

Relationships between fluvial evolution and karstification related to climatic, tectonic and eustatic forcing in temperate regions

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1	Relationships between fluvial evolution and karstification related to climatic, tectonic
2	and eustatic forcing in temperate regions
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21	Abstract
22	This paper reviews the diversity of relationships between river evolution and karstogenesis. It
23	also underlines the fundamental role of numerical dating methods (e.g. cosmogenic nuclides)
24	applied to sedimentary sequences in tiered cave passages as they have provided new insights
25	into these complex interactions. Although karst terrain is widespread worldwide, we focus on
26	European karst catchments, where the sedimentary records are especially well preserved. We
27	review the recent dating of fluvial sediments and speleothems, to examine the timing of

karstification, incision and deposition in cave levels. The most complete alluvial records occur in tectonically uplifted high mountains where some of the oldest sediment fills date to the Miocene. Evidence indicates that not only uplift, but also climatic conditions and fluvial dynamics (e.g. knickpoint retreat, increased channel flow and/or sediment load, and stream piracies) can play a major role in speleogenesis and geomorphological evolution. In evaporite rocks, speleogenesis is characterized by rapid dissolution and subsidence. In European catchments, gypsum cave development largely occurred during cold climate periods, while

- 35 limestone caves formed during warm interglacial or interstadial phases. Our synthesis is used 36 to propose four models of fluvial and karst evolution, and highlight perspectives for further 37 research.
- 38

Keys words: karst, speleogenesis, valley incision, aggradation, base level, cave level, phreatic
 cave, cosmogenic nuclide dating

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42 1. Introduction: links between karst and fluvial systems

- 43 **1.1. Conditions and processes of karstification**
- 44

45 Karst terrain is characterised by underground drainage networks and (sub)surface features such 46 as dolines, polies, sinkholes, and caves (Palmer, 2007). It is typical of regions of limestone, 47 evaporite and marble bedrock, but also develops in siliceous (sandstones and quartzites) and 48 other metamorphic rocks (Ford & Williams, 1989; Bigot & Audra, 2010). According to Ford 49 and Williams (1989), karst is globally present in all climate domains, but the widest areas of 50 karstified terrain are in the limestone and evaporite regions of Europe and Asia (Figure 1). 51 Karstification is the process of water infiltration and dissolution, mainly through chemical 52 mechanisms, involving the presence of water and carbonic acid. This definition implies strong 53 links between karst and fluvial activity, especially for epigenetic speleogenesis which involves 54 the vertical organization of 'three karstic horizons' (Mangin, 1975; Audra & Palmer, 2013): the 55 infiltration of water at the surface; the flow of water through karstified limestones or evaporites; 56 and the emergence of water from karst conduits at the valley bottom (Ek, 1961; Delannoy, 57 1997; Audra, 2010, Figure 2A, 2B). Water flow, and resulting sediment transport, along the 58 three 'karstic horizons' (Mangin, 1975) means that subaerial fluvial forms such as terraces, 59 often contain only generalized records of palaeo-base and cave levels. Therefore, the core topic 60 of this contribution focuses on the combined analysis of surface alluvial sequences and 61 subterranean (endokarst) geomorphology and sediment fills, which produces more complete 62 reconstructions of palaeofluvial activity in karst settings.

63

In karst regions, alluvium is often well-preserved in endokarstic cavities. The most distinctive endokarstic features are the horizontal tubes that form in the saturated zone: syngenetic and paragenetic galleries, the latter of which form upward to the water table (e.g. Ford & Williams, 1989; Quinif, 1989). These features correspond to periods of base level stability in the fluvial system. In contrast, meandering canyons and vadose shafts form in the unsaturated zone, and 69 may be correlated to incision in the adjacent valleys (Audra & Palmer, 2011). The transition 70 from phreatic to vadose conditions produces keyhole (T-form) features, and the reshaping of 71 previously enlarged passages and narrow and deep underground canyons during river 72 entrenchment phases.

