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Climatic conditions between 19 and 12 ka in the eastern Pyrenees, and wider implications for atmospheric circulation patterns in Europe

Theo Reixach^{1*}, Magali Delmas¹, Régis Braucher², Yanni Gunnell³, Cécile Mahé¹, Marc Calvet¹

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Abstract. The chronology of the most extensive Late Pleistocene glaciation in the eastern Pyrenees is now well established, but climatic variations during the subsequent Last Glacialto-Interglacial Transition (LGIT) are much less well documented. The aim of this research is to fill that gap. We present a new series of 22 ¹⁰Be exposure ages from a sequence of moraines in the upper Ariège catchment, and update 64 previously published exposure ages from seven other valleys. Based on (i) geomorphological maps of successive generations of ice-marginal deposits and (ii) their age distributions, followed by (iii) glaciological modeling to infer corresponding mass-balance gradients and equilibrium line altitudes (ELAs), we reconstruct glacier behaviour in the eastern Pyrenees during the LGIT and retrieve paleoclimatic parameters for each glacial stillstand. Results document rapid deglaciation involving four relative stillstands, with an ELA rise of ~410 m and increases in temperature and precipitation of ~4 °C and ~40 %, respectively, between ~18 ka (Greenland Stadial GS-2.1b) and ~14.5 ka (Greenland Interstadial GI-1). A cold and dry environment prevailed from ~18 ka onward, and deglaciation was almost complete by GI-1. Only small glaciers persisted as late as ~12.3 ka in cirques where local conditions allowed it. These patterns are compatible with a transient Polar Front Jet Stream repositioning to latitudes of 40-42°N

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- between 18 and 16 ka, with Westerlies-dominated circulation not yet feeding precipitation to the mountain belt abundantly from the northwest, and outbursts of polar air meeting with cool sea waters in the western Mediterranean mostly suppressing precipitation from Mediterranean sources.
- Key Words: Last Glacial-to-Interglacial Transition, deglaciation chronology, cosmogenic
 exposure dating, paleoclimate, modeling, Pyrenees.

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1. Introduction

Fine-scale reconstructions of Holocene and Pleistocene temperature (T) and precipitation (P) conditions in terrestrial environments are best documented by biological proxies, but the mountain environments of the mid-latitudes are poorly documented by long time series. In glaciated mountains, however, glacial landforms provide a record of past glacier fluctuations from which paleoclimatic conditions can be inferred. By establishing glacial chronologies, for example based on terrestrial cosmogenic nuclide (TCN) exposure dating, and by reconstructing former mountain glaciers in three dimensions, it is possible to derive paleotemperature and paleoprecipitation conditions based on certain assumptions or analogues (e.g., Ivy-Ochs et al 2006; Biette et al., 2018; Chandler et al., 2019; Hofmann et al., 2019; Protin et al., 2019). The circum-Mediterranean mountain ranges are particularly important testing grounds for paleoclimate studies because of their sensitivity to changes in the climatic regimes of adjacent areas, including the North Atlantic (e.g., Hughes et al., 2017). By forming a land bridge between the Atlantic Ocean in the west and the Mediterranean Sea in the east, both of which strongly influence climate along and across the mountain range, the Pyrenees offer

ideal conditions in that respect. The Late Pleistocene glaciation chronology of the Pyrenees prior to the LGM has been increasingly well documented in the last 20 years (see Delmas, 2015; Delmas et al., 2021a, b), and an emerging feature is that the time of most extensive glaciation during this last glacial cycle coincided with Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 3 and/or MIS 4 (Jalut et al., 1992; Garcia-Ruiz et al., 2003; Lewis et al., 2009; Pallàs et al., 2010; Delmas et al., 2011; Tomkins et al., 2018). Thus, in Pyrenean valleys documented until now, the local last glacial maximum (LLGM) preceded the global last glacial maximum (LGM), which currently designates the interval from 29 ka to 19 ka (i.e., earlier part of MIS 2) and corresponds to the most recent period of maximum ice sequestration on continents worldwide (Mix et al., 2001; Thompson and Goldstein, 2006; Lambeck et al., 2014). The inventory of Pyrenean ice-margin positions during the LGM is incomplete, but currently available data suggest a west-to-east paleoclimatic gradient along the orogen. This gradient, with maximum precipitation in the east, could be related to a southerly position of the Polar Front, which would have re-directed storm tracks and allowed Mediterranean weather systems to impinge on the eastern Pyrenees more prominently than they do now (Kuhlemann et al., 2008; Luetscher et al., 2015; Merz et al., 2015). The growing evidence in support of this scenario is based on the TCN dating record for successive generations of frontal moraines such as preserved in the Têt, Querol and Malniu valleys which, during the LGM, reached positions within a few hundred metres of their MIS 4/ MIS 3 predecessors (Pallàs et al., 2006; Delmas et al., 2008; Pallàs et al., 2010). Distances between the MIS 3/MIS 4 and LGM frontal moraines increase progressively westward, where they stand 7 km apart on the Ariège (Delmas et al., 2011) and ca. 30 km on the Gállego (Palacios et al., 2015a, 2017; Guerrero et al., 2018). A similar pattern has been reported in the European Alps, with

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contrasts in outlet glacier lengths between the north and south foreland zones (Ivy-Ochs, 2015; Seguinot et al., 2018; Monegato et al., 2018; Ivy-Ochs et al., 2018), thereby suggesting that southerly Mediterranean airstreams provided favorable conditions for the expansion of LGM glaciers (Haeberli and Penz, 1985; Florineth and Schlüchter, 2000; Kuhlemann et al., 2008; Luetscher et al., 2015; Ludwig et al., 2016; Monegato et al., 2017). Testing this hypothesis more widely across western Europe calls for acquiring time constraints on when circulation of the Westerlies, and thus conditions of today's prevailing climates, became reestablished after the LGM. Reduced supply of moisture from the Mediterranean would have sealed the fate of the Alpine glaciers, which entered a final recessional phase after 22 ka and faded out after 17.5 ka (Monegato et al., 2017). The chronology of glacier fluctuations in the Pyrenees since the LGM, i.e., during the Last Glacial-to-Interglacial Transition (LGIT), is sparsely documented, thereby setting limits to our current understanding of post-LGM paleoclimate patterns and local topoclimatic conditions. Given that just a dozen sites have been radiocarbon- or TCN-dated (glaciolacustrine sediments, moraines or glacially-scoured bedrock surfaces: grey and red stars in Fig. 1), multiplying constraints on the chronology of the LGIT should thus be an important prerequisite for deriving valid paleoclimate models for the region. In this paper, we expand and refine the glacial chronology of the eastern Pyrenees (Figs. 1, 2), and use the record of glacier fluctuations to reconstruct climatic change during the LGIT. The eastern Pyrenees host the steepest modern precipitation gradient of the entire mountain belt (Fig. 2A, B). Two-thirds of the existing LGIT age determinations in the Pyrenees already come from this area, with 4 in massifs on the south side of the Axial Zone (Paleozoic backbone of the orogen) under Mediterranean influence (Delmas et al., 2008;

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Pallàs et al., 2010; Palacios et al., 2015b; Andrés et al., 2018), and another 4 on the north side under Atlantic influence (Jalut et al., 1982; Delmas et al., 2011; Crest et al., 2017; Jomelli et al., 2020). By associating a new series of TCN ages (n = 22) for the upper Ariège catchment with recalculated TCN ages from previous work (n = 64), the aims of this paper are to (i) establish a chronology for post-LGM glacier fluctuations in the eastern Pyrenees; and (ii) derive paleoclimatic data from glaciological models of the reconstructed glaciers.

The chronological frame used in reference to cooler and warmer time intervals during the LGIT will follow the Greenland (GRIP and North GRIP) event stratigraphy (Rasmussen et al., 2014), which captures millennial-scale oscillations potentially relevant to regions bordering the North Atlantic such as the Pyrenees. The chronostratigraphic scale is based on a GS

(Greenland Stadial) and GI (Greenland Interstadial) dichotomy.

2. Study area

The Pyrenees extend for ~400 km between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea. The middle segment of the range hosts the highest summits, a number of them exceeding 3000 m between Mt. Balaïtous (3144 m) and Pique d'Estats (3143 m). The range at present hosts only a small number of cirque glaciers, all confined to 9 massifs where summits exceed 3000 m. Their equilibrium line altitude (ELA) is ~3200 m, thus only slightly higher than the ELA of glaciers (other than around Mont Blanc) in the Western Alps (3000–3100 m; Six and Vincent, 2014).

The eastern segment of the range (this study) displays at least three geomorphological features not encountered farther west: (i) maximum elevations do not exceed 2800–2900 m,

except for Pique d'Estats; (ii) the elevated mountain tops tend to be flat plateaus rather than serrated peaks (Calvet et al., 2015); and (iii) the mountain topography is fragmented by Neogene extensional basins (Figs. 1, 2). On the shorter and steeper north-facing side of the orogen, the Ariège catchment extends from the Axial Zone northward across belts of highly crumpled Mesozoic cover rocks containing large outposts of Paleozoic crystalline basement such as Trois-Seigneurs (summit: 2199 m), Tabe/Saint-Barthélemy (2368 m), and Arize (1716 m) massifs. The south-facing side of the Axial Zone, which also hosted Pleistocene glaciers, consists of a juxtaposition of often small watersheds, typically connecting to the Neogene intermontane half-grabens of Cerdagne, Capcir and Conflent (Figs. 1, 2). Drainage, in all cases, joins the Mediterranean either via the southern fold-and-thrust belts and Ebro Basin (Segre River); via the northern fold-and-thrust belts (Aude River); or directly eastward, mostly following the succession of Neogene tectonic breaches and basins of the Axial Zone (Têt River). The dominant climatic characteristic of the eastern Pyrenees is the contrast between the relatively cool and humid massifs under Atlantic influence on the north side, and the much drier and somewhat warmer Mediterranean massifs in the south (Fig. 2A, B). This climatic divide occurs in the Axial Zone, near the present-day drainage divide, and is prominent in several ways. For example, south of the climatic divide the Cerdagne intermontane basin records 30 fewer rainy days and ~400 mm less mean annual precipitation than the immediately adjacent, north-facing Ariège catchment. Likewise, a steep gradient in total annual as well as daily sunshine hours distinguishes the southeastern massifs (2750 h·yr⁻¹, with 50 % of daily sunshine in December and 70 % in July) from their northwestern counterparts (< 2000 h·yr⁻¹, 25–30 % of daily sunshine in December and 50–55 % in July).

