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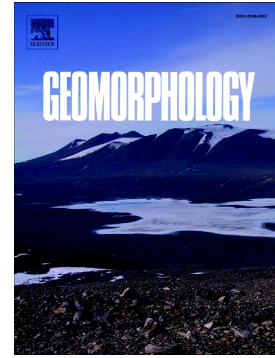
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# Fluvial bedrock gorges as markers for Late-Quaternary tectonic and climatic forcing in the Southwestern Alps

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## ABSTRACT

Fluvial incision is one of the major erosive processes acting at Earth's surface and is highly sensitive to tectonic, isostatic and climatic variations. The aim of this study is to distinguish between the short-term climatic fluctuations versus the long-term tectonic forcing contribution to Late-Quaternary fluvial incision, to better understand its timing and driving mechanism(s). To achieve this goal, we measured in situ-produced <sup>36</sup>Cl concentrations along several river-polished gorge walls in Jurassic limestones of the Southwestern Alps. We then compared our dating results to previously-dated river gorges from nearby catchments. This allows us to highlight three trends of distinct incision dynamics, and to discuss their relationships with climate and tectonics. Trend 1 shows the direct impact of a paraglacial crisis in the rivers directly connected to glaciated areas. Trend 2 suggests an incision wave propagating along the non-glaciated tributaries following enhanced incision in the main

streams. Trend 3 displays steady and low incision rates in gorges disconnected from any fluvial response to glacier retreat. Trend 3 also seems to highlight the potential of resistant lithologies to isolate portions of the river network from post-glacial incision propagation. Our analysis shows that gorges connected to upstream glaciers exhibit a significant response of fluvial incision to climatic fluctuations, evidenced by high-amplitudes incision rate variations hindering the long-term tectonic signal. In contrast, incision rates inferred from disconnected gorges are in agreement with previously-estimated long-term denudation and rock-uplift rates in the area. Based on the latter, we can conclude that Late-Quaternary river incision in the Southwestern Alps is readjusting to both short-term climatic forcing and long-term tectonic forcing.

**Keywords:** River gorges; Quaternary; Fluvial incision;  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  dating; Southwestern Alps

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The morphology of mountainous landscapes is the result of a dynamic balance between erosion/sedimentation and uplift/subsidence (Penck, 1924; Hack, 1960; Willett, 1999; Whipple, 2001; Lavé and Avouac, 2001; Willett et al., 2002). As one of the major erosive processes acting at the Earth's surface, fluvial incision is highly sensitive to vertical motions linked to the isostatic response of the lithosphere or to tectonic forces (England and Molnar, 1990; Howard et al., 1994; Lavé and Avouac, 2001; Wobus et al., 2006), and to external forcing mainly represented by climatic fluctuations and associated base-level changes (Bacon et al., 2009; Pan et al., 2003; Van der Woerd et al., 2002; Ferrier et al., 2013).

Fluvial incision can be used as a first-order proxy for quantifying such dynamic processes over  $10^4$ - $10^5$  yr timescales. Indeed, in a perfectly balanced system between uplift and erosion, the quantification of fluvial incision allows direct estimate of the mean uplift (Royden and

Perron, 2013). However, this can only be valid if rivers processes and longitudinal profiles have reached steady-state conditions (Molnar and England, 1990; Burbank et al., 1996; Whipple, 2001; Whipple and Tucker, 1999), which has only been demonstrated in few areas (e.g. Cyr and Granger, 2008; Lavé and Avouac, 2001).

Although this hypothesis may be valid over long time scales ( $10^5$ - $10^6$  yr), fluvial incision rates often fluctuate over shorter time scales ( $10^3$ - $10^4$  yr) as they respond to climatic fluctuations (Pratt et al., 2002; Saillard et al., 2014; Rolland et al., 2017). Indeed, the erosive potential of rivers is principally controlled by the amount of water runoff and transported sediments within the drainage network (Seild and Dietrich, 1992; Whipple et al., 2000; Lague et al., 2005; Stock et al., 2005; DiBiase and Whipple, 2011), which can be enhanced through extreme and punctuated events such as floods, landslides or glacial outbursts (Tucker and Whipple, 2002; Pratt et al., 2002; Holm et al., 2002; Korup and Schlunegger, 2007; Gran et al., 2013; Lebrouc et al., 2013). The occurrence of these events is directly linked to climatic variations, especially in mountainous areas like the European Alps, where the conditions had been wetter and warmer during interglacial periods (Brocard et al., 2003; Bigot-Cormier et al., 2005; Sanchez et al., 2010; Zerahe et al., 2014). In addition, and over longer time scales, Plio-Quaternary glaciations have shaped the Alpine valleys and topography through cyclic fluctuations between glacial and interglacial periods (van der Beek and Bourbon, 2008; Brocard et al., 2003; Norton et al., 2010; Valla et al., 2011; Fox et al., 2015) and have led to a drastic increase in erosion rates and sedimentation fluxes from the internal reliefs to the surrounding basins (Hinderer, 2001; Kuhlemann et al., 2002; Champagnac et al., 2007; Herman and Champagnac, 2016).

While catchment-scale approaches have commonly been used to estimate average erosion rates (e.g. Bierman and Steig, 1996), few studies have focused on more local features such as Alpine headwalls (Mair et al., 2019) or bedrock fluvial gorges (Schaller et al., 2005; Ouimet

et al., 2008). Some of these studies have been carried out to quantify local fluvial incision rates on different catchments from the Southwestern (SW) French Alps, where bedrock gorges walls have been dated by Cosmic Ray Exposure (CRE) dating methods (e.g. Saillard et al., 2014; Rolland et al., 2017; Petit et al., 2017; 2019). These studies demonstrated a strong relationship between the onset of fluvial incision and the post-LGM (Last Glacial Maximum, i.e. after ca. 20 ka) glacial retreat, pointing towards the climatic transition from glacial to interglacial conditions as the main factor for controlling the postglacial incision and evolution of these valleys. However, none of these studies was able to quantitatively disentangle the respective contribution of climatic forcing and long-term tectonic uplift in the fluvial incision signal.

Indeed, isolating the respective contributions from tectonics and climate to mountain erosion is challenging (Herman et al., 2013), especially in this context where studied rivers are still possibly in disequilibrium, triggered by the recent glacial imprint on the topography (Norton et al., 2010), thus obscuring any potential long-term tectonic signal.

Based on these observations and current knowledge gaps, the major questions addressed in this work are the following:

- What is the driving mechanism for bedrock gorge incision after the LGM in the SW Alps?
- What is the relative contribution of short-term climatic fluctuations vs. long-term tectonic forcing in the observed fluvial incision rates in the SW Alps?

In the following, we present new CRE dating from five bedrock gorges in the Bès, Verdon, Paillon and Roya rivers catchments, distributed from the western to the eastern sides of the SW Alpine foreland (Figure 1). These five sites were chosen to complement the previously-acquired CRE dating dataset in foreland catchments disconnected from LGM ice-extent (e.g. Petit et al., 2019; Cardinal et al., 2021), in order to document incision rates at the

scale of the entire SW Alps. To quantify incision rates, we dated fluvially-polished limestone bedrock gorges with in situ-produced  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ . We then compared these new data with previously-published results with the aim to (1) discuss the timing and spatial variations in fluvial incision across the SW External Alps and (2) identify the major factors (climate vs. tectonics) that controlled fluvial incision dynamics over the last ca. 30 kyr.

## 2. STUDY AREA

### 2.1. Geological and tectonic settings

The studied area is located in the French Southwestern Alps (Figure 1A), where mountain building results from Cenozoic Alpine collision between European and African (Apulian) plates. The shortening of the European foreland has led to the exhumation of the crystalline basement (External Crystalline Massif or ECM) by crustal-scale thrusting (Nouibat et al., 2022) and fold and thrust belt propagation in the sedimentary foreland (Jourdon et al., 2014). In the SW Alps, the sedimentary cover is decoupled from the basement and transported by the Digne thrust sheet prolonged in the SE by the Arc of Castellane (Figure 1B). This fold-and-thrust belt is undergoing uplift and erosion due to the late implication of basement in the shortening. In this context, the Argentera ECM has been uplifted since 20 Ma (Lickorish & Ford, 1998; Sanchez et al., 2011) (Figure 1B). At the front of the Digne thrust, the sedimentary cover has been carved by an erosional window since 5 Ma (Schwartz et al., 2017). The folding of the sedimentary cover produces at the surface alternation between resistant rock bars, corresponding to the Tithonian (Upper Jurassic) limestone, and low-resistance lithologies, corresponding to the middle-late Jurassic “Terres Noires” marls and Cretaceous limestone-marl alternations.

Regarding to the present-day tectonic setting of the Alps, studies have shown a slow and complex deformation pattern in a global strike-slip context related to the rotation of Apulian plate (Mathey et al., 2021; Piña-Valdés et al., 2022). In this context, the internal part of the

Alps has been subjected to extensional deformation since 3 Ma, whereas its external part still undergoes compression (Sue et al., 1999; Bilau et al., 2020), as shown by geodesy and seismicity (Walpersdorf et al., 2018; Mathey et al., 2021; Piña-Valdés et al., 2022). This deformation pattern is characterized by a shortening rate of  $\leq 1$  mm/yr (Nocquet et al., 2016) and vertical component culminating in the ECMs with rates  $> 1$  mm/yr (Serpelloni et al., 2013).

## 2.2. Late-Quaternary Alpine climatic variations

The last major glaciation in the European Alps culminated during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM; 26.5-19 ka; Clark et al., 2009). The LGM had a huge impact on the SW Alpine relief by enhancing and focusing erosion (Darnault et al., 2012). It was followed by a period of rapid glacial retreat (Clark et al., 2009), which is evidenced in the high-elevation areas of the Argentera massif by glacier thinning at 19-18 ka, followed by a major retreat of glaciers at elevations  $> 2500$  m by ca. 14 ka (Darnault et al., 2012; Brisset et al., 2015; Rolland et al., 2019), similar to other observations at the scale of the European Alps (Ivy Ochs et al., 2008; Rea et al., 2020). Although Federici et al. (2012) dated moraines at 20 ka on the Italian side of the South western Alps, the maximal glacial extent during the LGM is still not well constrained on the French side due to the lack of preservation of frontal moraines in the low-elevation valley floors (Figure 1C; Julian, 1980; Brisset et al. 2015). A later and spatially limited glacial re-advance occurred at ca. 12 ka during the Younger Dryas (Hinderer, 2001; Heiri et al., 2014), which rapidly receded at 11-10 ka (Federici et al., 2008; Darnault et al., 2012; Wanner et al., 2015).

The Holocene started at about 11.7 ka with a transition to warmer climatic conditions (Wanner et al., 2011, 2015). Climatic reconstructions during the Holocene can be problematic because both the timing and magnitude of the warming vary substantially between different regions (Renssen et al., 2009). However, Wanner et al. (2011) proposed a division of the



present interglacial into three climatic periods: (1) a deglaciation phase immediately following the end of the Younger Dryas cold phase and characterized by important ice melting; (2) the ‘Holocene Thermal Optimum’ between 11 and 5 ka (Wanner et al., 2008, Renssen et al., 2009, 2012), characterized by a warmer and more stable climate, and (3) a ‘Neoglacial’ period, with colder conditions and higher precipitations during the late-Holocene (Davis et al., 2003). These climatic variations can play a major role for the erosion processes including river incision in zones of high lithological contrasts (Petit et al., 2019).

