El Diablo formation, 400 km north of our study area, have remained on the order of 1-15 m/Ma between 12.8 and 10.3 Ma ago (Madella et al. 2018). Yet, our findings appear robust with respect to different cosmogenic scaling schemes. Compared to long-term denudation rates, these values > 250 m/Ma are still high. The thermochronological data provided by Sanchez et al. (2018) obtained in this area imply 2.5 to 3 km of denudation during the last 30-50 Ma (average denudation rates of 50-100 m/Ma). Considering that the denudation occurred mainly before 10 Ma ago (e.g., Arancibia et al., 2006; Riquelme et al., 2018), the average denudation rates deduced from the data of Sanchez et al. (2018) increase up to 150 m/Ma (denudation of 3 km during the period 30-10 Ma ago). One probable scenario is the occurrence of a wetter period before 10 Ma ago. In fact, Ritter et al. (2018) showed that river incision is strongly limited by the available water in Atacama. By dating a Pleistocene lake to the north of the Centinela District, they found that the ~500 m incision of the Loa River occurred very rapidly in the last ~270 ka, during a wetter period.

If the climate alone is responsible for these large paleo-denudation rates, then hyper-aridity must have taken place in this particular area at about 10 Ma ago.

A second possibility is that the sedimentation was constrained by fault activity. For example, Sanchez (2017) produced thermochronological data suggesting activity of a nearby major fault in late Miocene between the Precordillera and the Atacama Salar (see location in Figure 2.A). In this case of active tectonics, the expected denudation/sedimentation signal must have been transient, with fast denudation/sedimentation.

To explain these high denudation rates, another hypothesis could be that the basin records a regressive erosion wave during pediment emplacement (Figure 13). Based on sedimentological facies and detrital zircons, Riquelme et al. (2018) proposed a pedimentation phase during late Miocene in the same area based on sedimentological and provenance evidence. The existence of persistent steep and elongated reliefs in the region, interpreted as back-scarp relief (Paskoff 1977; Riquelme et al., 2018) suggests that the pedimentation process could have been proceeded by back-scarp retreat (Figure 13). Locally at the position of the back-scarp, where the topography is steeper, the denudation rates may be much higher than the average regional value (Strudley and Murray 2007), providing most of the sediment delivered to our study basins. This average regional denudation rate could therefore have been higher 10 Ma ago (see next paragraph). A higher transient and localized denudation rate would be consistent with the strong slope control of the watershed denudation rate documented in Chile (Carretier et al., 2013) and elsewhere (e.g. Binnie et al., 2007).

Hyperaridity onset timing

The date for the onset of hyperaridity in Atacama has been extensively discussed based on sedimentological arguments (e.g., Hartley and Chong 2002), surface exposure ages (e.g., Dunai et al., 2005) and supergene mineralization ages (e.g., Reich et al., 2009). The proposed timing for hyper-aridification includes Oligocene to Pleistocene ages, and progressive-to-abrupt changes. Ritter et al.

(2018) proposed that this debate can be reconciled by taking local climates in Atacama into account. According to these authors, the driest places can have undergone hyper-arid conditions since late Miocene or even Oligocene, whereas other locations have been subjected to varying conditions with alternating arid periods and wetter local conditions. Our data strongly suggest that, during the Neogene, there was a decrease in the denudation rates of the hills in this Atacama region that have provided sediments to our studied basin. The average denudation rate decreased from > 250 m/Ma between 14-10 Ma (Tesoro Central data) to > 50 m/Ma between 9.5-7 Ma (Mirador data). Nowadays, these rates are much lower at < 10 m/Ma (e.g., Placzek et al., 2010; Ritter et al., 2018). This decrease can be explained solely by the hills surrounding the Centinela basins having a smaller slope (Figure 13). The pedimentation and progressively increasing distance between the source and the basin evidenced by Riquelme et al. (2018) during the Miocene must have been associated with a scarp retreat and relief decrease, as well as decreasing denudation rates. The slope is indeed a decisive control on denudation in Chile (Carretier et al., 2018). This does not discard the possibility that progressive hyper-aridification during the Neogene also contributed to the documented denudation decrease. Furthermore, in the basin at the Tesoro Central pit, the sedimentation rate dropped sharply after ~10 Ma. As discussed above, local tectonic conditions controlling the accommodation space as well as the upstream variations in the source area may explain this decrease. Recent research on the eastern border of the Precordillera suggests that local exhumation occurred during the Mid-Miocene from which we can assume a reactivation of the drainage and a higher denudation rate (Sanchez et al., in prep). This does not discard the hypothesis that hyperaridification played a role. In conclusion, both geomorphological and climatic variations can explain our data.

Supergene copper layer dating

In this framework, the Tesoro Central copper-bearing layer is likely to be 10-14 Ma-old (Figure 9). It is important to note that this age cannot be much older, simply because there would be no detectable ¹⁰Be left in the deepest samples. This age is much younger than the age of ~21 Ma attributed to this

layer by lateral correlation (Oerter et al., 2016) with another exotic layer in the Tesoro NE pit found at a distance of 3 km (Figure 2), where supergene minerals were dated by Riquelme et al. (2018). On the contrary, our ages correspond well to the age range of other supergene mineralizations dated at 15-12 Ma in the same district (Figure 2) (Riquelme et al., 2018). This implies that the other exotic deposit in Tesoro Central, above the one we dated, is younger than 10-14 Ma and older than the 9.5 Ma ignimbrite. We therefore provide the first evidence of two exotic deposits in this district in a restricted period between 14 and 9.5 Ma. The exotic layer we have dated corresponds to a particular stage in the geomorphological evolution of this region. It terminates with a stage of low sedimentation (preceding the episode of high sedimentation), for which the best inversions of the ^{10}Be data give median values around 0.5-5 m/Ma. This low sedimentation rate, contemporaneous with the supergene mineralization, is consistent with other studies on the same copper-bearing layer. The low field magnetic susceptibility (AMS) has shown that exotic copper deposits correspond to lower sedimentation rates (Pizarro et al., 2018). Copper minerals infilling the sediment porosity in beds truncated by erosion indicate that exotic mineralization is syngenetic to sedimentation and occurs near the surface under high evaporation rates, as expressed by C and O isotopy (Fernández-Mort et al., 2017).

