Ruohong Jiao, Frédéric Herman, Olivier Beyssac, Thierry Adatte, Simon C. Cox, Faye E. Nelson, Helen L. Neil

Erosion of the Southern Alps of New Zealand during the last deglaciation

1 Sediment core

2 Cruise TAN0712 was a research voyage programme led by National Institute of Water and 3 Atmosphere (NIWA), with an aim to recover the late Quaternary glaciation history through 4 the sedimentary records. A 2.65 m long (top lost) piston core TAN0712-27 (-43.753917°, 5 168.150617°) was recovered by RV *Tangaroa* from a submarine canyon levee at a water 6 depth of 1369 m. The levee is composed of overspilled fine turbidity and hemipelagic 7 sediment, with the bulk of terrestrial sediment entering the canyon system transported into 8 the deep Tasman Sea (Neil et al., 2007). The core is described as olive grey homogeneous 9 foram mud, with a gradational colour boundary to dark grey at 230 cm (Fig. DR1G) (Neil et

10 al., 2007).

11 Environmental magnetic analysis

12 Volume-normalized magnetic susceptibility (κ) (SI; 0.1 sensitivity setting) and anhysteretic 13 susceptibility (kARM) (saturation anhysteretic remanent magnetisation (ARM) normalized 14 by applied bias field of 79.6 A/m) (Fig. DR1D) were measured at 1 cm resolution down-core 15 on u-channels using a 2G Enterprises superconducting rock magnetometer with an inline AF 16 demagnetizer, ARM solenoid and Bartington MS2 magnetic susceptibility loop meter at the 17 University of Otago. Further rock magnetic experiments confirmed magnetite as the magnetic 18 carrier in the TAN0712 cores (Nelson, 2011; Nelson et al., 2013). The major sources of 19 magnetite in this part of the Southern Alps are metavolcanic horizons within the schist or 20 exposures of the Dun Mountain Ultramafic Belt (Bradley et al., 2002). Magnetic 21 susceptibility is a down-core parameter commonly used for correlation between cores; 22 however, anhysteretic susceptibility records a significant signal in the TAN0712 cores post-23 LGM. Magnetic susceptibility is a measure of the concentration of diamagnetic, 24 paramagnetic and, particularly, ferromagnetic (sensu lato) components. Multi-domain

25 magnetite preferentially acquires magnetic susceptibility (κ), while single-domain magnetite

- 26 preferentially acquires anhysteretic susceptibility (κARM). Thus, κARM normalised by κ
- 27 (Fig. DR1E) is a magnetic mineral grain-size proxy parameter (King et al., 1982). In this
- 28 paper, the susceptibility signals are presented as a correlation tool. The climatic and
- 29 oceanographic interpretations of the TAN0712-23 magnetite grain-size signal presented in
- 30 Nelson et al. (2013) can also be applied to TAN0712-27. Broadly, quasi-concomitant
- fluctuation of κ ARM and κ (end of core to 225 cm; Figs. DR1D and E) is interpreted as a
- 32 proxy for local glacier advance/stagnation during the LGM. This is followed by an interval of
- a low concentration of magnetite (225 to 187 cm) corresponding with glacier retreat and
- 34 deglacial climate-oceanographic reorganization. An increased concentration of finer
- 35 magnetite (187 cm to top of core) characterizes the Holocene.

36 Chronology and age model

37 Bulk planktic foraminifera were submitted by National Institute Water and Atmospheric

- 38 Research (NIWA) and University of Otago for accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) ¹⁴C
- 39 measurements at the Rafter National Isotope Centre, GNS Science. The radiocarbon ages
- 40 were converted to calendar years BP (cal yr BP) using Calib 6.0 (Stuiver and Reimer, 2016)
- 41 and the marine09.14c dataset (Reimer et al., 2016) (Table DR1). As described in Nelson et al.
- 42 (2013), a regional reservoir correction age value of -35 was applied.
- 43 Here, the TAN0712-27 ¹⁴C age model (Nelson, 2011) is further refined by tuning the 44 anhysteretic and magnetic susceptibility ratio κ ARM/ κ record to the ¹⁴C dated TAN0712-23 45 (-44.037833°, 167.420667°) (Nelson et al., 2013) κ ARM/ κ record using the spline
- $(11.057055, 107.120007) (101501 \text{ et al.}, 2015) \text{ in River in Foote a sing the spine$
- 46 interpolation function of AnalySeries 2.0 (Paillard et al., 1996), with a linear correlation of
- 47 0.96 (Table DR2; Fig. DR2).