73

74 In limestone karst, cave formation occurs due to the dissolution of bedrock by unsaturated water 75 containing carbonic acid (from CO₂) (Palmer, 1991). The maximal denudation rates in the 76 temperate zone occur in the wetter oceanic regions (even in wet subarctic areas), such as in 77 Chilean Patagonia (100 mm/ka, Hobléa *et al.*, 2001) or in the Vercors, French subalpine chains 78 (120-170 mm/ka, Delannoy, 1982), and primarily depend on the amount of precipitation 79 (Palmer, 1991). Under interglacial and interstadial conditions, forest soils are well-developed, 80 and these can be an especially aggressive dissolution agent (Ford & Williams, 1989; Quinif, 81 2006). White (1988) highlighted the existence of thresholds in the development of cave 82 passages. First, a laminar flow regime produces micro-caves (diameter: 5-10 mm) during an 83 initiation phase of 3-5 ka. Then, turbulent flow can shape 1-3 m conduits within a few thousand 84 years during a phase of enlargement. In high alpine mountains, where high precipitation and 85 acidic forest soils mean that cave development can be especially rapid, wide conduits (from 1 86 to 10 m) can appear in a few hundred years (Ford & Williams, 1989).

87

88 The propagation of groundwater through a karst system is largely determined by its structural 89 framework (Ford & Williams, 1989). In limestone, only planes of penetrable fissures (e.g. 90 bedding planes, stratification joints, faults) have sufficient permeability. In rocks with greater 91 fracturation, permeability is higher due to decreased anisotropy (Bazalgette & Petit, 2005). For 92 example, in folded rocks that have been subjected to tectonic stresses, fissure frequency and 93 therefore permeability, is generally higher (Ford & Williams, 1989). Fissure frequency also 94 increases over time, in relation to solvent water infiltration (Gabrovšek et al., 2014) and rock 95 decompression due to valley entrenchment. These structural controls on subterranean 96 morphology also explain the existence of caves in non karstified areas: opened faults, 97 underground collapse structures, or caves shaped in impervious rocks. For example, the Verna 98 cave (Pyrenees, the biggest cave chamber in France), is mainly situated in Carboniferous 99 sandstone and shales (Gilli, 2010). In general, geomorphological maps of karstified areas show 100 parallel horizontal passages, aligned with the main regional fractures (Losson, 2003) and, 101 sometimes, a gridded cave network of intersecting, fracture-controlled fissures (Palmer, 1991; 102 Audra & Palmer, 2011). However, fluvial geometry can develop independently of structural

103 controls, such as in the Eastern Paris Basin, where rivers are superimposed on the Mesozoic
104 strata (Le Roux & Harmand, 1998, 2003).

105

106 **1.2. Types of cave sedimentary fill**

107

108 Cave deposits are highly variable in their origin and characteristics, and include allochthonous 109 and autochthonous sediments which can be broadly categorized as coarse and fine-grained 110 clastic sediments, and carbonate precipitates. The most common cave formations are the coarse 111 clastic deposits of the entrance facies. In the glaciated parts of Europe and North America much 112 of this clastic material is derived from glacial till and deglacial sediments (Granger et al., 2001). 113 In non-glaciated areas, clastic deposits are the result of bedrock breakdown and decompression 114 close to the valley sides as well as cryoclastic processes at the cave entrance (Campy, 1982). 115 Cryoclastic sediments can include palaeontological and/or archaeological remains, such as in 116 the "Belle-Roche" cave, developed in the Carboniferous limestone of the Amblève valley (Ardenne massif, E. Belgium; Cordy et al., 1993; Rixhon et al., 2014). There, the archaeo-117 118 palaeotolongical layers overlie basal Amblève gravels, indicative of a palaeovalley floor 119 position (Rixhon & Demoulin, 2010). The presence of such coarse sediments, deposited by high 120 energy flows, generally indicate a period of enhanced fluvial activity in the cave environment 121 (Ford & Williams, 1989).