### 2.3. Study sites

In this study, we present new data acquired from five gorges located in the French Southwestern Alps (Figure 1C). The Péroure Gorge is located in the Bès catchment, a tributary of the Durance River. The High Verdon Gorge is formed by the Verdon River, which is also a tributary to the Durance River. The Redebraus Gorge is located in the Paillon catchment, which reaches the Mediterranean Sea in the city of Nice. The Bévéra and Bendola gorges are located along the eponym rivers, which are tributaries to the Roya River catchment located along the southern France-Italy border. All the studied catchments feature strong lithological contrasts which, combined with the widespread folding of the region, create significant convexities and slope breaks in the longitudinal river profiles. Indeed, all the above-mentioned gorges are incised in Tithonian limestones, which occur repeatedly in the Alpine Foreland and is surrounded by less resistant marls, and form strong lithological knickpoints along longitudinal river profiles (Figure 2).

Together with published data, this new dataset allows us to distinguish three gorge dynamics according to their geographical location and regarding the ice-covered domains during the LGM (Figure 1C):

- Connected: the gorge site is located on a main stream that takes its source in the previously LGM ice-covered part of the catchment;

- Indirectly-connected: the gorge is located along a tributary of a connected main stream;
- Disconnected: the gorge is located along a catchment that was devoid of any glacier and along a stream with no, direct nor indirect, connection to ice-covered areas.

The Verdon River is considered as ‘connected’, as its upper catchment belongs to the LGM glaciated areas. The Bendola, Bévéra and the Bès Rivers are ‘indirectly-connected’ to glaciations, because they are tributaries of main rivers that have their sources in previously glaciated areas. The Paillon River on the other hand had no glaciers in its catchment, and can therefore be considered as totally “disconnected” from any significant glacial extension during the LGM (Figure 1C). In order to compare our data with previous results, we also selected previously-sampled limestone bedrock gorges “indirectly-connected” (Esteron Gorge, Petit et al., 2019; and Barles Gorge, Caron et al., 2021) and connected (Courbaisse Gorge, Rolland et al., 2017; Vésubie Gorge, Saillard et al., 2014) from the literature (Figure 1C).

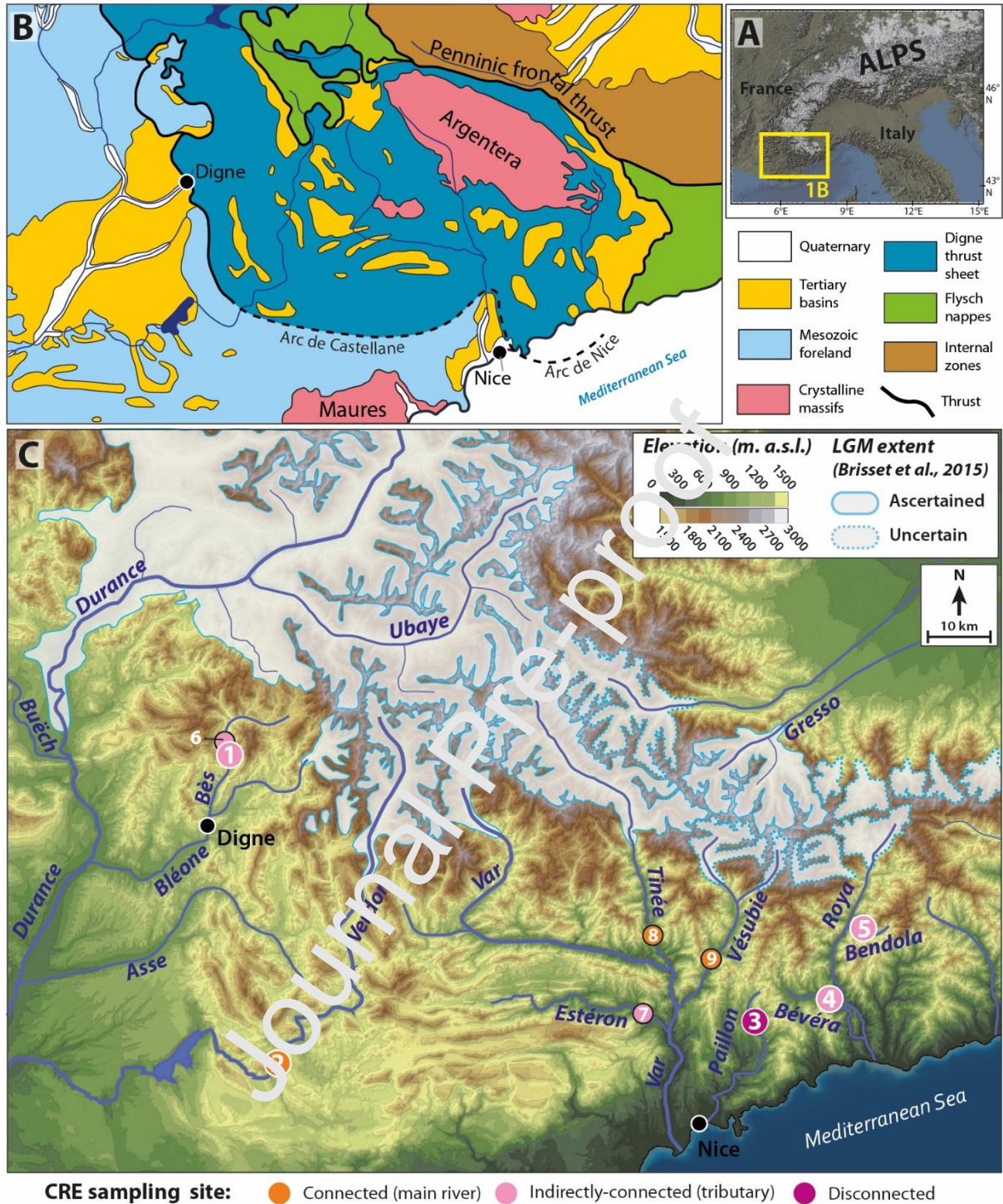


Figure 1. A: Location of study area in the European Alps. B: Southwestern Alps general tectonic framework (modified after Schwartz et al., 2017). C: Location of the Pérouré (1), High Verdon (2), Redebraus (3), Bévéra (4) and the Bendola (5) gorges from this study (white wider circles) and previously dated sites from literature (black circles): (6) Clue de Barles (Cardinal et al., 2021); (7) Estéron (Petit et al., 2019); (8) Courbaisse (Rolland et al., 2017);

(9) Vésubie (Saillard et al., 2014). The grey area shows the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) glacier extent (modified from Brisset et al., 2015).

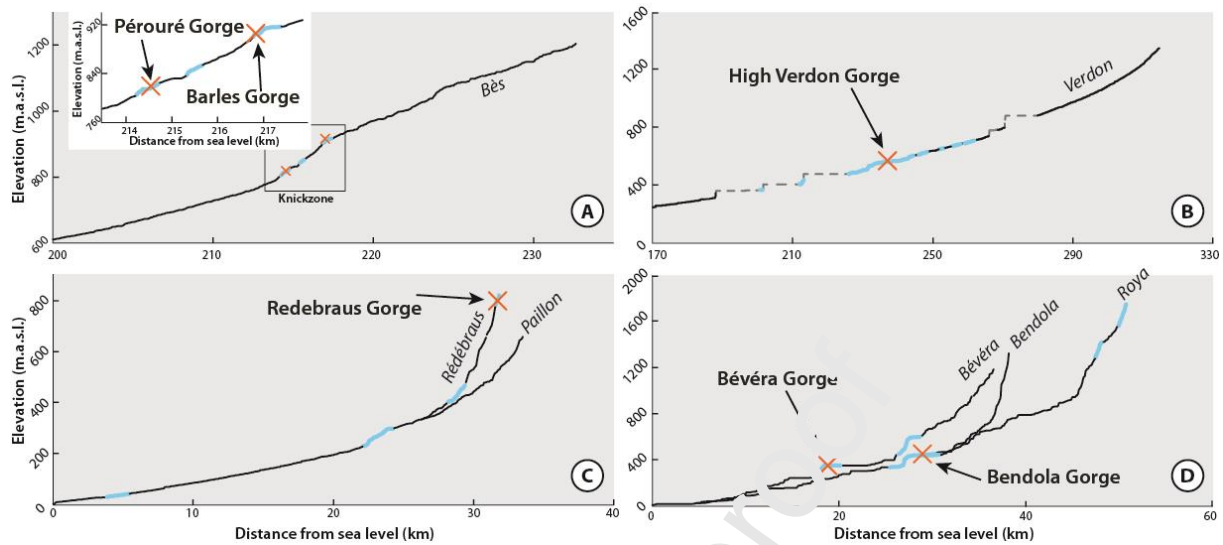


Figure 2. Longitudinal profiles of the sampled rivers and their main stream. A: Bès River, with a blow-up on a knickzone and the location of two sampled gorges (Pérouré, this study, and Barles, Cardinal et al., 2021); B: Verdon River; C: Paillon River and the tributary Redebraus; D: Roya River and the tributaries Bévéra and Bendola. Sampling sites are indicated with a red cross; location of outcropping massive Tithonian limestones along the channels are indicated by a thick blue line. Dashed grey lines correspond to artificial lakes (dams) along the Verdon River. The distance from sea level correspond to the distance from the river mouth to the Mediterranean Sea.

### 3. METHODS

#### 3.1. $^{36}\text{Cl}$ CRE dating method

In this study, we used in situ-produced cosmogenic  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  measurements to constrain exposure ages along the flanks of the five studied bedrock gorges incised into resistant limestone lithologies.

##### 3.1.1. Sampling strategy and field work

We aim at quantifying gorge incision rates along steep (almost vertical) bedrock walls that were theoretically gradually exposed as the river incised (Schaller et al., 2005; Ouimet et

al., 2008). We can therefore expect a distribution of younger to older CRE ages from the current riverbed level to the top of the bedrock gorge walls. Sampled surfaces were chosen based on the following morphological indices: i) evidence of preservation of an induration varnish or with low apparent superficial dissolution, indicating little weathering since exposure or ii) presence of smooth river-polished surfaces and “pot holes”, representing polished and concave fluvial erosional surfaces preserved in the gorge walls (Figure 3 and 4) and iii) with no overhanging relief and located in the most opened part of their respective gorges, in order to maximize exposure to cosmic rays.

Our main goal was to find and sample a continuous wall of polished limestone bedrock. In addition, we sampled, when possible, two facing walls along the same gorge (Figure 3C, E and 4B) as well as abandoned flat erosional surfaces above to the sampled walls (Figure 3D). Although we strived to collect samples as close to the river bed as possible, as it has been done in the Redebras and Benolof Gorges (Figure 3D, E and 4B), stream depth and strong currents have sometimes prevented us from reaching the lower part of the gorge. The selected profiles are also shorter than 15 m to avoid any influence of potential rock-falls, which may cause the rejuvenation of the gorge wall surface, as demonstrated by Cardinal et al. (2021). Samples were gathered using a drill, hammer and chisel. In total, a number of 61 limestone samples have been collected (Table 1).

### 3.1.2. Analytical protocol

We prepared the bulk limestone samples at the ‘Laboratoire National des Nucléides Cosmogéniques’ (LN2C; CEREGE, Aix-en-Provence) following the procedure presented in Schimmelpfennig et al. (2009).  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  concentrations were determined by accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) performed on ASTER, the French national AMS facility (CEREGE, Aix-en-Provence) (Arnold et al., 2010). All measurements were calibrated against in-house CEREGE SM-CL-12 standard (Merchel et al., 2011). Total uncertainties account for counting

statistics, standard evolution during measurements, standard uncertainty and external uncertainties of 2.74%, 2.13% and 1.62 % for  $^{36}\text{Cl}/^{35}\text{Cl}$ ,  $^{36}\text{Cl}/^{37}\text{Cl}$  and  $^{35}\text{Cl}/^{37}\text{Cl}$  ratios, respectively (Braucher et al., 2018). A sea-level and high-latitude  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  production rate for calcium spallation of  $42.2 \pm 3.4$  atoms  $^{36}\text{Cl} \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ a}^{-1}$  (Schimmelpfennig et al., 2009, Braucher et al., 2011) has been used and scaled following Stone (2000) and corrected for topographic shielding (TS), constrained from field measurement data.  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  ages have been determined using the approach of Schimmelpfennig et al. (2009) using a limestone density of  $2.6 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ .