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Such strong contrasts were also prevalent in the Pyrenees during the Late Pleistocene, and are recorded by the north-south asymmetry in ice extent on either side of the icefield divide (Fig. 2): thus, whereas on the north side quite long outlet glaciers reached the most external ranges and the piedmont, on the south side glaciers never advanced beyond the Internal Sierras. These differences were sharpest in the eastern Pyrenees (Delmas et al., 2011), with the Ariège glacier reaching ~400 m near Foix at the time of the LLGM and collecting tributary ice from the Trois-Seigneurs, Bassiès, Aston, Carlit and Tabe massifs (Figs. 1, 2). At that time, the Ariège glacier was about 60 km long (ELA ca. 1800 m), whereas coeval valley glaciers in the more southern massifs never exceeded 15-20 km (ELA ca. 2200 m; Fig. 2C). Post-LGM ice recession was rapid on both sides of the range, occurring as early as 20 ka cal. BP in the upper Têt valley (Delmas, 2005; Delmas et al., 2008) and likewise around 19-20 ka in the Ariège catchment (Delmas et al., 2011). During the Glacial to Interglacial Transition, receding outlet glaciers fragmented into a large number of short, disconnected cirque or valley glaciers confined to the inner Axial Zone, typically 30 to 40 km from the LLGM terminal moraines on the north side of the range, and 5–10 km on the south.

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3. Methods

3.1 Geomorphological mapping of glacial features

Geomorphological mapping was undertaken to establish the distribution of Late Pleistocene ice-marginal landforms (e.g., moraines, kame terraces) generated by stationary glaciers at successive moments and locations. We used 1:25,000 scale topographic sheets and high-resolution (0.2 m ground sampled distance) aerial photographs published by the Institut Géographique National (IGN), and the resulting observations were completed by

ground checks and additional field surveys (see Chandler et al., 2018, for an overview of available methods). Based on the relative elevations and positions of the deposits in the catchment, the aim is to reconstruct the extent of local stadial ice margins and thus to document the relative positions of successive glacier stillstands. Benefiting from systematic field work, the geomorphological maps also report the petrographic composition of the till units in order to establish contributing areas established from 1:50,000 scale geological maps. Periglacial, paraglacial and/or postglacial landforms such as rock glaciers, talus cones and debris fans were also mapped, as well as the main ridge crests, nunataks, and Neogene 'paleic' surfaces (preglacial summit erosion surfaces, whether at any time ice-covered or not).

3.2 Surface exposure dating: sampling strategy and analytical procedure

TCN dating was used to establish the exposure age of boulder surfaces embedded in lateral or frontal moraines. We sampled large granite and gneiss boulders (long axis: 1 to 5 m), each time making sure to select at least 2 or 3 boulders on each moraine as controls on age consistency (e.g., Prud'homme et al., 2020). All samples (~2 cm thick) were taken from boulder tops that displayed features indicative of glacial abrasion (e.g., rounded, glacially-polished surfaces; Fig. 3) in order to minimise two commonly encountered risks (e.g., Heyman et al., 2011): one situation arises when the sample has retained a proportion of nuclides accumulated in the minerals prior to glaciation (so-called nuclide inheritance) because glacial denudation was overall insufficiently intense to reset the nuclide inventory to zero. This results in overestimating boulder exposure age, and thus in spuriously concluding that deglaciation occurred earlier than it actually did. The other (reverse)

situation arises in the case of post-glacial boulder-surface degradation (loss of rock mass, and thus also of nuclides), or in the case of delayed exhumation from till matrix initially shielding the boulder from direct contact with the atmosphere. This results in a relative nuclide deficit in the boulder's ¹⁰Be inventory, generates anomalously young exposure ages, and thus spuriously underestimates the true timing of deglaciation.

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We followed the chemical procedure of Braucher et al. (2011) for ¹⁰Be extraction from the quartz contained in the rock samples. The samples were crushed and sieved, the 250–1000 µm fraction retrieved, and magnetic minerals removed using a Frantz™ isodynamic magnetic separator. Chemical processing for ¹⁰Be extraction consists of a succession of sample dissolution steps, starting with H₂SiF₆/HCl to eliminate non-quartz materials, followed by dilute HF in order to remove the atmospheric ¹⁰Be. Before complete dissolution in 48 % HF, samples were spiked with 0.15 g of an in-house-made ⁹Be solution (3.025±0.009 ppm; Merchel et al., 2008). After total dissolution, all sample solutions were evaporated, and beryllium was extracted from the dry residues using anion and cation exchange columns and precipitation of Be(OH)₂ in successive steps. The hydroxides were dried and oxidized at 700 °C for 1 h. The BeO oxide was mixed with Nb powder and placed in copper cathodes for measurement of the sample ¹⁰Be/⁹Be ratios at the French national AMS facility ASTER (Arnold et al., 2010), and calibrated against in-house standard STD-11 with an assigned 10 Be/ 9 Be ratio of (1.191 \pm 0.013) x 10 $^{-11}$ (Braucher et al., 2015) using the 10 Be half-life of (1.387±0.0012) x 10⁶ years established by Chmeleff et al. (2010) and Korschinek et al. (2010). The 10 Be/ 9 Be blank ratio ranged between 8.54 x 10^{-16} and 2.29 x 10^{-15} . Measurement-related analytical uncertainties include ASTER counting statistics and machine stability (~0.5 %; Arnold et al., 2010).

New and previously published ¹⁰Be exposure ages were calculated or recalculated using the Cosmic Ray Exposure Program (CREP) (Martin et al., 2017; Suppl. Material 1). Kernel density probability age plots, which display the probability density distribution, weighted mean, and associate standard deviation of each result, were generated with the iceTEA numerical toolkit (Jones et al., 2019). All nuclide concentrations were converted to the O7KNSTD standard (Nishiizumi et al., 2007). Production rates were calibrated by applying the Lal-Stone time-corrected scaling scheme (Lal, 1991; Stone, 2000; Nishiizumi et al., 1989; Balco et al., 2008) with the muon parameters of Braucher et al. (2011), the ERA-40 atmosphere model (Uppala et al., 2005), and the ¹⁰Be-based atmospheric corrections for geomagnetic field intensity (Muscheler et al., 2005), resulting in a Europe SLHL (sea-level high altitude) production rate of 4.16 \pm 0.2 at·g $^{-1}$ ·yr $^{-1}$ (Claude et al., 2014). The SLHL was further corrected for topographic shielding (Dunne et al., 1999) and snow shielding (Gosse and Phillips, 2001) using a mean value for snow density of 0.25 g·cm⁻³. Snow cover extrapolations are based on present-day data provided by a high-resolution model developed Meteo-France (ANR SCAMPEI: http://www.umrby cnrm.fr/scampei/presentation_scampei/index.php). Whether newly acquired (n = 22) or recalibrated from previous publications (n = 49), the ¹⁰Be results were modeled with and without snow-shielding correction in order to assess the influence of this parameter on results. Both age series were calculated under a hypothesis of no postglacial denudation given the well-rounded and glacially-polished characteristics of the sampled surfaces (Fig. 3A-D).

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Recalculations of published ³⁶Cl exposure ages (n = 15) were based on the statistical tools developed by Schimmelpfennig (2009) and Schimmelpfennig et al. (2009; Suppl.

Material 1). Elevation—latitude scaling factors were evaluated using CosmoCalc (Vermeesch, 2007) and were based on the scaling models of Stone (2000) for nucleonic production, and Braucher et al. (2011) for muonic contribution.

3.3 Glaciological and paleoclimate modeling

Ice-margin reconstructions and chronologies obtained from the methods described above were used to characterise the paleoclimatic conditions prevalent in the glacial catchment during the corresponding interval. The approach is based on the two following steps, both of which interact iteratively as illustrated in Suppl. Figure 2.1.

The first step uses the GlaRe ArcGis™ toolbox developed by Pellitero et al. (2016) to reconstruct glacier ice-thickness profiles based on a simple glaciological model, schematically illustrated in Figure 4A and detailed in Suppl. Material 2. The toolbox requires as inputs (i) glacier outlines, here provided by the geomorphological maps; (ii) glacier bed topography (obtained in the present case from the 5 m IGN digital elevation model); and (iii) glacier flowlines manually drawn based on the present-day slope system. We assumed that the subglacial topography has remained roughly unchanged since the LGM.

The second step focuses on the reconstruction of T and P conditions that were prevalent at the time of a given glacial stillstand For this, we used a Matlab script developed by Harper and Humphrey (2003) and improved by Blard et al. (2007; see Suppl. Material 2). The application allows a glacier mass-balance in a given climatic context to be reconstructed on the basis on four parameters: (i) mean monthly temperatures (MMT) and their associated standard deviation (1σ), (ii) cumulative monthly precipitation (CMP), (iii) temperature and precipitation altitude gradients, and (iv) degree-day factor (DDF) values. The advantage of

using the two models in combination is that Harper and Humphrey (2003) impose a default shear stress of 100 Pa, whereas basal shear stress in GlaRe is a variable. Optimal fits of glacier thickness to the ice-margin deposits are thus enhanced by more realistic values of that key variable (Suppl. Table 2.1).

In this study, the climatic reference frame is elaborated from present-day CMP and MMT values recorded from the nearest 16 weather stations (see Fig. 2C and Suppl. Table 2.2). Data were normalised to a reference altitude of 1400 m based on an atmospheric annual temperature lapse rate and precipitation gradient set to 0.63 °C·100 m⁻¹ and 46 mm·100 m⁻¹, respectively (López-Moreno, 2006), thus generating spatially-averaged values of CPM and MMT (see Suppl. Table 2.3). This baseline then makes it possible to investigate the magnitude of annual temperature and precipitation anomalies, ΔT and ΔP , relative to the current baseline, and thus also provides the potential for appreciating Pleistocene climatic changes through space and time.

DDF values of 3.0 mm eq. water- $^{\circ}$ C⁻¹·day⁻¹ for snow, and 6.1 mm eq. water- $^{\circ}$ C⁻¹·day⁻¹ for ice, were applied on the basis of the glaciological data recorded for glaciers in the western French Alps (Six and Vincent, 2014). Regional *DDF* variations are known to be a function of humidity, wind speed, and cloud cover (Hock, 2003). Uncertainty arising from these variations can be defined by a sensitivity test (Blard et al., 2007). This approach consists in estimating the uncertainty envelope around reconstructed temperatures and precipitation (ΔT , ΔP) by running the mass-balance model with extreme *DDF* input values from various temperate glaciers around the world (Braithwaite et al., 2000; Hock, 2003; see Suppl. Table 2.4). Given the ± 17.8 % envelope with respect to the *DDF* value recorded for the Alpine glaciers, the sensitivity test estimates mass-balance gradient (MBG) variation

between ± 0.09 and ± 0.03 m·yr⁻¹·100 m⁻¹, resulting in uncertainties around Pyrenean paleoclimatic reconstructions of ± 0.5 °C for temperatures and ± 5 to ± 25 % for precipitation (light blue shading in Fig. 4C).

