

1 **How climate, uplift and erosion shape the Alpine topography**

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13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Decades of scientific research across the European Alps quantify the vast array of
15 processes shaping the Earth's surface. Developments in thermochronometry and
16 terrestrial cosmogenic nuclides constrain spatial patterns of rock exhumation, surface
17 erosion and topographic changes. These can be compared to sediments eroded from
18 the Alps and preserved in surrounding sedimentary basins or collected from modern
19 rivers. Erosion-driven isostatic uplift explains up to around 50% of the modern
20 geodetic rock-uplift rates, revealing the importance of internal (tectonics, deep-seated
21 geodynamics) and external (glacial rebound and topographic changes) processes. We
22 highlight recent methodological and conceptual developments that have contributed to
23 our present view of the European Alps, and suggest steps needed to fill gaps in our
24 understanding.

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26 **KEYWORDS**

27 Mountain geodynamics, erosion & sediment yield, topographic evolution, climate and
28 glaciations, geodetic uplift, modeling, geochronology

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30 **INTRODUCTION**

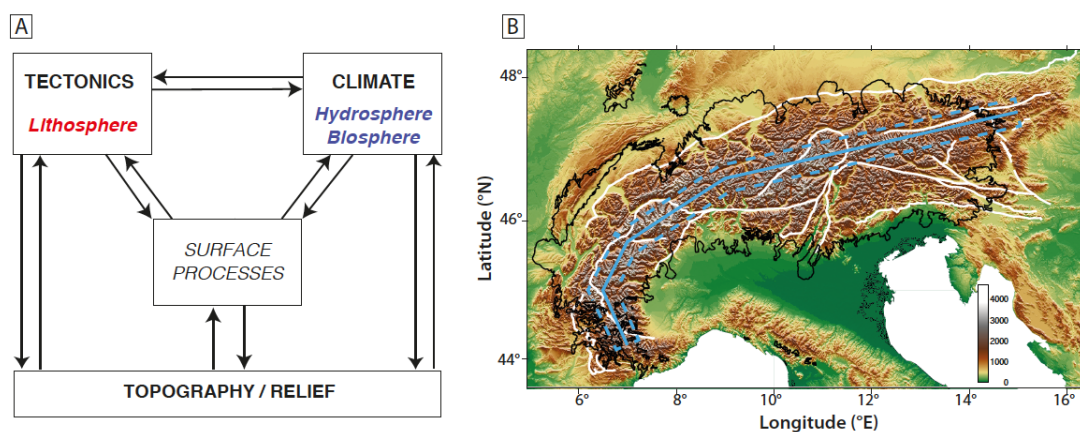
31 Mountain topography lies at the interface between the Lithosphere and the
32 Hydrosphere/Biosphere, and its long-term evolution results from the interplay
33 between internal and external driving mechanisms (Fig. 1A, e.g. Whipple, 2009).
34 Internal forcing involves crustal thickening from tectonic shortening and deeper
35 processes such as lithospheric delamination or sub-lithospheric mantle flow. External

36 forcing is mainly characterized by climate, whose variability controls erosion and the
37 building-melting of ice caps and glaciers, as well as the biota evolution and base-level
38 changes, which all operate to redistribute material across the Earth's surface. Key
39 components of this system are surface processes (Fig. 1A) which are central in
40 regulating the interactions between internal and external drivers (Champagnac et al.,
41 2014). Surface processes act in space and time directly on the Lithosphere (e.g. mass
42 redistribution affecting the crustal stress field and thermal structure) and the
43 Hydrosphere/Biosphere (e.g. erosion modulating rock weathering and carbon burial).
44 They shape mountain topography and relief, with indirect feedbacks on tectonics
45 (topographic effects on the lithospheric stress and thermal state) and climate
46 (orographic precipitation and large-scale atmospheric circulation controlled by
47 mountain topography). A quantitative characterization of the mechanisms that control
48 mountain topographic evolution is challenging, since they are intrinsically linked but
49 also operate at different spatial and temporal scales (10^1 - 10^6 meters or years), with
50 thresholds and non-linear processes involved (Champagnac et al., 2014).

51 The European Alps are a classic example of a mid-latitude convergent mountain belt,
52 extending over 1000 km (Fig. 1B) and forming an arc-shape which can be divided
53 into three main sectors: Western, Central and Eastern Alps (Schmid et al., 2004). The
54 Alpine orogeny is the result of continent-continent collision between the European
55 and Adriatic plates since the Late Eocene. The main topographic construction and
56 rock exhumation, i.e. unroofing history or a rock's path towards Earth's surface,
57 began at ca. 35 Ma or earlier mostly driven by crustal thickening (Kuhlemann et al.,
58 2002; Schmid et al., 2004). The main drainage organization and major drainage divide
59 between Alpine sectors (Fig. 1B) were established relatively early in the orogeny,
60 following the main tectonic structures (Figs. 1B), and are strongly influenced by the
61 Early-Oligocene to Early-Miocene exhumation of crystalline massifs. The overall
62 Alpine topography reached high elevations during the early collisional stages, with
63 Early-Oligocene elevations similar to present-day in the Western Alps (as revealed by
64 palynology; Fauquette et al., 2015), and the high topography of the Central Alps was
65 acquired during mid-Miocene times (from stable-isotope paleoaltimetry; Campani et
66 al., 2012). It has been suggested that the topography of the Eastern Alps developed
67 during Late Oligocene (Kuhlemann et al., 2002), but this has not yet been confirmed
68 quantitatively. As a mid-latitude mountain range, and given their spatial extent, the
69 European Alps are characterized by a variety of climatic regimes, with high spatial

