

# Surface uplift and topographic rejuvenation of a tectonically inactive range: Insights from the Anti-Atlas and the Siroua Massif (Morocco)

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- 1 Surface uplift and topographic rejuvenation of a tectonically inactive range: Insights
- 2 from the Anti-Atlas and the Siroua Massif (Morocco)
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- 13
- 14 Key Points:
- The transient state of the stream network and the high-standing erosional surface document a
   recent phase of topographic rejuvenation
- Uplift started at ~14-10 Ma and increases from the western (0.5 km) to the central Anti-Atlas
   (1.1 km) and the Siroua Massif (1.5 km)
- Regional surface uplift is most likely due to astenospheric upwelling, locally combined
   (Siroua Massif) with magma injection and faulting
- 21

# 22 Abstract

The Atlas-Meseta intracontinental orographic system of Morocco experienced recent, large-scale 23 24 surface uplift as documented by elevated late Miocene, shallow-water marine deposits exposed in the Middle Atlas Mountains. The Anti-Atlas Mountains do not present any stratigraphic records that 25 document regional vertical movements, however, the presence of a high-standing, erosional surface, 26 and the transient state of the river network, provides insights into the uplift history of the belt and the 27 mechanisms that drove it. Here, we combine geomorphic and stream profiles analyses, celerity of 28 29 knickpoints and linear inverse landscape modelling with available geological evidence, to decipher the spatial and temporal variations of surface uplift in the Anti-Atlas and the Siroua Massif. Our 30 results highlight the presence of a transient landscape and document a long wave-length topographic 31 swell (~ 100 x 600 km) with a maximum surface uplift of ~1500 m in the Siroua Massif and ~1100 32

m in the central Anti-Atlas most likely starting from ~14-10 Ma. Surface uplift occurred in association with the onset of late Miocene magmatism in the Siroua and Saghro Massif and contractional deformation in the High Atlas. Regional surface uplift was most likely due to deep-seated mechanism, such as astenopsheric upwelling. Additional processes such as magma injection and faulting contributed to the surface uplift of the Siroua Massif. Overall, our approach allows to quantitatively constrain the transient state of the landscape and the contribution of regional surface uplift on mountain building processes.

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#### 41 1. Introduction

42 The interplay between exogenic and endogenic processes controls the growth and decay of topography over diverse temporal and spatial scales. Topographic development is generated by 43 different mechanisms, such as crustal shortening and thickening, magmatic addition, flexural 44 45 rebound, and asthenospheric flow, where each process is associated with a typical wavelength  $(10^{-1})$ to 10<sup>3</sup> km) and amplitude (10 to 10<sup>3</sup> m; e.g., England and Molnar, 1990; De Celles et al., 2009; 46 Roberts and White, 2010; Faccenna and Becker, 2020). Topographic decay results from geomorphic 47 erosion, which is primarily controlled by climate, topographic gradients, and rock strength (i.e., 48 Jansen et al., 2010; Scharf et al., 2013; Clementucci et al., 2022). When topographic decay prevails, 49 50 extensive low-gradient, low-topographic relief landscapes may form (Baldwin et al., 2003; Tucker and van der Beek, 2013). These geomorphic low-relief features can be also found at the summit of 51 mountains areas (Miller et al., 2013; West et al., 2013; Calvet et al., 2015), where they have been 52 53 interpreted to have formed either in situ at high elevation (e.g., Yang et al., 2015; Fox et al., 2020), or to be part of a less elevated and extensive low-relief landscape that has undergone recent surface 54 uplift (e.g., Calvet et al., 2015; Olivetti et al., 2012; 2016; Whipple et al., 2017). In the case of surface 55 uplift, such elevated paleo-topography, named relict landscape or paleo-surface, represents a transient 56 geomorphic marker that provides a reference frame for quantifying the spatial distribution of surface 57 uplift (Calvet et al., 2015; Fox, 2019). Thus, relict landscapes represent a unique opportunity to 58

decipher the wavelength and the amplitude of surface uplift, and consequently the mechanisms thatcreated such a topography, especially in areas devoid of stratigraphic constraints.

The Atlas-Meseta intracontinental orographic system of Morocco is composed of different morpho-61 structural domains that from north to south include: the Moroccan Meseta (Western Meseta and 62 Eastern High Plateaus), the Middle Atlas, the High Atlas, the Siroua Massif, and the Anti-Atlas 63 (Figure 1a). The High and Middle Atlas are the main active orogen (e.g., Sebrier et al., 2006), while 64 the other regions are characterized by a relatively high topography that formed without significant 65 crustal deformation (Teixell et al., 2003; Frizon de Lamotte et al., 2009; Pastor et al., 2015). This 66 configuration offers the opportunity to investigate rates, wavelength, magnitudes and causes of large-67 68 scale topographic growth.

In this study, we focus on the Anti-Atlas Mountains, a Variscan orogen characterized by a complex 69 assemblage of intrusive, metamorphic, and sedimentary rocks. Similarly to the Appalachian, which 70 71 represent the American counterpart of the Variscan orogens in Africa and Europe, the topography of the Anti-Atlas consists of a wide relict landscape composed of high-standing erosional surfaces 72 mostly sculptured on basement rocks (Choubert, 1952; Malusà et al., 2007; Guimera et al., 2011; 73 Clementucci et al., 2022). This basement has been slowly eroding at few tens of meters per million 74 years since the latest Cretaceous as documented by low-temperature thermochronology (Lanari et al., 75 76 2020a; Clementucci et al., 2022). Overall, the occurrence of such a low-relief features at the maximum topography together with the lack of Cenozoic deformation, supports the idea that the Anti-77 Atlas experienced a relatively recent phase of surface uplift (Missenard et al., 2006). The causes of 78 79 this topographic rejuvenation, however, are still poorly understood. Some authors suggested that uplift may be related to Cenozoic shortening (Giumera et al., 2011), whereas others proposed the 80 occurrence of deep dynamic processes (Missenard et al., 2006; Sebrier et al., 2006; Frizon de Lamotte 81 et al., 2009). In this context, the absence of tectonic activity, the steady protracted low denudation 82 rates, and the occurrence of an elevated relict landscape offer the possibility to quantify the regional 83

surface uplift in the Anti-Atlas and the Siroua Massif and to investigate possible causal upliftmechanisms.

To achieve these goals, we combined quantitative analysis of regional and basin-scale topography 86 with stream profiles analysis (knickpoints characterization, longitudinal profiles and  $\chi$ -z plot) and 87 recently published basin-wide denudation rates inferred from <sup>10</sup>Be concentrations (Clementucci et al., 88 89 2022). Furthermore, we performed stream projections from the upper relict channel profiles and reconstructed the paleo-landscape to constrain the amount of relative base level fall following the 90 increase in Cenozoic rock uplift rates. Finally, we constrained the timing of this geomorphic 91 92 rejuvenation to the middle-late Miocene by applying a knickpoints celerity model. This approach provides a framework for discussing the contribution of large-scale, deep signals and shallower 93 processes in generating the regional topographic relief in areas where large wavelength uplift occurs. 94

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Figure 1. (a) Topographic map of the Atlas-Meseta orographic system and his morpho-structural domains.
FMA: Folded Middle Atlas. TMA: Tabular Middle Atlas. HP: High Plateaus. WMM: Western Moroccan
Meseta. AA : Anti-Atlas. HA : High Atlas. (b) Simplified geological map of High and Anti-Atlas Mountains
based on the 1:1.000.000 geological map of Morocco (modified from Maroc Service Géologique, 1985). EAA:
Eastern Anti-Atlas, CAA: Central Anti-Atlas, WAA: Western Anti-Atlas, AAMF: Anti-Atlas Major Fault,
SAF: South Atlas Fault. The main faults and mountain peaks are shown with black lines and triangles,
respectively. The black lines with triangles indicate the thrust faults.

- 108 2. Geological background

#### 109 **2.1** Geological setting

The intracontinental Atlas-Meseta orographic system of Morocco is composed of two WSW-ENE 110 oriented mountain belts, the High Atlas (HA) and the Anti-Atlas (AA), and two elevated regions with 111 low-topographic relief, named Western and Eastern (or High Plateaus) Meseta, which are separated 112 by the SW-NE striking Middle Atlas belt (Figure 1a, TMA and FMA). This system of mountain belts 113 experienced a complex geologic history including multiple episodes of contractional deformation and 114 rifting (Froitzheim et al., 1988; Hafid, 2000; Frizon de Lamotte et al. 2000; Domènech et al., 2015). 115 Currently, active deformation is controlled by the plate convergence between Africa and Eurasia 116 (Froitzheim et al., 1988; Hafid, 2000; Frizon de Lamotte et al. 2000; Gomez et al. 2000; Teixell et 117 118 al., 2003; Lanari et al., 2020b).

With a few mountain peaks above 4 km of elevation, the HA is the highest domain of the Atlas system 119 that strikes for approximately 600 km over a width of 50 to 100 km. The HA consists of a fold and 120 121 thrust belt composed of Precambrian, Paleozoic, and Mesozoic rocks (Figure 1). Mesozoic rocks include mostly syn-rift (Jurassic and Triassic) and post-rift deposits (Cretaceous), related to the 122 opening of a rift basin developed during the breakup of Africa (Arboleya et al., 2004; Baudon et al., 123 2009; Lanari et al., 2020b). Based on thermochronological and structural data the main exhumation 124 episode started in the middle/late Miocene and led to 4-6 km of exhumation (Balestrieri et al., 2009; 125 126 Barbero et al., 2007; Domènech, 2015; 2016; Ghorbal, 2009; Lanari et al., 2020a; 2020b; Leprêtre et al., 2018; Missenard et al., 2008). 127

The HA and AA belts are separated by the Souss and the Ouarzazate basins, which have been commonly interpreted as the southern Neogene foreland basins of the HA (Figure 1; Sebrier et al., 2006; Arboleya et al., 2008). The Souss Basin has an eastward wedging geometry and is characterized by a longitudinal, E-W oriented, drainage system flowing directly into the Atlantic Ocean (Figure 2a). The basin extends for a length of more than 150 km and has a rather flat, low-topographic relief morphology that increases progressively toward the basin interior up to ~700 m of elevation. The basin fill includes Pliocene to Quaternary fluvial, fluvio-lacustrine and aeolian sediments derived
from the adjacent uplifting HA and AA belts (Hssaine and Bridgland, 2009).

The Ouarzazate Basin lies between 1200 and 1800 m of elevation and extends over a length of more 136 than 150 km (Figure 1). The basin filling consists of a <1-km-thick-succession including Middle 137 Eocene marine deposits unconformably overlain by Mio-Pliocene terrestrial sediments marking the 138 development of endorheic conditions (Fraissinet et al. 1988; Gorler et al. 1988; El Harfi et al., 2001; 139 140 Teson and Teixell 2006; Teson et al., 2010). The basin is currently drained by the Draa River a southward draining system that crosses the AA through a narrow bedrock gorge and then flows 141 parallel to the AA before entering in the Atlantic Ocean (Figure 2a). The transition from endorheic to 142 143 exoreic conditions most likely occurred in the Plio-Pleistocene, either through regressive erosion from 144 the southern AA flank (Stablein, 1988) or lake overspill (Arboleya et al., 2008).

The Siroua Massif represents a strato-volcano covering an area of approximately of 500 km<sup>2</sup> and reaching maximum elevation of ~3300 m. Here, the Mio-Pliocene volcanic deposits directly overlie the Precambrian basement, which is characterized by an elongated, dome-like morphology with a low-topographic relief landscape (Missenard et al., 2008; Giumera et al. 2011).