6 Conclusions

In this study we have combined data from two cosmogenic nuclides (^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne) in order to date and rate mid-Miocene denudation and clastic deposition rates with the aim to better understand the evolution of the late Miocene landscape and the conditions in which exotic copper deposits form in the Atacama Desert.

For the first time, we have proven that in-situ produced cosmogenic nuclides (here the $^{10}\text{Be}/^{21}\text{Ne}$ pair) are useful to provide constraints on the dynamics, age, and conditions of an ore deposit formation:

the studied exotic layer deposited between 10 and 14 Ma ago, which is almost 10 Ma younger than previously reported by lateral correlation. Moreover, the vertical profile within this layer suggests that it emplaced during a low-deposition rate (quiescent) episode (sedimentation rate of the order of few m/Ma). Exotic copper mineralization is probably promoted by a near-surface position under a high-evaporation setting (Pizarro et al., 2018; Fernández-Mort et al., 2017).

Our $^{10}\text{Ne}/^{21}\text{Ne}$ data also established the temporal evolution of the denudation rates in the area which drop around 10 Ma, confirming in the Atacama Desert the onset of hyperaridity in late Miocene proposed by other authors. The current extremely low denudation rate (of the order of 1 m/Ma) has not been continuous for the last 10 Ma. Our data records a > 50 m/Ma denudation rate for the period ~7-10 Ma ago. The preceding period (roughly 10-14 Ma ago) recorded even higher denudation rates, of more than 250 m/Ma, contemporaneous to sedimentation rates over 50 m/Ma. The decrease in the post-14-10 Ma denudation rates records either a progressive aridification of the climate or a slope decrease associated with active tectonics or pediment development, or possibly both phenomena acting at the same time. Consequently, we do not recommend using our results to argue for a progressive (using the paleo-denudation record), or drastic (using the paleo-sedimentation record) establishment of hyperaridity. Our data further support the hypothesis that 14-10 Ma was a crucial time for the landscape evolution in the western Central Andes and that this change (whatever it is, tectonic and/or climatic) was concomitant with the occurrence of copper mineralizations.

The success of our analysis was probably favored by the local large thickness of the sedimentary deposits, allowing for more-detailed records than elsewhere within the regional framework. Although sediments this old (> 10 Ma) have only rarely been used for cosmogenic nuclide analyses, our work provides evidence for the potential of cosmogenic nuclide geochemistry and helps push the limits of this technique following recent advances (e.g., Charreau et al. 2011; Davis et al. 2014; Val and Hoke 2016; Madella et al. 2018).

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7 Tables

Table 1. Cosmogenic production schemes, derived from Granger and Muzikar (2001, GR), Braucher et al. (2011, BH and BR), Heisinger et al. (2002; 2002, labelled H and for Neon production in GR, BR, HS). ^{10}Be production SLHL is set to 4.15 at/g/a (Martin et al., 2017), and the $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{10}\text{Be}$ ratio is 4.12 (Balco and Shuster 2009a; Kober et al. 2011).

		GH	BH	HS	BR
Beryllium-10	Spallation	Λ , Attenuation coefficient (kg/m^2)		1600	
		Λ , Attenuation coefficients (kg/m^2)		7380 / 26880 / 43600	15000 / 43200
	Muons	Surface production ratio (%)		1.8 / 0.4 / 0.4	0.15 / 0.51
				0.28/0.92	0.15 / 0.51
Neon-21		^{21}Ne to ^{10}Be spallation production ratio		4.12	
		Λ , Attenuation coefficients (kg/m^2)		H	Idem ^{10}Be
	Muons	Surface production ratio (%)		0 / 3.6	

Table 2. ^{10}Be concentrations. † denote a sample entirely processed at CEREGE. Final uncertainty is corrected for process blank, AMS standard and AMS systematic error.

Sample	Mass Quartz g	Carrier ^9Be at	N ^{10}Be	Measured $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$	uncertainty measure+blank %	$[^{10}\text{Be}]$ at/g	+/-
Process blank							
All samples except MIR-10		2.39E+19	38	4.73E-15	16.29%		
MIR-10 only		2.04E+19	41	5.41E-15	15.66%		
El Tesoro							
ET-01	67.35	2.39E+19	15	2.67E-14	25.86%	7817	2021
ET-02	62.13	2.41E+19	14	2.44E-14	31.75%	7630	2423
ET-03	66.51	2.39E+19	18	1.87E-14	29.98%	5030	1508
ET-04	68.28	2.40E+19	15	1.44E-14	26.70%	3378	902
ET-05	59.82	2.41E+19	54	2.28E-14	14.45%	7288	1053
ET-06	6.19	2.37E+19	46	5.87E-15	26.77%	4337	1161
ET-07	13.31	2.38E+19	67	6.45E-15	12.30%	3059	376
ET-08	57.76	2.41E+19	28	8.98E-15	18.95%	1774	336
ET-09	19.66	2.38E+19	44	7.46E-15	15.50%	3298	511
AMS blank ET			4	4.75E-16			
El Mirador							
MIR-01	12.35	2.38E+19	327	4.00E-14	5.71%	68021	3887
MIR-04	2.79	2.38E+19	1202	8.17E-14	3.26%	657012	21426
MIR-05	3.70	2.38E+19	1176	1.56E-13	3.32%	969755	32215
MIR-11	3.60	2.39E+19	30	5.50E-15	18.31%	5133	940
AMS blank MIR, except MIR-10			3	4.23E-16			
MIR-10†	15.40	2.04E+19	71	8.67E-15	15.03%	4320	2151
AMS blank MIR-10			5	5.52E-16			

† sample prepared and measured at CEREGE

Final uncertainty is corrected for process blank.