Total Organic Carbon: tracer abundance in the source bedrocks and preservation of the tracer during the transfer to the ocean

- 50 Tracer abundance in the source rocks is a key parameter in provenance studies, as
- 51 demonstrated by modelling in Nibourel et al. (2015). Here, Total Organic Carbon (TOC) in
- 52 the source rocks represents the initial tracer abundance. We have compiled existing TOC data
- 53 in the amphibolite, biotite, chlorite and sub-greenschist facies (prehnite-pumpellyite to
- 54 pumpellyite-actinolite) schists/semischists in the Southern Alps, including data from single
- rocks (Hilton et al., 2008; Menzies et al., 2018) or river bedload material (Hilton et al., 2008;
- 56 Horan et al., 2017; Nibourel et al., 2015). The *in situ* TOC measurements appear to show a
- 57 general increase with the metamorphic grade, but show large variance for each type of rock,

58 indicating significant variation of carbon content at outcrop scale. Therefore, we follow 59 Nibourel et al. (2015) and suggest that river bedload samples better represent the initial tracer 60 abundance in the bedrock at the catchment scale. Using data from Nibourel et al. (2015), 61 samples from rivers that drain mainly sub-greenschist rocks yield 0.06–0.09% TOC, 62 indicating low carbon concentration. In catchments with chlorite and lower grade schist 63 bedrocks, bedload samples yield 0.06–0.12% TOC, which increases to 0.1–0.16% if the 64 catchments also comprise biotite schist rocks. Samples from catchments with no sub-65 greenschist rocks present higher TOC content of 0.17–0.18%. These observations imply a 66 slightly lower carbon content in the chlorite schist than that in the biotite schist, although an 67 accurate estimate is difficult due to the spatially varying erosion of bedrocks in a single 68 catchment. Therefore, for this paper we impose a ratio in the range of 0.6–1.0 for the TOC 69 ratio between chlorite and biotite schist, and consider it to be able to account for the 70 uncertainty in tracer abundance in the source rocks.

71 We have also analysed total carbon content for new bedload material in the main 72 rivers draining our region of interest, and for comparison, samples of Nibourel et al. (2015) 73 from Whataroa River (Table DR4). The analyses were carried out using a CHN Elemental 74 Analyzer (Carlo 184 Erba Flash EA 1112 CHNS/MAS200) on ~10 mg of dry powdered 75 sediment. The precision was better than 1% based on an internal standard, and replicate 76 samples. The reanalysed Whataroa samples show a good agreement with the TOC 77 measurements obtained by Nibourel et al. (2015), who used a different analytical procedure. 78 From the results, we observe that the bedload samples from the southwest of the Southern 79 Alps, from our region of interest, show a smaller variation in the carbon content than that 80 further north. For example, samples from Cascade, Arawhata, Waiatoto and Haast yield a 81 small range of total carbon content of 0.076–0.115, despite the catchments containing schist 82 bedrock in very different proportions of metamorphic grade. We interpret this as being due to 83 rocks in the southwest belonging almost entirely within the Aspiring Lithologic Association 84 with very similar primary sedimentological characteristics but different degrees of 85 metamorphism (Rattenbury et al., 2010). In contrast catchments in the northeast (e.g., 86 Whataroa) contain a primary sedimentological boundary with lithostratigraphic variation 87 parallel to the metamorphic isograds that is reflected locally in a variation in TOC (Nibourel 88 et al., 2015). This further validates our selection of a wide range of TOC ratios between 89 chlorite and biotite schists (0.6-1.0), sufficient to cover the potential variation in the tracer 90 abundance in source rocks in the study area.