70 variability in precipitation and temperature. This climatic setting leads to various
71 geomorphic processes (fluvial, hillslope, glacial) which control erosion (i.e. surface
72 mass removal by both mechanical and chemical processes), sediment export to
73 forelands or intramountain deposition. During the Late Cenozoic, global climate
74 evolved towards cooler conditions and increased variability (Zachos et al., 2001). The
75 onset of glaciation since ca. 3 Ma for the Northern Hemisphere also impacted the
76 European Alps, with extensive glacier coverage during glacial periods (Fig. 1B;
77 Ehlers and Gibbard, 2004). Cyclic glacial/interglacial conditions and associated
78 transient geomorphic responses have shaped the modern Alpine topography and
79 relief. Today, tectonic horizontal shortening from plate convergence appears only
80 active in the Eastern Alps, while the Western and Central Alps are subject to limited
81 shortening and even extension in some areas (Serpelloni et al., 2016). However,
82 geodetic measurements (GPS, leveling) show that modern rock-uplift rates (i.e.
83 vertical surface rock velocity, relative to a reference base level) are faster in the
84 Western and Central Alps than in the Eastern Alps (Sternai et al., 2019).

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89 **Figure 1.** Alpine Topography & Relief. (A) Sketch of the interplays and feedbacks between
90 tectonics, climate and topography/relief in mountain evolution. This complex system involves
91 interactions between the Lithosphere and the Hydrosphere and Biosphere, with surface
92 processes regulating the interactions (details on these are presented in the original figure of
93 Champagnac et al., 2014). (B) Modern topography of the European Alps (90-m resolution
94 DEM) with Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) ice extent (white lines; Ehlers and Gibbard, 2004),
95 major Alpine tectonic lineaments (Schmid et al., 2004) and swath profile (thick and dashed
96 blue lines).

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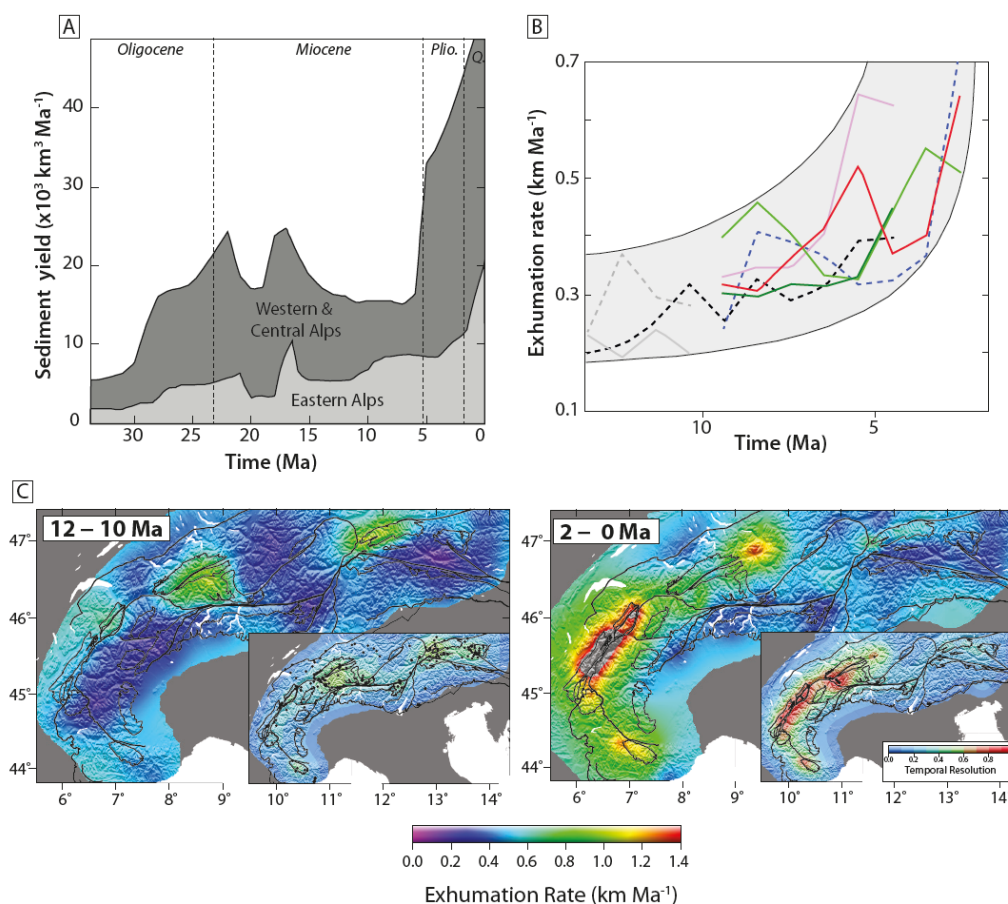
98 Here, we review some key pieces of evidence constraining the topographic evolution
99 of the European Alps. We present how methodological developments, especially
100 regarding topographic, geochronologic and modeling methods, have quantified long-
101 term erosion and relief development. Such a quantitative framework is needed to
102 assess the relative contributions of internal and external forcing in the evolution of the
103 European Alps, and to diagnose the potential drivers for modern rock-uplift patterns
104 observed along the Alpine arc.