899 **Table 3.** ²¹Ne concentrations (cf. Supporting Information)

Sample	Mass Quartz mg	Extraction temperature (°C)	[²⁰ Ne] 10 ³ at/g	+/- (1σ)	²¹ Ne/ ²⁰ Ne	+/- (1σ)	²² Ne/ ²⁰ Ne	+/- (1σ)	Computed cosmogenic [²¹ Ne] 10 ⁸ at/g	+/- (1σ)	Computed cosmogenic [²¹ Ne] 10 ⁸ at/g	+/- (1σ)
El Tesoro												
ET-01	173.6	600	3.3	0.1	0.00274	0.00010	0.10095	0.00289	< DL		< DL	
	173.6	1400	51.7	0.6	0.00288	0.00008	0.10130	0.00248	< DL			
ET-02	149.8	600	7.6	0.2	0.00314	0.00008	0.10201	0.00224	1.8	0.8	8.8	5.8
	149.8	1400	61	0.6	0.00302	0.00008	0.10055	0.00245	7	5		
ET-03	147.7	1400	41	0.5	0.00309	0.00010	0.10191	0.00305			8	4
ET-04	185.5	1400	36.1	0.5	0.00629	0.00017	0.10181	0.00287			123	7
ET-05	156.5	1400	32	0.5	0.00316	0.00012	0.10158	0.00343			8	4
ET-06	105.6	1400	7.1	0.4	0.00386	0.00071	0.10560	0.01955			7	5
ET-07	185.6	1400	31	0.5	0.00317	0.00011	0.10155	0.00313			8	4
ET-08	195.4	1400	37	0.5	0.00307	0.00009	0.10070	0.00273			6	4
ET-09	211.8	1400	44.5	0.6	0.00296	0.00008	0.10115	0.00243			< DL	
El Mirador												
MIR-01	215.1	1400	2.8	0.4	0.00638	0.00122	0.10303	0.02390			10	4
MIR-04	155.1	1400	5.1	0.4	0.02602	0.00335	0.12506	0.02047			118	20
MIR-05	145.9	600	0.1	0.1	0.00845	0.00298	0.08614	0.06122	0.7	0.6		
	145.9	1400	38.4	0.5	0.00645	0.00019	0.10512	0.00327	137	8	137.7	8.6
MIR-10	162.3	600	3	0.1	0.00297	0.00010	0.09969	0.00314	< DL		21.4	5.5
	162.3	1400	59.3	0.7	0.00326	0.00008	0.10177	0.00247	21.4	5.5		
MIR-11	79.8	1400	4.3	0.1	0.00274	0.00013	0.09973	0.00402			< DL	

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905 **Table 4.** ²¹Ne/¹⁰Be burial duration (i.e., minimum deposition time, cf. text).

Sample	Depth (m)	¹⁰ Be concentration		²¹ Ne conc. x10 ⁶		²¹ Ne/ ¹⁰ Be	Burial time (source elev ≈2500m)		Burial time (source elev ≈4000m)		Minimum erosion and sedimentation rate	
		at/g	+/-	at/g	+/-		Ma	+/-	Ma	+/-	m/myr	
ET-01	57	7985	3273	<DL								
ET-02	59	7815	3968	8.80	5.80	1126	11.2	1.5	11.2	1.5		21.7
ET-03	63	5201	2619	8	4	1538	11.8	1.4	11.8	1.5		19.0
ET-04	84	3545	1713	123	7	34699	16.9	1	17.5	1		1.0
ET-05	105	7479	1786	8	4	1070	11.0	1.1	11.1	1.1		15.3
ET-06	106	6156	7116	7	5	1137	11.2	2	11.2	2.1		17.1
ET-07	108	3907	1899	8	4	2048	12.3	1.4	12.4	1.5		16.7
ET-08	111	1973	892	6	4	3042	13.2	1.6	13.2	1.6		22.3
ET-09	115	3873	1790	<DL								
MIR-01	18	68021	6209	10	4	147	7.0	0.8	7.1	0.8		11.9
MIR-04	13	657012	32335	118	20	180	6.4	0.2	7.0	0.3		1.0
MIR-05	12	969755	46786	137.70	8.60	142	5.8	0.1	6.4	0.1		0.9
MIR-11	45	4320	2057	21.40	5.50	4954	13.9	1.1	14.1	1.1		7.1
MIR-10	63	5133	8383	<DL								

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Table 5. Summary of information on sedimentation and denudation rates inferred from the analysis presented in this work.

Time period	Sedimentation rate (m/My)	Source denudation rate (m/My)
Present	<2	<1
7 Ma - present	<2	<10
9.5 - 7 Ma	<2	>50
x - 9.5Ma	>100	>250
Deposition of the copper rich layer. Ends sometime between 10 and 14 Ma (= x)		
	0.5-5	>250

8 Figures

Figure 1: Onset of (hyper)aridity in the Atacama Desert. A. Map of the Atacama Desert in northern Chile with study site locations and data type; the colors refer to the main morphostructural domain (CC : Coastal Cordillera, CD : Central Depression, PC : Precordillera, AS : Atacama Salar, WC : Western Cordillera). The red rectangle represents the Centinela District position. B. Review of the aridity and hyperaridity onset timing inferred from various methods (method indicated in square in B.); light grey for aridity and dark grey for hyperaridity.

Figure 2 A. Location of the Centinela District via an oblique view of northern Chile in Google Earth. B. Geological map modified after Riquelme et al. (2018) 1. Post-mid-Miocene poorly consolidated gravel deposits constituting the alluvial fans observed on the landscape surface; 2. Eocene mineralized porphyry intrusions (45-39 Ma) 3. Upper Cretaceous sedimentary and volcanic rocks. 4. Cretaceous and Paleocene intrusions. 5. Jurassic calcareous rocks. 6. Upper Paleozoic and Triassic basement. E. Esperanza gravels. I, TII and TIII. Tesoro I, II and TIII gravels, respectively. At. Atravesado gravels. Ar. Arrieros gravels. A-A' shows the location of the structural profile C.