Lastly, the mass-balance model was calibrated by modern glaciological baseline data in order to integrate orographic effects on precipitation and snow redistribution by wind and avalanches. Using 2001–2017 glaciological data from the Ossoue glacier on the north side of the central Pyrenees (source: Observatoire des Glaciers des Pyrénées françaises) and from the Maladeta glacier on the south side (source: Pedrero Muñoz, pers. comm., 2019; Fig. 1), we established that mass-balance best fits were obtained when applying an average correction factor of 2.9 to available CMP values, and that this factor was fully valid for an elevation band ranging between ~1400 m and the elevated glacier surface. The factor of 2.9 is consistent with the value of 2.8 applied by Marti (2016). Overall, the modern theoretical mass-balance gradient reconstructed for the eastern Pyrenees is thus 0.54 m·yr⁻¹·100 m⁻¹ with an ELA at 3163 m (red curve in Fig. 4B).

After the modern surface mass-balance curve has been established, the current MMT and CMP are changed by step-wise, user-defined perturbations aimed at making the glacier expand from present-day conditions until it reaches the desired spatial extent defined by the mapped and dated ice-margin deposits (see Section 3.1). The models combined in the Harper and Humphrey (2003) algorithm generate a large range of paleoclimatic conditions, i.e., several ΔP and ΔT pairs, each corresponding to a specific ice-thickness profile, itself related to a given mass-balance gradient and to a given altitudinal position of the ELA (smaller blue circles in Figure 4C). Ideally, output values of ΔP or ΔT should be constrained by independently obtained paleoclimate proxies. Given, however, the absence of data on past

atmospheric conditions in the study area, we used best-fitting ice thickness profiles generated by the Glare Toolbox as criteria for selecting (among the multiple solutions generated by the Harper and Humphrey model) the best-fitting values of MBG, ELA, and deviations of P and T (Δ P, Δ T) relative to present-day climatic conditions (larger blue circles in Figure 4C).

4. Results: glacier fluctuation chronology and paleoclimate reconstructions

4.1. The upper Ariège catchment

4.1.1. Sequence of ice-marginal deposits and landforms

The geomorphological maps shown in Figure 5 highlight ice-marginal deposits in two key areas: (i) along the Ariège valley, close to Petches and Mérens-les-Vals; and (ii) in the vicinity of Col de Puymorens, at the contributory outlets of the En Garcia, Orri, Baladrar and Pas-de-la-Casa subcatchments.

At the village of Petches (Fig. 5A), three lateral moraines between 900 and 960 m on the slopes of the Ariège valley mark out the successive positions of a valley glacier significantly thinner than during the LLGM, when it attained the 1650 m elevation contour in this section of the catchment (Delmas et al., 2012). The ice front is not well marked out by a frontal moraine, but the position of the lateral moraines suggests that the 25-km-long glacier reached the 800 m elevation contour at Ax-les-Thermes. At this time, the Ariège iceway was disconnected from the Najar tributary glaciers, and probably also from the Oriège (Delmas et al., 2011). Further upstream, close to Mérens, a frontal moraine at 1050 m marks out the terminal position of an even thinner and shorter glacier, 15 km long and disconnected from its Nabre and Mourguillou tributaries (Fig. 5A).

Although not abundant enough to qualify as moraines, conspicuous alignments of glacially-polished gneiss boulders between 1950 and 1980 m striking NW-SE along the east side of the col (blue dashed lines in Fig. 5B) clearly outline a glacier margin. The lithology indicates that they were supplied by the En Garcia catchment. Their altitude on the slope shows that the ice was thick enough to have joined the trunk glacier also fed by the three other catchments on the south side of Puymorens. Other gneiss boulders located higher up the same eastern mountain side (up to 2110 m; brown stars in Fig. 5B) outline the former presence of a wider and thicker glacier, with limits probably very close (or identical) to those of the LLGM. Note that the LLGM is not marked out by an abundance of ice-marginal deposits because the col, at the time, was located within the accumulation rather than the ablation zone of the trunk glacier (local ELA at the time of the LLGM: ~1800 m; Calvet et al., 2004; Fig. 2C). Below the alignments of gneiss boulders, two well-preserved moraines (1930 m), exclusively consisting of granite boulders, outline the left margin of a glacier previously fed by ice supplied by the Orri, Baladrar or Pas-de-la-Casa catchments, but already disconnected from the En Garcia (Fig. 5B).

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On the south side of Puymorens, a lateral moraine at the outlet of the Estanyol subcatchment marks out the left margin of a glacier joining the Querol valley. Further west, the Vinyole moraine complex (multiple ridges; green lines in Fig. 5B), is the combined product of left-margin lateral moraines from a glacier exiting the Orri, and right-margin moraines from another glacier fed by the Baladrar and Pas-de-la-Casa subcatchments (Fig. 3E). The lower right-margin moraine documents a time when the col was partially deglaciated and hosted an ice-marginal lake now completely filled with sediment. On the left side of Orri valley, the multiple lateral moraines of the Vinyole complex document

respectively (i) a 7-km-long glacier descending to elevations of 1650–1700 m (ice front); (ii) a thinner and shorter (5 km) glacier reaching an elevation of 1900 m; and (iii) an even thinner and shorter (3 km) glacier confined to the eastern part of the Orri cirque floor, below the higher headwall of the catchment, and terminating at the 2100 m elevation contour. Thereafter, the catchment hosted two rock glaciers: the older one developed at the time of the 2100 m Orri glacial stillstand, the younger one formed after the glacier had retreated to the cirque headwall and vanished.

Finally, the Baladrar and Pas-de-la-Casa subcatchments host a similar sequence of rock glaciers and ice-margin deposits assignable to four substantially different ice extents (Fig. 5B):

- (i) The most elevated ribbon of ice-marginal debris occurs at 2280 m on the right side of Pas-de-la-Casa valley (brown stars in Fig. 5B); it delineates a glacier boundary close to that of the LLGM.
- (ii) Further down the mountain side, several lateral moraines and a kame terrace occurring at 2040 m mark out the right side of a substantially thinner and narrower glacier. At this time, however, the thickness of the Ariège trunk glacier was still sufficient to ensure a connection with the Baladrar tributary and reach the right-margin lateral moraines of the Vinyole complex (Fig. 5B; green lines).
- (iii) Further still down the hillsides, several lateral moraines located ca. 1980 m mark out the right side of a former glacier confined to the Pas-de-la-Casa subcatchment. The Ariège trunk glacier was still connected to its Baladrar tributary, and was producing the frontal moraines mapped around 1580 m, 2 km upstream of L'Hospitalet (red lines in Fig. 5B).

(iv) A last recessional stillstand, confined to the most elevated cirque floors and followed by a period of rock-glacier development, is identifiable in the Baladrar and Pas-de-la-Casa catchments (yellow lines in Fig. 5B).

4.1.2. Four glacial stades and their chronology

The sequence of ice-marginal deposits described above allows a succession of four stadial boundaries to be distinguished in the upper Ariège catchment.

- (i) Glacier boundaries for the Petches/Ax-les-Thermes stadial are defined by the Petches lateral moraines. At this time, the trunk glacier in the upper part of the catchment was 100 to 150 m thinner than at the time of the LLGM (Fig. 6A). Ice was nonetheless thick enough to allow the tributaries (En Garcia, Orri, Baladrar and Pasde-la-Casa) to join up as a unique composite glacier spilling north and south into the Ariège and Querol valleys, respectively. Col de Puymorens was thus still functioning at the time as a diffluence col.
- (ii) Thereafter, the Ariège glacier retreated to a new position defined by the Mérens frontal moraines. In the upper part of the catchment, this interval produced the lower right-margin moraine of the Vinyole complex, which documents a partial deglaciation of the Puymorens pass, and the ice-margin deposits at 2040 m on the right side of the Pas-de-la Casa glacier (Fig. 6B).
- (iii) At the time of the Hospitalet stillstand, the Ariège glacier was confined to its Pasde-la-Casa subcatchment (Fig. 6C).

(iv) The last glacial stillstand recorded in the study area, before rock-glacier development in periglacial and/or paraglacial environments, corresponds to small cirque glaciers (less than 1 km long, Fig. 6D).

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Tables 1 and 2 present the series of 22 new ¹⁰Be surface exposure ages from boulders from nine sampling sites relevant to the Ax and Mérens glacial stillstands defined above. A tenth sampling site is located close to the LLGM ice limit near Puymorens. Overall, age results around Puymorens for sites A, C, D, F, G and H are often statistically indistinguishable, but age differences between sites are consistent with their relative positions in the landform sequence, and thus with the expected ice-recession chronology outlined above (Figs. 5-7). For example, boulders located on the most elevated right-marginal ribbon of glacial debris ca. 2280 m in Pas-de-la-Casa valley (Fig. 5B: site A) provide two consistent ages of 20.5±1.0 ka and 19.8±1.0 ka. On that basis, ice thickness at Puymorens at the end of the LGM (~20 ka) was almost identical to ice thickness during the LLGM. This is consistent with the ages of 18.0±1.0 ka and 18.6±1.2 ka obtained from site C (Fig. 5B, Table 2). Given that those boulders occur below the ribbon of gneiss boulders (1950 and 1980 m) on the NE side of the col (blue dashed lines, Fig. 5B), configurations of ice extent inferred from the geomorphological map dictate that the boulders at site C (100 to 150 m below the LLGM deposits around Col de Puymorens) match the Ax/Petches stadial boundaries rather than any other. On the same basis, the granite boulders from site D provide two ages of 17.8±1.2 and 18.2±1.0 (Fig. 5B; Table 2), thereby showing that the higher Vinyole moraines at the time of the Ax/Petches stillstand were medial moraines between the coalescing glaciers originating from the Orri and Baladrar catchments (Fig. 6A).

Boulders at site F1 provide more scattered results (17.9±0.9 ka on PUY03) and large uncertainty around PUY04 (16.5±2.4 ka), whereas boulders at site F2, on the right side of the Ariège glacier at the time of the Mérens stade (by which time the Puymorens col area was ice-free), provide ages of 15.7±1.1 ka and 16.5±1.2 ka (Fig. 5A; Table 2). Results for F2 are in good agreement (i) with the age of 16.8±1.6 ka and 15.8±1.6 from two other boulders embedded in the Estagnol left-margin moraine (site G; the third age for site G, 17.2±5.3 ka, has been removed because analytical error exceeds 15 %); and likewise (ii) with the 17.3±0.9 ka and 16.6±0.8 ka ages for the right-marginal moraine at 2040 m in Pas-de-la-Casa valley (site H; Fig. 5B, Table 2).