### 3.2. Incision rate quantification

We used the code developed by Glotzbach et al. (2011) originally designed for thermochronology data, to define best-fitting line segments passing through the CRE data points, in order to determine incision rate variations with time from our data and literature data. We made some modifications to the code in order to make it more suitable for CRE age data. As in Glotzbach et al. (2011) we used a Monte-Carlo approach to randomly split the data into 1, 2 or 3 successive time intervals in order to define line segments by weighted linear regression, and select the best-fitting ones according to their  $R^2$  value. We have implemented the following criteria: no negative incision rate is allowed, thus solutions containing segments with negative incision rates are discarded; line segments constrained by less than 3 data points are discarded; the intersection between two line segments must correspond to the intersection between the two groups of data that were used to compute them (so that there is no data point that is used to compute a line segment, but lies outside of its boundaries).

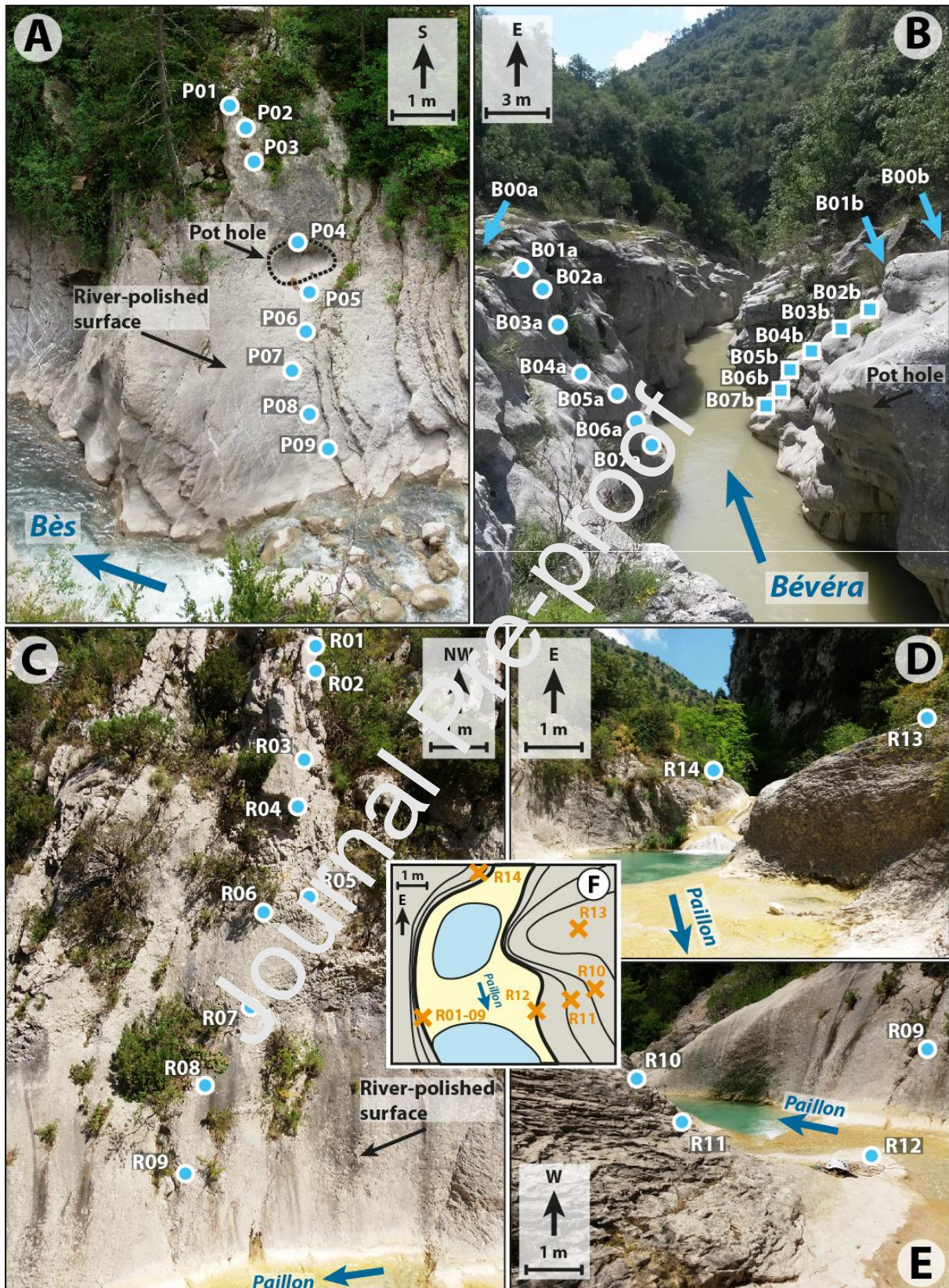


Figure 3. Sampling sites in the (A) Pérouré Gorge, (B) northern (circles) and southern (squares) flanks of the Bévéra Gorge and (C, D and E) Redebras Gorge. The inset (F) locates the different sampled surfaces in the Redebras Gorge.

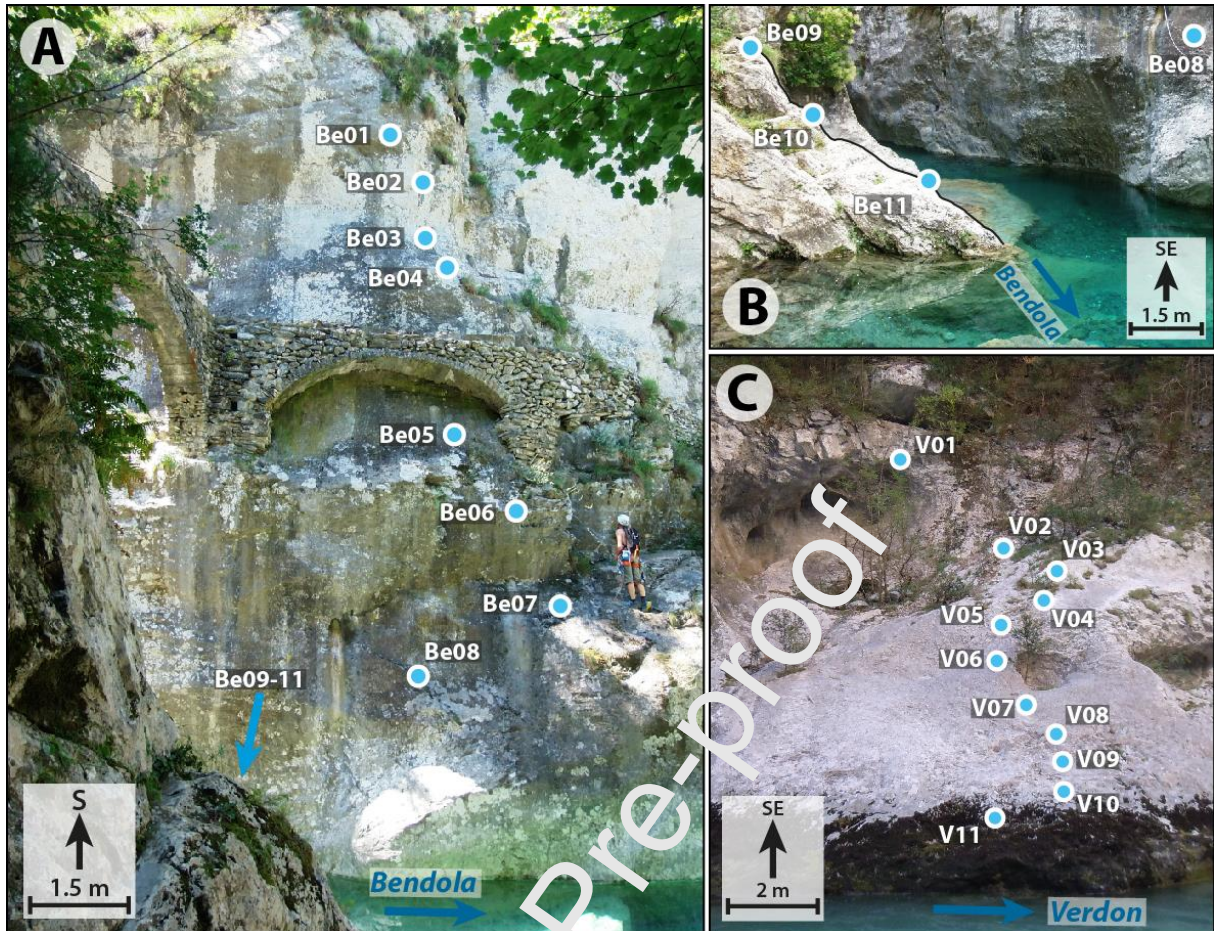


Figure 4. Sampling sites and samples location in the Bendola Gorge (A, B) and the High Verdon Gorge (C)

#### 4. $^{36}\text{Cl}$ CRE DATING RESULTS

##### 4.1. New $^{36}\text{Cl}$ CRE dating results in the SW French Alps

For the five studied gorges, CRE ages determined from  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  concentrations are reported in the age-elevation plots (green circles; Figure 5), with the corresponding regression lines (black lines). From these data, we estimated the mean incision rate (blue lines), with the corresponding uncertainty envelope (grey envelopes), which are shown in the same plot for each site.

The nine limestone samples gathered from the Pérouré Gorge (Figure 3A) display ages ranging between ca. 1 and 9 ka (Table 1). From these ages, we can compute two mean incision rates: a first, poorly-constrained (regarding the  $R^2$ ) incision rate of  $0.76 \pm 0.11$  mm/yr



from 3 ka to 9 ka (from 11 to 6 meters above riverbed level), with a  $R^2$  of 0.47, and a second, better constrained value of  $3.34 \pm 0.88$  mm/yr from 1 ka to 3 ka (from 1 to 6 meters above riverbed level), with a  $R^2$  of 0.73.

The eleven  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  CRE ages obtained along a polished surface of the High Verdon Gorge range from 15 ka to 40 ka. From these ages, we can estimate a steady incision rate of  $0.21 \pm 0.01$  mm/yr, from 15 to 45 ka, with a  $R^2$  of 0.97. Two samples (V01 and V02; Table 1) are discarded as it seems that their exposure ages are related to post-incision rejuvenation of the bedrock wall, which is most likely representative of rock-fall occurrences (Figure 4C).

Fourteen limestone samples were collected along a 15 m high vertical wall in the Redebras Gorge. From the sample  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  concentrations, we obtained CRE ages ranging between 6 and 84 ka, giving a steady mean incision rate of  $0.21 \pm 0.03$  mm/yr with a  $R^2$  of 0.85. In this data set, two samples (R03 and P02; Table 1) are not taken into account for the incision-rate computation, as their exposure ages are probably related to a rock-fall event that occurred at ca. 20 ka (Figure 3C, D, E, F).

The sixteen samples gathered in the Bévéra Gorge display CRE ages between 19 and 5 ka (Table 1). From these ages, we can compute a mean incision rate increasing from  $0.52 \pm 0.15$  mm/yr, between 20 and 10 ka (with a  $R^2$  of 0.68), to  $0.84 \pm 0.51$  mm/yr, from 10 to 5 ka, (with a  $R^2$  of 0.73, Figure 3B).