The AA belt extends over approximately 600 km of length, has a width of 100 to 150 km, and rises 149 150  $\sim$ 2 km above sea level. The orogen was built through a series of collisional events starting from the 151 Eburnean orogeny at around 2000 Ma (Ait Malek et al., 1998; Thomas et al., 2002; Walsh et al., 2002). Afterward, it experienced two main orogenic events: the Neoproterozoic Pan-African orogeny 152 (Leblanc, 1975; Hefferan et al., 2000; Gasquet et al., 2008) with a subsequent extensional event 153 154 during the Late Neoproterozoic (Piqué et al., 1999; Soulaimani et al., 2003) and the late Carboniferous Variscan orogeny (Sebti et al., 2009; Soulaimani et al., 2014; Sehrt et al., 2018). Low-temperature 155 thermochronology and stratigraphic data indicate that the AA was not subjected to major Mesozoic 156 vertical movements, while denudation appears to have been rather uniform at rates of ~20 m/Myr 157 since at least the late Cretaceous (Lanari et al., 2020a; Charton et al., 2021; Clementucci et al., 2022). 158 The basement is composed of magmatic, metamorphic, and sedimentary rocks assembled during the 159

Eburnean and Pan-African orogenesis. These rocks are widely exposed along the axial sectors of the 160 range (Figures 1b and S1 in the supporting information) and are overlain by a late Precambrian and 161 Paleozoic sedimentary sequence with a thickness of almost 10 km in the Western AA decreasing to 162 less than 6 km in the eastern sectors of the belt (Piqué and Michard, 1989; Helg et al., 2004; Burkhard 163 et al., 2006). This sedimentary cover was predominantly deposited in a shallow-water marine 164 environment during the post Pan-African extensional event (Azizi Samir et al., 1990; Thomas et al., 165 166 2002; Soulaimani et al., 2003), and includes Lower Cambrian carbonates, siltstones, and marls as well as Middle Cambrian to Middle Devonian sandstones and shales. These strata were subsequently 167 deformed during the Variscan orogeny and unconformably covered by marine (mainly Cretaceous) 168 169 sediments (Figure 1a). The eastern Anti-Atlas includes another elevated (~2700 m) volcanic field, the 170 Saghro Massif. (Figure 1a). This is composed of multiple late Miocene tuff cones which, likewise the Siroua Massif, overlie a wide erosional surface sculptured on the Precambrian basement. 171

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### 2.2 Geophysical and petrological data

The peculiarity of the Atlas-Meseta orographic system is the lack of orogenic roots generated through 174 crustal shortening and thickening processes that would isostatically support the modern topography. 175 176 This applies to the HA (Beauchamp et al., 1999; Gomez et al., 2000; Teixell et al., 2003; Domènech 177 et al., 2016; Fekkak et al., 2018; Lanari et al., 2020b) and the MA (Gomez et al., 1998; Arboleya et al., 2004; Pastor et al., 2015), where tectonic shortening has occurred during the Cenozoic, and to the 178 tectonically inactive AA, Western and Eastern Meseta (Babault et al., 2008; Frizon de Lamotte et al., 179 180 2009; Pastor et al., 2015). Several geophysical and petrological studies indicate an anomalous thinning of the lithosphere with a shallow, hot asthenosphere beneath the entire Atlas-Meseta 181 orographic system (El Azzouzi et al., 1999; Missenard et al., 2006; Duggen et al., 2009; Miller et al., 182 2015). This includes geophysical modelling of gravity data, S-received function (Ayarza et al., 2005; 183 Missenard et al., 2006; Miller and Becker, 2014; Miller et al., 2015), heat flow measurements, deep 184 electrical resistivity (Rimi et al., 1999; Zeyen et al., 2005) and seismic tomography (Seber et al., 185

186 1996; Palomeras et al., 2014; Bezada et al., 2014). The shallow asthenosphere is thought to support 187 the present-day topography of the Atlas-Meseta system, which should have been generated, at least 188 in part, by deep-seated, mantle driven processes. For example, a maximum of 2000 m of residual 189 topography has been estimated in the HA and MA considering a crustal thickness of ca. 35 km (Miller 190 and Becker, 2014), while more than 1000 m of elevation has been attributed to dynamic topography 191 (Frizon de Lamotte et al., 2009; Spieker et al., 2014).

Magmatic activity in the Siroua, Saghro and the MA Mountains presents an alkaline affinity 192 indicating a partial melting of sublithospheric mantle caused by heating generated by asthenospheric 193 flow (El Azzouzi et al., 1999; 2010; De Beer et al., 2000; Missenard et al., 2006). The geochemical 194 signature and trace element patterns of the MA lavas are very similar to those observed in the Canary 195 Islands, suggesting a possible link between the Canary mantle plume and continental intraplate 196 volcanism in the Atlas-Meseta system (Duggen et al., 2009). Interestingly, magmatism occurred in 197 two different pulses, in the Eocene and middle-late Miocene in association with renewed tectonic 198 activity. A more recent phase of magmatism, however, has occurred in the MA and Western Meseta 199 200 during the last 2 Ma, apparently without major acceleration in tectonic deformation (El Azzouzi et al., 2010; Missenard et al., 2012). 201

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#### 203 **3.** Methods

#### 204 **3.1.** River profiles and knickpoints discretization

River networks represent a powerful reconnaissance tool to investigate the impact of rock uplift and climate changes on landscape evolution (Hack, 1957; Kirby and Whipple, 2001; Wobus et al., 2006; Kirby and Whipple, 2012; Whittaker, 2012). This is possible because channel steepness and erosion rates along river profiles adjust to rock uplift, climatic conditions, and bedrock erodibility (Duvall et al., 2004; DiBiase and Whipple, 2011). Channel slopes along the stream commonly exhibit an inverse power-law scaling relationship with upstream contributing drainage area (Flint, 1974). Hence, the stream power model describes the variation of channel elevation in time (dz/dt) (Howard and Kerby, 1993; Whipple and Tucker, 1999):

213 
$$\frac{dz}{dt} = U - KA^m S^n \tag{1}$$

where *U* is the rock uplift rate, *K* is the fluvial erodibility coefficient controlled by bedrock lithology, climate and sediment load, *A* is the upstream drainage area, *S* is the local channel slope and *m* and *n* are constants that depend on basin hydrology, channel geometry and erosional processes (Howard, 1994; Whipple and Tucker, 1999). Under steady-state conditions erosion and rock uplift rates (*U*) are balanced (Willett and Brandon, 2002; Kirby and Whipple, 2012), and there is no change in elevation of the channel bed over time (dz/dt = 0). Therefore, equation (1) can be rearranged as:

$$S = \left(\frac{U}{K}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} A^{-\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)}$$
(2)

221 where (U/K)  $^{1/n}$  and m/n are the channel steepness index ( $k_s$ ) is the concavity index ( $\theta$ ), respectively 222 (Flint, 1974). The relationship in equation (2) is only valid above a critical upstream drainage area of 0.1 to 5 km<sup>2</sup>, where fluvial processes dominate over debris flow processes (Montgomery and 223 224 Fourfoula, 1993; Stock and Dietrich, 2003; Wobus et al., 2006).  $k_s$  and  $\theta$  can be extracted from DEMs by a logarithmic regression of the local channel slope versus the contributing drainage area (Whipple, 225 226 2004; Wobus et al., 2006; Table S1 in the supporting information) or through an integral approach (Perron and Royden, 2013; Mudd et al., 2014 see explanation below; Table S2 in the supplementary 227 information).  $k_s$  is sensitive to spatial variations in bedrock erodibility, climate and rock uplift rate 228 229 and hence represents a fundamental metric for geomorphic studies (Snyder et al., 2000; Wobus et al., 230 2006). Because small variations in the concavity index produce large variations in  $k_s$  and considering 231 that DEM-noise can have a strong impact on  $\theta$  and consequently on  $k_s$ , we used a typical reference concavity index ( $\theta_{ref}$ ) of 0.45 (e.g., Wobus et al., 2006; Kirby and Whipple, 2012). The chosen  $\theta_{ref}$ 232 is the most used value in the literature to date (e.g., Kirby and Whipple, 2012) and falls in the range 233 of  $\theta$  estimates for every stream segment upstream and downstream of non-lithological knickpoints of 234 the Anti-Atlas (Synder et al., 200; Wobus et al., 2006; Tables S1 and S2 in the supporting 235

information). The use of a  $\theta_{ref}$  allows calculating the normalized channel steepness index ( $k_{sn} = (U/K)^{1/n}$ ) and hence to effectively compare longitudinal profiles with greatly varying drainage areas and infer relative variations in rock uplift rates. Specifically, in areas with similar climate and rock strengths, rivers with higher  $k_{sn}$  values will reflect higher uplift rates (*e.g.*, Olivetti et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2013).

Furthermore, we performed a regional scale topographic and statistical analysis, using the integral approach calculating  $\chi$  along the main river segments. The method is based on the transformation of the horizontal coordinates of a river profile to the  $\chi$  reference frame assuming steady-state conditions and spatially invariant uplift rates and bedrock erodibility (Perron and Royden, 2013):

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$$z(x) = z(x_b) + \left(\frac{U}{KA_0^m}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \int_{xb}^x \left(\frac{A_0}{A(x)}\right)^{\frac{m}{n}} dx = z(x_b) + k_s A_0^{-\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)} \chi$$
(3)

246

$$\chi = \int_{xb}^{x} \left(\frac{A_0}{A(x')}\right)^{\frac{m}{n}} dx \tag{4}$$

247 where  $\chi$  is the independent variable of integral quantity in the upstream direction from a base level  $x_b$ to an observation point x, z is the elevation along the channel, ks (or  $k_{sn}$  assuming a reference 248 concavity) is the steepness index and  $A_0$  is the reference drainage area, usually assumed to be 1 km<sup>2</sup> 249 (Perron and Royden, 2013). To calculate  $\chi$ , a value of  $\theta$  must be specified. In results section we 250 always refer to  $\chi$  assuming  $\theta_{ref} = 0.45$  as specified above. However, by collapsing the tributaries to a 251 linear relationship in the  $\chi$ -z plot, it is possible to estimate individual  $\theta$  of the selected stream 252 segments (Mudd et al., 2014). In this case, a linear regression of elevation against  $\chi$  permits 253 determination of  $k_{sn}$  for an equilibrated river for the upstream and downstream river segments of 254 transient river profiles (Perron and Royden, 2013; Smith et al., 2022). Finally, the results of  $k_{sn}$  (using 255  $\theta_{ref}$  of 0.45) and the optimized  $\theta$  for each river segments of the Anti-Atlas obtained through the log 256 slope -log area and the integral approach are reported in Tables S1 and S2 in the supporting 257 information, respectively. Importantly, the integral approach allows visualizing  $k_{sn}$  variation along 258 the stream segments and to discretize the knickpoints. Moreover, in the  $\chi$ -z plot the slope is 259

proportional to the  $k_{sn}$ . In areas where erodibility and climate variability are marginal, the river 260 network analysis can be used to infer and visualize the pattern of relative rock uplift rate across the 261 region. Usually, a variation in rock uplift rate is identified by the presence of "transient knickpoints" 262 which separate portions of the landscape eroding at different rates (Kirby and Whipple, 2012; Royden 263 and Perron, 2013; Mudd et al., 2014). A detailed analysis of these features is fundamental to 264 understand the state of a landscape. Distinguishing the nature of the knickpoints requires a detailed 265 analysis of the geological and geomorphic characteristics (Kirby and Whipple, 2012). Transient and 266 lithological knickpoints were differentiated by looking at: (1) their position and distribution in the 267  $\chi$ -z plot (*i.e.*, rivers that experienced a similar rock uplift history should cluster in the  $\chi$ -z plot; Gallen 268 and Wegmann, 2017; Figure S2 in the supporting information); (2) available geological maps (1: 269 200.000, 100.000 and 50.000, Service Géologique du Maroc); and (3) satellite imagery on Google 270 Earth. 271

A Shuttle Radar Topography Mission Digital Elevation Model (SRTM DEM, pixel size of 90 m) was used to perform the topographic and the river network analysis described above. All steps were conducted using ArcGIS tools, TopoToolbox (Schwanghart and Scherler, 2014), TAK (Forte and Whipple, 2019) and a series of MATLAB functions (Goren et al., 2014; Gallen, 2017; Smith et al., 2022).