122

123 Secondary carbonates are formed by the dissolution of calcium carbonate in the karst bedrock 124 and its reprecipitation, producing features such as tufa, travertine, and speleothems (Couchoud, 125 2008). These precipitates develop in association with prevailing environmental conditions, and reflect changes in water percolation, evaporation and degassing. They can therefore provide 126 127 valuable records of palaeoclimate, palaeoecology, and palaeogeomorphology - since tufa and travertine cap palaeoland surfaces. Moreover, they can be dated by radiocarbon (¹⁴C) and 128 129 Uranium-series (U-series) methods. Speleothems in particular can provide very high temporal 130 resolution palaeoclimatic data due to their banded nature. Tufa and travertine (sensu lato) are 131 more complex, and can form in multiple, superimposed horizons or tiered steps of different 132 ages (Ford & Williams, 1989).

133

134 **1.3. Markers of Pleistocene valleys evolution**

135

136 Many studies have thoroughly discussed the relationships between karst terrain and catchment 137 sediment flux, incision and aggradation (Benito et al., 1998, 2010; Granger & Palmer, 2001; Jaillet et al., 2004; Mocochain et al., 2009; Audra & Palmer, 2011; Guifang et al., 2011; Calvet 138 139 et al., 2015; Columbu et al., 2015). During the Pleistocene, karst evolution was conditioned by 140 climatically-driven cycles of river incision and aggradation, operating over 41 ka and 100 ka 141 timescales (Bridgland & Westaway, 2007). In most cases, cave levels formed following 142 entrenchment of rivers into limestone rocks, lowering the piezometric level. Incision into 143 preexisting alluvium and the substratum occurred either during warm-cold (e.g. karst of N 144 France; Antoine, 1994) or cold-warm transitional periods (e.g. British karst; Bridgland & 145 Westaway, 2007; Lewin & Gibbard, 2010). Aggradation occurred chiefly during cold periods, 146 characterised by massive deposition of gravel and sand,. Evidence of other cold climate 147 indicators, such as ice-rafted blocks, ice wedges, and cryoturbation, have also been identified 148 in karst alluvial sequences. River gravels at the valley bottom (e.g. Antoine et al., 2006) or 149 terraces (e.g. Bridgland et al., 2009) are sometimes covered by interglacial or interstadial 150 alluvial silt, soils, peat, and tufa.

151

Evidence of progressive stacking of alluvial sequences indicates the raising of cave level (Audra & Palmer, 2011), while fill-in-fill terraces imply a succession of lowering and raising of base and caves levels. At the valley scale, Pleistocene uplift generates tiered terraces provided that progressive vertical fluvial incision was accompanied by lateral erosion due to channel migration (Lewin & Gibbard, 2010). In karst areas where only few remnants of strath terraces are preserved along deeply-incised canyons, only infilled caves can be used to precisely reconstruct the evolution of Pleistocene valley entrenchment (Audra *et al.*, 2001).

159 In karstic fluvial settings, sediment sources, transportation and deposition characteristics vary 160 in accordance with Quaternary environmental changes. On the one hand during glacial and 161 periglacial periods, enhanced sediment mobilization means that clastic sediment can become 162 trapped in caves and karst depressions (Audra et al., 2001; Audra, Ed, 2010; Rixhon et al., 163 2014; Calvet et al., 2015). In areas covered by ice-sheets, sedimentation ceases. On the other 164 hand, during interstadial, interglacial, and postglacial climates, tufa, travertine, and speleothems generally developed as a result of prolonged valley floor stability (Delannoy, 1997; Frank et 165 166 al., 2006; Limondin-Lozouet et al., 2006; Couchoud, 2008).

167

168 Endokarstic alluvial deposits thus have the potential to offer a valuable record of Quaternary 169 river system evolution. However, fragmentary nature of endokarstic deposits, and their 170 integration with other sedimentary records over different timescales are two key issues that 171 need to be addressed. Can endokarstic fluvial deposits be reliably integrated with other alluvial 172 records to produce a model of Quaternary valley evolution? Can we combine records from 173 fragmentary time slices into the same landscape evolution model (valley terraces, isolated 174 endokarstic remnants, tiered passages in karst massifs)?