In the Bendola Gorge, the CRE ages of eleven carbonate samples ranges between 5 and 44 ka. The mean incision rate is estimated at  $0.28 \pm 0.04$  mm/yr during this period, with a  $R^2$  of 0.88. On this profile, two samples (Be01 et Be02; Table 1) are considered as outliers and therefore not taken into account for the incision rate computation. Indeed, their young exposure ages, compared to the ages of the surrounding samples, and their location, seems to indicate a post-incision rejuvenation of the bedrock walls (Figure 4A, B).

#### 4.2. $^{36}\text{Cl}$ CRE dating results from literature

In order to interpret our data in a more regional framework, we propose here a compilation of CRE dating studies that have been previously carried out on bedrock gorges and valleys at the scale of the SW Alps (Saillard et al., 2014; Rolland et al., 2017; Petit et al., 2019; Cardinal et al., 2021; Figure 1). In order to compare the results with our data, we re-computed the previously estimated incision rates with the same method as in this study (Figure 6). We chose to use only the CRE data considered by the authors as suitable for deriving fluvial incision rates. The data considered as outliers, for reasons such as rock-falls, are not presented in this study.

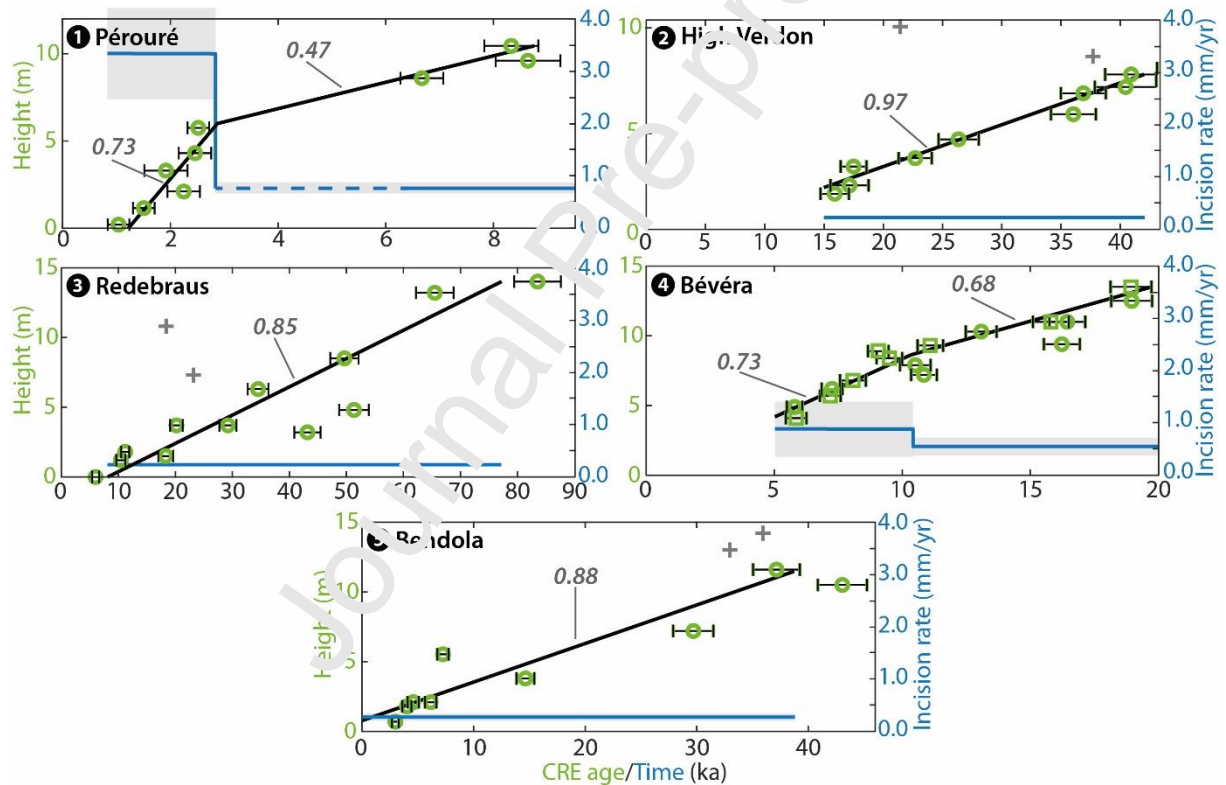


Figure 5. CRE age vs height (green circles) and corresponding regression (black line, with  $R^2$  value); mean incision rate (blue line) throughout time, with uncertainty (grey envelope), plot of the gorges (1) Pérouré; (2) High Verdon; (3) Redebraus; (4) Bévéra, and (5) Bendola, from this study. The blue dashed line for Pérouré (plot 1) corresponds to the temporal range where the estimate of incision rate is poorly constrained, due to a lack of data and low  $R^2$ . The

number of each plot refers to the location of sites displayed in Figure 1C. The grey crosses are outliers considered as representing rejuvenation of the gorge walls following a rock-fall event and are therefore not representative of fluvial incision.

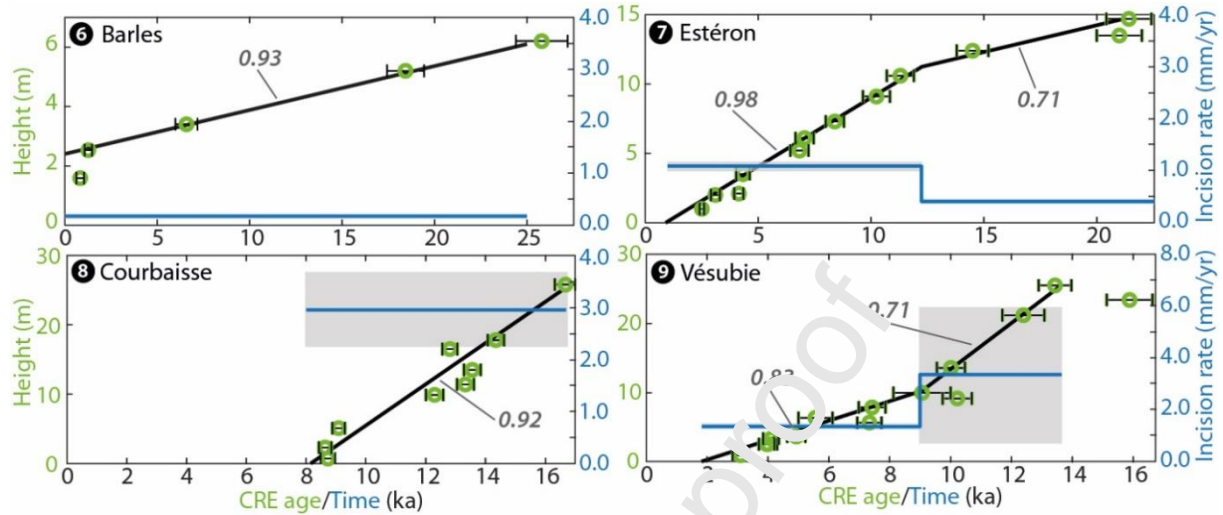


Figure 6. CRE age vs height (green circles) and corresponding regression (black line, with  $R^2$  value); mean incision rate (blue line) throughout time, with uncertainty (grey envelope), of the gorges from literature: (6) Clue de Barles (Cardinal et al., 2021); (7) Estéron (Petit et al., 2019); (8) Courbaisse (Rolland et al., 2017); (9) Vésubie (Saillard et al., 2014). Data have been selected based on the author's interpretation of the sampled surfaces as representative of exposure related to fluvial incision.

Sample	Height above river (m)	TS factor	Spall. scaling	$^{35}\text{Cl}$ (ppm)	Ca (%)	Atoms $^{36}\text{Cl}$ (at/g)	Atoms $^{36}\text{Cl} \pm$ (at/g)	CRE age (ka)
<b>Pérouré Gorge</b> (lat: 44.2°; long: 6.3°; elevation: 814 m.a.s.l.)								
P01	11.2	0.71	1.44	34.8	37.4	225855	14252	8.3±0.5
P02	10.3	0.71	1.44	48.4	38.0	244501	18207	8.6±0.6
P03	9.3	0.71	1.44	48.0	39.2	192883	13705	6.7±0.4
P04	6.5	0.71	1.44	36.3	37.8	70483	5823	2.5±0.2
P05	5.0	0.71	1.44	36.0	38.2	68158	7821	2.5±0.3
P06	4.0	0.71	1.44	40.0	36.9	51295	11467	1.9±0.4
P07	2.8	0.71	1.44	37.9	38.0	60377	8918	2.2±0.3
P08	1.9	0.71	1.44	38.3	37.6	40900	6808	1.5±0.2
P09	0.9	0.71	1.44	30.8	32.1	25038	3868	1.0±0.2
<b>High Verdon Gorge</b> (lat: 43.8°; long: 6.4°; elevation: 606 m.a.s.l.)								
V01	11	0.16	1.67	24.5	40.4	110890	8575	21.6±1.7
V02	8	0.16	1.67	33.1	40.6	190457	16417	37.3±3.2

V03	7.7	0.16	1.67	23.4	40.7	205909	11192	40.9±2.2
V04	7.1	0.16	1.67	28.6	40.8	205363	13024	40.4±2.6
V05	6.8	0.16	1.67	28.1	40.8	187869	9775	36.9±1.9
V06	5.8	0.16	1.67	32.0	41.7	188287	9862	36.0±1.9
V07	4.6	0.16	1.67	31.5	40.6	136006	8988	26.4±1.7
V08	3.7	0.16	1.67	35.0	40.7	118596	7068	22.7±1.4
V09	3.3	0.16	1.67	32.5	40.8	91776	5730	17.5±1.1
V10	2.4	0.16	1.67	29.9	40.7	89670	8452	17.2±1.6
V11	2	0.16	1.67	37.3	40.7	83944	6349	15.9±1.2
<b>Redebraus Gorge (lat: 43.8°; long: 7.4°; elevation: 527 m.a.s.l.)</b>								
R01	14.0	0.42	1.58	18.86	40.1	946227	46163	83.5±4.1
R02	13.2	0.42	1.58	19.22	41.3	778602	39778	65.5±3.3
R03	10.5	0.42	1.58	14.97	39.1	559664	29727	18.9±1.0
R04	8.5	0.42	1.58	15.10	39.0	568296	28656	49.7±2.5
R05	7.1	0.42	1.58	19.14	40.1	280560	14695	23.1±1.2
R06	6.3	0.42	1.58	20.16	40.3	416307	21504	34.5±1.8
R07	4.8	0.30	1.58	19.78	41.5	441910	22703	51.3±2.6
R08	3.2	0.30	1.58	18.82	41.	574066	19766	43.2±2.3
R09	1.5	0.30	1.58	18.96	41.8	105956	11664	18.3±1.3
R10	1.83	0.64	1.58	20.91	41.0	214946	14291	11.2±0.7
R11	1.2	0.64	1.58	21.78	41.2	201575	15016	10.4±0.8
R12	0.0	0.64	1.58	22.74	41.3	117198	12115	6.0±0.6
R13	3.7	0.64	1.58	23.23	41.1	551920	28682	29.2±1.5
R14	3.7	0.64	1.58	21.37	40.8	381736	20217	20.2±1.1
<b>Bévéra Gorge (lat: 43.9°; long: 7.5°; elevation: 281 m.a.s.l.)</b>								
B00a	12.5	0.89	1.27	11.3	37.8	380994	16676	19.0±0.8
B01a	11.0	0.89	1.27	11.4	37.9	331854	15069	16.4±0.7
B02a	10.3	0.80	1.27	18.9	37.9	243162	10644	13.1±0.6
B03a	9.4	0.63	1.27	12.4	38.0	231557	10194	16.2±0.7
B04a	7.9	0.56	1.27	12.4	37.9	134514	8034	10.5±0.6
B05a	7.2	0.56	1.27	21.1	37.8	143352	7200	10.9±0.5
B06a	6.2	0.66	1.27	17.1	37.8	111662	5721	7.3±0.4
B07a	4.9	0.54	1.27	16.1	37.8	85610	4754	5.8±0.3
B00b	13.5	0.91	1.27	15.4	38.0	351203	14916	18.9±0.8
B01b	11.0	0.91	1.27	33.4	37.7	310241	13924	15.8±0.7
B02b	9.3	0.75	1.27	12.9	37.9	190555	8637	11.1±0.5
B03b	8.9	0.69	1.27	15.9	38.0	144324	7151	9.1±0.4
B04b	8.4	0.62	1.27	16.0	37.9	136508	6619	9.5±0.5
B05b	6.8	0.54	1.27	12.9	38.0	100400	5648	8.1±0.5
B06b	5.7	0.48	1.27	17.2	38.0	78976	4716	7.0±0.4
B07b	4.1	0.48	1.27	19.1	37.9	66429	4192	5.9±0.4
<b>Bendola Gorge (lat: 44.0°; long: 7.5°; elevation: 357 m.a.s.l.)</b>								
Be01	14.2	0.32	1.35	40.9	40.3	284628	15689	35.1±1.9
Be02	13.0	0.32	1.35	42.8	40.3	262445	14997	32.2±1.8
Be03	11.6	0.32	1.35	34.1	41.0	303029	16727	37.2±2.1
Be04	10.5	0.32	1.35	29.3	40.9	346005	18060	43.1±2.2
Be05	7.2	0.32	1.35	62.4	41.4	254491	15799	29.8±1.8
Be06	5.6	0.62	1.35	17.4	40.9	117113	7733	7.3±0.5