105

106 **OLIGOCENE-MIOCENE EVOLUTION OF THE ALPS**

107 The main Alpine collisional phase started at ca. 35 Ma, with the rapid development of
108 mountainous topography, major drainage reorganization (Lu et al., 2018), and onset
109 of sediment production on both the pro- (northern) and retro- (southern) sides of the
110 orogen (Kuhlemann et al., 2002; Fox et al., 2016). Sedimentary basins surrounding
111 the European Alps offer a crucial archive to reconstruct the evolution of sediment
112 yield during mountain building. The main challenges when using sediment records as
113 proxies for long-term erosion history are (1) sediment preservation and possible re-
114 mobilization after deposition or the recycling of sedimentary rocks during orogenesis,
115 (2) changes in the river drainage patterns (i.e. inferred link between sediment deposits
116 and original relief sources), and (3) chemical erosion and the importance of dissolved
117 load in the total erosion budget. Figure 2A presents a compilation of erosion products
118 for the European Alps (Kuhlemann et al., 2002), showing two main periods in the
119 sediment yield history (35-15 Ma and 15-0 Ma, Fig. 2A). There is a significant
120 increase in sediment yield between ca. 30 and 25 Ma, reflecting topographic building
121 and relief development allowing the onset of active geomorphic processes and
122 efficient sediment production. Between 25 and 15 Ma, sediment yields remained high
123 and have been punctuated by short pulses which are proposed to reflect changes in
124 tectonic forcing and movements of the drainage divide (Kuhlemann et al., 2002). The
125 mobility of the drainage divide is also evidenced by antagonistic trends in sediment
126 discharge between the Northern and Southern Alps. This 25-15 Ma period is
127 considered the main tectonic constructional phase of the European Alps (especially
128 for the Eastern Alps). The 15-5 Ma phase is characterized by a significant decrease in
129 sediment yield just before 15 Ma for both the Western/Central and Eastern Alps,
130 followed by steady sediment flux for the Western and Central Alps. For the Eastern

131 Alps, a minor increasing trend can be observed during the mid-Miocene. Finally, the
132 most striking observation from Kuhlemann et al. (2002) is the significant increasing
133 trend beginning at ca. 5 Ma (Miocene/Pliocene transition, Fig. 2A), observed for the
134 entire European Alps but apparently more important for the Western and Central
135 Alps.
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138 **Figure 2.** Erosion & Sediment Fluxes. (A) Late-Cenozoic sediment budgets for the Eastern
139 and Western/Central (including Southern) Alps, after Kuhlemann et al. (2002). (B)
140 Exhumation of Western (thick colored lines) and Central (dashed colored lines) Alps,
141 extracted from geometric reconstruction of bedrock thermochronometric isoages (Vernon et
142 al., 2008). Note the overall increase trend (grey envelope) in exhumation since ca. 5 Ma,
143 similar to sediment yield trends shown in (A). (C) Spatial distribution of Alpine exhumation
144 from linear inversion of thermochronometric data. 12-10 Ma (left) and 2-0 Ma (right) time
145 windows are presented for illustration of the temporal variability (insets show temporal
146 resolution for each time window). Black lines indicate main Alpine massifs and tectonic
147 lineaments (Schmid et al., 2004). Based on Fox et al. (2016).
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149 Sediment yield records indicate that Alpine orogeny has experienced major changes
150 in topographic and erosion histories. However, given the large-scale spatial
151 integration of sediment records, assessing the spatio-temporal patterns in erosion at
152 massif scale has remained challenging. Thermochronometry records the time since a
153 rock passed through an effective closure temperature, and can provide a direct
154 quantification of rock exhumation towards Earth's surface driven by erosion and
155 tectonic unroofing. In addition, the thermal field of the upper crust is also sensitive to
156 rock uplift and surface topography (i.e. amplitude and wavelength). Low-temperature
157 thermochronometry (apatite and zircon thermochronometers, i.e. with closure
158 temperatures <250 °C) can be used to quantify rock exhumation, at a timescale
159 provided by the respective rock cooling ages. Detrital thermochronometry, from
160 modern river sediments or past sediment records, provides an integrated overview of
161 Alpine long-term erosion. Despite fragmentary records for the early construction
162 stages, detrital thermochronometry confirms erosion pulses during the Oligocene but
163 suggests an overall steady erosion over the European Alps since ca. 15 Ma at rates of
164 $0.1\text{-}0.4$ km Ma^{-1} (Bernet et al., 2001). Within this apparent steady setting, detrital
165 thermochronometry has also revealed major changes in sediment provenance that
166 reflect re-organization of river drainage patterns for the Eastern Alps (around 20 Ma)
167 and Western/Central Alps (around 13-10 Ma), in agreement with sediment records
168 (Kuhlemann et al., 2002).