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# 278 **3.2. River projections 1D and 2D**

The magnitude of fluvial incision, associated with changes in rock uplift, can be estimated from the relict topography upstream of major non-lithological knickpoints (Berlin and Anderson, 2007; Schildgen et al., 2012; Gallen et al., 2013; Miller et al., 2013). In particular, the reconstructed river projection from the relict landscape permits determination of the paleo-base level and hence the magnitude of minimum incision/surface uplift and paleo-relief before the development of the knickpoints (Olivetti et al., 2016; Heidarzadeh et al., 2017; Fox et al., 2019). Particularly, the estimates represent the incision into a specific surface which may be undergoing continued erosion

itself. Therefore, incision may not represent total erosion but the difference between the erosion 286 across the low-relief landscape and that within the incising part of the landscape. We carry out two 287 types of river projections: a) one dimensional projections where the elevation only varies as function 288 of distance along a single channel and the model parameters are single values of surface uplift and 289 paleo-channel steepness; and b) two dimensional projections where elevation varies as a function of 290 space and the model parameters are maps of surface uplift and paleo-channel steepness. Both the 291 methods require a fixed value of  $\theta_{ref}$ , which has been assumed to be 0.45 as discussed in section 3.1. 292 The one dimensional projections were carried out in  $\chi$  space. To do this a linear model was regressed 293 through the  $\chi$ -elevation data from the relict part of the landscape. The intercept with y axis (i.e., where 294  $\chi=0$ ) provides the elevation of the paleo-base level. This approach relies on several assumptions: that 295 the paleo-river network has remained approximately the same through time; erosion rates across the 296 relict landscape have remained constant; the channel steepness in the paleo-landscape was spatially 297 uniform; and that the change in base level due to surface uplift is spatially uniform. The assumption 298 that the erosion rates have remained overall steady across the Anti-Atlas relict landscape is justified 299 by the close match between short and long-term erosion rates throughout the Cenozoic (*i.e.*, erosional 300 steady-state; e.g., Willett and Brandon, 2002; Clementucci et al., 2022). However, there is no 301 guarantee that the projected rivers within the same catchment will predict the same amount of surface 302 uplift. This has the benefit of providing a test of the underlying assumptions, however, the resulting 303 landscape may be unrealistic because predicted elevations at confluences may be different. 304

A two-dimensional approach, proposed by Fox (2019), allows reconstructing the paleo-topography ensuring tributaries and trunk streams share the same elevation at confluences. This approach was extended by Fox et al. (2020) and Smith et al. (2022) to account for spatial variability in surface uplift. The basis of this approach is that a discrete version of the stream power model can be written using a series of nodes along the main trunk river:

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$$z_i - B.L. = \sum_{j=1}^{i} (\Delta \chi_j) u_j^* + S.U_i$$
 (5)

where the *i*th pixel is the upstream of the *j*th pixel and the lowest most pixel has the elevation of B.L. 311 (base level), S.U.i is the surface uplift that the relict landscape has experienced following fluvial 312 dissection,  $u^*$  is the normalized rock uplift rate, which is proportional to the normalized channel 313 steepness that is preserved across the relict landscape. This expression provides a prediction of 314 elevation as a function of channel steepness and surface uplift. Provided both vary smoothly in space 315 over long length scales, the elevation of pixels within the DEM can be used to recover these values 316 using inverse methods. The results provide a reconstructed pre-incision landscape and allows 317 quantifying the amount of surface uplift for each node (Smith et al., 2022). Maps of  $u^*$  and S.U. can 318 be calculated to minimize the misfit between predicted and observed topography of the relict 319 landscape and the roughness of the  $u^*$  and S.U. maps. In this case, the  $\chi$  values were calculated for 320 the entire drainage network of the Anti-Atlas but only the upstream knickpoints on the relict landscape 321 were used to estimate the  $u^*$  and S.U.. We used values of m = 0.45,  $A_0 = 1$  m<sup>2</sup>. Because the topographic 322 reconstruction requires many more model parameters, smoothness constraints in the form of weighted 323 negative Laplacian operators are required. We used weighting parameters for the S.U. parameters and 324  $u^*$  ( $\lambda$  and  $\alpha$ , respectively) equal to 10 and the grid size to 5 km, for the inversion method. The main 325 assumptions of the method are that the shape of the river network has remained constant in time, there 326 was no major drainage reorganization, and the erodibility coefficient (K) is considered constant. 327

328

# 329 **3.3. Knickpoint celerity model**

A celerity model was used to estimate the onset of knickpoints migration by using the stream model shown in equation (1) and considering plucking as the primary erosion mechanism (n = 1; Whipple et al., 2000). The horizontal migration of knickpoints along the river profiles in response to a relative base level drop can be described as:

 $\frac{dx}{dt} = KA^m \tag{6}$ 

where, dx/dt is the knickpoint celerity, K is a dimensional coefficient of erosion (Whipple and Tucker, 335 1999; Whipple, 2004), A is upstream drainage area and m is a non-dimensional parameter that 336 depends on basin hydrology, channel geometry, and erosion process (Whipple and Tucker, 1999). 337 Particularly, we used a dynamic time-step approach as described in Crosby and Whipple (2006) and 338 Berlin and Anderson (2007). The misfit was the difference between the real knickpoint retreat 339 distance and the modeled one. K and m were found by a brute-force search: the best values of K and 340 *m* resulted in the lowest sum of squares of the misfits ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) over 100,000 iterations for each simulation 341 (Table S3; Stock and Montgomery, 1999; Crosby and Whipple, 2006; Berlin and Anderson, 2007; 342 Sembroni et al., 2016; Sembroni et al., 2020; Siravo et al., 2021). Specifically, we performed 100 343 simulations and calculated the mean initiation time and standard deviation of these best-fit values. 344 345 Then, to have a unique time value for each modeled knickpoint, we calculated the probability density 346 functions (PDFs) as described in Siravo et al. (2021).

In this specific case, m is assumed to be the concavity value, given that  $m/n = \theta$  and considering that 347 n = 1 as demonstrated by Clementucci et al., (2022). Because the used approach searches the 348 parameters by minimizing the distance between the real and modelled position of knickpoints, we let 349 m vary linearly between 0 and 0.75. This range is motivated by the concavity values obtained from 350 the stream profiles analysis reported in Tables S1 and S2 in the supporting information. Similarly, 351 the erodibility parameter K was permitted to vary between  $10^{-7}$  and  $10^{-4}$  (Figure S4). This range of K 352 values results from a forced-origin linear regression in the plot  $k_{sn}$  versus denudation rates (E), using 353 the stream power incision model ( $K = E/k_{sn}^{n}$ ). In particular, by using basin-averaged  $k_{sn}$  values 354 normalized for a  $\theta_{ref}$  of 0.45 and assuming n = 1, Clementucci et al. (2022) documented that K values 355 in the Anti-Atlas are in the order of  $10^{-6}$ - $10^{-7}$ . These values represent the minimum K values of our 356 search interval. For the maximum values we further calculate K by using the basin-averaged  $k_{sn}$ 357 normalized for a  $\theta_{ref}$  of 0.17. We used this  $\theta_{ref}$  because the axial zone of the Anti-Atlas is 358 characterized by a high-standing landscape with mean concavity value of ~0.17, which is assumed to 359 be the most reliable value of the non-rejuvenated landscape (Clementucci et al., 2022; Tables S1in 360

the supporting information). For the initiation point of the knickpoint propagation, we considered thepresent-day river outlets.

Finally, we set the onset of knickpoints migration between 3.8 and 18.6 Ma. This temporal range was estimated by using the maximum excavation time required to erode the missing rock volume from the river catchments (Norton et al. 2008; Gallen et al., 2013; Siame et al., 2015). The excavation time is expressed as:

$$T = \left(\frac{V}{A}\right)E^{-1} \tag{7}$$

368 where *T* is the time required to erode the missing rock volume in the catchments, *V* is the rock volume, 369 *A* is the drainage area of the catchments and *E* is the basin-wide denudation rate. *V* can be estimated 370 by the difference between a surface connecting the highest points in the current landscape and the 371 current topography itself.

372

373 **4 Results** 

374

375 4.1 Topographic analysis



377

Figure 2. (a) Topographic map of the Anti-Atlas and the Siroua Massif (SRTM DEM database) with location of the swath profiles. The dashed white line indicates the position of the main drainage divide. (b, c, d) are swath profiles orthogonal to the main drainage divide of the Anti-Atlas, while (e) is parallel to the main drainage divide. The dashed blue line indicates the position of main drainage divide on swath profiles b, c.

382

The AA is characterized by an extensive, high-standing (~2000 m), axial zone with low-topographic 383 relief delimited by steep and dissected flanks (Figure 2). The westernmost sectors of the belt have a 384 dome-shape geometry with a rather symmetric topography across the drainage divide (Figure 2b). 385 The central sectors of the western AA have an asymmetric topography with a gentle southern and a 386 steep northern flank grading toward the Draa and the Souss basins, respectively (Figure 2c). The 387 central AA has also a flat top but is bounded to the north by the Siroua plateau through a topographic 388 step in proximity of the Anti-Atlas Major Fault (AAMF; Figure 2d). The along-strike swath profile 389 highlights the geometry and the extent of the elevated axial surface, with a few mountain peaks (e.g., 390 Mt. Jebel Aklim, 2531 m and Mt. Jebel Saghro, 2592 m) and deeply incised valley (the Draa gorge; 391 Figure 2a and 2e). The high-standing landscape is mostly composed of Paleozoic limestones and 392

393	Precambrian basement rocks (Figure 3a) and is located upstream of non-lithological knickpoints.
394	Downstream of these knickpoints, the topography is steeper and includes late Precambrian and
395	Paleozoic sedimentary rocks (Figure 3). The northern flank of the belt has a slope that is sub-parallel
396	to the bedding of late Precambrian carbonates and consists of narrow and deep valleys perpendicular
397	to the bedding (Figure 4, profile a-a'). Conversely, the southern flank includes wide valleys mostly
398	located along the core of the synclines with Paleozoic sediments (Soulaimani and Burkhard, 2008;
399	Figure 4, profile b-b'). Finally, the swath profiles indicate that the high-standing, elevated surface
400	plunges along the strike of the mountain belt (Figure 2e), and perpendicularly to it (Figure 2b, 2c).



Figure 3. (a) Geological map of the study area with a detailed analysis of the knickpoints for the northern flank
 of the central Anti-Atlas (NCAA), western (WAA), and southern flank of central Anti-Atlas (SCAA) and the
 Siroua Massif. The main fold axes are associated with the Variscan orogeny and are shown with black lines
 (from Soulaimani and Burkhard, 2008). (b) Topographic map (SRTM DEM database) of the study area with

406 the non-lithological knickpoints and the fold axes. The black, white, and yellow dashed lines demark the 1000,

407 1500 and 2000 m contours, respectively. (c) Slope map of the study area with non-lithological knickpoints.
408 The dashed line indicates the low-slope area of the axial zone of the Anti-Atlas. Location of the maps is shown
409 in figure 1b.



Figure 4. a-a' geological cross section of the northern flank of the Anti-Atlas. b-b' geological cross section of
the southern flank of Anti-Atlas. c-c' geological cross section in the Siroua Massif. Location of the crosssections is indicated in figure 3a.

410

### 415 **4.2 River morphology**

Seventeen stream profiles from the northern flank of the central Anti-Atlas (NCAA) together with seventeen profiles from its southern flank (SCAA) and fourteen from the western side of the orogen (WAA) were analysed individually. The NCAA is mostly characterized by transient longitudinal river profiles. In particular, we recognized 51 knickpoints with two main patterns of non-lithological knickpoints standing between 700 and 1000 m and 1300 and 1500 m of elevation and several minor lithological knickpoints (Figures 3a, 3b and 5a). The two patterns of non-lithological knickpoints cluster approximately at values of  $\chi$  of 3-5 and 9–11, respectively (Figure 5b). The steepest and concave up segments of the NCAA rivers are downstream of the highest knickpoints (Figure 5a, 5b), whereas, the upstream segments are mostly rectilinear, have a shallow gradient and contain minor knickpoints (Figures 3a and 5a, 5b). Another minor group of knickpoints separating gentle upstream river segments from steeper downstream portions is in the Siroua Massif, over 2000 m of elevation (see red profiles in figure 5a and 5b), upstream of the Anti-Atlas Major Fault (AAMF, Figure 6).