91 Another important point is the possible weathering of rock-derived carbon material 92 (CM) affecting TOC all along the pathway from bedrock to the marine sediments. If 93 significant weathering is occurring, it could bias the provenance tool towards the CM of 94 highest peak temperatures (>500–550°C) as the more disordered CM corresponding to lower 95 peak temperatures are more prone to weathering (e.g., Galy et al., 2008; Bouchez et al., 2010). 96 In the Southern Alps, we have assumed that weathering is negligible, based on the 97 observation of a lack of bias towards higher temperature carbonaceous material, i.e., 98 the >550°C high temperatures are actually poorly represented in our detrital RSCM data. 99 Moreover, from the cold, dry LGM to the warm, humid Holocene, the increasing proportion 100 of CM of low peak temperatures suggests insignificant impact from weathering on the 101 distribution of CM peak temperatures. 102 Such weathering of CM is important in large scale erosional systems like the 103 Himalayas to Bengal Fan (Galy et al., 2008) or the Andes-Amazon (Bouchez et al., 2010) 104 systems, and carbon budgets show that the oxidation of rock-derived CM occurs in the large 105 floodplains where sediments are stored over long periods. In a small-scale system like

106 Taiwan based on a similar approach for carbon budget, Hilton et al. (2011) estimated a global

107 oxidative flux of rock-derived CM up to $15\% \pm 7\%$, which likely affects immature and 108 reactive CM sourced from very low grade metamorphic rocks present in this mountain b

reactive CM sourced from very low grade metamorphic rocks present in this mountain beltand likely happens in soils (Hemingway et al., 2018). First, we note that CM in the Southern

110 Alps is composed by graphitic carbon as it was submitted to metamorphism of peak

111 temperatures generally higher than 300°C (Beyssac et al., 2016). All the labile fraction of

112 organic carbon, which is prone to oxidative weathering, has been released from these rocks

during burial, and the remaining graphitic carbon is highly, though not completely, refractoryto bio-chemical weathering.

115 However, we acknowledge that in small-scale active mountain belts like the Southern 116 Alps or Taiwan, recent studies using rhenium as a proxy for CM oxidation show that a 117 fraction of rock-derived CM is lost during weathering in soils or glacial colluviums (Hilton et 118 al., 2014; Horan et al., 2017), which is further confirmed by a budget of the oxidation of 119 rock-derived CM in soils from Taiwan based on isotopic and organic geochemistry 120 (Hemingway et al. 2018). In the Southern Alps, soils and glacial colluviums are thin (Horan 121 et al., 2017; Larsen et al., 2014), and we assume their contribution to bedload material in 122 rivers and marine sediments to be negligible compared to that of rocks excavated during 123 landslide activity. Therefore, considering that rock-derived CM travels mostly in the river

bedload compared to the suspended load (Galy et al., 2008), we assume that, as previously

- 125 justified by Hilton et al. (2014) and Horan et al. (2017), the TOC in river bedload is
- 126 representative of TOC in the source rocks. In addition, in the Southern Alps, the transport in
- 127 rivers and the subsequent turbidity deposition in the canyon are efficient and rapid, and
- 128 therefore we expect no further weathering of rock-derived OC in such small-scale erosional
- 129 system comparable what was described in Taiwan (Hilton et al., 2011; Kao et al., 2014).
- 130 Altogether, we assume that the contribution of weathering of rock-derived CM, if any,
- remains lower than the uncertainty of the TOC inherited from the source rock lithology.

132 Raman spectroscopy of carbonaceous material (RSCM) thermometry

133 RSCM thermometry is based on quantification of the degree of graphitization of CM, which 134 is a reliable indicator of metamorphic temperature (T). Because of the irreversible character 135 of graphitization, CM structure is not sensitive to the retrograde path during exhumation of 136 rocks and records the maximum T reached during metamorphism in the range 330–640°C 137 (Beyssac et al., 2002) or even at lower temperature (Lahfid et al., 2010). Here Raman 138 microspectroscopy is used to compare the structure of rock-derived fossil organic carbon in 139 the marine sediments to that of fossil organic carbon in the mountain bedrocks. We convert 140 the Raman parameters describing the degree of graphitization into peak metamorphic 141 temperatures using the equations provided by Beyssac et al. (2002) and Lahfid et al. (2010). 142 Raman analysis of the marine sediments was performed directly on the sample raw 143 powder without any chemical or mechanical extraction thus preserving the pristine structure 144 of fossil organic carbon. Raman spectra were obtained by point measurement mapping using 145 a Renishaw InVia Reflex instrument. This system is equipped with a Leica DMLM 146 microscope, a grating with 1800 grooves per millimeter and a charge-coupled device detector. 147 Spectra were excited using the 514.5 nm emission line of an argon laser (<1 mW measured at 148 the sample surface) with a circular polarization thanks to a quarter wavelength plate set in the 149 optical path before the microscope. We used a Leica objective x50 (numerical aperture of 150 (0.75) that yields a planar resolution of nearly 1 μ m. The spectral resolution of the system is estimated at around 1.5 cm⁻¹ in the configuration used. Wavenumber calibration was done 151 152 using a silicon standard and Ne lamp emission. On each sample, we collected 185–228 153 spectra to have statistically significant data. To complement the dataset provided by Beyssac 154 et al. (2016) in the source region of sediments, 16 new thin-sections of bedrock samples were 155 analyzed using the same Raman spectrometer and following strictly the analytical procedure 156 described by Beyssac et al. (2016). All Raman spectra from sediments and bedrocks 157 (including those from Beyssac et al., 2016) were then fitted following the procedure