Results obtained at sites B and E are substantially more scattered (Fig. 5A; Table 2). Given the consistent ¹⁰Be ages obtained in the vicinity of Puymorens (see above), we infer that: (i) the ages for PET10 (18.5±1.5 ka), PET11 (17.0±1.8 ka) and MER18 (15.5±1.2 ka) accurately estimate the time at which the Petches and Mérens lateral moraines were constructed; (ii) the ages for PET12 (20.7±1.7 ka) and MER19 (20.4±1.3 ka) are anomalously old (the likely cause being that boulders from the LLGM deposit situated on the hillside above sites B and E have polluted the Petches and Mérens moraines that occur lower down); (iii) the ages for PET09 (15.1±1.2 ka) and PET13 (15.7±1.4 ka) are too young given their low elevation (<1200 m). This lower part of the valley was engulfed from the early Holocene onward by a rapid return of temperate deciduous forest (Jalut et al., 1992), wherein the humid climate typical of forest habitats in the Pyrenean foothills would have ensured high rates of post-depositional weathering of the glacial deposits, thus making till-embedded boulders vulnerable to exposure-age anomalies.

Further TCN results from near Ax-les-Thermes and from Col de Puymorens, previously published by Delmas et al. (2011) and Pallàs et al. (2010) and recalibrated in the context of this study (see Suppl. Table 3.1), are of little direct use to the purpose of paleoclimate modelling or refining the chronology presented above. However, of crucial value for completing the LGIT history, four ¹⁰Be ages were obtained by Pallàs et al. (2010) from boulders from the lateral moraine that marks out the smaller (3-km-long) and thinner (90 to 40 m) Orri glacier (terminal position: 2100 m). The exposure ages for LOR01 (14.4ka±1.4 ka), LOR03 (15.0±1.5 ka), LOR04 (13.7±1.0 ka), and LOR05 (15.4±1.9 ka), updated here on the basis of the recalibrations described in Section 3.2, provide a weighted mean age of 14.5±0.6 ka (Figs. 5B, 6D, 7, Table 3). This ascribes these glacier-margin deposits to the beginning of GI-1. On that basis, the rock glacier at the foot of the cirque headwall likely formed during GS-1, suggesting that the Orri glacier, despite being hosted by a north-facing cirque, had become extinct by the end of GI-1.

To summarize, the glacier stillstand chronology in the upper Ariège catchment (Fig. 7, Table 3) based on weighted mean ¹⁰Be exposure ages is as follows: the (i) Pas-de-la-Casa (ribbon of ice-marginal boulders at 2280 m; 2 samples; weighted mean: 20.2±0.3 ka), (ii) Petches/Ax-les-Thermes (various ice-margin deposits: 6 samples; weighted mean of 18.0±0.5 ka), (iii) Mérens (various ice-margin deposits: 7 samples; weighted mean: 16.5±0.5 ka), and (iv) Orri (4 samples; weighted mean: 14.5±0.6 ka) stillstands span the latest LGM and most of the LGIT (early GS-2.1b, late GS-2.1b, GS-2.1a, and GI-1, respectively). The Hospitalet stillstand, situated between Mérens and Orri, is unsatisfactorily dated, but can still undergo glaciological and paleoclimatic modeling.

4.1.3 Glaciological and paleoclimatic reconstructions

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On the basis of the successive ice boundaries presented and dated, the Harper and Humphrey application further allows the paleoglaciological (ELA, MBG) and paleoclimatic (ΔP and ΔT) conditions relating to each glacial stade to be reconstructed (Table 3; Figs. 6, 8). Icethickness profiles obtained for the Ax/Petches stade on the basis of Figure 6A yielded an ELA at 2012 m and a mass-balance gradient of 0.47±0.05 m·yr⁻¹·100 m⁻¹, and best-fitting P and T pairs of -62±8 % for paleoprecipitation relative to present-day reference conditions, and -9.7±0.5 °C for paleotemperature (Figs. 4C, 8). On the same basis, the best-fitting paleoclimatic conditions valid for the three subsequent glacial stades in the upper Ariège catchment are summarized and illustrated in Figures 6 and 8. This, at the time of the Mérens stade, the Ariège glacier was about 15 km-long, 270 m thick (right-margin lateral moraine of Pas-de-la-Casa at 2040 m) and 300 m thick a few kilometres downsteam, at the Vinyole complex. Reconstructed glaciological and paleoclimatic conditions shown in Figure 8 are based on ice profile constraints set by these two points. At the time of the Hospitalet stade, the Ariège glacier was 9.5 km long, the ice front stood at an elevation of 1580 m and formed on its right margin the lateral moraines located between 1870 and 2030 m. Paleoclimatic conditions shown in Figure 8 are based on ice thickness constraints (~100 m) set by these lateral moraines. Constraints on ice thickness during that final period of residual cirque glaciers are provided by a lateral moraine in the Orri valley (ice thickness: 70–35 m, and ice front at 2100 m). Reconstructed paleoclimatic conditions based on that evidence are shown in Figure 8.

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4.2. LGIT ice fluctuations and paleoclimate reconstructions among other east-Pyrenean

catchments

Here we extend the methodology presented above as a pilot for the Ariège to other east-Pyrenean catchments where LGIT glacial chronologies have previously been documented (Table 3, Figs. 9–11). These include catchments within massifs to the north (Suc, Escale, Picot and Médecourbe) and south (Arànser, Malniu, Grave) of the Axial Zone (Fig. 2C). Chronological results are based on a recalibration of the population of existing TCN exposure ages for those valleys in order to update the age determination of the glacial landform sequences already mapped and dated in those catchments (see Suppl. Tables 3.2 and 3.3). Ice-marginal deposits ascribed to each local glacial stade allow paleoglaciological (ELA, MBG) and paleoclimatic (ΔP and ΔT) conditions to be reconstructed for several key locations that sample the climatic variability within the eastern Pyrenees (Fig. 2) and at different times of the LGIT (Table 3).

4.2.1. North side of the eastern Pyrenees

4.2.1.1. Suc valley (Trois-Seigneurs massif; after Delmas et al., 2011)

The Suc is a tributary of the Vicdessos River, on the south side of the Trois-Seigneurs massif. Four ¹⁰Be ages from glacier-polished surfaces sampled at Freychinède bedrock step (site L, Fig. 9C) indicate that this bedrock exposure was ice-free ca. 16.1±1.0 ka (see also Suppl. Table 3.2). This, and an independent study by Jalut et al. (1982) based on radiocarbon dating and other lithostratigraphic criteria from a glacial paleolake, indicates that the Suc glacier was confined to its upper valley by the end of GS-2.1a. Glacier thickness, however, remains

imprecisely defined. Given its position 100 m above the valley floor and in a sheltered zone (edge of a diffluent ice flow; Fig. 9C), the scenario constructed around site L only provides a minimum value for glacier thickness. The available evidence is thus not an optimal input for the glaciological model and for reconstructing paleoclimatic conditions in Suc valley at the time of GS-2.1a (Fig. 10).

4.2.1.2. Escale valley (Bassiès massif; after Crest et al., 2017)

In a catchment just 4 km to the south of Suc valley (Fig. 2C), the presence of a frontal moraine (1500 m) on the north side of the Légunabens diffluence col provides a proxy for reconstructing a 6.5-km-long glacier in Escale valley, 150 m thick at the col (Fig. 9A). The ELA, MBG, ΔP and ΔT best-fitting values produced on that basis are summarized in Table 3 and Figure 10. Two ¹⁰Be ages (BA15, BA16) provided a weighted mean of 16.1±0.2 ka (Fig. 9A, Suppl. Table 3.2), thereby situating the Légunabens glacial stillstand within GS-2.1a. Further upvalley, a smaller glacier marked out by a multiplicity of closely-spaced lateral moraines ca. 1885 m (Mouscadous local stade; weighted mean ¹⁰Be ages from BA17 and BA18: 12.3±0.2 ka; Fig. 9B, Suppl. Table 3.2) place this stadial unit in GS-1.

4.2.1.3. Picot and Médecourbe valleys (Soulcem catchment; Mont Calm–Pique d'Estats massif; Jomelli et al., 2020)

This area is situated in the upper part of the Vicdessos River catchment (Fig. 2C), 10–15 km southeast of Légunabens. Picot is a steep-walled amphitheatre floored by three glacial

hollows, each containing a lake and separated from the other by ~100-m-high, subvertical rock spurs bearing large, east-facing rock glaciers. Revised age values (inclusive of snow shielding corrections) from the Outer Picot stadial moraine (elevation: 2060 m) provide a weighted mean age of 17.8±0.3 ka (Picot-21, Picot-22, Fig. 9E; Suppl. Table 3.2). Deposits associated with the Inner Picot glacial stillstand (ice front around 2200 m, Fig. 9F; Picot-17: 16.8±0.8 ka, Picot-18: 16.7±0.8 ka) and two glacially-polished bedrock surfaces at 2300 m (Picot-15, Picot-16: weighted mean age of 16.7±0.1 ka; Suppl. Table. 3.2) overall place the Outer and Inner Picot stadial deposits within GS-2.1b and GS-2.1a, respectively. The small Médecourbe catchment (5 km south of Picot) also hosts a succession of five frontal moraines located between 2200 and 2300 m and spanning a few hundred metres. Age remodeling (inclusive of snow shielding) of nine samples produced slightly older exposure ages than previously obtained by Jomelli et al. (2020)(Suppl. Table. 3.2) but, as in the Picot catchment, the corrected ages do not fundamentally change the chronological interpretations initially inferred. A weighted mean age of 13.2±0.9 ka (Med 1, Med 2, Med 3, Med 4; Fig. 9D, Suppl. Table. 3.2) places the frontal moraines (elevation: 2200 m) at the transition between GI-1 and GS-1. Given, however, the uncertainty both in snow-cover

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4.2.2. South side of the eastern Pyrenees

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4.2.2.1. Arànser valley (Tossa Plana massif; after Palacios et al., 2015b; Andrés et al., 2018)

duration and snow thickness at high altitudes, we assume that the Médecourbe glacial

stillstand occurred at the time of GS-1 rather than at the end of interstadial GI-1.

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At the time of the LLGM, the Arànser catchment in northern Spain hosted a 5–6-km-long composite glacier on the south-eastern side of the flat-topped Tossa Plana (2600–2700 m, border with Andorra). Restricting ³⁶Cl age recalculations to samples that were not considered anomalous outliers by Palacios et al., (2015b) and Andrés et al. (2018), results for PIR11-08, PIR11-09 and PIR11-12 provide a weighted mean age of 13.6±0.9 ka for the Perafita moraines (Fig. 11A). On that basis, we infer that (i) the left-margin lateral moraines of Perafita glacier were constructed during GS-2.1a; (ii) as in the case of the Orri catchment on the north side of the orogen, the Perafita glacier became extinct during the Gl-1 interstadial despite the benefits of the Tossa plateau acting as a (small) reservoir of windblown snow feeding the SE-facing cirques. The catchment thereafter hosted active rock glaciers (Palacios et al., 2015b).