Figure 3: Quantification of the erosion (denudation) rates in the northern Chilean Atacama Desert (18-30°S) over decades shown in red (suspended sediment gauging), over millennia shown in blue or green (cosmogenic isotopes to measure either local or catchment-averaged denudation rates) or over million years shown in purple (incision of geological surfaces) (extracted from the database of Carretier et al., 2018). The box width reflects the number of data (indicated inside or under the box).

Figure 4: Aerial views of the Tesoro Central and Mirador open-pit mines (A. and B., respectively) with sampling paths. 1. View of part of the Tesoro Central sampling path focused on the exotic-Cu ore deposit layer (highlighted in turquoise) with sample locations (for the entire column sampling refer to Figure 5). 2. View of the Mirador open-pit mine sampling path with the contact between the gravels and Cu-Supergene deposit and sample locations.

Figure 5: Sedimentary columns of the Tesoro Central and Mirador open-pit mines (adapted from Fernández-Mort et al., 2017) with the sampling depths, gravel formation names and sedimentary details. The 9.52 ± 0.02 Ma age for the Artola ignimbrite has been measured by Riquelme et al. (2018).

Figure 6: The conceptual model upon which the inversion is designed. There are two independent steps in the clast history. First, they erode upstream and are transported toward the sedimentary basin (box 1 of the inversion program) and, second, they are covered by sediments during the basin infilling (box 2 of the inversion program).

Figure 7: Bipyramid automorph quartz found in MIR13-01 reworked from 9.5 Ma-old ignimbrite (Riquelme et al. 2018)

Figure 8. Production vs. depth (log scale) for the different schemes (left: ^{10}Be ; right: ^{21}Ne). The different colored lines represent the different production rate schemes tested: GH, BH, HS and BR (see Table 1 for further details).

Figure 9: Reference inversion for the El Tesoro mining pit (BR). (A) The color corresponds to the χ^2 value: light yellow to brown, where a darker color is a better fit; the grey areas correspond to the tested scenario leading to improbable χ^2 values. The sample positions correspond to the ticks on the left; the copper layer is highlighted in turquoise. The inversion is constrained at three positions: arbitrary initial ($t = 20$ Ma, $z = -160$ m), ignimbrite layer ($t = 9.5 \pm 0.3$ Ma, $z = -10$ m) and surface ($t = 0$, $z = 0$). (B) Explanations of how to read this graph.

Figure 10. Cosmogenic isotope concentration (reference inversion) according to depth (Tesoro Central), A. for ^{10}Be and B. for ^{21}Ne . For both figures, the light colors correspond to every Monte Carlo scenario tested; the bold lines represent the best χ^2 scenario for ^{10}Be only, ^{21}Ne only and for both nuclides in blue, red and black, respectively. The circles and associated horizontal lines indicate the measured concentrations and their related uncertainties.

Figure 11. Best χ^2 for El Tesoro in function of the source area denudation rate for the period older than 9.5 Ma, for various production schemes for both nuclides (^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , logarithmic χ^2 -scale). The points indicate the best χ^2 from the inversions, the trend is drawn as lines.

Figure 12. χ^2 for the El Mirador pit (without MIR-01, which derives from an ignimbrite) in function of the source area denudation rate for the period younger than 9.5 Ma, for various production schemes for either ^{10}Be (top, linear χ^2 -scale) or ^{21}Ne and ^{10}Be data (bottom, logarithmic χ^2 -scale). The latter shows that low values are reached for denudation rates higher than ~ 40 m/Ma.

Figure 13. Back-scarp retreat model. It is possible that the basins were roughly located at the location of a scarp ~ 12 Ma ago, with the rapidly eroding scarp ($\epsilon > 250$ m/Ma) as the main source of sediment.

981 Subsequently, the back-scarp gradually retreated to the present, with an intermediate period marked
982 by intermediate denudation rates and the Artola ignimbrite deposition at 9.5 Ma BP. The current state
983 is characterized by low denudation rates (< 10 m/Ma).

984

985 **9 Data Sharing and Data Accessibility**

986 The data that support the findings of this study are found in the core of the paper, except the code
987 IMIS, openly available in GitHub at <https://github.com/regard-vincent/IMIS>.

		GH		BH	HS	BR
Beryllium-10	Spallation	Λ , Attenuation coefficient (kg/m ²)		1600		
	Muons	Λ , Attenuation coefficients (kg/m ²)	7380 / 26880 / 43600	15000 / 43200	H	15000 / 43200
		Surface production ratio (%)	1.8 / 0.4 / 0.4	0.15 / 0.51	0.28/0.92	0.15 / 0.51
		²¹ Ne to ¹⁰ Be spallation production ratio		4.12		
Neon-21	Muons	Λ , Attenuation coefficients (kg/m ²)		H		Idem ¹⁰ Be
		Surface production ratio (%)		0 / 3.6		