428

**Figure 5.** Longitudinal river profiles and  $\chi$  plots with major knickpoints for (a-b) NCAA, (c-d) WAA, and (e-430 f) SCAA. The rivers of NCAA and SCAA sectors are extracted from the bedrock-alluvial transition, which in 431 the study area is around 400 m. The knickpoints legend is in figure 3a. The red profiles indicate the rivers 432 flowing from the Siroua Massif. The inset plots in the  $\chi$  space show the mean regional  $k_{sn}$  values upstream and 433 downstream of the highest knickpoints. The inset histograms in the longitudinal profiles show the frequency 434 distribution of the elevation of the knickpoints.

435

436 The WAA sector presents also transient river profiles with approximately 20 knickpoints. Most of

437 the non-lithological knickpoints are located within a relatively narrow elevation band, of about 800

to 1100 m while the minor knickpoints are at about 400 to 500 m (Figure 5c, 5d). The steeper downstream portion of the major non-lithological knickpoints exhibit a concave-up geometry with a few minor knickpoints (Figure 5c, 5d). The upstream segments are mostly rectilinear with a typical equilibrium profile (straight segment in  $\chi$  space; Figure 5d). Here, the two patterns of knickpoints at

442  $\sim$  500 m and  $\sim$  1000 m, occur approximately at  $\chi$  values of 5-6 and 10–15, respectively (Figure 5d).

The SCAA sector is characterized by both, equilibrated and transient longitudinal river profiles and contain at least 25 knickpoints distributed across a wide range of elevation (Figure 5e). Most of the non-lithological knickpoints stand at about 800 to 1000 m of elevation and over 1500 m of elevation,

while the lithological knickpoints are at an elevation range of 1000 to 1500 m (Figure 5e, 5f).

Overall, most of the rivers are characterized by transient conditions with mean  $k_{sn}$  values of  $84 \pm 3.8$ ( $\sigma = 19.7$ ) m<sup>0.9</sup> and  $30 \pm 2.9$  ( $\sigma = 14.8$ ) m<sup>0.9</sup>, and  $\theta$  values of  $0.58 \pm 0.04$  ( $\sigma = 0.22$ ) and  $0.17 \pm 0.03$  ( $\sigma = 0.18$ ) in the downstream and the upstream segments, respectively (Table 1 and Table S1 in the supporting information).

451 Table 1

452 Summary of  $k_{sn}$  and  $\theta$  values upstream and downstream of non-lithological knickpoints obtained through a 453 linear regression of slope against drainage area on a log-log plot (see details in Table S1 of the supporting 454 information).

Sector		Stream parameters			
		Downstream		Upstream	
		ksn $(m^{0.9})^{f}$	$ heta^{g}$	ksn (m <sup>0.9</sup> )	heta
	mean <sup>d</sup>	$102.6 \pm 4.7$	$0.44\pm0.02$	$33.2\pm3.5$	$0.18\pm0.04$
NCAA	$\sigma^{e}$	14.8	0.07	11.1	0.14
SC A A <sup>b</sup>	mean	$82.2 \pm 2.7$	$0.57\pm0.03$	$22.7 \pm 5.1$	$0.17\pm0.07$
JCAA	σ	7.2	0.09	13.5	0.2
W/ A A C	mean	$65.07\pm3.1$	$0.75\pm0.1$	$33.23\pm6.1$	0.14 +. 0.07
WAA	σ	9.45	0.3	18.5	0.22
Tot	mean	$84.1 \pm 3.8$	$0.58\pm0.04$	$30.4 \pm 2.9$	$0.17\pm0.03$
101	σ	19.7	0.22	14.8	0.18

455

*Note.* <sup>a</sup> NCAA: rivers draining the northern flank of Anti-Atlas. <sup>b</sup> SCAA: rivers draining the southern flank of
Anti-Atlas. <sup>c</sup> WAA: rivers draining the western flank of Anti-Atlas. <sup>d</sup> Mean and standard error values. <sup>e</sup>
Standard deviation of the data. <sup>f</sup> Channel steepness calculated by using a reference concavity of 0.45. <sup>g</sup>
Concavity value calculated by the slope of the line regressed through a log–log plot of channel slope vs.
drainage area.

- 461
- 462

463 The  $k_{sn}$  and  $\theta$  values obtained with the log S-log A method were compared with those estimated with

- 464 the  $\chi$  method (Tables S1 and S2 in the supporting information).  $k_{sn}$  values lie mostly on the 1:1 trend
- 465 (Figure S3a), while the  $\theta$  values show a higher dispersion (Figure S3b). Finally, the elevation and
- 466 distance from the river mouth show a positive correlation with the drainage area of catchments (Figure
- 467 S5b and S5c in the supporting information).



Figure 6. (a) Prospective Google Earth view of the southern flank of the Siroua Massif. Note the volcanic 469 edifice composed of lava flows demarked by the dashed white line (see V symbol) resting unconformably over 470 the Precambrian basement (see B symbol), the north-dipping Anti-Atlas Major Fault (AAMF), the non-471 lithological knickpoints shown with a white dot, the deep incisions and the remanence of the lava flows 472 473 downstream of the non-lithological knickpoints. (b) Panoramic view from the Siroua Massif showing in the background the summit erosional surface (i.e., relict landscape) of the Anti-Atlas (see dashed black line) and 474 in the foreground the contact between the basement (B) and the lava flows (V). (c) Detail of figure 6b showing 475 476 the basalt flow preserved in the deeply incised valley of figure 6a. (d) Field picture of the basalt of figure 6c with high angle columnar joint (white lines) perpendicular to the valley bottom (dashed white lines). 477

# 479 4.3 Magnitude of fluvial incision



#### 480 4.3.1 1D river projection

481

**Figure 7.** Modern longitudinal profiles and projections of the relict landscape (red segments) upstream of the highest knickpoints using  $\theta_{ref} = 0.45$  and the  $k_{sn}$  of the relict portion for the (a) NCAA, (b) WAA, and (c) SCAA sectors. Major knickpoints are marked with white circles. (d) Frequency diagrams of the magnitude of surface uplift for the different sectors.

486

The Souss and Draa outlets represent the present-day base level for the NCAA and SCAA rivers, respectively, whereas the WAA rivers flow directly into the Atlantic Ocean. To a first approximation we can consider that all rivers of the Anti-Atlas drained toward the Atlantic before the relative base level fall that initialized the most elevated non-lithological knickpoints (Figure 5). This because the opening of the South Atlantic Ocean had already occurred in the early Cretaceous (Torsviket al., 2009) and hence much earlier than the Cenozoic topographic rejuvenation. Estimated values of fluvial incision for the NCAA based on 10 stream profiles range from 822 ( $2\sigma = 36$ ) to 1162 m ( $2\sigma = 18$ ),

with an average of 930  $\pm$  42 m ( $\sigma$  = 133) (Figure 7 and Table S4). In the WAA sectors, 7 transient 494 profiles yielded fluvial incision values ranging from 459 ( $2\sigma = 9$ ) to 872 m ( $2\sigma = 29$ ), with an average 495 of  $630 \pm 54$  m ( $\sigma = 143$ ) (Figure 7 and Table S4). Finally, in the SCAA where most of the rivers are 496 in equilibrium, the fluvial incision based on 6 stream profiles ranges from 811 ( $2\sigma = 117$ ) to 1117 m 497  $(2\sigma = 18)$ , with an average of  $1008 \pm 53$  m ( $\sigma = 130$ ) (Figure 7 and Table S4). Furthermore, this 498 approach allows estimating the first-order paleo-topographic relief as the difference between the 499 modern mean drainage divide elevation and the elevation of the outlet of the reconstructed river 500 profiles. Our results indicate a mean elevation difference of 970, 890 and 750 m for the NCAA, 501 SCAA, and WAA sectors, respectively (Table S4 in the supporting information). 502

In the Siroua Massif, rivers are characterized by strong disequilibrium profiles with high-standing non-lithological knickpoints lying at the margin of a low-topographic relief area and delimiting streams with high  $k_{sn}$  from those with low  $k_{sn}$  values (Figures 6a, 8a, 8b). The magnitude of fluvial incision along the Siroua escarpment was obtained by projecting the upstream portions of the rivers up to the Anti-Atlas Major Fault (AAMF; Figure 8c, 8d). This value is ~350 m and represents only the amount of incision between the Siroua Massif and the central sector of AA.



509

**Figure 8.** (a)Topographic map (SRTM DEM database) of study area with the main knickpoints. Bold blue rivers and associated knickpoints (thick black circles) are projected in figure 8c. (b)  $k_{sn}$  map of the stream network in the Siroua area. Location of the maps is shown in figure 3A. (c) Modern longitudinal profiles and projections from the Siroua relict landscape (dashed black segments) upstream of the highest knickpoints using  $\theta_{ref} = 0.45$  and the  $k_{sn}$  of the relict portion. Note, the reconstructed river projections intersect each other between 5 and 10 of  $\chi$ . (d) Geological profile of the Siroua escarpment (after De Beer et al., 2000). The minimum value of incision is 350 m.

- 518 Overall, our projections document a progressive increase in the magnitude of fluvial incision and in 519 the elevation of the highest knickpoints from the WAA to the central sector of AA with a culmination 520 in the Siroua Massif (Figure 9b). This is also associated with a regional increase in  $k_{sn}$  values
- downstream of the major knickpoints (red dots in figure 9a).
- 522



**Figure 9.** (a) Distance along the main drainage divide versus  $k_{sn}$  down and upstream of the non-lithological knickpoints (data from Table S1). (b) Distance along the main drainage divide versus knickpoint elevation and estimated surface uplift values. The location of the swath profile is indicated in figure 2d.

527

#### 528 4.3.2 2D river projection

The 2D river projection method makes it possible to estimate the distribution of surface uplift (or 529 base level fall) and normalized rock uplift rates,  $u^*$  proportional to  $k_{sn}$ , as a function of the elevations 530 and the  $\chi$  values from the relict river network (in the portion of landscape demarcated by black 531 polygon in figure 3c). Due to the increased spatial variability provided by this approach, multiple 532 solutions which pass through the  $\chi$  and elevation data are expected, and results are non-unique. 533 Damping forces smooth maps providing a means to choose a preferred result. Here damping 534 parameters are chosen to ensure that results are consistent with the estimates obtained from projecting 535 the information preserved in the upper reaches of the transient river profiles. Results suggest an 536

incision associated with a base level fall in the order of ~1200 m in the Siroua Massif, that decreases 537 gradually to ~500 m in the WAA (Figure 10a). The  $u^*$  values in the upstream relict landscape at the 538 maximum elevation are rather uniform with major variations coinciding with the highest mountain 539 peaks composed mostly of quartzites and metamorphosed conglomerates (Figures 1b and S6 in the 540 supporting information). Finally, the reconstructed paleo-topography indicates a maximum elevation 541 of ~1000 and ~500 m in the central sector of AA and the WAA, respectively before the onset of uplift 542 (Figure 10b). These results are consistent with those obtained from the river projections but with a 543 greater spatial resolution (Figure 10a, 10c). It should be noted that the fitted surface through the relict 544 topography above the incised landscape is less constrained in the Souss, Draa basins and in the Siroua 545 546 Massif. In the two basins, aggradation/deposition processes recorded by Plio-Quaternary sedimentary sequences (Hssaine and Bridgland, 2009) are not taken into consideration. Moreover, the maximum 547 elevation obtained for the Siroua Massif represents a maximum estimate because the construction of 548 549 the volcanic edifice may be coeval or younger than the timing of the fluvial incision, as testified by preserved lava flows along the Siroua escarpment (Figures 6d and 8d). 550

551



552

**Figure 10.** (a) Surface uplift (*S.U.*) map. The base level is defined at the relict landscape boundary; values of m = 0.45 and  $A_0 = 1$  m<sup>2</sup> were used to calculate  $\chi$  and  $u^*$  (Equation 5). (b) Paleo-topographic reconstruction of the central and western Anti-Atlas. (c) Present-day topography of central and western Anti-Atlas.