4.2.2.2. Malniu valley (Campcardós massif; Pallàs et al., 2010; Palacios et al., 2015b; Andrés et al., 2018)

The Campcardós massif (2914 m; Fig. 2), ~15 km east of Arànser, is also flat-topped and favours snow accumulation downwind of northwesterly airstreams. In Malniu valley, the 24 revised exposure ages document four distinct Late Pleistocene stadial positions: (i) a MIS 3 and/or MIS 4 terminal moraine; (ii) a LGM frontal moraine situated inboard of, but very close to, its MIS 3/ MIS 4 predecessor; (iii) a smaller, early GS-2.1b moraine (still at the time a valley glacier fed by ice originating from the four south-facing glacial cirques; Fig. 11B); and (iv) a GS-2.1a stadial moraine. Two rock glaciers developed subsequently during GI-1, both confined to the glacial cirques. Revised model ages from the six boulders sampled on the

lateral moraines provide a weighted mean age of 19.2±0.7 ka (PIR13-09, PIR13-10, OMA01 to OMA04, Suppl. Table 3.3), which confirms that these stadial deposits belong to GS-2.1b. The glaciological and paleoclimatic reconstructions are based on the frontal and lateral moraines ascribed to GS-2.1b: ice thickness was ~50 m close to ¹⁰Be sample OMA, and ~80 m close to ³⁶Cl sample PIR13-09/10 (see Fig. 11B).

4.2.2.3. Upper Têt, or Grave, valley (Carlit massif; after Delmas, 2005; Delmas et al., 2008; Crest et al., 2017; Tomkins et al., 2018)

The Grave valley is located 25 km NE of Campcardós. Although south facing and relatively dry, the valley receives northwesterly airflow and precipitation through a saddle in the headwall. Radiocarbon ages obtained from a peatbog (2150 m) on the valley floor suggest early and rapid post-LLGM glacial recession, with ice becoming mostly confined to cirque floors at the end of the LGM. A SHED age of 16.1±0.5 ka on a left-margin lateral moraine (elevation: 2200–2100 m; Tomkins et al., 2018) nonetheless hints at an ice front located around 2020 m in the Grave valley at that time, and thus accrediting the possibility that the peatbog was overridden by a readvancing glacier during GS-2.1a (Fig. 11C). Based on that scenario, the reconstructed 3-D ice surface at the time of GS-2.1a shows a glacier 6.5 km long and thinning in stages from 130 to 25 m in the ablation zone. On the basis of the ice-thickness profile constrained by the left-margin lateral moraine, the paleoclimatic model parameters are summarized in Table 3 and Figure 11D. In the uppermost part of the catchment, several frontal and lateral moraines mark out two smaller (and younger) glacier stillstands, with their respective ice fronts reaching 2150 and 2160 m. Revised model ages

for both these local stades provide weighted means of 13.8±0.6 ka (ice front at 2150 m, sites M) and 13.1±0.6 ka (ice front at 2160 m, site N and O), respectively (Suppl. Table 3.3). Such an age sequence places the two events within the GI-1 interstadial (Fig. 11E).

5. Discussion

Based on paleoglaciological (ELA, MBG) and paleoclimatic (ΔP , ΔT) results acquired from the glacial stillstands documented above (Section 4, Table 3 and Fig. 12), we analyse patterns of LGIT climatic conditions in the eastern Pyrenees (Section 5.1) and discuss their implications for atmospheric circulation in a wider European context (Section 5.2).

5.1. LGIT glacier fluctuations as proxies for east-Pyrenean climate variability through space and time

As emphasized in Section 3.3, in mountain settings where modern climatic (MMT, CMP, altitudinal lapse rates) and glaciological (*DDF*) constraints are unavailable, such as in many parts of the Pyrenees, model reconstructions of paleoclimate can only be addressed in relative terms, i.e., by comparing (i) simultaneous conditions in different parts of the mountain range during a particular time interval; or (ii) relative P and T changes over a given chronological sequence in different valleys. Results reported in Table 3 document a sharp climatic contrast between the north and the south side of the range from the end of the GS-2.1b (Section 5.1.1). They also highlight a clear transformation of regional climate during the

LGIT (Section 5.1.2), with a significant increase of temperatures and precipitation between GS-2.1a and GI-1. Impacts of GS-1-related cooling (Younger Dryas) are also examined.

5.1.1. A clear and enduring north-south climatic divide during GS-2.1b and thereafter

In terms of glacier size, the upper Ariège valley hosted the largest: 27.5 km at the time of GS-2.1b (Ax stade), and still 19.5 km during GS-2.1a (Mérens stade). Coeval glaciers on the south-facing sides of the Campcardós (GS-2.1b, Malniu) and Tossa Plana (GS-2.1a, Arànser) were just 2–3 km long, and a little longer (~6 km) on the south-facing sides of the Carlit (GS-2.1a Grave) and Bassiès massifs (GS-2.1a, Légunabens). These size contrasts are mostly explained by glacial catchment hypsometry (specifically: the surface area of catchments situated above ELA), which controls the volume of ice in the accumulation zone (Suppl. Material 4). With 90.7 km² at the time of GS-2.1b, and still 25.3 km² during GS-2.1a, the upper Ariège afforded by far the best conditions during the early LGIT compared to <4.4 km² in the other massifs during the same period (Table 3). Position of the ELA and massbalance gradient are direct indicators of montane paleoclimate because they integrate information about the regional climate and about local (topoclimatic) effects. On that basis, the glaciological modeling results document colder and wetter conditions among the northern massifs of the study area, with:

- (i) systematically lower ELAs on the north side of the range (during GS-2.1b: respectively 2012 m and 2413 m for the Ax and Malniu stillstands; during GS-2.1a: respectively 2152 m and 2473 m for the Mérens and Arànser stillstands);
- (ii) systematically higher mass-balance gradients, i.e., wetter conditions, on the north side of the range (GS-2.1b: respectively 0.47±0.05 and 0.37±0.06 m·yr⁻¹·100 m⁻¹ for

Ax and Malniu; GS-2.1a: respectively 0.50±0.05 and 0.35±0.05 m·yr⁻¹·100 m⁻¹ for Mérens and Arànser; Fig. 12, Table 3).

As explained in Section 3.3, ΔT and ΔP values reported in Table 3 should be analyzed in relative terms, i.e., whether contrasts between massifs in the past were similar, larger or smaller than today's. The data indicate that north–south climatic contrasts were more pronounced during the early LGIT (GS-2.1b and GS-2.1a) than they are today. At the time of GS-2.1b, this pattern is particularly clear in the case of temperatures (-9.7 ± 0.5 °C vs. -7.5 ± 0.5 °C during the Petches/Ax and Malniu stillstands). At the time of GS-2.1a, the pattern mainly concerned precipitation (-44 ± 11 % vs. -77 ± 7 % during the Mérens and Aránser stades).

Nested within this north–south divide, some finer spatial distinctions are apparent for GS-2.1a (Fig. 12, Table 3). Among the south-facing catchments, the Grave stillstand (ELA: 2383 m, MBG: 0.40±0.04 m·yr⁻¹·100 m⁻¹) occurred in a cooler and wetter environment than the Arànser further west (ELA: 2473 m, MBG: 0.35±0.05 m·yr⁻¹·100 m⁻¹). Among the northern massifs, the Légunabens stillstand (ELA: 2012 m, MBG: 0.44±0.05 m·yr⁻¹·100 m⁻¹) occurred in a cooler and drier environment than further east (Mérens stillstand in the upper Ariège valley; ELA: 2152 m, MBG: 0.50±0.05 m·yr⁻¹·100 m⁻¹). It is remarkable that the model data are sufficiently sensitive to evidence subsidiary topoclimatic effects of this kind: the NW–SE Grave valley head coincides with a saddle in the ridgetop, allowing the accumulation zone to be directly supplied by Atlantic airflow from the NW. The Vicdessos valley, in contrast, strikes NE–SW and is sheltered from northwesterly airflow by high summits. Also revealed by the data is the steeply declining precipitation gradient along the Vicdessos valley between the Trois-Seigneurs massif, which stands in a front-line position vulnerable to

Atlantic weather systems, and the inner Bassiès and Mont Calm massifs, which stand in more sheltered interior positions (Fig. 2). The gradient is perceptible in the data for GS2.1a (ΔP : +45±25 % at Freychinède, -45±11 % at Légunabens, -80±5 % at Inner Picot) and for GS-1 (-21±16 % at Mouscadous, -60±7 % at Médecourbe).

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5.1.2 Evidence of climatic change over time and compatibility with records for SW Europe

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The data in Table 3 show a change in climatic conditions from GS-2.1a to GI-1. In the upper Ariège valley, temperatures rose by +2.5±0.5 °C between the Mérens and Orri stadial units (GS-2.1a: -8.1±0.5 °C; GI-1: -5.6±0.5 °C), and a slight increase in precipitation (+ 20±16 %) can be inferred for the same time interval (GS-2.1a: -44±11 %; GI-1: -24±16 %). The climatic downturn (GS-1) cannot be directly documented in the upper Ariège valley because dated glacial deposits are unavailable. Two other sites (Mouscadous and Médecourbe) fail to provide clear trends because GI-1 is undocumented in the Vicdessos valley. Glacier stillstands documented in the Bassiès massif (Légunabens and Mouscadous), however, show that GS-1 was substantially warmer and a little wetter than the earlier stages of GS-2.1a (2.1±0.5 °C warmer and ~24±16 % wetter, with an ELA 190 m higher up the mountain; Table 3). On that basis, and given further the ΔT and ΔP changes (+2.5±0.5 °C, and +20±16 %) recorded between the Mérens and Orri glacial stillstands, it remains indirectly plausible that small glacial cirques were present in the upper Ariège (Pas-de-la-Casa) during GS-1. Acquiring ages brackets for the Hospitalet moraines downvalley and for cirque outlet moraines further upvalley (Fig. 5B) would provide the missing evidence, but indirect constraints can nonetheless be adduced by the recalculated ¹⁰Be ages for the Orri frontal

moraine (2100 m). These show that the last time a glacier was hosted by this cirque was not GS-1, as initially envisaged by Pallàs et al. (2010), but instead GI-1 (Table 3). This arises because revised ¹⁰Be dating protocols tends to generate systematically older exposure ages than under previous calibrations, particularly when snow shielding is included (see Suppl. Material 3). Exactly as on the south side of the range, cirque glaciers in this region of the Axial Zone thus dwindled to extinction during GI-1. When applying to the south side of the range the rises in ELA recorded in the upper Ariège (+271 m between GS-2.1a and GI-1) and Bassiès (+191 m between GS-2.1a and GS-1), all the valley heads of the southern catchments likewise underwent definitive deglaciation during the course of GI-1. The potential for ice accumulation on Tossa Plana and Campcardós was insufficient for a subsequent readvance during GS-1 (calculated ELA on the south side of those two massifs: 2740-2660 m). These conclusions are consistent with the development of rock glaciers in the cirques of the southern massifs during GI-1 and continuing into GS-1-most of this occurring in a paraglacial context of strong slope response to glacier extinction (Delmas et al., 2008; Andrés et al., 2018). The Grave valley in the Carlit massif may have continued to host small glaciers, 1 to 2 km long, benefiting from windblown snow accumulation and local topographic effects during GI-1 (see Section 4.2.2.3)—and probably also during GS-1, as suggested by three ages (11.49 \pm 1.8, 12.6 \pm 1.5, 12.6 \pm 2.7; Suppl. Table 3.3) from a glaciallypolished bedrock step located further back from the GI-1 moraine, ca. 2380 m.