Sample	Mass Quartz g	Carrier ⁹ Be at	N ¹⁰ Be	Measured ¹⁰ Be/ ⁹ Be	uncertainty measure+blank %	[¹⁰ Be] at/g	+/-
Process blank							
All samples except MIR-10		2.39E+19	38	4.73E-15	16.29%		
MIR-10 only		2.04E+19	41	5.41E-15	15.66%		
El Tesoro							
ET-01	67.35	2.39E+19	15	2.67E-14	25.86%	7817	2021
ET-02	62.13	2.41E+19	14	2.44E-14	31.75%	7630	2423
ET-03	66.51	2.39E+19	18	1.87E-14	29.98%	5030	1508
ET-04	68.28	2.40E+19	15	1.44E-14	26.70%	3378	902
ET-05	59.82	2.41E+19	54	2.28E-14	14.45%	7288	1053
ET-06	6.19	2.37E+19	46	5.87E-15	26.77%	4337	1161
ET-07	13.31	2.38E+19	67	6.45E-15	12.30%	3059	376
ET-08	57.76	2.41E+19	28	8.98E-15	18.95%	1774	336
ET-09	19.66	2.38E+19	44	7.46E-15	15.50%	3298	511
AMS blank ET			4	4.75E-16			
El Mirador							
MIR-01	12.35	2.38E+19	327	4.00E-14	5.71%	68021	3887
MIR-04	2.79	2.38E+19	1202	8.17E-14	3.26%	657012	21426
MIR-05	3.70	2.38E+19	1176	1.56E-13	3.32%	969755	32215
MIR-11	3.60	2.39E+19	30	5.50E-15	18.31%	5133	940
AMS blank MIR, except MIR-10			3	4.23E-16			
MIR-10†	15.40	2.04E+19	71	8.67E-15	15.03%	4320	2151
AMS blank MIR-10			5	5.52E-16			

† sample prepared and measured at CEREGE

Final uncertainty is corrected for process blank.

Sample	Mass Quartz mg	Extraction temperature (°C)	[²⁰ Ne] 10 ⁹ at/g	+/- (1σ)	²¹ Ne/ ²⁰ Ne	+/- (1σ)	²² Ne/ ²⁰ Ne	+/- (1σ)	Computed cosmogenic [²¹ Ne] 10 ⁶ at/g	+/- (1σ)	Computed cosmogenic [²¹ Ne] 10 ⁶ at/g	+/- (1σ)
El Tesoro												
ET-01	173.6	600	3.3	0.1	0.00274	0.00010	0.10095	0.00289	< DL		< DL	
	173.6	1400	51.7	0.6	0.00288	0.00008	0.10130	0.00248	< DL			
ET-02	149.8	600	7.6	0.2	0.00314	0.00008	0.10201	0.00224	1.8	0.8	8.8	5.8
	149.8	1400	61	0.6	0.00302	0.00008	0.10055	0.00245	7	5		
ET-03	147.7	1400	41	0.5	0.00309	0.00010	0.10191	0.00305			8	4
ET-04	185.5	1400	36.1	0.5	0.00629	0.00017	0.10181	0.00287			123	7
ET-05	156.5	1400	32	0.5	0.00316	0.00012	0.10158	0.00343			8	4
ET-06	105.6	1400	7.1	0.4	0.00386	0.00071	0.10560	0.01955			7	5
ET-07	185.6	1400	31	0.5	0.00317	0.00011	0.10155	0.00313			8	4
ET-08	195.4	1400	37	0.5	0.00307	0.00009	0.10070	0.00273			6	4
ET-09	211.8	1400	44.5	0.6	0.00296	0.00008	0.10115	0.00243			< DL	
El Mirador												
MIR-01	215.1	1400	2.8	0.4	0.00638	0.00122	0.10303	0.02390			10	4
MIR-04	155.1	1400	5.1	0.4	0.02602	0.00335	0.12506	0.02047			118	20
MIR-05	145.9	600	0.1	0.1	0.00845	0.00298	0.08614	0.06122	0.7	0.6		
	145.9	1400	38.4	0.5	0.00645	0.00019	0.10512	0.00327	137	8	137.7	8.6
MIR-10	162.3	600	3	0.1	0.00297	0.00010	0.09969	0.00314	< DL		21.4	5.5
	162.3	1400	59.3	0.7	0.00326	0.00008	0.10177	0.00247	21.4	5.5		
MIR-11	79.8	1400	4.3	0.1	0.00274	0.00013	0.09973	0.00402			< DL	

Sample	Depth (m)	¹⁰ Be concentration		²¹ Ne conc. x10 ⁶		²¹ Ne/ ¹⁰ Be	Burial time (source elev =2500m)		Burial time (source elev =4000m)		Minimum erosion and sedimentation rate	
		at/g	+/-	at/g	+/-		Ma	+/-	Ma	+/-	m/myr	
ET-01	57	7985		3273	<DL							
ET-02	59	7815		3968	8.80	5.80	1126	11.2 1.5		11.2 1.5		21.7
ET-03	63	5201		2619	8	4	1538	11.8 1.4		11.8 1.5		19.0
ET-04	84	3545		1713	123	7	34699	16.9 1		17.5 1		1.0
ET-05	105	7479		1786	8	4	1070	11.0 1.1		11.1 1.1		15.3
ET-06	106	6156		7116	7	5	1137	11.2 2		11.2 2.1		17.1
ET-07	108	3907		1899	8	4	2048	12.3 1.4		12.4 1.5		16.7
ET-08	111	1973		892	6	4	3042	13.2 1.6		13.2 1.6		22.3
ET-09	115	3873		1790	<DL							
MIR-01	18	68021		6209	10	4	147	7.0 0.8		7.1 0.8		11.9
MIR-04	13	657012		32335	118	20	180	6.4 0.2		7.0 0.3		1.0
MIR-05	12	969755		46786	137.70	8.60	142	5.8 0.1		6.4 0.1		0.9
MIR-11	45	4320		2057	21.40	5.50	4954	13.9 1.1		14.1 1.1		7.1
MIR-10	63	5133		8383	<DL							

Time period	Sedimentation rate (m/My)	Source denudation rate (m/My)
Present	<2	<1
7 Ma - present	<2	<10
9.5 - 7 Ma	<2	>50
x - 9.5Ma	>100	>250
Deposition of the copper rich layer. Ends sometime between 10 and 14 Ma (= x)	0.5-5	>250

Sanchez et al. Figure 2

Sanchez et al. Figure 5

Sanchez et al. Figure 6

Bipyramid automorph quartz found in MIR13-01 reworked from 9.5 Ma-old ignimbrite (Riquelme et al., 2018)

111x80mm (72 x 72 DPI)

Sanchez et al. Figure 8

Sanchez et al. Figure 10

Sanchez et al. Figure 11

Sanchez et al. Figure 12

Sanchez et al. Figure 13

Supporting information

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1 Sample preparation

Samples were first crushed and sieved to select the granulometric fraction between 0.5 and 1 mm. Magnetic minerals were separated from the bulk by a magnetic separator (Frantz L-1). Then, the non-magnetic fractions underwent a series of leaching steps with a mixture of concentrated hydrochloric and hexafluorosilicic acids to remove all minerals but quartz. Meteoric ¹⁰Be was removed from quartz by three partial dissolutions with concentrated hydrofluoric acid (Brown et al., 1991). Decontaminated quartz was then divided into two aliquots.