#### 557 4.4 Timescales of knickpoint migration

The time the highest non-lithological knickpoints took to travel from the base level to their present-558 day position is in the same range of that one required to erode the volume of rocks in a catchment 559 between a high-standing preserved landscape and the minimum topography (e.g., Gallen et al., 2013; 560 Siame et al., 2015). This is called "excavation time" and is generally calculated assuming that erosion 561 took place at constant rates. This volume of removed material includes the downstream (adjusted) 562 and upstream portion (relict landscape) of the catchments, therefore the timing to remove it is higher 563 than the time required to remove materials only in the rejuvenated portion. Furthermore, denudation 564 rates derived from <sup>10</sup>Be concentrations for the Anti-Atlas Mountains are representative mainly for the 565 relict landscape, as discussed in Clementucci et al. (2022). This because the quartz-bearing lithologies 566

are mostly exposed upstream of non-lithological knickpoints. Hence, denudation rates of 5.8 to 12.5 m/Myr (Table S5 and Figure S7) provide a maximum age for the onset of topographic relief production in the relict landscape of the Anti-Atlas (8.8 to 18.6 Myr in Table S5 in the supporting information). Conversely, the highest value of denudation represents a mixed value (21.3 m/Myr in Table S5) from the Anti-Atlas relict and adjusted flanks, providing a minimum age ~3.8 Myr (Table S5).



Figure 11. Initiation time of knickpoints propagation for the different sectors of the Anti-Atlas (NCAA, WAA,
 SCAA). (a) Probability Density Function of the timing of knickpoint initiation. (b) DEM showing the modelled
 rivers. (c) River longitudinal profiles and associated knickpoints of the modelled rivers. For further information
 see also table S3 in the supporting information.

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The results from the selected river profiles are very consistent and indicate an onset for the upstream propagation of the base level fall at  $9.9 \pm 4.3$ ,  $9.2 \pm 4.1$  and  $10.4 \pm 4.0$  Myr for the NCAA, WAA and

581 SCAA sectors, respectively (averaged value  $9.9 \pm 4.1$  Myr; Figure 11 and Table S3).

582

#### 583 5 Discussion

584 **5.1 Significance of the transient topography** 

The strong variations in the normalized channel steepness indices, concavity values, topographic 585 slope, elevation, and fluvial incision between the portions of the landscape downstream and upstream 586 of highest non-lithological knickpoints (Figures 3 and 5) document the occurrence of a topographic 587 dichotomy, which is typical of a landscape in a transient state of development. Specifically, the 588 portion downstream of the highest knickpoints is eroding faster than the elevated relict landscape, 589 which is has been eroding at low and fairly uniform erosion rates at least since the late Cretaceous 590 (Clementucci et al., 2022). A transient topographic state could be attributed to several processes, such 591 as drainage reorganization, climate change, eustatic sea level fall and tectonic uplift (Hancock and 592 Kirwan, 2007; Kirby and Whipple, 2012; Miller et al., 2013, Ballato et al., 2015). Drainage 593 594 reorganization does not appear to be the cause because of the limited evidence of knickpoints, and 595 wind gaps formation related to river capture processes (Miller et al., 2013). An increase in erosion rates due to climate variations (*i.e.*, increase in precipitation rates) is also unlikely, because such a 596 597 change would produce a decrease in the channel slopes rather than a steepening (Figure 5; Molnar et al., 2004; Wobus et al., 2010). At the same time a decrease in precipitation rates would produce 598 sediment aggradation, in the downstream portions of non-lithological knickpoints and not stepper 599 flanks (Lanari et al., 2022). 600

Consequently, the abrupt break in the river longitudinal profiles and  $\chi$ -z plots at the highest non-601 lithological knickpoints and the position of the same knickpoints in the  $\chi$  space (Figures 5b, 5d, 5f, 602 603 8a and S2) indicate that the two portions of the landscape erode at different rates (Schildgen et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2012; 2013; Olivetti et al., 2016). This is consistent with an increase in erosion 604 605 and rock uplift rates propagating from the river outlet to the uppermost river segments (Miller et al., 2013; Gallen and Wegmann, 2017; Racano et al., 2021). Consequently, the highest knickpoints 606 represent a response of the fluvial system to an increase in rock uplift rates and hence mark a phase 607 608 of topographic rejuvenation, while the uplifted relict landscape records the previous erosional conditions predating such an increase. This implies that the magnitudes of fluvial incision represent 609 minimum estimates of the total amount of surface uplift (e.g., Kirby and Whipple, 2012). A similar 610

scenario has been described in the Appalachian Mountains (Miller et al., 2013; Gallen et al., 2013) 611 and in other ancient orogens (Olivetti et al., 2012; Mandal et al., 2015; Calvet et al., 2015). 612 The minor and non-lithological knickpoints located in the lower segments of the fluvial network, at 613 700 to 1000 m and from 400 to 500 m in the NCAA, SCAA, and WAA sectors, respectively, can be 614 attributed to a Quaternary climate forcing, eustatic sea-level changes or both (Molnar and England, 615 1990; Crosby and Whipple, 2006; Hancock and Kirwan, 2007; Ballato et al., 2015). This pattern of 616 knickpoints is spatially consistent and does not show any channel steepness variation across 617 knickpoints in both longitudinal profiles and the  $\chi$ -z plot (Figures 5b, 5d, 5f and S2) and hence cannot 618 619 reflect changes in rock uplift rates.

620

### 621 5.2 Topographic evolution of the Anti-Atlas

A peculiarity of the Anti-Atlas topography is the occurrence of a low-relief topography at its 622 maximum elevation plunging across and along strike over a wavelength of ~ 100 km (Figure 2b, 2c) 623 624 and  $\sim 600$  km (Figure 2e), respectively, which can be described as a topographic swell. It follows, that the high-standing relict landscape represents a warped geomorphic marker that can be used to 625 document the spatial distribution of the recent increase in surface uplift rates. The along strike pattern 626 of surface uplift ranges from ~500 to 1100 m from the western to the central sector of AA (Figure 9), 627 in agreement with the  $k_{sn}$  and elevation pattern of the most elevated non-lithological knickpoints. The 628 paleo-landscape must have been characterized by a low-topographic relief with localized ~1000- to 629 700-m-high mountain peaks in the central Anti-Atlas (NCAA, SCAA) and the WAA, respectively 630 (Figure 10b and Table S4). These paleo-topographic heights correlate with high normalized channel 631 632 steepness values observed for low erodibility lithologies, such as quartzite and meta-conglomerates (Figure S6; Clementucci et al., 2022). 633

The asymmetry of the AA flanks and the different locations of the highest knickpoints between the southern (SCAA) and northern flanks (NCAA) can be attributed to a faster knickpoints migration in the SCAA sector, as also suggested by the occurrence of quasi-equilibrium stream profiles (Figure

5e, 5f). Here, the presence of wide valleys sculptured on synclines within more erodible Paleozoic 637 rocks (limestones, siltstones and shists) may have promoted an increase in the contributing drainage 638 area and a faster knickpoint retreat (Figures 4b and S5b, S5c; Crosby and Whippe, 2006; Berlin and 639 Anderson, 2007; Schwanghart and Scherler, 2020). Conversely, in the northern flank, the knickpoint' 640 celerity is lower due to narrower and deeper valleys within less erodible late Precambrian carbonates 641 (Figures 4a and 13c). This highlights the key role that rock strength plays in controlling the valley 642 morphology, and in turn the location of genetically linked knickpoints (e.g., Stokes et al., 2015). 643 Importantly, for the NCAA and SCAA rivers, the migrating wave of transient erosion propagated for 644 several kilometres within the Souss and Draa basins. These regions were likely characterized by 645 646 erosional processes, before the onset of regional uplift (e.g., Hssaine and Bridgland, 2009). This allows to dismiss a complex scenario with different erodibility parameters within the Neogene-647 Quaternary sediments in the basins. However, this would not represent an issue because the 648 649 knickpoint would travel quickly in the mainstream of the Souss and Draa rivers due to the large drainage areas. The knickpoints propagation rate would have decreased one reached the upstream 650 portions of the main mountain front (Crosby and Whipple, 2006; Schwanghart and Scherler, 2020). 651 Hence, the time of residence in the Draa and Souss basins would be negligible. Finally, it should be 652 noted that the occurrence of recent fluvial conglomerates, at high elevation in the major valleys of 653 654 the northern flank (~700 m) and in the Souss alluvial plain, has been interpreted as an indication that uplift has decreased during the Quaternary (Lanari et al., 2022). 655

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# 5.3 Surface uplift history of Anti-Atlas

The AA and surrounding basins (e.g., Souss and Ouarzazate) were the southern shoulders of the Triassic-Jurassic rift (Lanari et al., 2020a) as documented by the absence of Mesozoic deposits older than Cretaceous and sediment provenance data (Domènech et al., 2018). During the Cenozoic, the Ouarzazate and Souss basins recorded marine sedimentation at least until the late Eocene, suggesting that part of the study area must have been under sea level until 44 to 42 Ma (Figure 12a; El Harfi et





Figure 12. Conceptual model depicting the Anti-Atlas topographic evolution across the central sector. (a) Paleo-topography inferred until the late Eocene. (b) Topographic rejuvenation during the middle-late Miocene associated with the initiation of river incision and knickpoints upstream propagation. (c) Present-day configuration. At this stage, the first pattern of non-lithological knickpoints migrates upstream and a second pattern lies a lower elevation. Pink and black lines describe the preserved relict and the rejuvenated landscape, respectively. The blue line indicates the river profile.

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In the AA, the presence of AHe cooling ages older than 70 Ma and consequently the low magnitude 673 of exhumation (< 2-3 km) over the same time interval suggests that the paleo-topography has been 674 developing at least since the late Cretaceous (Figure 12a; Gouiza et al., 2017; Lanari et al., 2020a; 675 Charton et al., 2021). Moreover, our observations and celerity calculations indicate that surface uplift 676 triggered the headward migration of the highest knickpoints starting from the middle-late Miocene 677 (Figures 11 and 13b). These new time constraints suggest average surface uplift rates ranging from 678 40 to 110 m/Myr (western sector) and from 70 to 180 m/Myr (central sector). These rates are based 679 on the celerity model (*i.e.*, the age of uplift initiation of  $9.9 \pm 4.1$  Ma) and hence are averaged over 680
time scales of 14 and 5.8 Ma, using the mean surface uplift values inferred from the river projections(Table S4).

Downstream of non-lithological knickpoints, in the adjusted portion of the landscape, Clementucci et 683 al., (2022) estimated Quaternary denudation rates of up to 50 m/Myr. These rates are consistent with 684 the long-term rates inferred from the river projections averaged over the oldest age interval estimated 685 from the celerity model (14-10 Ma). Uplift initiation at 14-10 Ma, would agree with the onset of 686 volcanic activity in the Siroua Massif where more than 500 km<sup>2</sup> of crystalline basement are covered 687 by 11-to 3-Myr-old lava flows (Figure 12b; Berrahma and Delaoye, 1989; Missenard et al., 2008). 688 Moreover, this age estimates are consistent with the onset of clastic continental sedimentation in the 689 690 Ouarzazate Basin during the Langhian (16-14 Ma) following an Oligocene to early Miocene sedimentary hiatus (El Harfi et al., 2001; Teson et al., 2010). Finally, the estimated time of 691 topographic rejuvenation in the Anti-Atlas agrees with the onset of contractional deformation in the 692 693 High Atlas Mountains, suggesting that there may a genetic link between the two events (Figure 12b; Lanari et al., 2020a). Overall, these observations suggest that the topographic rejuvenation started 694 most likely at  $\sim$  14-10 Ma. 695

696

## 697 5.4 Topographic evolution and surface uplift history of Siroua Massif

698 The Siroua Massif is also characterized by a transient topography as documented by the high-standing basement representing the substratum of the Mio-Pliocene volcanic edifice (Figure 8; Missenard et 699 al., 2008). Along the southern margin of the massif, this transient topography is delimited by a pattern 700 of non-lithological knickpoints lying over 2000 m of elevation that on map view are subparallel to 701 the AAMF and cluster along similar  $\gamma$  values (Figure 8c). The projection of the stream profiles against 702 the AAMF documents about 350 m of surface uplift in the hanging wall of the fault in response to 703 fault activity (Figures 6a, 8c, 8d and 14). Furthermore, short- and long-term denudation rates, 704 estimated from <sup>10</sup>Be cosmogenic concentration and eroded volcanic rocks from the Siroua Massif, 705

- indicates averaged values of 40-50 m/Myr and 10-20 m/Myr in the adjusted topography downstream
- and upstream of non-lithological knickpoints, respectively (Clementucci et al., 2022).