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Overall, climatic changes reported in this study concur with a very large array of independently reported local and regional paleoenvrionmental proxies in the Pyrenees and Iberia (Fig. 12). Pollen spectra documented from the lake sediments at Freychinède (1350 m), La Borde (1660 m), Ruisseau de Laurenti (1860 m), Balcère (1770 m), and La Moulinasse

(1360 m), for example (locations in Fig. 2C), confirm that climatic conditions in the inner valleys of the eastern Pyrenees were substantially colder and drier during GS-2.1b and GS-2.1a (particularly under Mediterranean influence) than during GI-1 (synthesis in Jalut et al., 1992; Reille and Lowe, 1993; Reille and Andrieu, 1993). Further west, LGIT summer paleotemperatures inferred from *Chironomidae* in the lacustrine sediment sequence of Ech (710 m; central Pyrenees) and Laguna de la Roya (1608 m, NW Iberia) confirm the cold conditions of GS-2.1b and GS-2.1a, followed by a rapid rise in temperature conditions during GI-1 (Millet et al., 2012; Sobrino et al., 2012). The Ech and Laguna de la Roya lacustrine sequences also capture the cooling event corresponding to GS-1. They were associated with summer temperatures at least 2 °C higher than at the time of GS-2.1a (Millet et al., 2012; Muñoz Sobrino et al., 2012). Moreover, the wetter conditions during GS-1 compared to GS-2.1a are independently confirmed by the speleothem geochemistry of Seso cave (Central Pyrenees, Spain; Bartolomé et al., 2015) and pollen-based climate reconstructions from the Alborán Sea (Combourieu-Nebout et al., 2009; Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2011). Finally, multiproxy analysis of lacustrine (Fletcher et al., 2010; Rius et al., 2014; Moreno et al., 2012, 2014; González-Sampériz et al., 2017; Oliva-Urcia et al., 2017) and marine (Combourieu-Nebout et al., 2009; Dormoy et al., 2009; Melki et al., 2009; Naughton et al., 2019) sequences from within the wider region of SW Europe indicate similar chronologies, all of these in step with global records (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005; Rasmussen et al., 2014; Lambeck et al., 2014).

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5.2 LGIT paleoclimates of the eastern Pyrenees in the wider European context

Paleoclimatic conditions in the eastern Pyrenees, and their chronology and patterns of change discussed in Section 5.1, extend the existing spectrum of evidence documenting

changes in atmospheric circulation across Europe during the transition from the LGM to the Holocene.

The trajectories over Europe of low-pressure weather systems initially generated in the North Atlantic during the Late Pleistocene were essentially controlled by shifts in latitude of the Polar Front Jet Stream (PFJS). The position of the PFJS is itself a function of land- and sea-temperature-related high-pressure centres generated by the expansion and recession of (i) the North American Ice Sheet, (ii) sea ice in the North Atlantic, and (iii) the Fennoscandian Ice Sheet, which block or deflect the band of Westerlies southward (Bakke et al., 2009; Hofer et al., 2012; Beghin et al., 2015; Merz et al., 2015).

During the LGM, displacement of the PFJS southward to ~38° N (see models by Merz et al., 2015) was conducive to cold winter air masses invading the Mediterranean Basin more frequently than under interglacial conditions such as today. In that context, low-pressure systems would track frequently through the Straits of Gibraltar and directly across the full fetch of the Mediterranean. They would also, however, funnel through the lowland region between the ice-capped Alps and Pyrenees and into the Gulf of Lion, Ligurian Sea and Tyrrhenian Sea (Florineth and Schlüchter, 2000; Kuhlemann et al., 2008), with the relatively warm surface waters of the Mediterranean all the while providing ideal conditions for fuelling moisture advection and generating cyclonic weather (Hayes et al., 2005). Under the dynamics promoted by this atmospheric configuration, valley glaciers hosted by mountains of the Mediterranean peninsulas, but also by the southern massifs of the Alps and Pyrenees, found conditions for expansion (Haerberli and Penz, 1985; Florineth and Schlüchter, 2000; Kuhlemann et al., 2008; Delmas et al., 2011; Luetscher et al., 2015; Ludwig et al., 2016; Monegato et al., 2017).

After the LGM, insolation increased (Fig. 12) and the North American Ice Sheet began to recede during GS-2.1a (Stokes et al., 2012; Monegato et al., 2017). This triggered a displacement of the PFJS northward to latitudes of ~40–42° N between 18.3 and 15.9 ka (Eynaud et al., 2009), thus reducing the effects of southerly storm tracks and entailing glacier recession in the circum-Mediterranean mountain ranges. In the eastern Pyrenees, this is confirmed by the concomitant rise of ELAs from ~1800 m to ~2050–2150 m in northern massifs and from ~2200 m to ~2380–2450 m among their southern counterparts (Fig. 12). Magnitudes of change in temperature and precipitation between the LGM and early LGIT remain unknown but, whether on the north or the south side of the range, paleoclimatic data from east-Pyrenean glaciers indicate overall a very cold and dry environment during GS-2.1a (Fig. 12).

This record concurs with trends documented Europe-wide. In the Austrian Alps, the Gschnitz stadial ELA (~16–17 ka, i.e., GS-2.1a) was 1930 m, and paleotemperatures and paleoprecipitations were respectively 10 °C and 70 % lower than today (Ivy-Ochs et al., 2006). In the Tatra Mountains, the ELA was 1600–1800 m, and paleotemperatures and paleoprecipitation were respectively 9–10 °C and 30–50 % lower than today (Makos et al., 2018). In the Cantabrian Mountains (Fuentes Carrionas), the ELA was ~1990 m at a time when paleotemperatures and paleoprecipitation were respectively 10.4 °C and 30 % lower than today (Pellitero et al., 2019). The eastern Mediterranean area was comparatively more humid (Mount Erciyes, in central Turkey, recorded paleoprecipitation 50 % higher than today and paleotemperatures lower by 4.5–6.4 °C; Sarikaya et al., 2009), still probably benefiting from intense convection over the Levantine Sea with its warmer SSTs coming into contact with cold winter air (Fig. 12; Castañeda et al., 2010).

The study area nonetheless also records a contrast in paleoprecipitation totals between the northern and southern massifs during GS-2.1a (Fig. 12), highlighting more abundant supply of precipitation from Atlantic sources and supplying glaciers in the northern massifs. The N-S contrast points to a climatic regime with a PFJS now roughly positioned at Pyrenean latitudes, with snowfall generated by low-pressure weather systems over the North Atlantic impacting the northern Pyrenees more strongly than during the LGM, and masses of cold air and their associated cold fronts periodically pinching off the polar hemisphere and getting funneled southeastward across France to the western Mediterranean. The funneling scenario is supported by the age of OSL-dated eolian deposits in the lower Rhône valley, which document wind acceleration from the north and northwest between 27 and 16 ka, i.e., during the LGM and onward through to GS-2.1a (Bosq et al., 2018). Adding to the continuing outflow of glacial waters from the Rhône catchment, cooler SSTs over the Gulf of Lion, generated by these frequent and intense northerly (mistral) and northwesterly (tramontane) winds, also entailed strong upwelling effects (Melki et al., 2009). These cumulative factors overall curbed the potential for convective circulation above the western Mediterranean, and mostly shut down opportunities (which were prevalent during the LGM) for heavy snowfall over the southern massifs of the eastern Pyrenees during GS-2.1a. General climatic conditions became milder during GS-1 compared to GS-2.1a, and

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General climatic conditions became milder during GS-1 compared to GS-2.1a, and involved a rise in ELAs and in T and P values throughout Europe. In the High Tatra Mts., the reconstructed GS-1 ELA (12.5 ka) had risen to 1950–2000 m, and T and P were respectively 6 °C and 15–25 % lower than today (Makos et al., 2012, 2018). In the Western Alps, during the transition between GS-1 and the earliest Holocene (~11 ka), the ELA of the Argentière glacier

(Mont Blanc) was ~2400 m, with T and P respectively 3.6–5.5 °C and 0–45 % lower than today, (Protin et al., 2019). In the Cantabrian Mountains (Fuentes Carrionas), the GS-1 ELA (12.4 ka) was 2265 m, Δ T was -9 °C, but Δ P only -2 % (Pellitero et al., 2019). As shown in Figure 12, ELAs in the eastern Pyrenees had risen everywhere to at least 2200 m, often to 2500 m, thus reducing potential glacier accumulation zones to vanishingly small sizes given the hypsometry of the massifs (Suppl. Material 4).

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A study of Europe-wide paleoprecipitation based on 122 reconstructed glacier boundaries and proxy atmospheric temperatures has allowed precipitation anomalies during GS-1 to be simulated widely across Europe (Rea et al., 2020). With greater precision than for GS-2.1, the results for GS-1 show a strong contrast between negative and positive P anomalies in the western and eastern Mediterranean, respectively. These are fully consistent with the Pyrenean results presented here, which indicate, however, a slightly more negative precipitation anomaly (-20 %) than adduced by Rea et al. (2020). This minor difference can be explained by the fact that Rea et al. (2020) based their evidence in the eastern Pyrenees on 4 data points (from the Carlit, Campcardós and Puymorens areas), all of which overestimate the size of glaciers during GS-1 because the arithmetics of age recalibration (this study) make those stadial positions effectively older (GI-1) than GS-1. Additionally, Rea et al. (2020) did not integrate finer-scale orographic effects, whereas model calibration on modern glaciers in this study provides tighter controls on the local impact of orographic effects on precipitation values. The eastern Pyrenees at the time of GS-1 were thus even drier than made out by the Europe-wide model.