The first aliquots were used for ¹⁰Be analysis at GET (except MIR-10, see **Error! Reference source not found.**). Decontaminated quartz was totally dissolved with concentrated hydrofluoric acid after adding ~310 µg of ⁹Be carrier (~2.4 x 10¹⁹ atoms of ⁹Be, Table 2). The resulting solutions were evaporated until dryness and samples were re-dissolved with hydrochloric acid.

Meanwhile the sample preparation the grain morphology was observed and specific grain shapes were observed. In sample MIR13-01, , which is stratigraphically just above the 9.5 Ma-old ignimbrite (De Silva, 1989; Riquelme et al., 2018), the quartz minerals present bipyramidal shapes (see **Error! Reference source not found.**7). This crystal automorph shape suggests that it has a volcanic origin and was not transported over a long distance. MIR13-01 quartz minerals are thus likely to come from upstream erosion of the 9.5 Ma-old ignimbrite.

Afterwards, samples passed through an anion exchange column to remove iron and a cation exchange column to discard boron and recover Be. Finally, the eluted Be was precipitated to Be(OH)₂ with concentrated ammonia and oxidized to BeO. After target preparation at CEREGE by mixing Niobium powder with the BeO, the ¹⁰Be/⁹Be ratios were measured by Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) at the French National AMS Facility ASTER of CEREGE in Aix-en-Provence (Arnold et al., 2010). The measured ¹⁰Be/⁹Be ratios were calibrated against a house standard STD-11 with an assigned value of (1.191 ± 0.013) x 10⁻¹¹ (Braucher et al., 2015). This calibration procedure is similar to the KNSTD07 standardization (Nishiizumi et al., 2007; Braucher et al., 2015). Analytical 1σ uncertainties include uncertainties in AMS counting statistics, uncertainty in the ¹⁰Be/⁹Be standard, an external AMS error

of 0.5% (Arnold et al., 2010), and a chemical blank measurement. In all computations, a ^{10}Be half-life of $(1.387 \pm 0.01) \times 10^6$ years was used (Chmeleff et al., 2010; Korschinek et al., 2010).

The second quartz aliquots were used for measuring the cosmogenic ^{21}Ne concentration at the CRPG Nancy noble gas lab. The purity of the quartz samples was checked under a binocular microscope and completed by DRX analysis. Quartz samples were packed in tin foil and loaded in a custom designed carousel resistance furnace (Zimmermann et al., 2012) connected to a purification line with a cryogenic trap. Neon isotope abundances were measured with the Split Flight Tube mass spectrometer dedicated to the cosmogenic noble gas analysis (Vermeesch et al., 2015). The extraction of neon by quartz step-heating, gas purification and analytical procedures was similar to the procedures described in Sartégou et al. (2018). Computation of the atmosphere-corrected cosmogenic ^{21}Ne concentration ($^{21}\text{Ne}_{\text{cos}}$) was performed following:

$$^{21}\text{Ne}_{\text{cos}} = R_c \times ^{20}\text{Ne}_{\text{atm}} \times (R_m - R_a)/(R_c - R_a), \text{ (equation 2)}$$

where $^{20}\text{Ne}_m$ (at.g $^{-1}$) is the measured ^{20}Ne concentration in quartz, $R_c = 0.8$ the cosmogenic $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{20}\text{Ne}$ production ratio (Niedermann, 2002); R_m is the measured $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{20}\text{Ne}$ ratio and $R_a = 0.002905$ is the atmospheric $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{20}\text{Ne}$ ratio (Honda et al., 2015) (Figure A1).

Figure A1: Neon isotopic ratios measured in all heating steps of the samples and the CRONUS-A standard presented in this study. The ellipses represent the 68% confidence region. The plot accounts for the covariance between errors. The colors represent the neon extraction temperature: blue, $< 800^\circ\text{C}$, red, $> 1200^\circ\text{C}$. The spallation line is computed assuming a pure mixing between the atmospheric end members (blue square, the neon isotopic ratios for air are from Honda et al., 2015) and assuming a $^{22}\text{Ne}/^{21}\text{Ne}$ production ratio of 1.1 (Niedermann, 2002).

The calibration was checked by analyzing CRONUS-A quartz standards on the same analytical system (Dunai et al., 2005; Vermeesch et al., 2015). All of the measured CRONUS-A standards yielded ²¹Ne_{cos} concentrations that are consistent with the range of values reported by several international laboratories (Vermeesch et al., 2015).

2 Sensitivity analysis

Parameter tested	Reference	Result tested	Reference value	Value when varying the tested parameter	Reference
Production scheme	BR	Copper rich layer age	10-14 Ma	Not significantly different	Appendix
		Denudation rate before 9.5 Ma	> 250	Not significantly different	Figure 11
Density of the sediments	2300 kg/m3	Copper rich layer age	10-14 Ma	Not significantly different, larger range for lower densities (10-15Ma for 2100 kg/m3, 10-16 Ma for 1900 kg/m3)	Appendix
		χ^2	10-20	Not significantly different for higher densities. Increases for lower densities up to ~60 (worse fit), except for the GR production scheme	Figure A12

Table 1. Main parameters tested for a sensitivity analysis

The effect of the main parameters tested is found in Table A1.