Be07	3.8	0.62	1.35	51.4	41.1	243041	14049	14.7±0.8
Be08	2.1	0.62	1.35	39.0	41.0	101697	7463	6.2±0.5
Be09	2.1	0.62	1.35	41.5	40.5	75596	8545	4.6±0.5
Be10	1.8	0.62	1.35	45.9	40.5	66751	6722	4.0±0.4
Be11	0.7	0.62	1.35	67.8	41.0	51873	5002	3.0±0.3

Table 1.  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  CRE sample characteristics and geochronological results. Sample field information, natural chlorine, calcium, cosmogenic  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  contents in the limestone samples, resulting  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  CRE ages, and topographic shielding (TS) factor of the sampled surfaces, are indicated. Samples written in italics correspond to the CRE ages identified as outliers and discarded for incision rate computation.

## 5. DISCUSSION

### 5.1. Synthesis of $^{36}\text{Cl}$ CRE dating results for bedrock gorges in the SW Alps

From the synthesis of CRE datings of gorges in the SW Alps, we are able to highlight different spatial and temporal patterns of bedrock gorge incision rates at a regional scale. Two orders of information emerged from the profile of incision rate variations through time (Figure 7A): (i) the differences in incision rate magnitude from one site to another, and (ii) the temporal variations of incision rates for each individual site. From these observations, we can distinguish three distinct trends (Figure 7A):

- The first trend (Trend 1, green lines) shows a high incision rate (~3 mm/yr) between 17 and 8 ka. The concerned gorges (Courbaisse #10 and Vésubie #12) are located along “Connected” rivers.
- The second trend (Trend 2, orange lines) shows initially lower (~0.5 mm/yr) incision rates that increase up to 1 mm/yr after 10 ka. The concerned gorges (Bévéra, Estéron and Pérouré) are located along “Indirectly-connected” tributaries.
- The third trend (Trend 3, blue lines) shows steady and lower incision rates at around 0.25 mm/yr, from 80 ka to the present day. The concerned gorges (Barles, High Verdon, Rédébraus and Bendola) have mixed locations regarding the LGM extent.

Most of the studied gorges show significant change in incision rates around 10 ka while

four sites do not undergo any changes in their incision rate since up to 80 ka. Incision rate increase occurs before 10 ka for Trend 1 and later for Trend 2. These variations will be discussed in the following section.

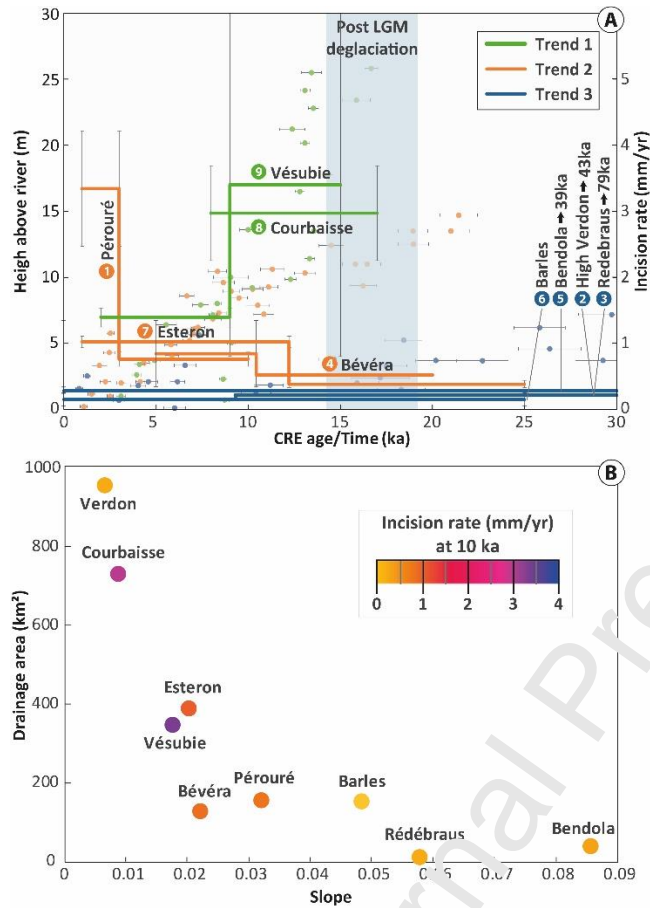


Figure 7. A, Incision rate trends (Trend 1 to 3) in SW Alps gorges, constrained by  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  exposure ages; individual dots correspond to dated samples (left vertical axis) and lines to the corresponding incision rate (right vertical axis). Note that the plot only displays data since 30 ka. Bendola, High Verdon and Redebraus gorges ages show a similar incision rate extending up to 39, 43 and 79 ka respectively, as indicated. B, Upstream drainage area versus local slope plot of sampled SW Alps bedrock gorges, with corresponding mean incision rates (color scale) estimated at 10 ka.

## 5.2. Regional pattern of river incision rates in SW Alps and their relationship to lithology, climate and uplift

Comparison of incision rates obtained from several catchments at the scale of the SW Alps is not straightforward, as fluvial incision is influenced by local factors like stream and catchment morphologies. Before addressing any regional interpretation of the obtained incision patterns, it is crucial to take into account some local features, such as upstream drainage area, local slope and rock erodibility, which control the incision efficiency (e.g., Kirby and Whipple, 2012). We tested the hypothesis that variations in drainage area, which is considered as a proxy of river discharge and sediment flux (Bishop et al., 2005), and in local slope could explain the measured differences in incision rates from one gorge to another. Both variables are co-dependent to the position of a considered point along the river profile: the more upstream this point is, the higher the slope and the smaller the drainage area (e.g., Wobus et al., 2006). We choose incision rates at 10 ka in order to compare our incision data with present-day catchments metrics. Our analysis (Figure 7B) shows this expected decreasing exponential relationship between upstream drainage area and channel slope. As these two parameters control the incision, we would expect, when comparing incision rates from gorges with their respective catchment metrics, to find higher incision rates for both high slope and drainage area sector. However, although there is a group of high incision rates (Bévéra, Vésubie, Pérouré, Féséron) for intermediate slopes and drainage areas, no clear tendency emerges from this plot: both high and low incision rates are recorded either for large and small drainage areas and similarly for high and low local slopes. . This analysis suggests that other factors could explain the different trends of incision rates highlighted in Figure 7A, which are discussed below.

### 5.3. Trend 1: direct deglaciation impact

Trend 1 (green lines, Figure 7A), which includes data from Courbaisse (Rolland et al., 2017) and Vésubie (Saillard et al., 2014) gorges, shows a mean incision rate of ~3 mm/yr between 17 and 8 ka, which decreases to 1.4 mm/yr for the Vésubie Gorge and appears to

become null in Courbaisse Gorge after ca. 10 ka (Figure 7A). During this period, the SW Alps were under the influence of climatic fluctuations, with a transition period from full glacial (LGM) to interglacial (after 10 ka) conditions (e.g. Ivy Ochs et al., 2008). Direct erosion by glaciers is known to be very efficient in the shaping of the Alps (Champagnac et al., 2007; Valla et al., 2011; Sternai et al., 2013). Indeed, during the LGM, the erosion rate in the Argentera ECM has been estimated at 1.8 mm/yr by Darnault et al. (2012). The sampled gorges of Vésubie and Courbaisse are located in formerly-glaciated catchments, downstream and outside of the LGM glacial extent. Furthermore, fluvial incision occurred in these gorges since at least the end of the LGM, when main glaciers were retreating. This time marks the beginning of the paraglacial period (Church and Ryder, 1972), which is characterized by enhanced fluvial processes, such as increased stream flow (Seidl and Dietrich, 1992; Tucker and Whipple, 2002) and increased sediment yield (Ballantyne, 2002; Meigs et al., 2006; Savi et al., 2014). Church and Ryder (1972) proposed a theoretical paraglacial model, in which the sediment yield peaks shortly after the onset of deglaciation and decreases until reaching a steady state, after paraglacial sediment supply exhaustion. Although additional processes (discussed below) may control the apparent stop of incision in the Courbaisse Gorge, the CRE dating data displayed by Treand could fit with the theoretical paraglacial model (Church and Ryder, 1972; Ballantyne, 2002), which seems to illustrate the consequence of increased sediment yield from upstream Tinée and Vésubie catchments between the end of the LGM (ca. 19 ka) and the Younger Dryas/Holocene transition (ca. 10 ka).

While it is commonly assumed that sediment yield/discharge plays an important role in bedrock incision process (Seidl and Dietrich, 1992; Whipple et al., 2000; Stock et al., 2005; DiBiase and Whipple, 2011), the direct relationship between incision and sediment supply is more complex (Sklar and Dietrich, 2001; Whipple and Tucker, 2002). Indeed, sediment



transported by rivers can both provide the tools for bedrock incision, through abrasion or plucking process, and, if excessively profuse, can insulate and protect the underlying riverbed from erosion (Sklar et Dietrich, 2001). The apparent ceasing of incision in the Courbaisse Gorge, observed in the CRE data (Figure 6A) may be controlled by the cover effect. Indeed, the gorge is located in a much more opened part of the Tinée valley, where hillslope-derived sediment seems to have filled the bottom of the valley, impeding the bedrock incision.

Our results suggest continuous incision during the Late glacial period (19-11ka), that we associated with increased sediment yield. Similarly, Van den Berg et al. (2012) quantified present-day incision rate of 1.3 mm/yr and proposed post-LGM incision rates of 2.1-2.8 mm/yr to explain the formation of inner-gorges in the Enten Catchment (Switzerland), which suggests a similar pattern at the scale of the Alpine belt. It is worth noting that sediment yield in the Var basin (Bonneau et al., 2017) and denudation rates in the Argentera ECM (Mariotti et al., 2021) estimated from marine sediment records show two peaks since 30 ka: a major one at the end of the LGM and a secondary one at ca. 10 ka. Between these two periods, both studies of Bonneau et al. (2017) and Mariotti et al. (2021) reported a decrease in sediment yield and apparent denudation rates respectively. The discrepancy between these studies and ours might be the result of transient sediment storage, either on land, at the mouth of the Var River, or on the submarine slope (Petit et al., submitted).