169 Bedrock thermochronometry provides direct quantification of erosion and topographic
170 history. Since the 1970's, over 3000 bedrock cooling ages (including multi-
171 thermochronometers) have been acquired across the Alps, providing dense datasets
172 for extracting exhumation patterns in space and time (Vernon et al., 2008; Fox et al.,
173 2016). Bedrock thermochronometry suggests early onset of erosion in the Eastern
174 Alps (Tauern window and Austroalpine units) and Southern Alps (Bergell and
175 Adamello massifs), with Early- to mid-Miocene erosion pulses linked to tectonic
176 shortening and crustal thickening, followed by overall moderate erosion magnitudes
177 since the mid-Miocene. A Late-Miocene erosion increase has also been documented
178 for the Southern Alps, while this has not been observed with bedrock
179 thermochronometry in the Eastern Alps. In the Western and Central Alps,
180 thermochronometric data highlight exhumation contrasts, with mid-Miocene erosion
181 onset linked to the exhumation of the External Crystalline Massifs (Aar-Gotthard,
182 Mont-Blanc, Belledonne-Pelvoux; Schmid et al., 2004) and within more internal parts

183 of the orogen (Leontine Dome), followed by an apparent major increase in erosion
184 during the Late Miocene (Fig. 2B). This ca. 5-Ma erosion signal, similar to the
185 sediment record (Fig. 2A), has raised long-lasting discussions about the potential
186 contributions of tectonics *vs.* climate in late-stage erosion dynamics of the European
187 Alps. For the Western and Central Alps, both hypotheses have been postulated with
188 an orogen response to (1) a climate shift at the Miocene-Pliocene transition, with
189 enhanced climatic variability and possibly increased precipitation favoring efficient
190 geomorphic processes and sediment production/export (e.g. Vernon et al., 2008), (2)
191 deep-seated geodynamic processes such as lithospheric slab detachment (e.g. Fox et
192 al., 2015). For the Eastern Alps, limited post-Miocene rock uplift and erosion has
193 been documented, although not recorded by thermochronometry, and related to
194 changes in regional tectonics (i.e. inversion of Pannonian Basin; e.g. Ruzkiczay-
195 Rüdiger et al., 2020 and references therein).

196 Recent numerical developments in thermal(-kinematic) models and inversion
197 approaches (e.g. Fox et al., 2016; Fig. 2C) have allowed researchers to include multi-
198 thermochronometers for assessing bedrock erosion histories. For the Western and
199 Central Alps, these methods have revealed a more complex erosion framework. There
200 is evidence for mid-Miocene onset of high erosion rates (Fig. 2C) with tectonic uplift
201 from crustal thickening, but also for a subsequent decrease in erosion towards the Late
202 Miocene-Early Pliocene. Temporal erosion trends from bedrock thermochronometry
203 (Fig. 2C) and sediment yield records (Fig. 2A) slightly differ for the Late Miocene.
204 The progressive exhumation and exposure of crystalline and highly-resistant rocks at
205 this time could have caused an overall decrease in bedrock erosion (lower erodibility)
206 while increasing the relative abundance of crystalline clasts (better preservation) in
207 the sediment record. Finally, inversion of bedrock thermochronometry reveals a major
208 increase in erosion since ca. 2 Ma (Fig. 2C) for the Western/Central Alps, although
209 the resolution of both current thermochronometric data and imaging of the Earth's
210 interior via inversion of seismic data cannot be used to distinguish between either
211 tectonics *or* climate forcing, nor to recognize feedbacks triggering this erosion
212 increase (Fox et al., 2015).