- described in Beyssac et al. (2002), Lahfid et al. (2010) and using the software provided by
- 159 Sparkes et al. (2013). We noted that the temperatures of some CM of ~350–370 °C could be
- 160 underestimated to <330 °C in the automated peak fitting procedure using five Lorentz peaks,
- 161 and therefore these spectra are manually selected and estimated using three Voigt peaks. This
- 162 manual correction affects <5% measurement in our sediment samples, and ~1% in the
- 163 bedrock dataset. Table DR3 provides RSCM T value for each single spectrum obtained per
- 164 marine sediment and new bedrock sample.

165 X-ray Diffraction mineralogy

- 166 XRD analyses were conducted on bulk rock for all the samples at the Institute of Earth
- 167 Sciences the University of Lausanne, Switzerland. The samples were prepared following the
- 168 procedure of Adatte et al. (1996) and Kübler (1983). Random powder of the bulk sample is
- 169 used for characterization of the whole rock mineralogy. About 20 g of material from each
- 170 rock sample was ground with a "jaw" crusher to obtain small chips (1 to 5 mm).
- Approximately 5 g of material was dried at 60°C and then ground to a homogenous powder
 with particle sizes <40 μm. About 800 mg of this powder was pressed (20 bars) in a powder
- 173 holder covered with a blotting paper and analyzed by XRD. Whole rock composition was
- 174 determined by XRD (Thermo ARL X'TRA Diffractometer, Switzerland) based on methods
- previously described (Klug and Alexander, 1974; Kübler, 1983; Rolli, 1990). This method
- 176 uses external standards for semi-quantitative analysis of the bulk rock mineralogy, which
- 177 were obtained by XRD patterns of random powder samples.
- 178 Clay mineral analyses were based on methods described by (Kübler, 1983). Ground 179 chips were mixed with de-ionized water (pH 7–8) and agitated. The carbonate fraction was 180 removed with the addition of 10% HCl (1.25 N) at room temperature for 20 minutes, or until 181 all the carbonate was dissolved. Ultrasonic disaggregation was accomplished during 3 182 minutes intervals. The insoluble residue was washed and centrifuged (5-6 times) until a 183 neutral (pH 7–8) suspension was obtained. Separation of different grain size fractions ($\leq 2\mu m$ 184 and $2-16 \,\mu\text{m}$) was obtained by the timed settling method based on the Stokes law. The 185 selected fraction was then pipetted onto a glass plate. XRD analyses of oriented clay samples 186 were made after air-drying at room temperature and ethylene-glycol solvated conditions. The intensities of selected XRD peaks were measured to obtain a semi-quantitative estimate of 187 188 their corresponding clay minerals (e.g., chlorite, mica, kaolinite, palygorskite, sepiolite, 189 smectite and illite-smectite mixed-layers) in the size-fractions $< 2\mu$ m and 2–16µm. Therefore,

- 190 clay minerals are given in relative percent abundance without correction factors. Content in
- 191 swelling (% smectite) is estimated by using the method of Moore and Reynolds (1989).