175

176 This paper presents a synthesis of recent research in European karst river systems (where 177 appropriate, we also refer to well-studied non-European karst settings), developed within the 178 modern temperate climate zone (Fig.1). It considers multiple spatial scales, from localized cave 179 deposits to regional palaeoenvironmental reconstructions. It also discusses climatic, glacial, 180 tectonic, isostatic, and eustatic forcing on karstogenesis (lowered sea level causes rejuvenation 181 of karst processes, and subsequent raised sea level generates successive cave levels in systems 182 fluvially linked to coastal locations), as well as the increasing application of dating methods on 183 alluvial sediments in karst terrains, such as U-series, terrestrial cosmogenic nuclide (TCN) and ¹⁴C. We establish a typology of the relationships between speleogenesis and fluvial 184 185 incision/aggradation. Finally, we propose four conceptual models of karstic fluvial 186 development based on the reviewed literature.

187

We examine their Quaternary development which is influenced by periglacial and glacial processes in mountain settings. In glaciated areas, fluvial discharge would have been directly linked to glacier mass balance (see 4.3). In periglacial settings, river flow regime would have been strongly influenced by precipitation and temperature variability.

192

193 **2. Dating methods in karstic environments**

194

195 Until the 1980s and 1990s, relative dating techniques (notably palynology and 196 palaeomagnetism) were the primary methods used to estimate the age of fluvial deposits in karst 197 terrain (Ford & Williams, 1989). Several numerical dating methods, such as 198 thermoluminescence (TL, Huxtable and Aitken, 1991), uncalibrated radiocarbon (¹⁴C, Bastin 199 & Gewelt, 1986) and Uranium-series (U-series) in caves and river terrace calcrete were also 200 used (Ambert & Ambert, 1995). Advances in numerical dating methods during the last two 201 decades have allowed more robust chronologies to be developed (Couchoud, 2008; Richard et 202 al., 2015; Rixhon et al., 2016). Calibrated radiocarbon ages (cal ¹⁴C), optically stimulated 203 luminescence (OSL, e. g. Vernet et al., 2008), and electron spin resonance (ESR, e. g. Moreno

204 et al., 2012) techniques have become more widely applied. Terrestrial cosmogenic nuclide 205 (TCN) dating of karst environments, especially burial dating, has also greatly enhanced the 206 understanding of complex interactions between karst and fluvial systems (Granger et al., 1997). 207

208 2.1. Numerical methods to date tufa, travertine and fluvial calcrete

209

210 Secondary carbonates, such as tufa, travertine, calcrete and speleothem, have been widely used 211 to date landscape change in karst environments, most commonly using U-series methods (²³⁰Th/U, ²³¹Pa/²³⁸U, ²³⁴U/²³⁸U, ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U). At Pierre-la-Treiche, located along the entrenched 212 Mosel valley into the Bajocian limestones (NE France), U-series ages of speleothems in fossil 213 214 caves indicated that their growth was correlated to marine isotope stage (MIS) 6.5, 5.3, 3.3, 3.1, 215 and 1 (Losson et al., 2006). The U-series ages were used to identify several abrupt warming 216 phases during MIS 3 - a cold period recorded in the Greenland ice cores and in the Grande Pile 217 peat record from the Southern Vosges mountains, NE France (Pons-Branchu et al., 2010). U-218 series analysis of pedogenic and groundwater calcrete horizons has also been used to constrain 219 the timing of fluvial aggradation in karst settings such as the Sorbas basin of SE Spain (Candy 220 et al., 2015) and the limestone Orjen massif, western Montenegro (Adamson et al., 2014), 221 respectively.