3 Reference inversion

The following Figure A2 shows the inverted sedimentation rate as a function of depth. This figure highlights the different sediment phases (Figure A2). Before basin infilling (we note that this phase is poorly constrained by our sampling strategy), the sedimentation rate was in the range 10⁻⁷-10⁻⁵ m/a (0.1-10 m/Ma). During basin infilling (depth between ~105 and ~10 m), the sedimentation rate increased to 10⁻⁵-5 10⁻⁴ m/a (10-500 m/Ma). It has then dropped to less than 10⁻⁶ m/a (< 1 m/Ma) for the last 10 Ma.

Figure A2. Graph representing the sedimentation rate (m/a) vs. depth (m) (reference inversion, BR). The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenarios for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be only and ^{21}Ne only, respectively.

In the following, we present the results from the reference inversion with the other production schemes used. As a reminder, the different schemes used are called GH, BH, HS and BR (see **Error! Reference source not found.** and **Error! Reference source not found.** for more details). The first letter stands for the ^{10}Be production scheme: G stands for Granger and Muzikar (2001), B for Braucher et al. (2011), H for Heisinger et al. (2002) formulation with the updated muon interaction parameters given by Balco (2017). The second letter is indicative of the ^{21}Ne production scheme: H and S stands for Heisinger et al. (2002) and R for Braucher et al. (2011); ^{10}Be production SLHL is set to 4.15 at/g/a (Martin et al., 2017), and the $^{21}\text{Ne}/^{10}\text{Be}$ ratio is 4.12 (Balco & Shuster, 2009; Kober et al., 2011). The reference is model BR.

3.1 Reference inversion, BH production scheme

The constant denudation rate is 500 m/Ma. The next figures correspond to inversion with BH production systematics; B indicates the spallation and the muon attenuation and productions are those from Braucher et al. (2011) for ^{10}Be . For ^{21}Ne , the attenuation scheme follows the definition by Heisinger et al. (2002).

Figure A3. Age of the sediments (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the Tesoro Mine, using the BH production parameters. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively.

The comparison between Figure A3 and Figure 9 indicates that this inversion produces similar results, but that they are shuffled by a couple of very different likely scenarios (i.e., those on the right, at around 18–20 Ma). Disregarding these rare scenarios leads to the conclusion that the probable age of the copper layer is around 10–16 Ma).

Figure A4 shows that the data are satisfactorily adjusted by the best-fit models. Both ^{10}Be only and $^{10}\text{Be}/^{21}\text{Ne}$ best fit models show a hump, produced by low sedimentation rates during and after deposition of the copper-rich layer. The associated sedimentation rates are shown in Figure A5.

Figure A4. Cosmogenic isotope concentration (reference inversion) in the Tesoro Central open pit using the BH parameters, according to depth; the top figure shows ^{10}Be and the bottom shows ^{21}Ne . For both figures, the light colors correspond to every Monte Carlo scenario tested; the bold lines represent the best χ^2 scenario for ^{10}Be only, ^{21}Ne only and for both nuclides in blue, red and black, respectively. The circles and associated horizontal lines indicate the measured concentrations and their related

uncertainties.

Figure A5. Sedimentation rate vs. depth in the reference inversion with the BH production scheme. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively. This complex graph basically indicates that the copper layer deposition is characterized by relatively low sedimentation rates and is followed by even lower sedimentation rates (depth ~ 100 m). A large increase in sedimentation rates is observed from a depth of 95–100 m to a depth of 10 m (Artola ignimbrite). The last 10 Ma, corresponding to the last 10 m is characterized by very low sedimentation rates ($\sim 10^{-6}$ m/a).

3.2 Reference inversion, GR production scheme

The denudation rate is still at 500 m/Ma. The next figures correspond to inversion with GR production systematics; G indicates the spallation and muon attenuation and productions are those from Granger and Muzikar (2001) for ^{10}Be . For ^{21}Ne , the attenuation scheme follows the definition by Heisinger et al. (2002).

The comparison between Figure A6 and Figure 9 indicates that, similarly to what observed with production BH (Figure A3), this inversion produces similar results, leading to the conclusion that the probable age of the copper layer is around 10–14 Ma.

As expected, Figure A7-B is similar to Figure A4-B. On the contrary, the comparison of Figure A7-A with Figure A4-A and Figure 10 indicates that the GR production scheme can produce lower ^{10}Be concentrations, and is the most suitable in this case.

The sedimentation rates (Figure A8) and infilling scenarios (Figure A6) indicate, as shown in the other production schemes, that the copper-rich layer was deposited during a period of low sedimentation rates.

Figure A6. Age of the sediments (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the Tesoro Mine, using the BR production parameters. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively.

Figure A7. Cosmogenic isotope concentration (reference inversion, GR production scheme) in the Tesoro Central open pit using the GR parameters, according to depth; the top figure shows ^{10}Be and the bottom shows ^{21}Ne . For both figures, the light colors correspond to every Monte Carlo scenario tested; the bold lines represent the best χ^2 scenario for ^{10}Be only, ^{21}Ne only and for both nuclides in blue, red and black, respectively. The circles and associated horizontal lines indicate the measured concentrations and their related uncertainties.

Figure A8. Graph representing the sedimentation rate (m/a) vs. time in Ma (reference inversion) with GR production parameters. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively.

3.3 Reference inversion, HS production scheme

The denudation rate is still at 500 m/Ma. The next figures correspond to inversion with HS production systematics; the attenuation schemes for both nuclides are taken from the formulation given by Heisinger et al. (2002) with the updated muon interaction parameters described by Balco (2017). It should be noted that this scheme does not use exponential approximations for the muon production at depth but instead propagates the muon fluxes through the Earth's surface, quantifying nuclide production as a function of their spallation reaction cross-section and capture probability.