Detrital provenance model

- 193 We assume that in the sediment sample, the fraction of CM from upper amphibolite facies
- 194 schist is c_1 , garnet amphibolite schist c_2 , biotite schist c_3 , chlorite schist c_4 and sub-
- 195 greenschist facies semischist c_5 , where $\sum_{i=1}^{5} c_i = 1$. Therefore, the cumulative distribution
- 196 function (CDF) of RSCM temperature in a sediment sample is predicted as

$$CDF_p = \sum_{i=1}^{5} (c_i \cdot CDF_i)$$

197 where CDF_i is the CDF of RSCM temperature in each provenance, which is estimated from

198 the bedrock data (Fig. DR4). The cumulative distribution function of observed RSCM

199 temperature is CDF_o . The goodness of fit between CDF_p and CDF_o is estimated using the

200 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, and is optimized by minimizing the K-S statistic using a Markov

- 201 Chain Monte Carlo method. A total of 200,000, including 100,000 burn-in, iterations were
- 202 run for each sample. Fig. DR5 shows the model results.

203 **Potential variation of the source area**

204 The core is from a submarine canyon levee and the dominant deposits are 1) overspilling of 205 fine sediments from turbidity currents and 2) hemipelagic sedimentation. The bulk of 206 sediment eroded locally from the Southern Alps is transported within the canyon to the deep 207 ocean. In this setting, we do not think the longshore drift or other ocean surface currents have 208 an effect on the sediment transport to the core. Near the core site, the surface water most 209 likely flows predominantly towards the south or southwest (Fig. DR6). If the surface currents 210 play a role in transporting sediments to the core, the Holocene sediments would have more 211 CM of high temperature (>500°C or even 600°C) from the central Southern Alps than the 212 LGM sediments, which contradicts our observations.

Alternatively, the effect of Coriolis force on the overspill sediments is more considerable, and therefore it may be possible for the core to also receive some overspill sediments from the Moeraki Canyon, which is connected to the Haast, Okuru, and Turnbull catchments as well as river systems further north (Fig. 1). However, as the distribution of biotite and chlorite schist rocks in these rivers follow a similar pattern to the Waiatoto and Arawhata rivers (i.e. increasing metamorphic grade from the mountain front to upper valleys), including them as source areas should not change our conclusion. To test this point of view,

- 220 we predict the potential erosion intensity of a source area including the Haast, Okuru,
- 221 Turnbull, Waiatoto and Arawhata catchments, following the same procedure described in
- 222 DISCUSSION in the main text. The predicted erosion patterns from these catchments due to
- 223 fluvial incision, glacial abrasion and large landslides are shown in Fig. DR8, respectively.
- 224 The calculated CS-sediment proportions differ by 1–8% from models using only Waiatoto
- and Arawhata catchments, due to the varying area proportions of the schist rocks outcropped
- 226 in the Haast, Okuru, Turnbull catchments vs. Waiatoto and Arawhata catchments. However,
- 227 the general trend does not change: the relative contribution from chlorite schist sediments is
- higher in materials eroded by landslides than that by glacial erosion and fluvial incision.
- 229 Therefore, including a larger area in the Southern Alps as the provenance does not change
- 230 our conclusions.
- 231 **Table DR1** Radiocarbon ages from core TAN0712-27.
- 232 Table DR2 Age constraints for TAN0712-27.
- 233 Table DR3 RSCM temperature data from the marine sediments in the Waiatoto Canyon and
- the bedrock samples from the Waiatoto and Arawhata catchments.
- 235 Table DR4 New total carbon measurements using a CHN analyzer.
- 236 Table DR5 Compiled total organic carbon measurements from the Southern Alps, including
- 237 single rock data from biotite, chlorite and sub-greenschist facies schist/semischist rocks and
- river bedload data from catchments draining these bedrocks.
- Fig. DR1 (A) X-ray diffraction mineralogy of bulk sediments. Circles indicate depths for
- 240 RSCM samples. (B) X-ray diffraction mineralogy of clay minerals. (C) Distribution of
- 241 RSCM temperature data from selected sediment samples. (D) Magnetic susceptibility and
- 242 anhysteretic susceptibility. (E) Magnetic grain size (κARM/κ). (F) Colour reflectance. (G)
- 243 Photograph of the core.
- Fig. DR2 Age model of TAN0712-27, correlated to TAN0712-23 using anhysteretic and
- 245 magnetic susceptibility ratio κARM/κ.
- Fig. DR3 Quartz content and quartz/feldspar ratios measured in sand samples from rivers in
- 247 western Southern Alps, based on X-ray diffraction bulk mineralogy. Grey shades depict
- results in the canyon sediments from core TAN0712-27.
- Fig. DR4 Distributions of bedrock RSCM temperature data from the Southern Alps, shown
- as probability (histogram) and cumulative density functions (curve). Data are from Beyssac et
- al. (2016) and from this study (see Table DR3).