222

223 A chronology based on multiple dating methods allows us to rigorously examine the 224 relationships between fluvial evolution and karstification, where tiered travertine steps increase 225 coherently with terrace age, or if there is a more complex terracing history involving cut-and-226 fil terraces, for example. A good example is the Tarn valley, near Millau (S France), where the 227 dating framework has been a matter of debate (Ambert & Ambert, 1995). Based on the 228 presumed ages of the travertine steps, the rate of incision of the Tarn Canyon was thought to be very low. However, recent OSL dating as well as palaeoecological and palaeontological 229 230 analyses showed that the majority of travertine steps (Peyre) formed during MIS 5e-5b (Vernet 231 *et al.*, 2008). This indicates that the incision rate in the Tarn valley has reached >30 cm/ka since 232 the deposition of the ~75 ka-old terrace 3 (MIS 5b-5a), located 25 m above the valley floor. Secondary carbonate-based chronologies can be used alongside stable oxygen (δ^{18} O) and 233 234 carbon (δ^{13} C) isotope ratio analysis to provide a record of interglacial climatic changes 235 (Dabkowski et al., 2011, 2016), such as interglacial tufas in France (e.g. La-Celle-sur-Seine, 236 Paris Region: MIS 11 and Caours, Somme Basin: MIS 5e) and pedogenic calcretes in Southeast 237 Spain (Adamson et al., 2015; Gázquez et al., 2016).

238

239 **2.2.** ²⁶Al/¹⁰Be burial dating of cave-deposited alluvium

240

241 Burial dating is based on the differential decay of at least two cosmogenic nuclides (Granger and Muzikar, 2001). Amongst them, the pair ²⁶Al/¹⁰Be is very well suited because: 1) both 242 243 nuclides are produced in quartz, 2) their production ratio is fundamentally independent of latitude and altitude, and 3) it varies only slightly with depth (Dunai, 2010). Burial dating is 244 245 useful in those settings where previously exposed quartz-bearing material (i.e. for ²⁶Al/¹⁰Be) 246 becomes shielded from cosmic rays. Two basic assumptions must be fulfilled for a fast and 247 complete burial (Granger and Muzikar, 2001). First, the time span over which incomplete 248 shielding occurs is much shorter than the subsequent burial duration. Second, shielded 249 sediments are buried deeply enough, i.e. in practice ≥ 30 m (rock equivalent mass), implying an 250 insignificant production through muons at depth. We refer to the comprehensive works of 251 Granger and Muzikar (2001), Dunai (2010) and Granger (2014) for further information about 252 the basic principles of burial dating, including mathematical developments.

253

254 In the fluvio-karstic context, the burial event is achieved when river sediments, formerly 255 exposed to cosmic rays at the Earth surface during hillslope denudation and fluvial transport, 256 are washed into an underground system. The two aforementioned prerequisites are frequently 257 met for in-cave deposited alluvium; the study of Granger *et al.* (2001) in Mammoth cave (i.e. 258 the longest cave system known in the world, developed in Mississipian limestones in the 259 Kentucky Appalachian Plateau) is one of the first successful applications of burial dating to 260 such sediments. Since then, quartz-bearing material deposited into different multi-level cave 261 systems by streams or rivers flowing into the sub-surface has been dated in a range of 262 tectonically-active (e.g. Stock et al., 2004) or moderately-uplifted (e.g. Anthony and Granger, 263 2007) settings. Inferring long-term river incision rates in these environments relies on the key 264 assumption that the alluvium deposited in a horizontal, hydrologically abandoned, phreatic tube 265 represents the last time the passage was at the local water table (Anthony and Granger, 2007). 266 The selection of suitable sampling sites should ensure that abandoned and alluvium-filled 267 phreatic tubes were not contaminated by any reworked material from an older (or younger) 268 depositional episode (Dunai, 2010). It is therefore recommended to sample sediment layers 269 displaying fluvial features or structures (Anthony and Granger, 2007) and/or where other 270 material allows a cross-check with an independent dating method (e.g. U-series dating of a 271 speleothem/flowstone sealing the fluvial sequence; Stock et al., 2005).