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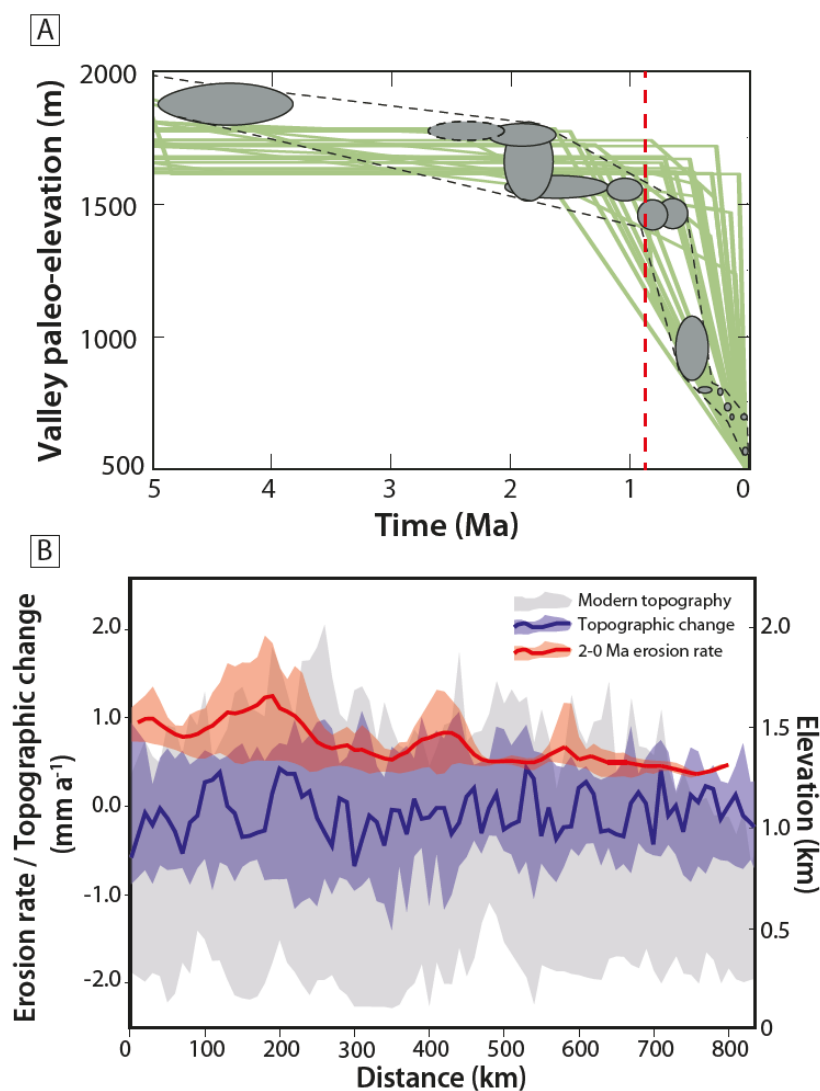
214 **ALPINE TOPOGRAPHY & PLIOCENE-QUATERNARY GLACIATION**

215 Alpine landscapes present typical glacial landforms with glacial cirques, U-shaped
216 wide, steep and deep valleys (Fig. 1B), but also "hidden" landscape features such as

217 overdeepnings which form major lakes and sediment infills in the present-day
218 topography. Although the Quaternary geomorphic imprint of glacial erosion is
219 obvious, key questions remain regarding its timing, magnitude and spatial variability.
220 Is landscape transition from fluvial to glacial landforms a rapid process that occurred
221 during the early glaciations? How variable are spatial patterns and rates in glacial
222 erosion between different glacial periods? Are fluvial features (such as inner gorges
223 and hanging valleys) markers of post-glacial landscape re-adjustment or do they
224 evolve through multiple glacial/interglacial cycles? Numerical outcomes suggest that
225 glacial erosion in the Western/Central Alps has propagated from low to high
226 elevations during the successive glacial periods, as the landscape evolved from fluvial
227 to glacial conditions (Sternai et al., 2013). However, quantifying via observations the
228 impact of Plio-Quaternary glaciation on Alpine erosion and topography has remained
229 difficult due to (1) the relatively short timescales involved (1-2 Ma for the Quaternary
230 and 10-100 ka for individual glacial/interglacial cycles) compared to the current
231 resolution of thermochronometric methods, and (2) the preservation of, and/or access
232 to, continuous sedimentary records or geomorphic markers for individual glaciations.
233 For the European Alps, the onset of major glaciation follows the Northern
234 Hemisphere glaciation (ca. 3 Ma), with a major environmental and stratigraphic
235 change reported at ca. 0.9 Ma (e.g. Muttoni et al., 2003). Previous Plio-Quaternary
236 glacial phases would have been of limited extent, leaving only scarce sediment
237 records in the internal parts of the Alpine massifs. The mid-Pleistocene transition
238 (MPT, ca. 1.2 Ma) promoted global climate change with the switch from low-
239 amplitude short (symmetric 40-ka) to high-amplitude long (asymmetric 100-ka)
240 glacial/interglacial cycles. For the European Alps, this MPT change would have
241 resulted in the development of extensive and long-lasting glaciers that reached the
242 Alpine forelands (Muttoni et al., 2003).

243 In the Western/Central Alps, there is quantitative evidence for the impact of glaciation
244 on Alpine topography (Fig. 3A). In the Swiss Central Alps, Haeuselmann et al. (2007)
245 have used cosmogenic $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$ dating of buried cave sediments to quantify the Aare
246 valley deepening with respect to the cave system. Dating results show two valley
247 deepening periods over the Plio-Quaternary, with limited deepening (at $\sim 0.1 \text{ km Ma}^{-1}$)
248 until ca. 0.9 Ma followed by abrupt valley deepening (at $>1 \text{ km Ma}^{-1}$). In the upper
249 Rhône valley (Swiss Western Alps), Valla et al. (2011) used apatite $^4\text{He}/^3\text{He}$
250 thermochronometry to quantify the late-stage bedrock cooling along the valley flank.