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Figure 13. (a) Tridimensional view of the Anti-Atlas region. (b) Swath profile from north to south, showing
the local relief and maximum elevation of High Atlas, Siroua Massif and Anti-Atlas. wl: filtered topographic
windows. Note that the erosional surface of the Siroua Massif and the Anti-Atlas is standing at more than 2000
m and predated the onset of uplift in the Anti-Atlas and Siroua regions.

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This suggests that the summit erosional surface of the AA must be the same surface underneath the Siroua volcanic edifice that has been uplifted by the AAMF (Figures 8d and 14b). These conclusions are also consistent with the occurrence of the same volcanic units at different elevations, in the hanging wall and the footwall of the AAMF. Some of these lava flows are also exposed along the steep landscape of the hanging wall of the AAMF downstream of the non-lithological knickpoints. There, they present columnar jointed basalts orthogonal to the valley bottom, suggesting that the
valley must have been a reference cooling surface at ~ 4 Ma when the lava was emplaced (Figure 6d).
Consequently, the transient fluvial incision associated with the activity of the AAMF must have
started earlier than 4 Ma.

These data allow estimating the contribution of the different mechanisms that produced the modern 723 elevation of  $\sim 3300$  m. Specifically the initial landscape could have been  $\sim 1000$  m of elevation, like 724 the AA (see previous section), while the occurrence of basement rocks beneath the volcano at  $\sim 2500$ 725 m of elevation indicates that volcanic edifice contribute for  $\sim 800$  m high. By subtracting to the 726 modern elevation, 1000 (paleo-topography) and 800 m (volcanic building), we can estimate a surface 727 728 uplift for the Siroua Massif of ~ 1500 m, where at least 350 meters result from the activity of the AAMF (Figure 13b). A fraction of this  $\sim$  350 m, however, may be associated with the injection of 729 magma at depth as suggested by the dome-like geometry ( $\sim 50 \times 100 \text{ km}$ ) of the basement beneath 730 731 the Siroua volcano (Missenard et al., 2008). In conclusion, if we exclude the ~ 350 m described above, the regional surface uplift in the Siroua Massif will be ~1150 m in agreement with estimates from the 732 central sectors of the Anti-Atlas. 733

734

5.5 Causes of surface uplift and topographic expression of the Anti-Atlas and Siroua Massif 735 736 The intracontinental orographic system of the Atlas Mountains represents a natural laboratory for studying the interaction between deep-seated, crustal, and surface processes. The amount of tectonic 737 (crustal) shortening and thickening is limited and in the order of 12 to 35% in the central HA 738 739 (Beauchamp et al., 1999; Gomez et al., 2000; Teixell et al., 2003; Domènech et al., 2016; Fekkak et al., 2018; Lanari et al., 2020b) and less than 10% in the MA (Gomez et al., 1998; Arboleya et al., 740 2004). Geophysical evidences, such as heat flow (Rimi et al., 1999; Teixell et al., 2005; Zeyen et al., 741 2005), gravity anomalies (Ayarza et al., 2005; Missenard et al., 2006), seismological constraints 742 (Seber et al., 1996; Palomeras et al., 2013; Bezada et al., 2013; Miller and Becker, 2014; Spieker et 743 al., 2014) and seismic reflection data (Ayarza et al., 2014) point toward an insufficient thickness of 744

the crust to explain the observed high topography and the anomalously thin lithosphere (~65 km). 745 746 Geological and geomorphological constraints are consistent with these observations suggesting a contribution of deep-seated processes to the recent regional uplift (Babault et al., 2008; 747 Benabdellouahed et al., 2017). Moreover, the late Miocene intraplate volcanism of the AA (Siroua 748 and Saghro Massif) and MA is almost coeval with the main phase of regional uplift inferred in this 749 750 study for the AA and from thermochronological data in the HA, indicating the occurrence of 751 magmatism during mountain building processes (Berrahma & Delaloye, 1989; El Azzouzi et al., 1999; 2010). 752

The Atlas system displays short wavelength (10 - 50 km) topographic signals most likely linked to 753 754 processes operating at crustal scale such as shortening (Teixell et al., 2003; Missenard et al., 2006; Faccenna and Becker, 2020) and long wavelength (> 100 km) signals associated with deeper 755 processes (Figure 13b). Examples of the former and the latter include the HA Mountains and the 756 757 Meseta, respectively, although multiple processes may concur to produce the observed topography (Teixell et al., 2003; Lanari et al., 2020a). Our study documents that the AA Mountains consists of a 758 759 topographic swell that has an along- and across-strike wavelength of ~ 600 and 100 km, respectively and a maximum amplitude of ~1100 m (Figures 9b, 10a and 13). This is well underlined by the high-760 761 standing surface, which is warped along these two major directions (Figure 13a). The maximum 762 values of surface uplift are observed in the central sector of the AA and appear to be slightly lower than those extracted from the adjacent Siroua Massif where surface uplift results from the sum of a 763 long wavelength, regional uplift, and multiple crustal-scale signals such as faulting along the AAMF 764 765 and possibly local magma injection. The occurrence of magma intrusions may be testified by the occurrence of a localized topographic bulge on the somital erosional surface of the Siroua that stands 766 767 beneath the volcano. This would explain the short-wavelength topographic signal observed in figure 13b (Missenard et al., 2008). Similar geomorphic expressions have been described in different 768 settings where magma injection at variable depth in the crust generated a few hundred meters of uplift 769 over different timescales (Singer et al., 2018; Townsend, 2022). This process could have also 770

occurred in the Saghro mountain peak of the eastern Anti-Atlas where a localized maximum
topography associated with a few volcanic eruptions is observed (Figure 2e).

773 The long wavelength topographic swell (600 x 100 km) of the AA, however, still needs to be explained (Figure 13a). Tectonic uplift associated with faulting along a 600-km-long (along strike) 774 crustal scale ramp appears to be unlikely because the AA domain has been tectonically quiescent 775 776 throughout the entire Cenozoic (Frizon de Lamotte et al., 2009; Lanari et al., 2020a; Clementucci et 777 al., 2022). Furthermore, to explain the ~100-km-long across strike wavelength, one would need a fault-bend-fold mechanisms with a deep flat rooted into the basement, a ramp, and a shallower flat 778 779 accommodating at least 100 km of displacement. This appears to be quite unlikely, especially if one 780 considers that the AA is a Variscan orogen and not an undisturbed sedimentary multi-layer that may have been detached along stratigraphic horizons. Furthermore, there are no evaporite layers in the pre 781 Variscan sedimentary sequence that could accommodate such an amount of displacement, as 782 783 observed in the adjacent HA (Lanari et al., 2020b). These observations suggest that the  $\sim 600 \times 100$ km AA topographic swell could be only explained through deeper, mantle driven processes. 784

785 A major deep-seated mechanism, which has been invoked as main contributor in the construction of elevated orogenic plateaus is the delamination of the lithospheric mantle and possibly of the lower 786 787 crust (e.g., Garzione et al., 2006; Hatzfeld and Molnar, 2010). This would change the density structure 788 of lithosphere through the sinking of a relatively dense lithospheric mantle and the rise of a hotter and less dense asthenosphere. This hypothesis requires the occurrence of a previously thickened 789 lithosphere, which does not appear to be the case for the AA where crustal shortening and thickening 790 processes following the Variscan orogeny have been very limited (Burkhard et al., 2006). Moreover, 791 the occurrence of a thickened lithosphere preceding mantle delamination would have produced 792 793 subsidence and sedimentation before the onset of uplift (e.g., DeCelles et al., 2009), and this is not supported by stratigraphic data, which suggest subaerial erosional conditions at least since the late 794 Cretaceous (Gouiza et al., 2017; Charton et a., 2021). In intracontinental areas, another possible 795 mechanism is the upwelling of asthenospheric mantle (Duggen et al., 2009; Faccenna et al., 2013; 796

Miller et al., 2013; Olivetti et al., 2016; Faccenna and Becker, 2020). Independently from the 797 798 geodynamic setting and the main reasons for such a rise, the upward movement of hot asthenospheric mantle generates a deflection of the lithosphere in association with adiabatic melting and production 799 of a magma with an alkaline signature (e.g., Wilson and Downes, 1991; Gibson et al., 2006). This 800 process will generate a strong positive free-air gravity anomaly (e.g., McKenzie and Fairhead, 1997; 801 Watts, 2001; Faccenna and Becker, 2020). This appears to be the case for the AA, where all 802 observations are met (Berrahma and Delaloye, 1989; Spieker et al., 2014). Moreover, the wavelength 803 recorded in the topography of the AA is compatible with other examples from the oceanic floor, 804 where larger-scale swell signals have been observed (Hoggard et al., 2017; Cserepes et al., 2000). 805 806 Tomography analysis also suggests mantle upwelling in NW Africa, which may be associated with plume activity recorded in the Atlantic Ocean in the Canary Islands (Duggen et al., 2009; Civiero et 807 al., 2019). In conclusion, our topographic analysis indicates that the topography of the Anti-Atlas 808 809 appears to be consistent with asthenospheric upwelling processes although the cause of these deepseated mechanism and the possible genetic link with the Canary Islands remain still poorly 810 understood. 811

812

#### 813 Conclusion

Our study allows characterizing modern and past topography of the Anti-Atlas Mountains and inferring its surface uplift history. Specifically, it provides new constrains for deciphering the complex history of topographic growth resulting from the interplay between shallower and deepseated processes. Here, we show that:

1) The landscape is in a transient state and exhibits a main pattern of elevated non-lithological knickpoints that mark a regional transition, from high to low values of topographic and channel metrics. The topography upstream of the non-lithological knickpoints can be described as an erosional surface (relict landscape) that plunges along and across strike. Our paleo-topographic reconstruction suggests that such an erosional surface formed a subdued topography with a few local peaks in the order of  $\sim 1000$  m of elevation that started to develop from the late Cretaceous.

2) The magnitude of surface uplift increases along-strike from the western Anti-Atlas (500 m) to the 824 central Anti-Atlas (1100 m) and the Siroua Massif (1500 m), where the latter represents a main Mio-825 Pliocene regional volcanic centre. Geometrically, the surface uplift can be described as  $\sim 600 \times 100$ 826 km swell. The initiation of knickpoints migration marks the onset of topographic rejuvenation and is 827 estimated to be middle-late Miocene (9.9  $\pm$  4.1 Ma). This is consistent with the middle-late Miocene 828 initiation of a main tectonic phase in the High Atlas and with volcanism in the Siroua and the Saghro 829 Massifs. Our data indicate that surface uplift occurred at rates ranging from 40-110 m/Myr to 70-180 830 831 m/Myr (averaged over time scales of 14 and 5.8 Ma) from the western to the central Anti-Atlas. The lower range of uplift rates seems to be more likely because it agrees with rates derived from available 832 <sup>10</sup>Be erosion rates. This observation, together with the aforementioned geological evidence, suggests 833 834 that the initiation of surface uplift (i.e., the topographic rejuvenation) in the Anti-Atlas and the Siroua Massis occurred most likely at 14-10 Ma. 835

3) Surface uplift in the Siroua Massif is higher than in the Anti-Atlas because it results from the
contribution of different processes, such as the long-wavelength regional component (i.e., the
topographic swell; ~ 1150 m), the growth of a volcanic edifice (~ 800 m), faulting along the AntiAtlas Major Fault (~ 350 m) and possibly magma injection processes which cannot be easily
quantified.

4) The long wavelength (~ 600 x 100 km) topographic swell documented through the topographic
analysis can be explained by upwelling of hot asthenosphere, which is also responsible for the
generation of magmatism in the Siroua and Saghro Massif. Although the genesis of such a rise is
unknown, it appears to be the only feasible mechanisms.