272

- 273 In Europe, this approach, sometimes used in combination with paleomagnetism and U-series 274 dating, was mostly applied to cave systems of mountainous environments: both in the Eastern 275 (Wagner et al., 2010; Häuselmann et al., 2015) and the Western Alps (Häuselmann et al., 2007; 276 Hobléa et al., 2011), and in the Pyrenees (Calvet et al., 2015). Three case studies exemplify the 277 value of burial dating of in-cave deposited alluvium to unravel long-term landscape evolution 278 in diverse karstic environments (Fig. 2). First, the Têt valley (Eastern Pyrennées, France) shows 279 nine karst levels, between 1400 to 400 m a.s.l., along its epigenetic fluvial gorge cut into the Devonian limestones of Villefranche de Conflent, with caves filled by sand and siliceous 280 281 pebbles (Calvet et al., 2015). Level 5 was dated from the lower Pliocene and level 3 from the 282 Early Pleistocene, allowing an estimate of an incision rate of ~52 m/Ma, with a clear 283 acceleration to 90 m/Ma for the last Ma. Level 3 is clearly linked to the upper terrace of the Têt 284 valley and all the lower cave levels and sublevels strongly correlate to the younger terrace 285 levels. Second, burial ages from different speleogenetic levels of the Siebenhengste-Hohgant 286 cave system (Aare catchment, Switzerland) revealed a remarkable increase of glacial valley 287 lowering since the beginning of the Middle Pleistocene, which substantially postdates the onset 288 of glaciation in this region (Häuselmann et al., 2007). This might be related to a considerable 289 lowering of the equilibrium line altitude and the transgression of threshold conditions beyond 290 which increase in glacial downcutting rates becomes nonlinear (Brocklehurst and Whipple, 291 2004). Third, burial ages coupled with magnetostratigraphy in multi-level cave systems along 292 the Ardèche valley indicated a stepwise karst genesis during the Plio-Pleistocene, consistent 293 with the *per ascensum* model of Mocochain *et al.* (2009), after the Messinian salinity crisis 294 (Tassy et al., 2013) especially, during the rise of sea level in the Lower Pliocene. These data 295 also highlighted an uplift rate of ~30 mm/ka since 1.8 Ma in the lower Ardèche area.
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297 2.3. Strengths and weaknesses of dating methods

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Each numerical dating technique has an upper age limit (e.g. U-series: c. 350 ka; OSL: c. 150-200 ka; ²⁶Al/¹⁰Be burial dating: c. 5.5 Ma) and associated analytical uncertainties. Ages obtained from adjacent karstic areas, or even within the same valley, can vary considerably. For example, in the Sierra of Atapuerca and the Arlanzón Valley (Moreno *et al.*, 2012) and in the upper Mosel catchment (Harmand & Cordier, 2012), TL, IRSL, ESR and U-series ages provided divergent results. In such instances, different ages may reliably represent spatial variations in uplift rates, river incision and karstification. However, it must be borne in mind that these dating methods provide age information about different processes of landscape evolution. Whereas burial ages give constraints about the last time the phreatic passage was at the local water table, U-series ages date the timing of calcite formation and thereby provide minimum ages of sediment deposition. A clear understanding of the chronostratigraphic framework is therefore essential. Detailed geochronological studies, using multiple dating methods, are required to reliably quantify rates of incision and karstification.

312

313 **3.** Approaches for examining drainage evolution in karstic terrains

314

315 The relationship between valley incision and karstification are summarized in Figure 3. Much 316 research has focused on the impacts of valley entrenchment on karst development, which can 317 in turn provide important insights into fluvial evolution. However, karst development can occur 318 independently of valley evolution, especially when dealing with the ghost-rock process (i.e. 319 rock transformation by self-volume chemical dissolution; Vergari & Quinif, 1997) or hypogene 320 karstification (i.e. dissolution and crystallization along ascending, often hydrothermal, flows; 321 Hill, 1987). A number of studies have highlighted the influence of karst terrain on valley 322 incision (Figure 3).