251 Using geothermal constraints and thermal-kinematic modeling, their results highlight
252 a quiescent erosion phase during Plio-Quaternary followed by subsequent valley
253 incision (i.e. topographic change by spatially-focused erosion) at 1 km Ma^{-1} since ca.
254 1 Ma (Fig. 3A). These outcomes not only point towards a major erosional shift since
255 around 1 Ma for the Western/Central Alps, but also reveal a topographic change with
256 significant relief increase that is interpreted as glacial valley deepening. Such a
257 topographic response to glaciation has not been observed or with limited magnitude
258 for the Eastern and Southern Alps, despite similar glacial landforms with deep and
259 wide U-shaped valleys (Sternai et al., 2012). Pre-glacial topographic reconstructions
260 have been attempted using different methods, such as the geophysical relief approach
261 (Champagnac et al., 2014) or by computing a steady-state fluvial topography (Sternai
262 et al., 2012) with subsequent modifications by glacial processes. Although these
263 models rely on a number of untestable (but plausible) assumptions (e.g. constant
264 drainage network throughout the Quaternary), they provide useful first-order
265 estimates for evaluating glacial topographic changes in the European Alps (Fig. 3B)
266 and the associated isostatic response to non-steady erosional unloading (Fig. 5).
267 Moreover, these results raise new contradictory observations and questions:
268 topographic changes appear similar to slightly more pronounced for the Eastern Alps
269 (Fig. 3B) than in the Western and Central Alps, whereas bedrock thermochronometry
270 suggests significantly different trends for long-term erosion (Figs. 2C and 3B). Such
271 observations cannot be explained by horizontal shortening, which has been limited in
272 the Western/Central Alps and is ongoing in the Eastern Alps. One alternative
273 mechanism could be the occurrence of deep geodynamic forcing (e.g. sub-lithospheric
274 mantle flow) sustaining relatively high steady erosion in the Western and Central Alps
275 compared to the Eastern Alps (Fox et al., 2015; Sternai et al., 2019). The observed
276 differences (Fig. 3B) between Plio-Quaternary erosion estimates and Quaternary
277 topographic changes would call for further research to quantify the respective
278 contributions from “steady” (i.e. driven by rock uplift) erosion and “non-steady”
279 topographic evolution of the European Alps.
280



281

282 **Figure 3.** Plio-Quaternary Erosion & Relief Development. (A) Paleo-elevation (proxy for
283 valley incision) of the Aare (dating of cave sediments, grey ellipses and black dashed lines;
284 Haeuselmann et al., 2007) and Rhône (bedrock low-temperature thermochronometry,
285 converted into valley floor paleo-elevations using thermal-kinematic modeling, green lines;
286 Valla et al., 2011) valleys. Red dashed line indicates onset of major Alpine glaciation from
287 stratigraphic evidence (Po River Basin; Muttoni et al., 2003). (B) Swath (see Fig. 1B for
288 location) profiles of modern topography (Fig. 1B, grey envelope), 2-0 Ma erosion rate (Fig.
289 2C, red line and envelope) and topographic change over the last 1 Ma (Sternai et al., 2012;
290 blue line and envelope).

291

292 **MODERN ROCK UPLIFT AND EROSION: CAUSES AND IMPLICATIONS**

293 The modern European Alps are characterized by limited shortening in the Western
294 and Central Alps, and by ongoing active shortening in the Eastern Alps. In contrast,
295 geodetic (leveling, GPS/GNSS) rock-uplift rates, averaged over the last 10 to 100

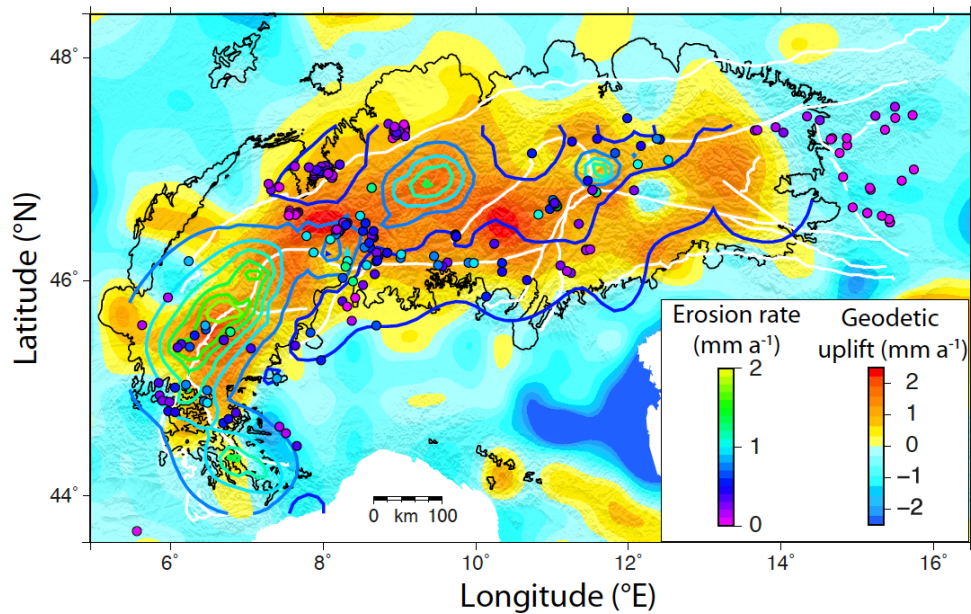
296 years, are highest in the Western and Central Alps (up to around 2 mm a⁻¹, Fig. 5;
297 Nocquet et al., 2016; Sternai et al., 2019). What is driving the observed spatial
298 patterns of rock uplift in the European Alps? Erosion rates have been invoked to
299 explain these rock-uplift patterns, but their spatial and temporal quantification is
300 required to recognize whether the European Alps are actually experiencing or not
301 surface uplift.