- Fig. DR5 Mixture models of detrital RSCM temperature data from TAN0712-27 sediments.
- 253 Observed probability (histogram) and cumulative density functions (curve) are shown in blue,
- and predicted cumulative density functions are shown as red curves. *P*-value and c_{pi} represent
- 255 the mean post-burn-in models; $c_{p1}-c_{p5}$ indicate proportion of materials from upper
- amphibolite schist, garnet amphibolite schist, biotite schist, chlorite schist and sub-
- 257 greenschist facies semischist, respectively.
- Fig. DR6 Directions of dominant ocean currents off the west coast of South Island. Small
- arrows are mean surface currents from 1992 to 1996, which are calculated from a near real-
- time model (Ocean Surface Current Analysis Real-time) from NASA (1/3-degree and 5-day
- resolution). Large arrows are taken from Carter et al. (1998).
- 262 Fig. DR7 Predicted erosion intensity distribution in the Waiatoto and Arawhata catchments
- 263 by different processes. Erosion intensity is predicted for each 75-m cell, and normalized to
- the maximum value of each model. (upper) Fluvial erosion intensity predicted by a digital
- elevation model resampled from the SRTM data, using the unit stream power law, $\varepsilon = A^{0.5}S$
- (Finlayson et al., 2002). Map is coloured by averaging the initial ε with a 525 m-wide square
- 267 kernel. (middle) Glacial erosion intensity predicted by a LGM icefield model (Golledge et al.,
- 268 2012) using a quadratic function, $\varepsilon = \mu^2$ (Herman et al., 2015). (lower) Landslide erosion
- 269 calculated from an inventory of landslides with large (affecting area $A > 0.2 \text{ km}^2$) landslides
- 270 (Heron, 2014), using a volume-area scaling factor of 1.5, i.e. $V=A^{1.5}$ (Hovius et al., 1997;
- 271 Larsen et al., 2010). TopoToolbox (Schwanghart and Scherler, 2014) was used for
- 272 calculation and creating figures.
- Fig. DR8 Same as Fig. DR7, but for a larger source area including Waiatoto, Arawhata,
- 274 Turnbull, Okuru and Haast-Landsborough catchments.
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RSCM sample



Figure DR2





Figure DR4





Fluvial incision



Glacial abrasion



Large landslides







Table DR1 Radiocarbon ages from core TAN0712-27

Depth (cm)	Lab number	Age (year BP)	Calibrated age (cal BP)*
40-41	NZA33190	3114±58	2940 (2780:3110)
80-80.5	NZA33191	5164±58	5560 (5440:5680)
259-259.5	NZA33679	17804±75	20770 (20380:21210)

*Median probability. Ages in parentheses are the 2σ age range.

Table DR2 Age model for TAN0712-27

Depth (cm)	Age (k cal BP)	Tie-point
6.23	0.946	Tuning (ĸARM/ĸ)
40.5	2.938	AMS
80.5	5.56	AMS
120	7.441	Tuning (κARM/κ)
154.67	10.173	Tuning (κARM/κ)
173.17	11.441	Tuning (κARM/κ)
180.5	11.793	Tuning (κARM/κ)
188.47	12.402	Tuning (κARM/κ)
194.7	13.541	Tuning (κARM/κ)
241.7	18.541	Tuning (κARM/κ)
259.25	20.767	AMS

Table DR3 RSCM temperature (°C) of the core sediments

489 364 320 487 231 455 538 414 494 388 451 462 373 397 435 412 388 527 376 411 425 545 450 509 425 462 373 386 503 547 497 485 478 453 475 437 443 432 366 437 418 502 537 490 487 485 385 483 366 475 393 288 514 434

TAN0712-27-41-42 cm

TAN0712-27-1-2 cm

362 492 413 506 392 506 506 496 423 476 497 284 367 377 533 440 433 459 412 476 376 501 445 336 478 388 461 393 402 395 511 411 527 422 566 555 418 517 404 474 506