As a result of glaciers having largely reached extinction during GI-1, except in local situations where wind-blown snow accumulation and elevated catchments appears to have

extended the life of cirque glaciers into the Younger Dryas (these two exceptions are the Mont Calm and Bassiès massifs), data from the eastern Pyrenees are ill-suited to documenting climatic conditions during the Younger Dryas. Based on their Europe-wide database, Rea et al. (2020) have nonetheless shown that, despite the PFJS having by that time relocated to 54-55°N and favored a return to Westerlies-dominated circulation, outbreaks of cold northerly air entering the Mediterranean Basin were still commonly occurring. These cold air masses, however, were interacting with the higher SSTs of the eastern Mediterranean more forcefully than with the cooler SSTs of the western Mediterranean, thereby maintaining the dry climate detected by this study as early as GS-2.1a among the southern massifs of the Pyrenees. Cold and dry conditions in the eastern Pyrenees during the Younger Dryas are fully compatible with the widespread presence of rock glaciers (and an active permafrost layer) among the cirques that had been vacated during GI-1 by the last remaining glaciers. Full dominance of the Westerlies similar to the interglacial conditions of today only became established after the GS-1-to-Holocene transition, when global insolation had risen sufficiently to definitively melt large volumes of North American Ice Sheet, Fennoscandian Ice Sheet and North Atlantic sea ice (Fig. 12; Stokes et al., 2012; Hughes et al., 2015; Maffezzoli et al., 2019), consequently displacing the PFJS to latitudes of 58°N (Merz et al., 2015).

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6. Conclusions

The last Glacial to Interglacial Transition period was a period during which receding outlet glaciers fragmented into a large number of short, disconnected cirque or valley glaciers.

Their mass balances increasingly became controlled by local topoclimatic conditions

potentially bearing limited relation to regional atmospheric drivers, but patterns across the study area nonetheless document consistent trends and scenarios of regional importance, as follows:

- (i) New, and previously published but updated, cosmogenic exposure ages (n = 86) reveal a LGIT deglaciation pattern across the eastern Pyrenees involving clearly defined recessional standstills, or local stades, occurring during GS-2.1b, GS-2.1a and GI-1. Residual cirque glaciers during GS-1 were present only in valleys characterized by elevated accumulation zones and favorable topoclimatic conditions, and thus in a very small minority.
- (ii) When calculated on the basis of the most recent updates in TCN dating (Section 3.2),

 10Be exposure ages from publications in the last 10 years tend to increase systematically by 7–10 %, and by up to ~18 % when snow shielding corrections are applied (Suppl. Material 3). The incidence of such calibrations on the construction of paleoclimate chronologies is thus far from trivial.
- (iii) Climate in the eastern Axial Zone of the Pyrenees was substantially colder and drier during GS-2.1b and GS-2.1a than during GI-1 and, although with fewer constraints, GS-1.
- (iv) The pattern of ELAs and mass-balance gradients in the eastern Pyrenees reveals a general N–S gradient during GS2.1b and GS2.1a, with lower ELAs and higher mass-balance gradients among massifs on the north side of the range. This pattern indicates wetter conditions on the north side. The N–S contrasts, which are still sharp and prominent today (cooler and wetter north, Fig. 1) have thus been in place for at least 19,000 years, i.e., since the end of the LGM.

- (v) In a context dominated by more southerly storm tracks than at present because the Polar Front Jet Stream was positioned at latitudes of ~40–42°N between 18 and 16 ka, the eastern Pyrenees during the earlier part of the LGIT remained sheltered not just from Atlantic but also from Mediterranean weather systems. Thus, whereas polar air outbreaks along the Polar Front interacted with warmer SSTs in the eastern Mediterranean region, thereby promoting cyclonic weather and snowfall over the peninsulas, cold air met with comparatively cooler SSTs in the western Mediterranean (Fig. 12), overall suppressing abundant precipitation. As a result, the eastern Pyrenees remained comparatively dry despite their position as land bridge between the Atlantic and Mediterranean.
- (vi) Full restoration of Westerlies-dominated circulation over Europe only occurred somewhat later (GS-1, i.e., Younger Dryas), after which time global warming, added to unsuitable catchment hypsometries, definitively counteracted possibilities for rebooting glacier expansion despite a return to Atlantic-influenced wetter conditions, including among the northern massifs of the Pyrenees.

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Figure 1. The Late Pleistocene Pyrenean icefield (after Calvet et al., 2011; Delmas et al., 2011). 1- Local LGM (LLGM, MIS 4 or MIS 3). 2- Pyrenean ice extent at the time of the LGM (29–19 ka). a- LGM glacier fronts very close (typically <0.5 km) to the LLGM position. b- LGM glacier fronts located ~10 km upstream from the LLGM position. c- LGM glacier fronts believed to be located more than 20 km upstream from the LLGM but not yet mapped with great accuracy. 3- Published studies on Last Glacial-to-Interglacial Termination (LGIT) and Holocene ice fluctuations. a- Data based on TCN exposure ages. b- Data based on radiocarbon ages.

Figure 2. Modern climatic conditions and Late Pleistocene glaciation in the eastern Pyrenees. Map frames in A, B and C are identical. A, B: present-day mean annual surface air temperature and total annual precipitation values (generated from data in Batalla et al., 2018). Red dashes: Atlantic/Mediterranean drainage divide, which was also the Late Pleistocene ice divide. C: Late Pleistocene ice limits and location of research focus areas. Black and blue rectangles: areas mapped in Figure 5, and in Figures 9 and 11, respectively. White squares locate the lacustrine sequences cited in the text: 1- Ruisseau de Laurenti; 2-Balcère; 3- La Borde; 4- Freychinède; 5- La Moulinasse. Weather stations used for paleoclimate modeling (numbered red circles): 1- Foix; 2- Tarascon; 3- Vicdessos; 4-Montferrier; 5- Verdun; 6- Ascou; 7- Hospitalet; 8- Malniu; 9- Das; 10- La Molinas; 11-Puigcerdà; 12- Targasonne; 13- Saillagouse; 14- Mont Louis; 15- Col de la Quillane; 16-Formiguères.

Figure 3. Examples of boulders sampled for ¹⁰Be surface exposure dating in the upper Ariège catchment.

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Figure 4. Method for paleoclimate reconstructions: example based on the Petches/Ax-les-Thermes stadial position. A- Ice-thickness reconstruction using the Glare ArcGis™ toolbox. Light blue line: ice thickness variation along the flowline. The dark and bold blue sections locate the lateral moraines used to constrain the longitudinal glacier profile, ice thickness, and 3-D ice surface of the glacial stillstand. Black line: topography of the glacier bed inferred from the 5 m DEM along the ice flowline, manually drawn on the basis on the present-day slope morphology; ac: accumulation area; ab: ablation area; CS1, CS2, CS3: cross-sections used for calculating the F value in equations (1) and (2). B- Current surface mass-balance curve modeled following Harper and Humphrey (2003). C- Paleoclimatic conditions (summarized as precipitation-temperature pairs) relative to present values obtained from the glaciological models and the Harper and Humphrey (2003) application. Light blue line links all the P and T pairs suited to generating the Petches/Ax stadial ice extent under constraints of a *DDF* value of 3.0 mm eq. water·°C⁻¹·day⁻¹ for snow and of 6.1 mm eq. water·°C⁻¹·day⁻¹ for ice. Light blue shading covers all P and T pairs suited to generating the Petches/Ax stadial ice extent when accounting for DDF variability as recorded worldwide among temperate glaciers. Blue circles show P and T pairs, each corresponding to a given ice thickness, ELA, and mass balance gradient (MBG).

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Figure 5. Geomorphological maps of Pleistocene landforms and deposits and ¹⁰Be surface exposure ages obtained in the downstream part (A) and upstream part (B) of the upper

1320	Ariege catchment. Ages indicated in gray are not used in the modeling for reasons explained
1327	in Section 4.1.2. Brown stars in B: gneiss boulders. Elevation contour interval: 100 m.
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1329	Figure 6. 3-D glacier configurations during each of the four glacial stillstands (local stades)
1330	identified in the upper Ariège catchment.
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1332	Figure 7. ¹⁰ Be exposure ages and their probability density plots for the upper Ariège
1333	catchment. Samples are arranged by sampling site and associated by stadial ice extent.
1334	White circles: samples considered as outliers for reasons explained in Section 4.1.2.
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1336	Figure 8. Reconstructed P and T pairs relative to present conditions, here applied to the four
1337	glacial stillstands (local stades) identified in the upper Ariège catchment.
1338	
1339	Figure 9. 3-D glacier configurations during each of the glacial stillstands identified in the
1340	northern massifs of the eastern Pyrenees. Panel G: probability density plots of ¹⁰ Be exposure
1341	ages.
1342	
1343	Figure 10. Reconstructed P and T pairs relative to present conditions, here applied to the
1344	glacial stillstands identified in the Vicdessos catchment.
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1346	Figure 11. 3-D glacier configurations applied to the glacial stillstands identified among the
1347	southern massifs of the eastern Pyrenees. A to C: method as in Figures 7 and 9. D: method
1348	and abbreviations as in Figure 4. Panel F: Probability density plots of ¹⁰ B ages

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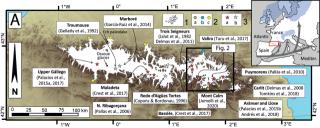
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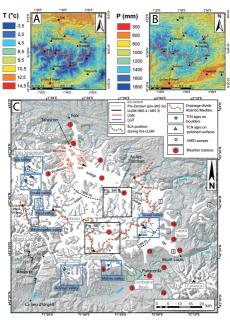
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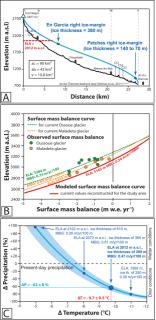
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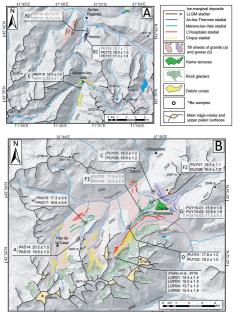
Figure 12. East-Pyrenean paleoclimate within a multi-proxy European setting. Note that data for the southern massifs are lacking from GI-1 onward because glaciers by that time had become very small or extinct. Data sources as follows: Cantabrian Mountains: Pellitero et al. (2019); High Tatra: Makos et al. (2012, 2018); European Alps: Ivy-Ochs et al. (2006, 2008), Protin et al. (2019); central Pyrenees (Ech chironomid assemblage): Millet et al. (2012), and speleothem geochemistry of Seso Cave: Bartolomé et al. (2015); NW Iberia (Laguna de la Roya chironomid assemblage): Muñoz Sobrino et al. (2012); Alborán Sea (pollen-inferred climate reconstruction, annual T and P anomalies): Combourieu-Nebout et al. (2009), Rodrigo-Gámiz et al. (2011). Levantine Sea (TEX86-based SST estimates): Castañeda et al. (2010); Alborán Sea (UK37-index-based SST estimates): Cacho et al., 1999; Tyrrhenian Sea (UK37-index-based SST estimates): Cacho et al., 2001; Gulf of Lion SST (April-May) derive from planktonic foraminiferal assemblages: Melki et al. (2009). June insolation at 40°N: after Laskar et al. (2004), calculated using AnalySeries 2.0 (Paillard et al., 1996). Evolution of seaice extent (based on bromine enrichment): Maffezzoli et al. (2019). Ice volume evolution of the Fennoscandian Ice Sheet: Hughes et al. (2015). Ice volume evolution of the North American Ice Sheet: Stokes et al. (2012). Pleistocene sea-level reconstructions: Lambeck et al. (2014); GRIP and NGRIP stratigraphies: Rasmussen et al. (2014).