#### 5.4. Trend 2: indirect deglaciation impact

Trend 2 (orange lines, Figure 7A), which includes data from Esteron (Petit et al., 2019), Bévéra and Pérouré (this study) gorges, shows incision rates of  $\sim 0.5$  mm/yr that increase up to  $\sim 1$  mm/yr after 10 ka. While we see the influence of deglaciation in rivers that are directly connected to formerly-glaciated areas, we can observe an acceleration of incision after 10 ka in rivers that are tributaries of these “Connected” rivers, and thus indirectly connected to glaciations (Figure 1C). This acceleration could be related to the propagation of

an incision wave in tributaries, whose local base level at the outlet dropped, as the main river underwent a paraglacial crisis and associated profile re-equilibration (Figure 8, top). The possible control of a regional base level is not considered here because no significant drop of the Mediterranean Sea level has been observed since the end of LGM (Vacchi et al., 2016; Benjamin et al., 2017).

If we follow this hypothesis, the paraglacial incision pulse in the main rivers should have started after 17 ka (i.e., corresponding to the onset of fast incision in connected rivers of Trend 1). Yet, the incision acceleration in “Trend 2” gorges appears to be delayed by more than 5 ka with respect to “Trend 1” ones. Although several authors have proposed that post-glacial incision may be delayed after deglaciation by several thousands of years (Valla et al., 2010; Jansen et al., 2011), this delay could also be controlled by the distance between the sampled gorge and the tributary confluence to the main stream, that the climatic knickpoint had to incise through while migrating upstream. Indeed, the Estéron gorge is located ~7km upstream from its junction with the Ver River, while the Bévéra Gorge is located ~15 km upstream from its junction from the Roya River, and our data show that incision rate increases earlier in the Estéron Gorge (ca. 12 ka) than in the Bévéra Gorge (ca. 10 ka). Regarding the Pérouré Gorge, the data are too scarce to discuss further any possible propagation of incision between 10 and 15 ka (Figure 7A).

Several other factors can be invoked to explain this variation in the onset of fast incision from one river to another, such as sediment availability, water discharge and bedrock resistance. Besides, we do not find any indication of upstream migration of knickpoints along the tributary river profiles, but only static lithological knickpoints formed in the most resistant limestone strata. The latter will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

### **5.5.Lithological control on incision propagation**

We proposed from Trends 1 and 2 that the location of the sampled gorges, with respect to

LGM ice-covered extension (connected or indirectly-connected), controls the processes and rates at which the incision occurs. However, the gorges included in Trend 3 do not belong to a single domain regarding the glacier coverage. Indeed, the High Verdon Gorge was connected to glaciers, while Barles and Bendola gorges were indirectly connected. Those three gorges display very similar incision rates (0.15-0.28 mm/yr) to the Rédébraus Gorge ( $0.21 \pm 0.03$  mm/yr), although the latter is the only one that is totally disconnected from any glacial influence. Therefore, it seems that these gorges have not been impacted by deglaciation and did not undergo any significant post-glacial incision.

We argue here that bedrock resistance plays a major role in the distribution and propagation of erosion in a fluvial system, as observed in previous studies (e.g. da Silva Guimarães et al., 2021). The notion of bedrock resistance here is relative to the lithology of one unit compared to another. In this study, we compare mainly the resistance of thick Tithonian limestone bars to known less resistant marl lithologies that are widespread in underlying and overlying strata. The Bès River example seems to illustrate this effect. Along this tributary, that is connected to the Pléone River, we sampled the Pérouré Gorge, just less than 2 km downstream of previously sampled Barles Gorge (Cardinal et al., 2021). From these two gorges, we can observe significant differences in incision rates. The Pérouré Gorge shows an overall higher incision rate ( $0.76 \pm 0.11$  mm/yr), with an apparent increase at 4 ka ( $3.34 \pm 0.88$  mm/yr), while the Barles Gorge displays a steady incision rate of  $0.15 \pm 0.03$  mm/yr. When looking at the Bès River long profile (Figure 2A), we see that the two gorges are located at both ends of a knickzone, in which we see three lithological knickpoints formed at each Tithonian limestone outcrop. This example could highlight the role of a strong bedrock lithology as a barrier partly impeding upstream incision propagation, as demonstrated by several studies (Crosby and Whipple, 2006, Jansen et al., 2010, Bishop and Goldrick, 2010). Considering this effect, we suggest that the upstream migration of a post-glacial

incision wave is able to pass through the first knickpoint, but significantly decreases and even disappears as it migrates upstream through the knickzone towards Barles Gorge (Figure 8, bottom, T1)

The Roya catchment case could also reflect the control of lithology, in which we sampled two tributaries: the Bévéra and the Bendola. As in the Bévéra River, we would expect an acceleration of incision related to knickpoint propagation along the Bendola River, which would have occurred earlier as the Bendola Gorge is located within less than 1 km from its junction with the Roya River. When looking at the longitudinal river profiles (Figure 2D), we see that the outlet of the Bendola River is located along an outcrop of Tithonian limestone, and slightly upstream of the lips of the knickpoint formed in this resistant lithology, whereas the Bendola outlet is located in a much less resistant lithology (Middle Jurassic marls). We thus propose that the Bendola River did not undergo any significant base level drop as a result of the paraglacial crisis in the Roya River and therefore was not subject to any upstream knickpoint propagation, as opposed to the Bévéra River (Figure 8, bottom, T2).

Regarding the High Verdon Gorge case, it seems that the gorge did not undergo any post-glacial incision rate change, as opposed to the Vésubie or Courbaisse gorges. The Verdon longitudinal river profile (Figure 2B) presents a concave profile, especially upstream of the High Verdon Gorge. The lithology upstream of the Tithonian limestone in which the gorge is incised, is mainly composed of lower-resistance marls. The easily erodible lithology, in addition to the steady-state river profile could have dampened the impact of a paraglacial incision wave coming from the upstream glaciated area, located more than 50 km upstream. In addition to this effect, the position of the gorge more than 70 km upstream from the confluence with the Durance River could have prevented the High Verdon Gorge from undergoing any significant knickpoint propagation.

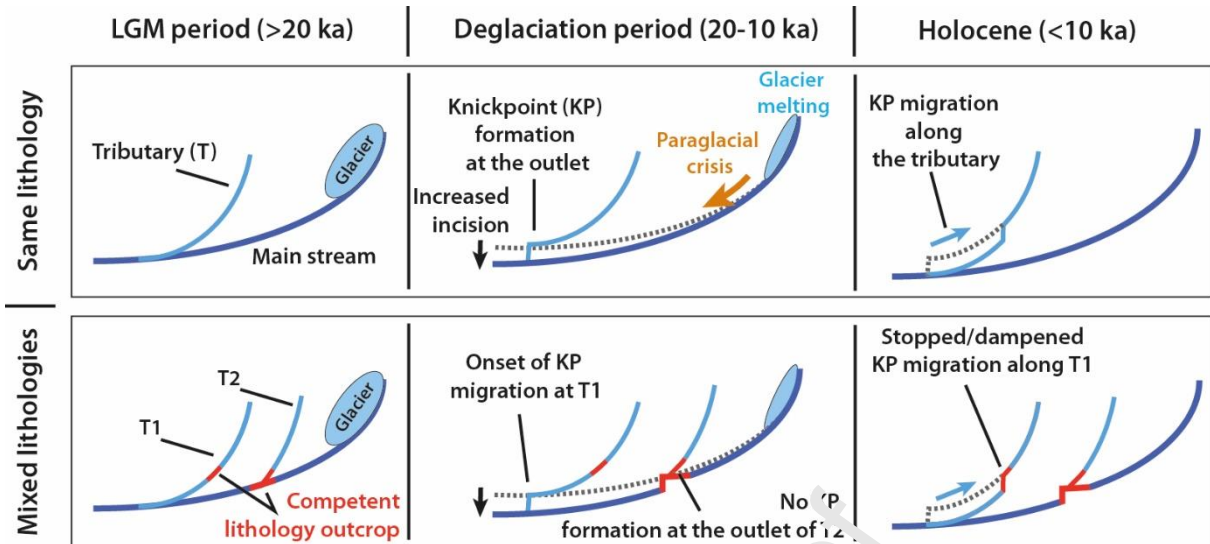


Figure 8. Top: Theoretical sketch of tributary readjustment to a change of base level following paraglacial crisis in the main river with homogenous lithology. Bottom: Theoretical sketch of the impact of mixed lithologies (limestones/marls) on the incision propagation and tributary readjustment to a change of base level following paraglacial crisis in the main river.

### 5.6. Trend 3: steady-state

Trend 3, which includes data from Barles (Cardinal et al., 2021), High Verdon, Redebraus and Bendola (this study) gorges shows a slow and steady mean incision rate of  $\sim 0.25$  mm/yr since maximum 80 ka. The main remaining question is: what drives these steady and lower incision rates displayed in Trend 3?

The climatic influence is shown through punctual and very efficient incision pulses, which can hinder any lower and longer-term signal. Therefore, to better understand such low incision rates we must integrate our data in a larger time window, where short-term climatic influence will be smoothed. Incision rates inferred from these isolated gorges seem comparable to previously-determined long-term erosion rates. Based on the CRE dating of alluvial terraces in the Buëch river (Figure 1C), Brocard et al. (2003) deduced a long-term (190 ka) incision rate of about 0.8 mm/yr. Based on bulk sediment cosmnuclides ( $^{10}\text{Be}$ ) concentration, Mariotti et al. (2021) obtained catchment-average denudation rates ranging from 0.1 to 1.4 mm/yr since 75 ka in the Var River catchment (Figure 1C).

Under steady-state conditions, erosion rate is believed to match rock uplift rate (Royden and Perron, 2013). Long-term exhumation rates obtained from the external crystalline massifs to the foreland are of the order of 0.3-1.4 mm/yr. In the Argentera ECM (Figure 1B), cooling rates estimated by low-temperature thermochronology (Apatite fission track and Apatite U-Th/He dating), are in agreement with exhumation rates of 0.8-1.4 mm/yr over the last 10 Ma (Bogdanoff et al., 2000; Bigot-Cormier et al., 2006; Sanchez et al., 2011). In the Frontal domain, Apatite (U-Th/He) dating on basin sediments had shown a reset induced by the Digne thrust sheet (Figure 1B) and returns exhumation rates of around 0.7 mm/yr since 5 Ma (Schwartz et al., 2017). East of the city of Nice, Bigot-Cormier et al. (2004) analysed seismic-reflection profiles to infer uplift rates of 0.3-0.5 mm/yr of the North Ligurian margin since 5 Ma. Regarding the present-day uplift, several studies using GPS data in the Alps (Serpelloni et al., 2013; Nocquet et al., 2016; Walpersdorf et al., 2018; Sternai et al., 2019; Piña-Valdés et al., 2022) evidence limited to slow vertical displacements of <0.5 mm/yr in the SW Alps.

Although, these values encompass different time scales, from long-term (10 Ma) to short-term (>100 a) and show a large variability, Trend 3 mean incision rates estimated at about of ~0.25 mm/yr in Trend 3 seem in agreement with those slow uplift rates. Therefore, our data could indicate that incision process within these disconnected (from glacier) or isolated river gorges is a response to a steady base-level drop induced by tectonically-driven rock uplift.