TAN0712-27-81-82 cm

379 448 375 288 329 404 518 494 543 541 303 538 425 421 507 521 401 383 517 379 365 417 518 428 478 480 491 462 504 496 496 489 473 502 428 526 435 392 378 446 484 517 470 459 439 439 451 473 520 489 533 449 470 396 419 482 535 518 409 500 535 450 530 378 476 496 484

TAN0712-27-111-112 cm

444 439 454 367 542 481 453 507 420 329 547 400 490 391 482 576 499 541 473 471 391 517 485 529 513 413 472 478 418 476 394 418 433 402 416 492 414 497 522 403 486 526 465 527 513 491 312 445 369 370 459 406 384 497 467 476 551 388 521 408 526 460 501 448 376 559 420 382 388 476 507 389 517 464 483 437 426 478 461 503 497

TAN0712-27-141-142 cm

370 414 364 434 464 464 547 536 403 384 542 446 524 445 385 373 395 422 608 425 424 410 389 400 328 522 525 491 402 428 368 473

TAN0712-27-201-202 cm

464 555 452 545 215 463 370 484 500 514 369 531 378 365 513 519 518 504 531 425 488 495 471 551 562 353 445 506 486 497 543 498 407 513 481 511 492 425 509 451 475

TAN0712-27-231-232 cm

501 481 470 486 446 498 411 314 497 441 433 498 498 574 566 482 306 440 489 484 473 485 362 503 551 510 480 485 490 544 504 517 443 490 573 531 455 567 566 497 494 513 485 524 571 468 462 501 481 459 502 464 452 517 512 478 537 477 533 520 483 473 502 459 487 486 508 475 398 433 502 268 288 394 556 390 384 473 494

TAN0712-27-261-262 cm

460 488 371 502 509 490 518 432 437 510 502 498 449 472 453 442 491 524 494 555 510 483 626 531 533 513 427 556 434 503 497 516 374 497 535 435 432 525 470 467 532 512 543 533 365 526 485 510 392 295 520 498 494 463 467 489 437 393 459 501 434 434 528 487 499 503 412

RSCM temperature (°C) of bedrock samples

Amphibolite schist

1																				
P75	5155	(44.0	0316	4°S 1	68.8	9564	°E)													
568	596	498	487	601	538	510	603	616	537	634	564	559	569	590	606	478	525	586	536	
P76	5018	(44.0)962	1°S 1	168.7	9659	°E)	-												
587	609	573	610	607	603	542	607	579	533	533	612	530	596	527	641	612	561	544	535	
P76	5021	(44.0)836	4°S 1	168.7	8685	б°Е)	-												
556	606	523	582	540	544	558	586	515	526	617	513	525	518	511	537	501	509	508	489	504
P77	7769	(44.0	0887	2°S 1	168.9	1525	°Е)	-												
601	599	559	527	577	559	591	573	583	511	579	536	552	553	581	544	530	557	560	542	
Bioti	te schi	st																		
P27	7180	(44.2	2610	4°S 1	168.6	7378	°E)	-												
469	535	529	524	563	510	498	487	505	496	482	479	512	493	493	494	479	497	497	534	535
P5	2513	(44	.276	8°S 1	168.4	7067	′°E)	-												
541	524	508	598	561	499	583	587	595	571	532	600	540	600	520	574	505	540	572	503	
P52	2526	(44.	3684	3°S 1	168.4	2218	°E)	-												
562	462	593	550	563	547	590	527	529	539	556	519	575	515	530	545	460	555	569	492	570