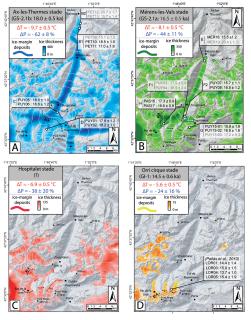


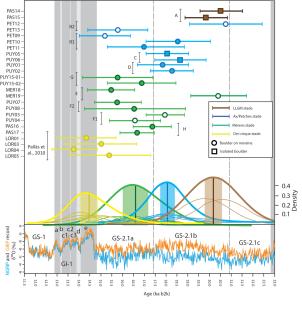


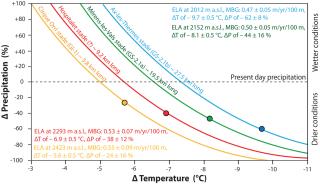


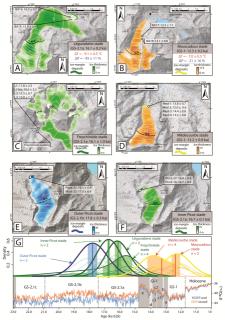


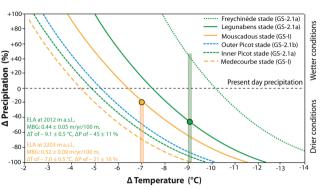


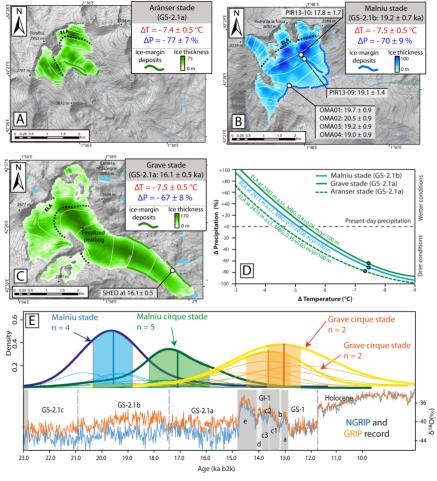












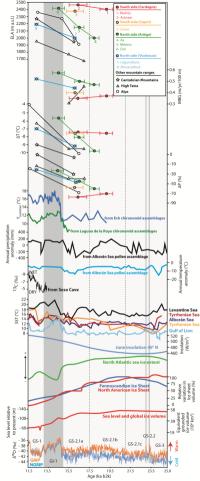


Table 1. Location of cosmogenic ¹⁰Be samples (Ariège valley)

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Glacial stade	Sample site	Sample code	Lithology	Latitude 1	Longitude 1	Altitude
	(see Fig. 4)			(dec. deg.)	(dec. deg.)	(m a.s.l.)
Close to LLGM	A	PAS14	Granite	42.5452	1.7477	2280
Close to LLGW		PAS15	Granite	42.5455	1.7480	2280
	B1	PET09	Gneiss	42.7002	1.8386	930
		PET10	Gneiss	42.6994	1.8388	930
		PET11	Gneiss	42.7000	1.8380	917
	B2	PET12	Gneiss	42.7069	1.8405	928
Ax-les-Thermes		PET13	Gneiss	42.7069	1.8405	918
Ax-les-Thermes	C	PUY05	Granite	42.5708	1.7994	1922
		PUY06	Granite	42.5702	1.7988	1917
	D	PUY01	Granite	42.5519	1.7822	2144
		PUY02	Granite	42.5525	1.7827	2131
	Е	MER18	Gneiss	42.6511	1.8325	1116
		MER19	Gneiss	42.6513	1.8322	1114
	F1	PUY03	Granite	42.5608	1.7911	2001
		PUY04	Granite	42.5605	1.7919	2000
	F2	PUY07	Granite	42.5650	1.7977	1894
Mérens-les-Vals		PUY08	Granite	42.5652	1.7983	1888
	G	PUY15-01	Granite	42.5511	1.8077	2054
		PUY15-02	Granite	42.5508	1.8071	2072
		PUY15-03	Granite	42.5503	1.8041	2092
	Н	PAS16	Granite	42.5544	1.7530	2040
		PAS17	Granite	42.5541	1.7533	2040

Note. ¹ Ellipsoid of reference: WGS84

Table 2. Cosmogenic 10 Be surface data from the upper Ariège catchment

Sampling site (see	Sample code	Scaling factor	Topographic shielding factor	Snow (cm/yr	Snow shielding	[¹⁰ Be] (10 ⁵ at/g)	Exposure age 1 (*10 ³ yr ± 1	Exposure age 2 (*10 3 yr ± 1
Fig. 4)	code	Tactor	silieiding factor	(CIII/yI	siliciding	(10 at/g)	sigma)	sigma)
A	PAS14	5.69	0.99	55	0.91	4.37 ± 0.15	18.8 ± 0.9	20.5 ± 1.0
	PAS15	5.68	0.99	55	0.91	4.22 ± 0.13	18.2 ± 0.9	19.8 ± 0.9
B1	PET09	2.06	0.99	0	1	1.28 ± 0.09	15.12 ± 1.2	15.1 ± 1.2
	PET10	2.09	0.99	0	1	1.58 ± 0.12	18.48 ± 1.5	18.4 ± 1.5
	PET11	2.05	0.99	0	1	1.43 ± 0.15	16.97 ± 1.7	16.9 ± 1.7
B2	PET12	2.10	0.98	0	1	1.77 ± 0.13	20.77 ± 1.7	20.7 ± 1.7
	PET13	2.05	0.98	0	1	1.31 ± 0.11	15.75 ± 1.3	15.7 ± 1.3
C	PUY05	4.40	0.99	30	0.95	3.10 ± 0.13	17.2 ± 1.0	18.0 ± 1.0
	PUY06	4.39	0.99	30	0.95	3.19 ± 0.16	17.7 ± 1.1	18.5 ± 1.1
D	PUY01	5.13	0.99	45	0.93	3.5 ± 0.20	16.6 ± 1.1	17.8 ± 1.1
	PUY02	5.09	0.99	45	0.93	3.5 ± 0.16	17.0 ± 1.0	18.1 ± 1.0
E	MER18	2.39	0.97	0	1	1.49 ± 0.10	15.51 ± 1.1	15.5 ± 1.1
	MER19	2.43	0.97	0	1	2.0 ± 0.11	20.44 ± 1.3	20.4 ± 1.3
F1	PUY03	4.65	0.99	35	0.94	3.2 ± 0.12	16.9 ± 0.9	17.8 ± 0.9
	PUY04	4.62	0.99	35	0.94	2.9 ± 0.44	15.6 ± 2.3	16.5 ± 2.3
F2	PUY07	4.40	0.99	30	0.96	2.65 ± 0.15	15.2 ± 1.0	15.7 ± 1.0
	PUY08	4.27	0.99	30	0.96	2.79 ± 0.18	15.9 ± 1.2	16.5 ± 1.2
G	PUY15-01	4.84	0.99	40	0.93	2.5 ± 0.30	15.0 ± 1.5	15.8 ± 1.6
	PUY15-02	4.80	0.99	40	0.93	3.6 ± 0.30	15.6 ± 1.5	16.8 ± 1.6
	PUY15-03	4.94	0.99	40	0.93	3.2 ± 1.08	16.1 ± 5.0	17.7 ± 5.5
H	PAS16	4.75	0.99	38	0.95	3.10 ± 0.10	15.9 ± 0.8	16.6 ± 0.8
	PAS17	4.76	0.99	38	0.95	3.22 ± 0.13	16.5 ± 0.9	17.3 ± 0.9

Notes: ¹ without snow shielding; ² with snow shielding. Outliers highlighted in gray.

Table 3. Synthesis of glaciologic and climatic reconstructions of east-Pyrenean LGIT glacial stades

Location	(Chronological data		Climatic reconstructions					
Relative position within	INTIMATE stratigraphy	Local glacial stade	Age	Glacier length	Area above ELA	ELA	Mass- balance gradient	ΔΤ	ΔΡ
mountain range			(ka ± 1 sigma)	(km)	(km²)	(m a.s.l.)	(m.yr ⁻ ¹.100 m ⁻ ¹)	(°C)	(%)
North	_	Ax-les- Thermes	18.0 ± 0.5	27.5	90.7	2012	0.47 ± 0.05	−9.7 ± 0.5	−62 ± 8
North	GS-2.1b	Outer Picot	17.8 ± 0.3	2.6	No data	2425 ¹	No data	No data	No data
South		Malniu	19.2 ± 0.7	3.1	2.1	2413	0.37 ± 0.06	−7.5 ± 0.5	–70 ± 9
North		Mérens-les- Vals	16.5 ± 0.5	19.5	25.3	2152	0.50 ± 0.05	−8.1 ± 0.5	–44 ± 11
North	_	Freychinède	16.7 ± 1.0	4.9	3.6	1700¹	0.65 ± 0.09	-9.1 ± 0.5 ²	+45 ± 25 ⁴
North	GS-2.1a	Légunabens	16.1 ± 0.2	6.6	4.4	2012	0.44 ± 0.05	−9.1 ± 0.5	–45 ± 11
North	_	Inner Picot	16.7 ± 0.1	1.9	0.4	2449 ¹	0.23 ± 0.04	-9.1 ± 0.5 ²	–80 ± 5 ⁴
South	_	Aránser	Indirectly dated	2.4	0.5	2473	0.35 ± 0.05	−7.4 ± 0.5	–77 ± 7
South		Grave	16.1 ± 0.5	6.5	3.8	2383	0.40 ± 0.06	−7.5 ± 0.5	–67 ± 8
North	No data	Hospitalet	No data	9.2	16	2293	0.53 ± 0.07	-6.9 ± 0.5	–38 ± 12
North	GI-1	Cirque Orri	14.5 ± 0.6	3.8	2.8	2423	0.55 ± 0.09	−5.6 ± 0.5	-24 ± 16
North	- GS-1	Mouscadous	12.3 ± 0.2	3.4	2.1	2203	0.52 ± 0.09	– 7.0 ± 0.5	–21 ± 16
North	G3-1	Médecourbe	13.2 ± 0.9	1.6	0.4	2525 ¹	0.41 ± 0.03	-7.0 ± 0.5^{3}	−60 ± 7⁴

Notes. 1 ELA calculated using the AABR method (Balance ratio of 1.59; Rea, 2009). 2 Δ T value obtained for Légunabens glacial stade. 3 Δ T value obtained for Medecourbe glacial stade. 4 Δ P value modeled on the basis of a Δ T value obtained from an adjacent catchment during the same glacial stade.