302 Modern erosion for the European Alps has been estimated using sediment yield (river
303 and reservoir gauges; Hinderer et al., 2013) and cosmogenic ¹⁰Be (riverine sediments,
304 Delunel et al., 2020) for the main drainage basins across the Alps. Modern sediment
305 yield data cover the last decades and combine physical and chemical erosion. The
306 spatial distribution of modern Alpine erosion shows a ~3 fold difference in erosion
307 between the Western/Central Alps and the Eastern Alps, which is interpreted as
308 reflecting enhanced chemical erosion of carbonate sedimentary rocks that are
309 abundant in the external mountainous parts of the Western/Central Alps (Hinderer et
310 al., 2013). Cosmogenic ¹⁰Be-derived erosion yields millennial integration timescales
311 and presents similar patterns, with higher erosion in the Western/Central Alps (~2-3
312 fold difference, Fig. 4) compared to the Eastern Alps. Moreover, both erosion datasets
313 show no evidence for a modern climatic control (i.e. present-day precipitation
314 patterns) on the spatial erosion distribution, but they rather reveal a significant
315 slope/relief control on erosion which reflects intense glacial pre-conditioning of the
316 Alpine topography as well as ongoing glacier retreat (Hinderer et al., 2013; Delunel et
317 al., 2020). Millennial to modern erosion patterns indeed follow an expected
318 geomorphic response since the last glacial maximum (ca. 20 ka ago), characterized by
319 high post-glacial erosion rates and transient hillslope and fluvial topographic re-
320 adjustment. It remains debated how long landscapes take to switch from glacial to
321 fluvial conditions, and this response may take multiple interglacial periods (e.g.
322 Montgomery and Korup, 2010; Leith et al., 2018).

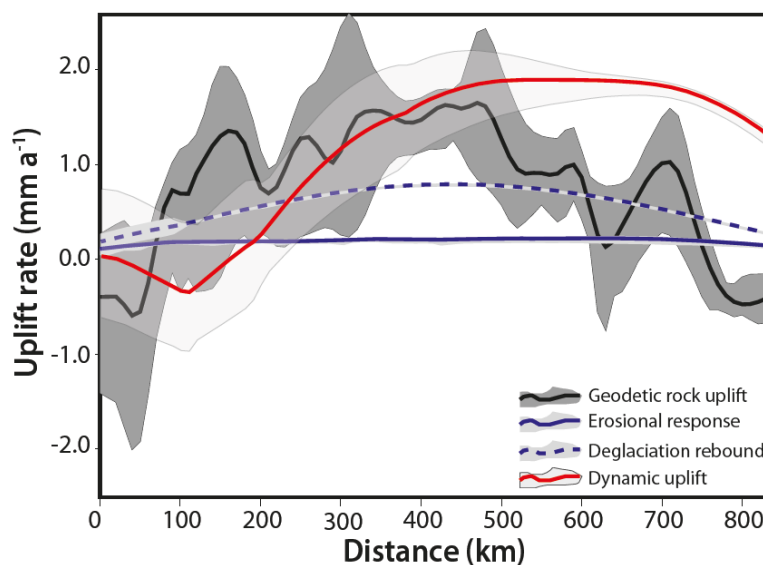
323 Both modern geodetic rock-uplift rates and erosion-rate patterns (derived from
324 sediment yield and cosmogenic ¹⁰Be) present a similar increasing trend from the
325 Western to Central Alps followed by a decrease towards the Eastern Alps, suggesting
326 the existence of a functional relationship, with the proposed hypothesis of erosion-
327 driven rock uplift for the European Alps (Champagnac et al., 2009). However, while
328 patterns do correlate, modern erosion rates are generally lower than modern rock-
329 uplift rates (Fig. 4), implying that the isostatic response to erosional mass removal