P5	2829	(44.3	33024	4°S 1	168.4	3644	•°E)	_												
549	535	610	613	560	539	613	545	575	575	547	561	509	534	525	561	554	606	554	535	
D7/		(11	1060	200	160 6	0120	00 E)													
Ρ/.	5977	(44.	1203	2-3	108.0	09438	5-E)	-												
574	499	492	558	596	573	497	534	544	565	552	588	542	593	565	504	511	582	533		
P7	5097	(44.)	2082	6°S 1	68.5	6231	°E)													
512	597	562	560	586	521	510	505	572	545	595	572	577	571	560	502	572	500	126	575	
515	301	302	309	200	321	510	393	512	545	202	515	511	571	509	392	512	509	420	515	
P7.	5118	(44.)	21634	4°S 1	68.7	7971	°E)													
101	542	511	108	554	550	500	505	5/13	185	105	534	185	551	181	513	557	106	102	510	
494	542	511	490	554	550	500	505	545	405	495	554	405	551	404	515	551	490	492	510	
P7	7710	(44.)	1708	1°S 1	68.8	7013	°E)													
528	556	575	541	495	549	528	539	525	552	546	576	552	542	589	516	501	533	476	559	
Chlo	rite scl	hist																		
P2	27701	. (44	.3836	52°S	168.	7226	°E)	_												
535	550	494	480	509	477	489	519	466	539	509	538	542	520	498	508	513	482	586	491	
P5	2528	(44.	3826	5°S 1	168.3	5899	°E)	-												
459	474	537	516	559	484	478	452	487	495	466	490	457	497	485	477	477	484	490	463	
D7	1670	(11	10/5	ר ספר 1	160 2	5754	٥ E)													
Ρ/	10/9	(44.4	+943.	231	100.5	5250) <i>E)</i>	-												
435	425	451	433	426	438	429	421	430	392	432	442	437	429	459	408	440	428	444	444	431
D7	1725	(44 4	4070 [.]	5°S 1	68 4	1887	°E)													

435 449 478 443 412 466 464 453 433 461 464 453 447 444 446 434 438 475 424 466

Sample	Catchment	Latitude (°)	Longitude (°)) Main metamorphic grades	Weight (mg) N (%)	C (%)	H (%)
STD CYS	1				5.093	11.640	30.000	5.050
WAT2*	Whataroa	-43.37707	170.42199	chlorite, low**	22.184	0.006	0.108	0.307
WAT3*	Whataroa	-43.40932	170.41643	chlorite, low	34.246	0.000	0.101	0.324
WAT7*	Whataroa	-43.40861	170.41249	chlorite, low	25.755	0	0.199	0.292
WAT8*	Whataroa	-43.44470	170.37691	chlorite, low	24.309	0	0.096	0.305
WAT9*	Whataroa	-43.31520	170.41983	garnet	23.954	0	0.248	0.243
WAT10*	Whataroa	-43.29308	170.41361	higher, garnet, biotite, chlorite, low	21.195	0	0.135	0.249
WAT11*	Whataroa	-43.18746	170.44983	higher, garnet	23.500	0	0.156	0.255
WAT14*	Whataroa	-43.34733	170.49040	biotite, chlorite, low	18.086	0	0.151	0.277
WAT15*	Whataroa	-43.34240	170.52947	biotite, chlorite	22.634	0	0.210	0.305
WAT16*	Whataroa	-43.37560	170.57091	low	22.525	0	0.062	0.256
STD CYS	2				3.565	10.881	30.053	5.498
WAT17*	Whataroa	-43.37668	170.57071	low	23.368	0	0.068	0.292
WAT19*	Whataroa	-43.31045	170.31362	higher, garnet	20.827	0	0.220	0.222
P85585	Cascade	-44.10571	168.51996	chlorite, low	23.444	0	0.076	0.253
P85587	Arawhata	-44.04614	168.72346	biotite, chlorite	21.803	0	0.090	0.209
P85588	Waitoto	-43.98954	168.79799	biotite	24.925	0	0.115	0.204
P85589	Haast	-43.85488	169.04595	higher, garnet, biotite, chlorite, low	22.994	0	0.099	0.184
P85590	Waita	-43.78998	169.12229	higher	22.453	0	0.137	0.177
P85591	Whakapohai	-43.72940	169.24537	higher	22.128	0	0.132	0.303
P85592	Paringa	-43.70589	169.48746	higher, garnet, biotite, chlorite	22.378	0	0.126	0.190
STD CYS	3				4.509	11.147	30.172	4.684
P85593	Mahitahi	-43.63468	169.58406	higher, garnet, biotite, chlorite	23.491	0	0.116	0.175
P85594	Makaawhio	-43.57638	169.68512	higher, garnet, biotite	22.680	0	0.154	0.151
P85595	Karangarua	-43.57419	169.80583	higher, garnet, biotite, chlorite	24.292	0	0.174	0.193
STD CYS	4				5.268	11.277	30.352	5.842

Table DR4 New total carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and hydrogen (H) measurements

*Samples from Nibourel et al. (2015) are reanalysed.

**Sub-greenschist facies.