323

Analysis of the relationship between fluvial evolution and karstification requires a multiscale approach, evolving from the valley bottom to the karst, and from the karst to the valley. This review proposes a typology of relationships between karst and valley, depending on morphostructural framework, lithology, base level change, and climatic fluctuations (emphasizing the role of glaciers).

329

330 3.1. From the valley bottom to the karst: relationships between karst cave level and valley 331 base level

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Many studies have highlighted the relationships between base level or cave level and the regional evolution of river systems controlled by climatic, tectonic and/or eustatic forcing (Ambert & Ambert, 1995; Jaillet, 2000; Audra *et al.*, 2001; Losson, 2003; Harmand *et al.*, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2004; Mocochain *et al.*, 2009; Guifang *et al.*, 2011; Ortega *et al.*, 2013; Tassy *et al.*, 2013). As a result, it is well-established that karstic levels can provide valuable altitudinal markers, or 'dip sticks' for river incision. This is especially effective in mountain massifs where 339 local relief can exceed several kilometers, and multiple cave levels exist, therefore providing

- 340 long-term records of fluvial evolution since the Plio-Pleistocene.
- 341

342 Karst plays a major role in the formation and preservation of the fluvial sedimentary record. 343 Where alluvial sediments accumulated in karst depressions, they became more immune to 344 subsequent erosion and reworking (Delannoy, 1997; Audra et al., 2001). Ancient alluvium is 345 reported to have been preserved within karst settings since the Early Pleistocene (Wagner et al., 346 2010; Adamson et al., 2014; 2016); the Neogene (Hobléa et al., 2011; Calvet et al., 2015), the 347 Paleogene (Bruxelles et al., 2013) and even the Mesozoic (Vergari & Quinif, 1997), Palaeozoic 348 (Osborne, 2007) and Precambrian (Buffard & Fischer, 1993). The excellent preservation 349 potential of these records means that they are valuable archives of landscape change. This is 350 especially the case where palaeovalleys or alluvial terraces are not well-preserved at the surface, 351 when karstic cavities are disconnected from adjacent valleys, due to headward erosion 352 (Enjalbert, 1967, in Nicod, 2010); or when there have been changes to drainage patterns 353 (Adamson et al., 2014). However, correlations between cave deposits and valley fills at the 354 surface are sometimes difficult when karstic sediments are present only in isolated fragments, 355 due to erosion and reworking of the exposed sediments (Quinif & Maire, 1998).

356

357 3.2. From the karst to the valley: Base level controls on the geometrical organization of 358 karst drainage networks

359

360 Assuming that initial cave development occurs along the water table, Ford and Ewers (1978) 361 proposed a conceptual framework called the "four-state model". In this model, different types 362 of caves evolve depending on increasing fissure frequency through time: 1) bathyphreatic 363 caves, with a few deep phreatic loops (Figure 2B.a, c, d); 2) phreatic caves with multiple and 364 shallower loops (Audra & Palmer, 2011); 3) caves with a mixture of phreatic and water table-365 levelled components; and 4) an idealised water table cave without loops, formed as a result of 366 high fissure frequency. The four-state model has been reinterpreted by Häuselmann (2002), 367 Audra & Palmer (2011) and Gabrovšek et al. (2014) who pointed out two main controls in 368 relation to valley incision: 1) The recharge control occurs in dammed aquifers, when recharge 369 is fairly regular. Thus, the main endokarstic drain is established at the water table at the same 370 altitude as the valley bottom (Figure 2B.b). When an irregular recharge occurs, looping tubes 371 develop throughout the epiphreatic zone (Figure 2B.a). 2) The base-level control corresponds 372 to the development of perched cave levels. Base level lowering is common in most temperate

373 climate karstic areas, especially mountainous regions, due to uplift of the continental crust and 374 associated river incision (Figure 2A, Fig. 2B.c). In contrast, base-level rise produces flooded 375 cave levels and Vauclusian springs, when water ascends (Figure 2B.c). Deep-phreatic cave 376 systems, for instance, are located around the Mediterranean Sea, as a result of the Messinian 377 marine regression and near instantaneous Pliocene flooding (Mocochain *et al.*, 2009).