## 6. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, our  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  CRE dating of incised bedrock gorges seems to highlight three different incision rate trends in the Southwestern Alps:

- Trend 1, in which connected gorges seem to have undergone an increase, directly after the LGM, followed by a decrease of incision. We propose that the variations in the recorded incision rates could firstly be related to an increase in the sediment yield and then to the depletion of sediment, commonly associated with the paraglacial period.

- Trend 2, with gorges affected by a small increase in incision rates after the deglaciation that could reflect the propagation of an erosion wave in tributaries of connected rivers.
- Trend 3, apparently unaffected by the last glacial-interglacial period, as suggested by the observed slow and steady incision rates ( $\sim 0.25$  mm/yr since maximum 80 ka). These values are similar to long-term erosion rates and in the range of the modern vertical GPS displacements.

As well as potentially highlighting the control of resistant lithology on incision propagation within river catchments, these observations, although based on a limited number of sites, provide insights for discussing the influence of different forcings (climate and tectonics) in the SW Alps. In locations significantly affected by late-Quaternary glaciers, the influence of climate is shown through the direct and indirect impact of deglaciation. There, the associated high gorge incision rates could hinder the lower and longer-term tectonic signal. Indeed, when out of the glacial influence, river incision rates are comparable to long-term ( $> 10$  Ma) erosion rates. Therefore, our results and interpretations suggest that Late-Quaternary river incision in the Southwestern Alps is readjusting to both short-term climatic forcing and long-term tectonic forcing.

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Journal Pre-proof

**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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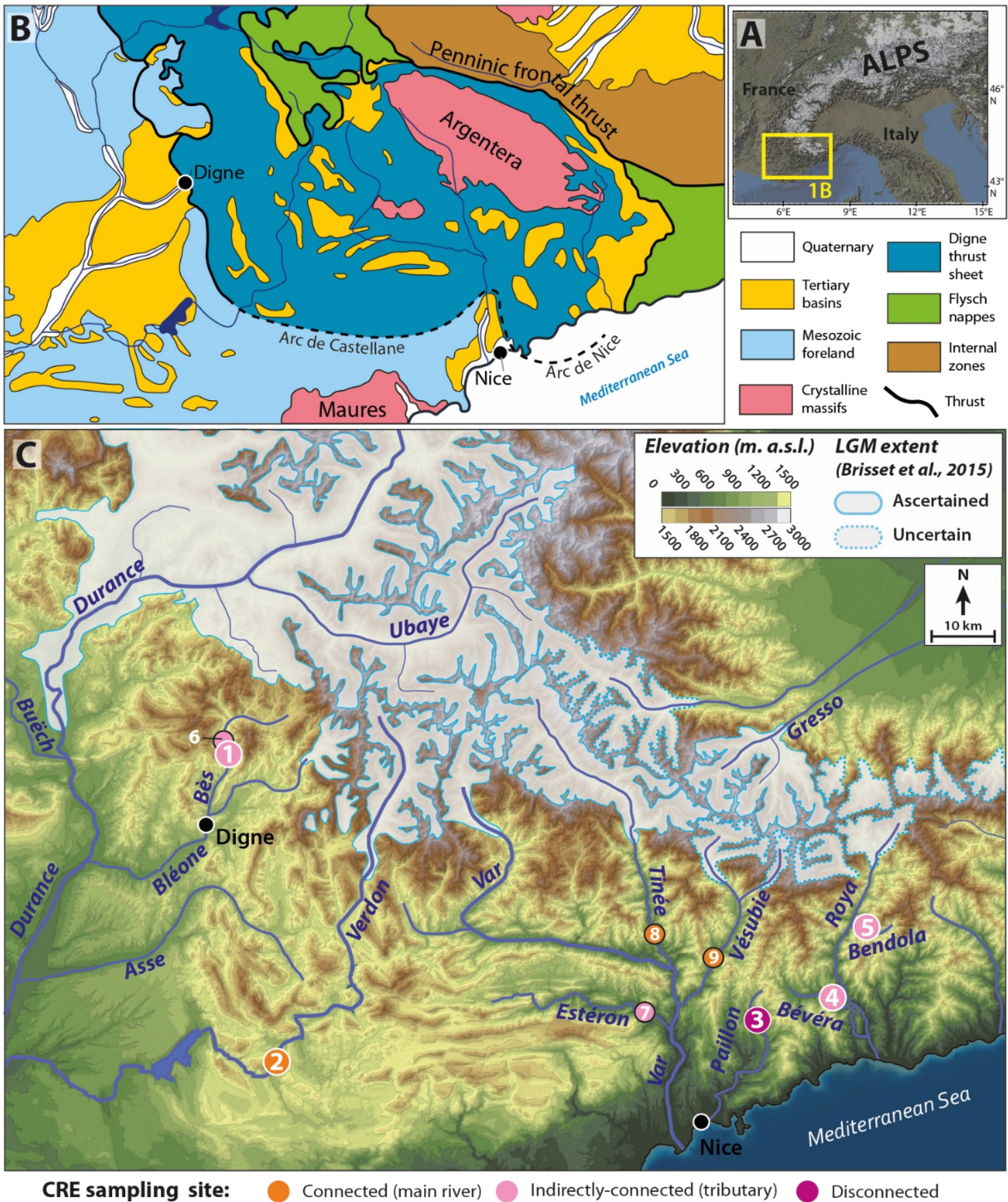


Figure 1



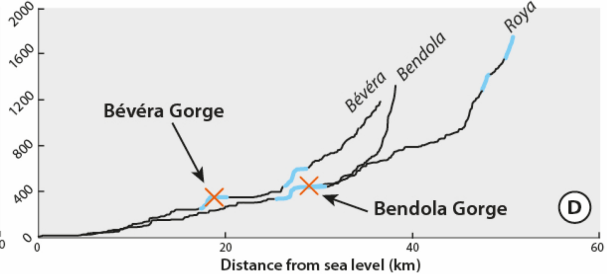
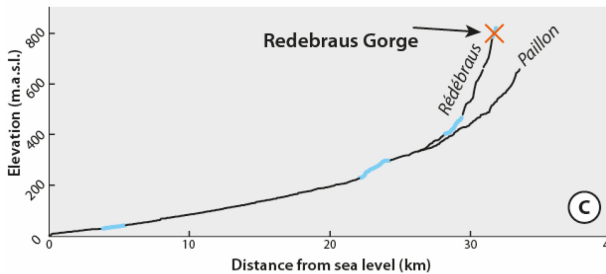
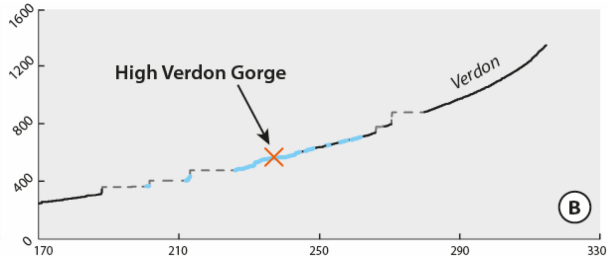
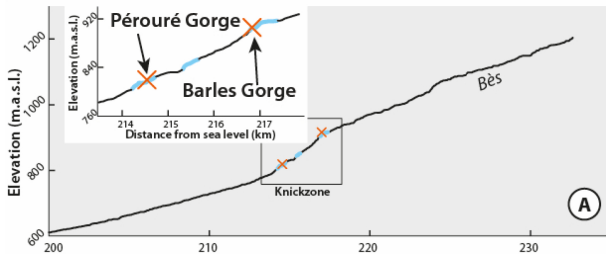