330 cannot explain all the observed rock-uplift rates. This discrepancy may result from the
331 different spatial and temporal scales covered by erosion and rock-uplift datasets,
332 which can be problematic when extrapolating yearly to decadal sediment yield,
333 climatic data and geodetic rock-uplift estimates to thousand-year timescales which are
334 representative of cosmogenic ^{10}Be -derived erosion rates. An alternative explanation
335 for the observed discrepancy between modern rock-uplift and erosion patterns, if any
336 relationship between them should exist, could be that modern rock uplift integrates
337 different external or internal contributions along the European Alps (Sternai et al.,
338 2019). In Figure 5, we evaluate the spatial patterns of both the modern geodetic uplift
339 and the respective contributions of external (i.e. deglaciation rebound and erosion-
340 induced elastic adjustment) and internal (dynamic uplift from mantle flow) forcing
341 mechanisms. These estimates are based on various assumptions, such as the sub-
342 lithospheric mantle viscosity and lateral/depth variations, the timing and spatial
343 variability in deglaciation or the importance of topographic change vs. steady
344 background erosion for erosional unloading across the European Alps (see extended
345 discussion in Sternai et al., 2019). For the Eastern Alps, the combination of erosional
346 response and deglaciation rebound (external forcing) matches the geodetically-
347 measured uplift, suggesting isostatic adjustment could be the only mechanism for
348 uplift in this region. However, this scenario is unlikely since (1) the Eastern Alps are
349 still experiencing shortening and associated tectonic uplift, as also suggested by local
350 examples of inversion tectonics since ca. 3 Ma (e.g. Ruzkiczay-Rüdiger et al., 2020);
351 in addition, (2) mantle upwelling below and sediment loading within the Pannonian
352 Basin are likely to involve, respectively, dynamic uplift and subsidence in the Eastern
353 Alps (Fig. 5). Modern limited rock uplift in the Eastern Alps thus appears to us as the
354 result of a combination of opposing forcings. For the Western and Central Alps, the
355 isostatic response to deglaciation and erosional unloading contributes up to around
356 50% of the observed geodetic rock uplift (Fig. 5). Given the limited tectonic
357 shortening occurring in these regions, deeper mechanisms involving lithospheric and
358 sub-lithospheric mantle flow (and related dynamic uplift) must be at play. Convective
359 processes from lithospheric slab detachment below the Western Alps are particularly
360 debated (Lippitsch et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2016), since the occurrence, timing and
361 spatial extent of such event(s) are still poorly constrained. For the Central Alps, the
362 sub-lithospheric mantle flow contribution to rock uplift appears significant (Fig. 5),

363 and can explain the high observed rock-uplift rates (up to 2 mm a^{-1}) when combined
364 with the isostatic adjustments to external forcing.
365



366
367 **Figure 4.** Modern Rock Uplift & Erosion. Spatial distribution (30-km resolution) of modern
368 geodetic rock uplift (Sternai et al., 2019) over decadal timescales. Colored circles are
369 catchment outlets for cosmogenic ^{10}Be -derived erosion estimates over millennial timescales
370 (Delunel et al., 2020). Colored lines are 2-0 Ma erosion estimates from linear inversion of
371 thermochronometric data (Fox et al., 2016). Black and white lines are LGM ice extent and
372 major Alpine tectonic lineaments, respectively.
373



374
375 **Figure 5.** Modern Geodetic Uplift & Potential Uplift Contributions. Swath (see Fig. 1B for
376 location) profiles of modern geodetic rock uplift (Fig. 4, black line and dark-grey envelope),

377 external (erosional adjustment from topographic changes and deglaciation rebound, blue plain
378 and dashed lines respectively with grey envelopes; Sternai et al., 2012; Spada et al., 2009) and
379 internal (dynamic uplift, red line and light-grey envelope; Zhao et al., 2016) forcing
380 mechanisms. The different contributions are sourced from Sternai et al. (2019).

381

382 **SUMMARY & OUTLOOK**

383 Our review of Late-Cenozoic evolution of the European Alps is based on different
384 methodologies, ranging from sediment yield analyses (modern and past records),
385 geochronology (mainly low-temperature thermochronometry and terrestrial
386 cosmogenic nuclides) and geodesy or geophysics combined with numerical modeling.
387 This method diversity allows us to assess the different spatial and temporal scales
388 involved with Alpine erosion and topographic evolution. The existing data show a
389 complex spatio-temporal evolution of the European Alps, with onset of topographic
390 construction in the Early Oligocene, and significant tectonic controls on erosion and
391 topographic building via crustal thickening and drainage pattern changes until the
392 mid-Miocene. Plio-Quaternary erosion and topographic evolution appear to be
393 controlled by climatically-driven geomorphic processes, with major glaciation impact
394 on topography since ca. 1 Ma in the Western and Central Alps, but apparently not in
395 the Eastern Alps. In addition, there is a spatial contrast in both modern erosion and
396 geodetic rock uplift between the Western/Central and Eastern Alps. This strongly
397 suggests that the late-stage evolution of the European Alps is reflecting the interplay
398 between external (climate) and internal (solid Earth) mechanisms. Future studies need
399 to provide higher resolution in thermochronometric data for late-stage erosion of
400 slowly-eroding regions, where current data only provide average erosion histories
401 over long periods. This will be possible with the recent development of very low-
402 temperature thermochronometers. In addition, further geomorphic markers and
403 sediment archives need to be investigated and dated to improve the existing
404 chronology for the progressive (or not) Alpine topographic evolution and for glacier
405 fluctuations (timing and extent) during previous glacial/interglacial cycles of the Plio-
406 Quaternary. Such improvements would provide a quantitative framework for the
407 recent erosion history of the Alps, which is required to estimate the isostatic response
408 to erosional unloading, considering both steady background erosion and topographic
409 changes, in addition to deglaciation. Finally, sub-lithospheric mantle flow and
410 potential slab detachment are likely to contribute to the modern geodetic rock uplift.

411 Higher-resolution tomographic models would provide important information for
412 further constraining these contributions across the European Alps.

413

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