845

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# **Tectonics**

# 1#2 Supporting Information for

# Surface uplift and topographic rejuvenation of a tectonically inactive range: Insights from Anti-Atlas and Siroua Massif (Morocco)

Clementucci R.<sup>1,2</sup>, Ballato P.<sup>1</sup>, Siame L.<sup>2</sup>, Fox M.<sup>3</sup>, Lanari R.<sup>1,4</sup>, Sembroni A.<sup>1</sup>, Faccenna C.<sup>1,5</sup>, Yaaqoub A.<sup>6</sup>, Essaifi A.<sup>6</sup>

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**Contents of this file** 

Figures S1 to S7

### Introduction

The supporting information provided in this file (named 1#2) are complemented by additional tables reported in another supporting file (named 2#2). The data reported here comprise:

- Figures S1 and S2 provide a conceptual framework for the distribution of knickpoints in the Anti-Atlas and for the interpretation of the knickpoints in the river longitudinal profiles and the  $\chi$  versus elevation plot.
- Figure S3 and S5 report additional data concerning the knickpoint and river profile analysis presented in the main text.
- Figure S4 provides estimates of the erodibility parameters, used to constraint the knickpoints celerity model.

- Figure S6 provide the normalized channel steepness map to constraints the linear inverse model (2D river projection).
- Figure S7 provide the information about the cosmogenic nuclides data from Clementucci et al., 2022.



**Figure S1.** Cartoon of the Anti-Atlas topography. The major lithological contrast is between crystalline/ metamorphic Precambrian rock and late Precambrian/ Paleozoic sedimentary cover.



**Figure S2.** The simplified sketch of longitudinal river profiles (to the left) and  $\chi$ -plot (to the right) in a steady-state condition and disequilibrium state. In a steady-state condition, the river can be well explained by a single value of  $k_{sn}$ , thus a straight line in a  $\chi$  space (top). In a disequilibrium condition, the river is characterized by knickpoints. The transient knickpoints show an abrupt break in the  $\chi$ -plot reflected the variation of rock uplift. Whereas the stable knickpoints (lithological, dam, landslide, local heterogeneities, or climate related) is not characterized by  $k_{sn}$  variation in along the profile.



**Figure S3.** Comparison normalized channel steepness ( $k_{sn}$ ) and concavity values ( $\theta$ ) using the logS-logA method and integration method ( $\chi$ ). Note the  $k_{sn}$  values approximately follow the 1:1 line (plot to left), whereas the concavity values are more scattered (plot to right).



**Figure S4.** Rock-type versus erodibility parameter. Erodibility values were estimate from the forced linear regression between basin-wide denudation rates and basin-averaged  $k_{sn}$  using  $\theta_{ref}$  of 0.45 and 0.17 (mean value of concavity relative to uplifted relict landscape, Table S1), assuming n = 1.



**Figure S5**. (a) Distance from divide versus upstream area at knickpoints location. Best-fit regression confirm the power law relation of Hack law for knickpoints in the study area. (b) Elevation of knickpoints versus drainage area of basins calculating at 500 m of elevation. (c) Distance from mouth of knickpoints versus drainage area of basins calculating at 500 m of elevation.



**Figure S6.** Normalized rock uplift rate ( $u^*$  or  $k_{sn}$ , using  $\theta_{ref} = 0.45$ ) map relative to the high-standing relict landscape (white polygons).





**Figure S7.** (a) Digital elevation model of the High Atlas and the Anti-Atlas Mountains (SRTM DEM, pixel size 90 m). The black lines are the major tectonic lineaments. (b-c) Topographic map of the Anti-

Atlas and the Siroua Massif, with <sup>10</sup>Be sampling locations. The white polygons are the limits of the

sampled catchments (Clementucci et al., 2022). The sample ID is used in Table S5 of the supplementary material. AAMF: Anti-Atlas Major Fault.

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# **Tectonics**

# 2#2 Supporting Information for

# Surface uplift and topographic rejuvenation of a tectonically inactive range: Insights from Anti-Atlas and Siroua Massif (Morocco)

Clementucci R.<sup>1,2</sup>, Ballato P.<sup>1</sup>, Siame L.<sup>2</sup>, Fox M.<sup>3</sup>, Lanari R.<sup>1,4</sup>, Sembroni A.<sup>1</sup>, Faccenna C.<sup>1,5</sup>, Yaaqoub A.<sup>6</sup>, Essaifi A.<sup>6</sup>

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**Contents of this file** 

Tables S1 to S5

### Introduction

The supporting information provided in this file (named 2#2) are complemented by additional figures reported in another supporting file (named 1#2). The data reported here comprise:

- Tables S1 and S2 contain the results of the knickpoint and river profiles of the Anti-Atlas.
- Table S3 summarizes the results of the knickpoints celerity model.
- Table S4 summarizes the results of the 1D river projections.

• Table S5 provides the maximum excavation time estimated from basin-wide denudation rates from Clementucci et al., 2022.

Stream <sup>a</sup>	Long.	Lat.	Elevation	$DFD^{b}$	DFM <sup>c</sup>	Drainage	Stream parameters			
	-					area	Downstream		Upstream	
	°W	°N	(m)	(m)	(m)	(m²)	$k_{sn}  (m^{0.9})^{f}$	$ heta^g$	<i>k<sub>sn</sub></i> (m <sup>0.9</sup> )	$\theta$
NCAA1	637465.1	3379132.5	1731	20354	280487	1.58E+08	108 ± 2	0.45 ± 0.15	11.5 ± 2.4	0.27 ± 0.09
NCAA2	613556.8	3372613.8	1424	56831	257482	4.33E+08	113 ± 3	0.47 ± 0.18	32.6 ± 2.9	0.056 ± 0.14
NCAA3	608426.8	3354013.8	1565	23537	266134	1.42E+08	99.8 ± 2.8	0.51 ± 0.13	28.7 ± 1.5	0.32 ± 0.084
NCAA4	596666.8	3351313.8	1492	18508	257691	1.03E+08	104 ± 3	0.42 ± 0.11	44.5 ± 1.2	0.38 ± 0.17
NCAA5	589316.8	3345523.8	1529	11566	266423	2.64E+07	76.5 ± 8	0.28 ± 0.085	34.7 ± 2.6	0.096 ± 0.13
NCAA6	561056.8	3341233.8	1506	13041	185763	3.52E+07	96.4 ± 2.4	0.52 ± 0.092	37.1 ± 2.5	0.25 ± 0.13
NCAA7	555176.8	3340753.8	1324	16987	185931	4.73E+07	98.4 ±1.6	0.38 ± 0.093	39.7 ± 4.3	0.083 ± 0.11
NCAA8	550076.8	3341713.8	1387	20427	187603	4.69E+07	96.9 ± .7	0.4 ± 0.089	21.8 ± 2.2	0.28 ± 0.11
NCAA9	543836.8	3339913.8	1334	21396	162843	69549300	97.9 ±2.8	0.53 ± 0.39	30.8 ± 4.8	-0.084 ± 0.14
NCAA10	525536.8	3328513.8	1175	24446	128875	80991900	135 ± 5	0.45 ± 0.34	50.7 ± 3.7	0.15 ± 0.11
Mean NCAA <sup>d</sup>							102.6 ± 4.7	0.44 ± 0.02	33.2 ± 3.5	0.18 ± 0.04
$\sigma^{e}$							14.8	0.07	11.1	0.14
WAA1	497197.4	3309532.6	1111	15696	137453	54819423	70.1 ± 3.8	1.1 ± 0.3	75.6 ± 3.2	0.55 ± 0.077
WAA2	443907.4	3255074.6	857	25669	106609	1.49E+08	71.7 ± 6.4	0.91 ± 0.3	42.9 ± 4.6	-0.065 ± 0.19
WAA3	433249.4	3252884.6	849	29224	62967	1.11E+08	78.6 ± 2.3	1.1 ± 0.78	19.9 ± 2.8	0.098 ± 0.094
WAA4	422883.4	3241277.6	854	11251	115444	12464531	49.8 ± 1.4	0.6 ± 0.079	25.9 ± 1.2	0.38 ± 0.31
WAA5	428504.4	3236605.6	1012	12228	128546	22472393	55.3 ± 4.1	1.1 ± 0.17	12.9 ± 1.3	0.28 ± 0.2
WAA6	445513.4	3233028.6	982	14909	143614	29352132	74.8 ± 1.1	0.49 ± 0.087	39.8 ± 7.9	0.055 ± 0.13
WAA7	471939.4	3246752.6	1272	10221	206751	30897542	59.7 ± 0.7	0.41 ± 0.037	25 ± 5.6	-0.24 ± 0.41
WAA8	482670.4	3251424.6	1294	11699	208687	33460791	62.5 ± 0.7	0.45 ± 0.057	33.6 ± 5	0.019 ± 0.15
WAA9	483765.4	3234050.6	971	43222	187564	2.55E+08	63.2 ± 0.8	0.63 ± 0.18	23.5 ± 1.8	0.14 ± 0.11
Mean WAA							65.07 ± 3.1	0.75 ± 0.1	33.23 ± 6.1	0.14 +. 0.07
σ							9.45	0.3	18.5	0.22
SCAA1	497927.4	3246825.6	1181	27564	430725	1.62E+08	81 ±1.6	0.61 ± 0.19	15.6 ± 2.4	0.22 ± 0.091

**Table S1.** Non-lithological knickpoint and river profile data from log-log of channel slope vs. drainage area.

							1		1	
SCAA2	520922.4	3281573.6	1628	14831	482538	39338678	79.2 ± 0.8	0.5 ± 0.066	18.5 ± 2.9	0.036 ± 0.19
SCAA4	529390.4	3272156.6	1588	6291	485819	9485620	75.3 ± 2.2	0.66 ± 0.12	8.44 ± 3.8	0.041 ± 0.4
SCAA5	549465.4	3322015.6	1580	12837	592340	32309727	94.3 ± 0.9	0.41 ± 0.065	17.3 ± 1.2	0.41 ± 0.073
SCAA6	564284.4	3324643.6	1448	17885	608379	1.51E+08	83.5 ± 2.2	0.6 ± 0.13	43.7 ± 1.5	0.5 ± 0.1
SCAA7	618961.4	3336542.6	1773	13358	685609	21443896	88.5 ± 2	0.61 ± 0.089	15.4 ± 3.8	0.065 ± 0.17
SCAA8	636992.4	3343550.6	1476	22860	672273	86074008	74.1 ± 2	0.65 ± 0.13	39.9 ± 3.8	0.091 ± 0.11
Mean SCAA							82.2 ± 2.7	0.57 ± 0.03	22.7 ± 5.1	0.17 ± 0.07
σ							7.2	0.09	13.5	0.2
Mean tot							84.1 ± 3.8	0.58 ± 0.04	30.4 ± 2.9	0.17 ± 0.03
σ							19.7	0.22	14.8	0.18

<sup>a</sup> NCAA: rivers draining the northern flank of Anti-Atlas; WAA: rivers draining the western flank of Anti-Atlas; SCAA: rivers draining the southern flank of Anti-Atlas.

<sup>b</sup> Distance from divide.

<sup>c</sup> Distance from river mouth.

<sup>d</sup> Mean and standard error values.

<sup>e</sup> Standard deviation of the data.

<sup>f</sup> Channel steepness of selected river segments, by using a reference concavity of 0.45.