Figure 2

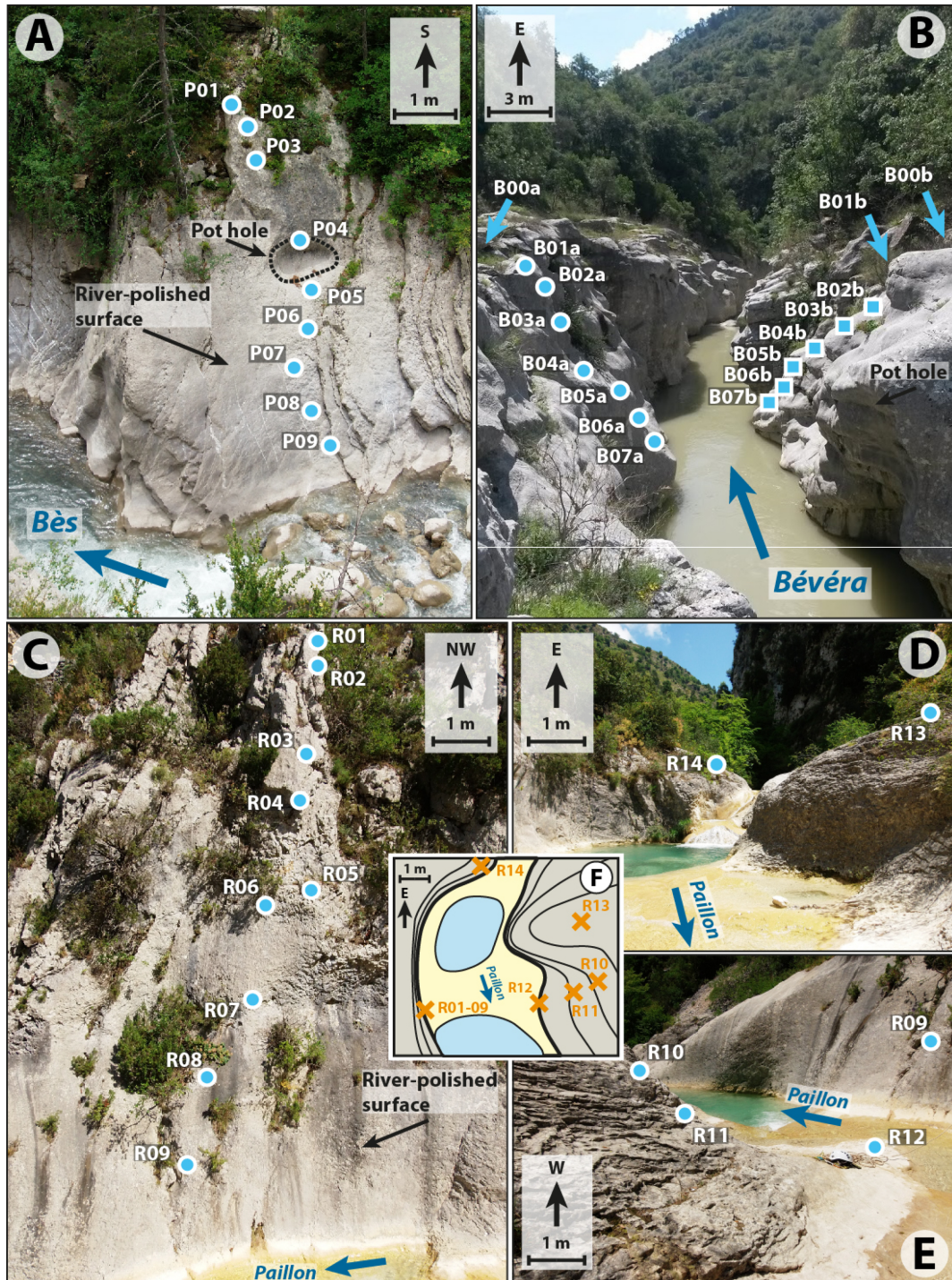


Figure 3

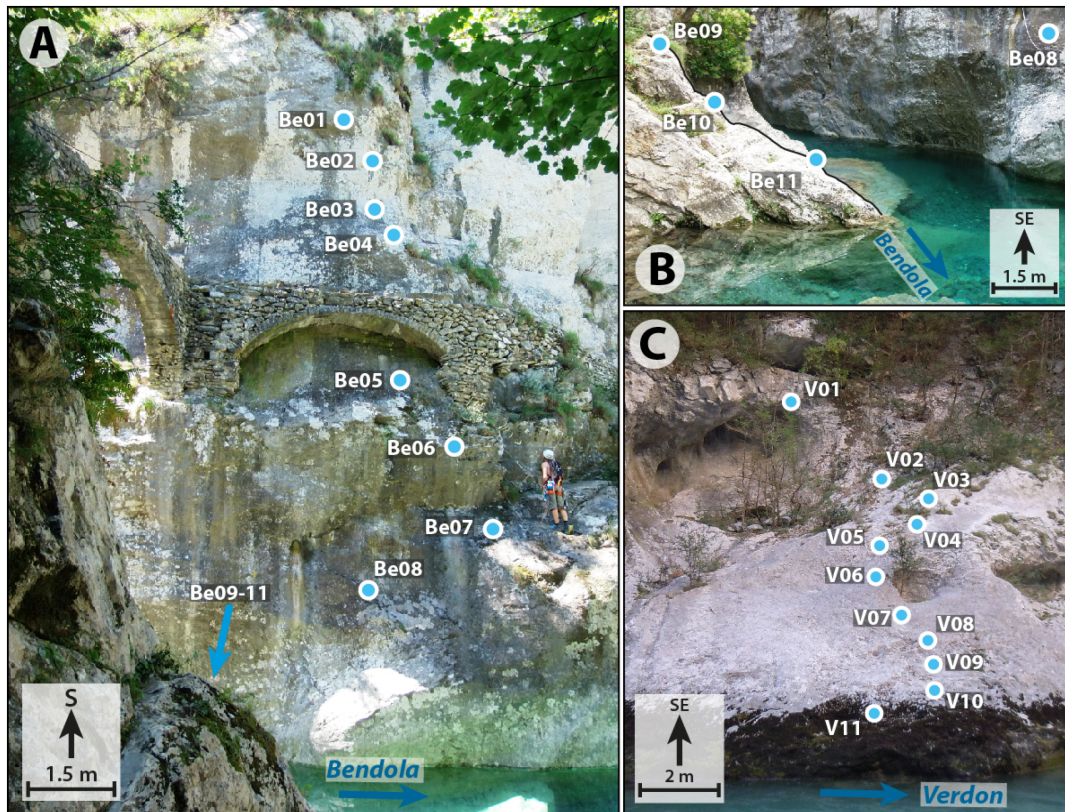


Figure 4

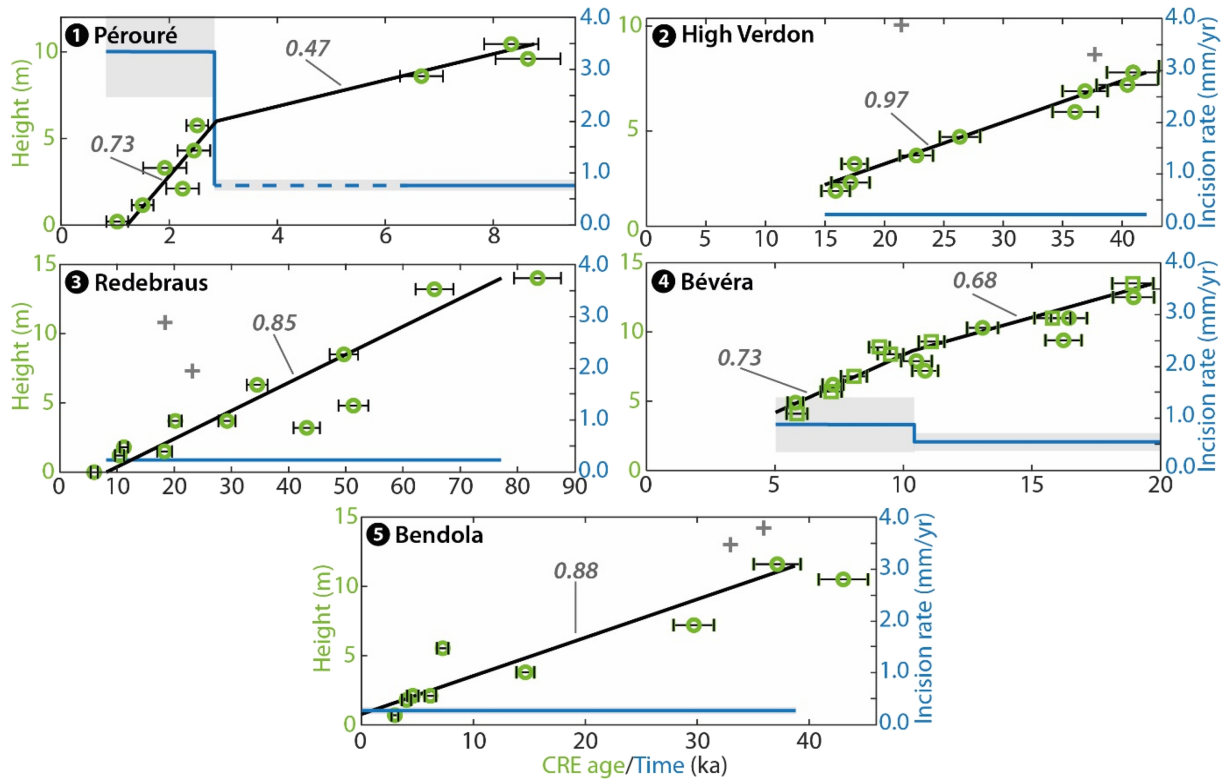


Figure 5

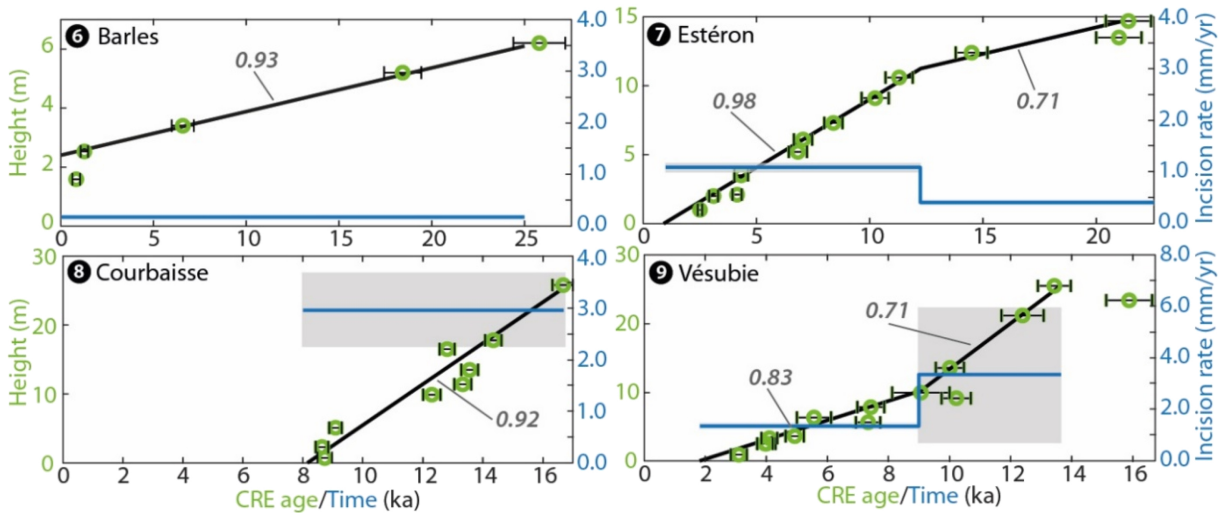


Figure 6

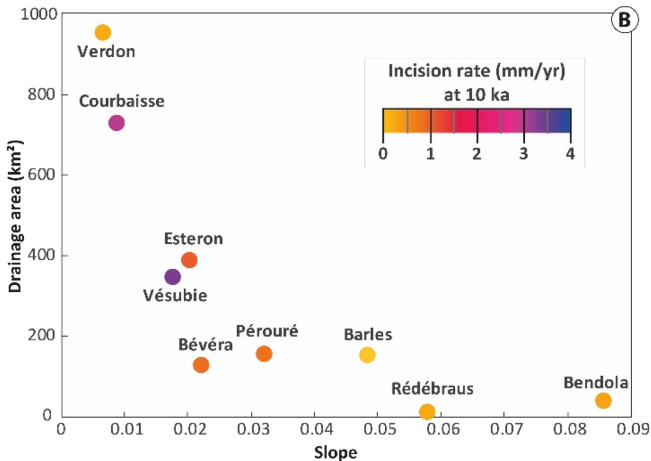
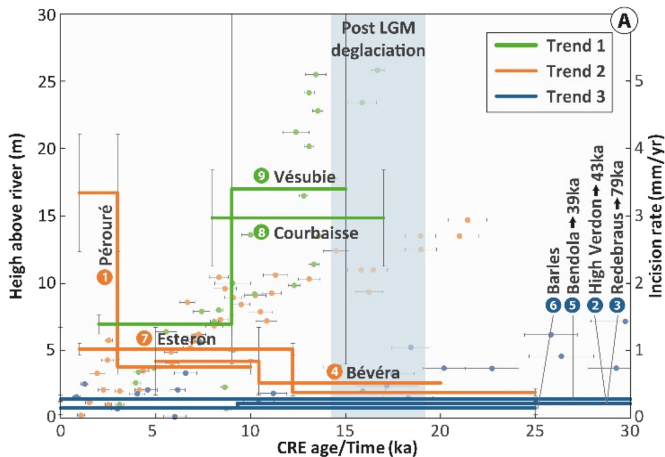


Figure 7

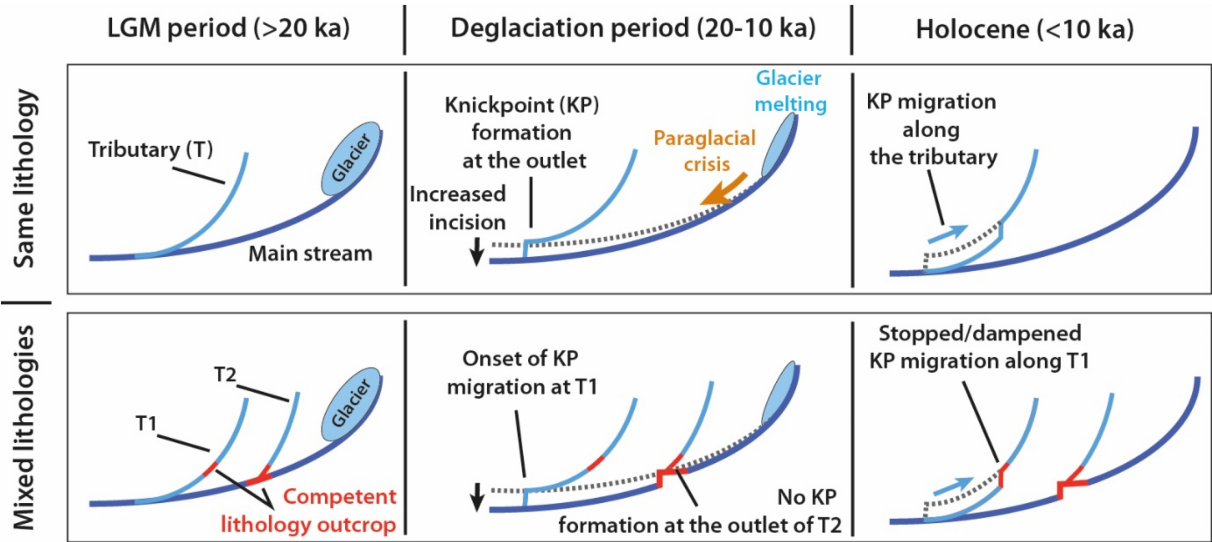


Figure 8