Figure A9 highlights a limited number of very fit scenarios which result in an age of ~ 13 Ma for the copper layer. But this apparent precision hides a greater variability than that seen with other production schemes (see Figure A9). This may be due to the fact that this production scheme hardly produces ^{10}Be concentrations as low as those observed in our analyses concentrations (Figure A10).

The dispersion of the scenarios can also be seen in the sedimentation rates: the different stages of evolution can be seen on the graph (Figure A11), but they are much less marked than for the other production schemes.

Figure A9. Age of the sediments (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the Tesoro Mine, using the HS production parameters. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively.

Figure A10. Cosmogenic isotope concentration (reference inversion) in the Tesoro Central open pit using the HS parameters, according to depth; the top figure shows ^{10}Be and the bottom shows ^{21}Ne . For both figures, the light colors correspond to every Monte Carlo scenario tested; the bold lines represent the best χ^2 scenario for ^{10}Be only, ^{21}Ne only and for both nuclides in blue, red and black, respectively. The circles and associated horizontal lines indicate the measured concentrations and their related uncertainties.

Figure A11. Graph representing the sedimentation rate (m/a) vs. time in Ma (reference inversion) with HS production parameters. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively.

4 Density in the reference experiment

This section shows experiments based on the El Tesoro reference inversion (density of 2500 kg/m^3) but with variable sedimentary layer densities of 1900, 2100, and 2500 kg/m^3 . If the sediment filling the basin were denser, X^2 would be lower (from ~ 60 for 1900 kg/m^3 to 20 for $2200\text{--}2500 \text{ kg/m}^3$, Figure A12) and the sedimentation ages would shift slightly to younger ages (comparison between Figure A13, Figure A14, Figure A15 and Figure 9). The Granger (GR) model stands out for its ability to fit even at all densities.

Figure A12. Value of χ^2 in function of sedimentary basin infill density for the various schemes (reference inversion). Except for GR, the best χ^2 values correspond to densities between 2200 and 2500 kg/m³.

Figure A13. Age of the sediments (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the Tesoro Mine (reference model for the BR production scheme), with a sediment density of 1900 kg/m³. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne, ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne only, respectively.

Figure A14. Age of the sediments (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the Tesoro Mine (reference model for the BR production scheme), with a sediment density of 2100 kg/m³. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne, ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne only, respectively.

Figure A15. Age of the sediments (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the Tesoro Mine (reference model for the BR production scheme), with sediment density of 2500 kg/m^3 . The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively.

5 Reference inversion for the El Mirador pit

The El Mirador pit inversion was treated as the reference inversion for El Tesoro (BR production scheme), but with a source erosion rate = 300 m/Ma . We recall that the concentration of ^{21}Ne in the deepest part of the pit could not be measured. The data do not allow the inversions to define a precise history for the period before 10 Ma ago. They favor a relatively continuous sedimentation between 20 and 30 Ma for the bottom (top of the ore body, 70 m below the surface) and 10–20 Ma just below the Artola ignimbrite (Figure A16. Age of the sediments (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the Mirador Mine, using the BR production parameters. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively. Figure A16).

The agreement with the data is not satisfactory (Figure A17). The ^{10}Be concentration of MIR-11 (45 m deep) cannot be modeled (it is much too low). The concentration data from MIR-01 (18 m depth) are low but this can be explained by a zero concentration acquired during the exhumation as it comes from the Artola ignimbrite (cf. bipyramidal quartz, Figure 7).

As discussed in the paper, Mirador provides more solid information regarding the period after 10 Ma. In order to better explore this period, we have inverted the three corresponding data only (in descending order MIR-05, MIR-04 and MIR-01, Figure A18). It shows that sedimentation was fastest

between 10 and 8 Ma (up to samples MIR-04 and MIR-05, at a depth of 12-13 m) and was then relatively continuous.

Figure A16. Age of the sediments (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the Mirador Mine, using the BR production parameters. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively.

Figure A17. Cosmogenic isotope concentration (reference inversion) in the Mirador open pit using BR according to depth; the top figure shows ^{10}Be and the bottom shows ^{21}Ne . For both figures, the light colors correspond to every Monte Carlo scenario tested; the bold lines represent the best χ^2 scenario for ^{10}Be only, ^{21}Ne only and for both nuclides in blue, red and black, respectively. The circles and associated horizontal lines indicate the measured concentrations and their related uncertainties.

Figure A18. Model on the sediment age (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the Mirador Mine, using the BR production parameters, and focused on the post-10 Ma period. The black, blue and red lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne , ^{10}Be and ^{21}Ne only, respectively.

6 Test inversion for Davis et al.'s data (2014)

No significant change in χ^2 is observed for inversions with various initial source erosion rates. For reference, we fixed the source erosion rate at 3 m/Ma. The inversion is based on ^{10}Be and ^{26}Al here. The various inversions processed with varying source erosion rates show that sedimentation at the bottom of the sequence began at ~ 8 Ma ago (Figure A19). The sediments appear to have been quicker around 8 Ma BP compared with the next period up to current times (Figure A20). These conclusions are similar for various source erosion rates and for various production schemes.

Figure A19. Age of the sediments (Ma) in function of the depth (m) in the dataset provided by Davis et al. (2014) from the Atacama Desert, using the GH production parameters. The black and green lines correspond to the best fit scenario for both ^{10}Be - ^{26}Al and ^{10}Be only, respectively.

Figure A20. Cosmogenic isotope concentration (reference inversion) for the dataset provided by Davis et al. (2014) using GH parameters, according to depth; the top figure shows ^{10}Be and the bottom shows ^{26}Al . For both figures, the light colors correspond to every Monte Carlo scenario tested; the bold lines represent the best χ^2 scenario for ^{10}Be only, ^{26}Al only and for both nuclides in blue, green and black, respectively. The circles and associated horizontal lines indicate the measured concentrations and their related uncertainties.

7 References

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