<sup>9</sup> Concavity value calculated by the slope of the line regressed through a log–log plot of channel slope vs. drainage area.
Stream <sup>a</sup>	Long.	Lat.	Elevation	DFD <sup>b</sup>	DFM <sup>c</sup>	Drainage	Stream parameters			
						area	Downstream		Ups	stream
	°W	°N	(m)	(m)	(m)	(m²)	<i>k<sub>sn</sub></i> (m <sup>0.9</sup> ) <sup>f</sup>	$ heta$ $^{g}$	<i>k<sub>sn</sub></i> (m <sup>0.9</sup> )	θ
NCAA1	637465.1	3379132.5	1731	20354	280487	1.58E+08	114.6 ± 0.2	0.42	15 ± 0.3	0
NCAA2	613556.8	3372613.8	1424	56831	257482	4.33E+08	118.5± 0.4	0.58	42.6 ± 0.78	0
NCAA3	608426.8	3354013.8	1565	23537	266134	1.42E+08	108.5 ± 0.4	0.43	35.5 ± 0.5	0.25
NCAA4	596666.8	3351313.8	1492	18508	257691	1.03E+08	111.5 ± 0.43	0.41	43 ± 0.4	0.3
NCAA5	589316.8	3345523.8	1529	11566	266423	2.64E+07	90.4 ± 0.5	0.28	30 ± 0.3	0.34
NCAA6	561056.8	3341233.8	1506	13041	185763	3.52E+07	102 ± 0.55	0.49	46 ± 0.7	0.2
NCAA7	555176.8	3340753.8	1324	16987	185931	4.73E+07	105 ± 0.42	0.35	63.7 ± 1	0.38
NCAA8	550076.8	3341713.8	1387	20427	187603	4.69E+07	103 ± 0.43	0.34	39 ± 0.9	-0.1
NCAA9	543836.8	3339913.8	1334	21396	162843	69549300	99.5 ± 0.47	0.56	45.2 ± 1.2	-0.18
NCAA10	525536.8	3328513.8	1175	24446	128875	80991900	136.8 ± 0.44	0.46	57 ± 0.56	0.27
Mean NCAA <sup>d</sup>							109 ± 3.9	0.43 ± 0.03	41.7 ± 4.2	0.15 ± 0.06
$\sigma^{e}$							12.6	0.09	13.5	0.19
WAA1	497197.4	3309532.6	1111	15696	137453	54819423	61.5 ± 0.2	0.6	37.5 ± 1.17	0.86
WAA2	443907.4	3255074.6	857	25669	106609	1.49E+08	72.16 ± 0.6	0.8	49 ± 1.1	0.1
WAA3	433249.4	3252884.6	849	29224	62967	1.11E+08	79.9 ± 0.4	0.63	35.3 ± 0.75	-0.1
WAA4	422883.4	3241277.6	854	11251	115444	12464531	62.7 ± 0.3	0.33	30.7 ± 0.43	0.02
WAA5	428504.4	3236605.6	1012	12228	128546	22472393	67.8 ± 0.37	0.39	20.24 ± 0.6	-0.18
WAA6	445513.4	3233028.6	982	14909	143614	29352132	66.2 ± 0.37	0.63	45.4 ± 3.44	-0.90
WAA7	471939.4	3246752.6	1272	10221	206751	30897542	66.86 ± 0.17	0.37	25.26 ± 0.85	-0.10
WAA8	482670.4	3251424.6	1294	11699	208687	33460791	68.8 ± 0.14	0.36	18.1 ± 0.47	0.08
WAA9	483765.4	3234050.6	971	43222	187564	2.55E+08	72.5 ± 0.21	0.42	33.6 ± 0.43	0.02
Mean WAA							68.7 ± 1.8	0.5 ± 0.05	32.7 ± 3.5	0 ± 0.14
σ							5.6	0.16	10.5	0.44
SCAA1	497927.4	3246825.6	1181	27564	430725	1.62E+08	82.56 ± 0.21	0.51	25.9 ± 0.57	0.76
SCAA2	520922.4	3281573.6	1628	14831	482538	39338678	79.58 ± 0.1	0.38	24 ± 0.38	0.04
SCAA4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SCAA5	549465.4	3322015.6	1580	12837	592340	32309727	86.4 ± 0.1	0.43	27.86 ± 0.23	0.47
SCAA6	564284.4	3324643.6	1448	17885	608379	1.51E+08	79.85 ± 0.26	0.52	49.15 ± 0.35	0.37
SCAA7	618961.4	3336542.6	1773	13358	685609	21443896	89.76 ± 0.67	0.63	15.7 ± 0.5	-0.03
SCAA8	636992.4	3343550.6	1476	22860	672273	86074008	70.85 ± 0.3	0.63	46.17 ± 0.6	0.20
Mean SCAA							81.5 ± 2.4	0.51 ± 0.03	31.4 ± 5	0.30 ± 0.1

**Table S2.** Non-lithological knickpoint and river profile data from  $\chi$ -plot (data from Clementucci et al., 2022).

σ	6.5	0.1	13.2	0.29
Mean tot	87.9 ± 4.07	0.47 ± 0.02	36.01 ± 2.5	0.12 ± 0.07
σ	20.35	0.12	12.3	0.34

<sup>a</sup>NCAA: rivers draining the northern flank of Anti-Atlas; WAA: rivers draining the western flank of Anti-Atlas; SCAA: rivers draining the southern flank of Anti-Atlas.

<sup>b</sup> Distance from divide.

<sup>c</sup> Distance from river mouth.

<sup>d</sup> Mean and standard error values.

<sup>e</sup> Standard deviation of the data.

<sup>f</sup> Channel steepness of selected river segments, by using a reference concavity of 0.45.

<sup>9</sup> Concavity value calculated by finding the value that minimizes the misfit to the linear relationship between  $\chi$  and elevation.

Stream <sup>a</sup>	Elevation	$DFD^b$	DFM <sup>c</sup>	Drainage		Ν	lodel (	constra	ins					Мос	del results		
				area	_						-						
						Κ		m	Tim	e (Ma)	K	m	Time	e (Ma)	Model	Misfit	RMSE <sup>e</sup>
															DFM <sup>d</sup>		
	(m)	(m)	(m)	(m <sup>2</sup> )	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Value	Value	Value	Error	(m)	(m)	
NCAA1	1731	20354	280487	1.58E+08	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	5.29E-05	0.66	10.1	4.2	280488	0,392	0.198
NCAA3	1565	23537	266134	1.42E+08	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	6.14E-05	0.69	9.9	4.4	266254	0,043	0.065
NCAA6	1506	13041	185763	3.52E+07	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	6.33E-05	0.69	9.8	4.3	185763	0,009	0.031
NCAA9	1334	21396	162843	6.95E+07	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	5.84E-05	0.69	10.7	4.3	163048	0,001	0.012
NCAA10	1175	24446	128875	8.10E+07	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	6.04E-05	0.67	9.3	4.1	129128	0,044	0.066
Mean											5.93E-05	0.68	9.9	4.3			
WAA1	1111	15696	137453	5.48E+07	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	5.91E-05	0.64	9.2	4.1	137453	0,026	0.051
WAA2	857	25669	106609	1.49E+08	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	5.22E-05	0.61	9.2	4.0	106609	0,190	0.138
WAA3	849	29224	62967	1.11E+08	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	5.48E-05	0.58	9.8	4.5	62967	0,082	0.090
WAA5	1012	12228	128546	2.25E+07	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	5.53E-05	0.65	9.1	3.9	128547	0,413	0.203
WAA7	1272	10221	206751	3.09E+07	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	5.34E-05	0.68	9.0	4.2	206752	0,348	0.186
Mean											5.50E-05	0.63	9.2	4.1			
SCAA1	1181	27564	430725	1.62E+08	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	5.47E-05	0.68	10.2	4.2	430725	0,166	0.128
SCAA2	1628	14831	482538	3.93E+07	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	6.69E-05	0.71	10.8	4.0	482538	0,136	0.116
SCAA4	1588	6291	485819	9.49E+06	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	7.00E-05	0.72	11.0	3.8	485819	0,005	0.022
SCAA5	1580	12837	592340	3.23E+07	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	6.63E-05	0.71	9.8	3.8	592340	0,216	0.147
SCAA6	1448	17885	608379	1.51E+08	10 <sup>-7</sup>	10 <sup>-4</sup>	0	0.75	3.8	18.6	6.42E-05	0.70	10.2	4.3	608379	0,119	0.109
Mean											6.44E-05	0.70	10.4	4.0			
Mean tot											5.96E-05	0.67	9.9	4.1			

<sup>a</sup>NCAA: rivers draining the northern flank of Anti-Atlas; WAA: rivers draining the western flank of Anti-Atlas; SCAA: rivers draining the southern flank of Anti-Atlas.

<sup>b</sup> Distance from divide.

<sup>c</sup> Distance from river mouth.

<sup>d</sup> Modelled distance from river mouth.

<sup>e</sup> Root mean square error.

Stream <sup>a</sup>	m/n	Drainage divide	Paleo-relief <sup>c</sup>	Elevation	$\Delta Z^{d}$	Error
		elevation <sup>D</sup>		knickpoint		(2 <del>σ</del> )
		(m)	(m)	(m)	(m)	(m)
NCAA1	0.45	1900	738.2	1731	1161.8	18.3
NCAA2	0.45	1900	916.1	1424	983.9	22.3
NCAA3	0.45	1900	1047.1	1565	852.9	17.4
NCAA4	0.45	1900	782.7	1492	1117.3	8.4
NCAA5	0.45	1900	903.2	1529	996.8	11.1
NCAA6	0.45	1900	1055.1	1506	844.9	42.5
NCAA7	0.45	1900	1024.1	1324	875.9	28.3
NCAA8	0.45	1900	1139.8	1387	760.2	38.4
NCAA9	0.45	1900	1054.2	1334	845.8	29.1
NCAA11	0.45	1900	1077.4	1175	822.6	36.5
Mean <sup>e</sup>			973.8		926.2 ± 42.1	
$\sigma^{f}$					133.15	
WAA1	0.45	1400	879.5	1111	520.5	31.8
WAA3	0.45	1400	846.8	849	553.2	15.1
WAA4	0.45	1400	941.2	854	458.8	9.1
WAA5	0.45	1400	644.9	1012	755.1	15.7
WAA6	0.45	1400	760.1	982	639.9	13.9
WAA7	0.45	1400	527.9	1272	872.1	28.8
WAA9	0.45	1400	808.6	971	591.4	10.0
Mean			772.7		627.3 ± 54.1	
σ					143.17	
SCAA1	0.45	1900	1025.8	1181	874.2	5.9
SCAA2	0.45	1900	783.3	1628	1116.7	18.3
SCAA4	0.45	1900	1089.1	1588	810.9	117.7
SCAA6	0.45	1900	822.9	1448	1077.1	12.7
SCAA7	0.45	1900	824.3	1773	1075.7	58.4
SCAA8	0.45	1900	806.9	1476	1093.1	20.9
Mean			892		$1008.0 \pm 53.3$	
σ					130.5	

**Table S4.** Reconstructed relict stream profile and 95% confidence interval.

<sup>a</sup> NCAA: rivers draining the northern flank of Anti-Atlas; WAA: rivers draining the western flank of Anti-Atlas. SCAA: rivers draining the southern flank of Anti-Atlas.

<sup>b</sup> Mean drainage divide elevation.

<sup>c</sup> Difference between mean drainage divide elevation and surface elevation ( $\Delta Z$ ).

<sup>d</sup> Estimated surface uplift from reconstructed relict stream profiles.

<sup>e</sup> Mean and standard error values.

<sup>f</sup> Standard deviation of the data.

Stream	Basin area <sup>a</sup>	Eroded material <sup>b</sup>	Ratio V/A <sup>c</sup>	Denudation rate <sup>d</sup> (m/Myr)		Excavation time <sup>e</sup> (Myr)		
ID	(km²)	(km <sup>3</sup> )	(km)	Value	Error	Value	Error	
11	1200.6	148.1	0.12	7.53	0.51	16.37	0.64	
10	480.1	58.6	0.12	8.10	0.55	15.07	0.59	
12	842.7	117.4	0.14	12.46	0.95	11.18	0.50	
9	1905.1	260.0	0.14	11.34	0.77	12.04	0.47	
7	74.1	7.0	0.09	10.72	0.71	8.79	0.34	
8	195.8	15.9	0.08	21.32	1.47	3.81	0.15	
4	1828.1	314.7	0.17	9.25	0.65	18.61	0.76	
3	558.3	56.0	0.10	5.78	0.39	17.36	0.68	
5	1438.9	229.5	0.16	9.38	0.64	17.00	0.67	

**Table S5.** Maximum excavation time estimated from basin-wide denudation rates of Anti-Atlas watersheds in Clementucci et al. (2022).

*Note.* <sup>a</sup> Basin area extracted from ArcGIS. <sup>b</sup> Estimated missing volume of eroded material between a smooth surface fitting the preserved summit and present-day topography (*e.g.*, Siame et al., 2015). <sup>c</sup> Ratio between volume of eroded material and basin area. <sup>d</sup> Denudation rate from Clementucci, et al. 2022 (<sup>10</sup>Be - derived denudation rate). <sup>e</sup> Ratio between eroded material from river basin and denudation rate. The values are maximum time using the denudation relative only to the relict portion of the landscape, which providing quartz grains

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