378

379 **3.3. A multi-scale approach**

380

381 To effectively capture the complexity of karst evolution, and securely identify the relationships 382 between fluvial activity and karstification, multi-scale analysis should be used to combine 383 large-scale studies of karstified massifs and entrenched valleys, and local-scale analysis of 384 individual karst drains and sediment fills. In valleys entrenched up to several hundred meters 385 deep, numerous studies (Webb et al., 1992; Audra et al., 2001; Losson et al., 2006; Guifang et 386 al., 2011; Rixhon et al., 2014) have highlighted the altitudinal relationship between karstic 387 passages and stepped terraces (Figure 2A). At the valley scale, establishing the elevation of 388 alluvial terraces and karstic drains to within a few metres is sufficient for reliable 389 geomorphological reconstructions. For example, in the Sierra de Atapuerca and the Arlanzón 390 valley (Iberian Chain, Eastern Burgos, Spain), geomorphological analysis was combined with 391 archaeology, palaeomagnetics, TL, IRSL, U-series and ESR dating to develop a 392 chronostratigraphical framework of fluvial incision and speleogenesis of karst caves during the 393 Lower and Middle Pleistocene (Moreno et al., 2012; Ortega et al., 2013).

394

395 At even larger spatial scales, across the Mediterranean basin for example, karstic and 396 palaeovalley features suggest a common regional pattern of geomorphological evolution. At the 397 Mediterranean coast, such as the South-East of France, Messinian canyons and Pliocene rias, 398 among other features, demonstrate that sea level change has had a major influence on 399 karstification (Audra et al., 2004). Late Miocene base-level fall was followed by rising base-400 level in the Pliocene, which flooded lower endokarstic levels, and karst waters discharged as 401 Vauclusian springs. In this system, higher elevation karst horizons are more recent forms, as 402 indicated by per ascensum speleogenesis.

403

404 At smaller spatial scales, in individual caves or valleys, high-resolution analysis is essential 405 when caves are disconnected from neighbouring valleys – due to erosion of the limestone valley 406 sides or of terrace remains. For example, in the Pierre-Saint-Martin cave, Pleistocene deposits 407 of the Aranzadi gallery recorded a succession of depositional and entrenchment phases (Quinif
408 & Maire, 1998). Three groups of speleothems situated between the detrital units highlighted the
409 succession of several interglacial or interstadial stages allowing the precipitation of carbonate.
410 U-series dating showed that speleothem growth occurred during MIS 9, 7 and earlyMIS 6. In

- 411 the Têt river basin, recent research has provided precise correlations between aggradation and
- 412 incision phases in each glacial cycle (Hez *et al.*, 2015; see section 5 for discussion).
- 413

414 **4.** A typology of the relationship between fluvial evolution and karstification

415

416 As outlined above, fluvial incision and karstification in limestones or evaporite rocks are driven 417 by a number of factors. The most central are: eustasy, isostasy, climate and tectonics. Here we 418 discuss the relationships between valley evolution and speleogenesis using examples from 419 across Europe, as well as key studies in Australia, North America, and the Tibetan Plateau. Four 420 models of valley evolution and karstification are proposed.

421

422 **4.1. Karstification in association with base and cave level lowering**

423

424 A number of karst systems have horizontal tubes and vertical conduits which reflect stability 425 and incision in the neighbouring valleys, respectively. These valleys often contain stepped 426 alluvial terraces associated with aggradation/incision cycles. Generally, epigenetic 427 speleogenesis of limestone massifs and the succession of valley incision and aggradation are 428 largely associated with strong isostatic or tectonic uplift. Climatic forcings have also played a 429 key role, especially at the onset of the Quaternary, and during the Mid-Pleistocene Revolution 430 at the onset of the 100 ka Milankovitch cycles (Bridgland et al., 2009). Four types of 431 geomorphological evolution are distinguished in the following discussion, based on the relief 432 energy/topography of the karstified region.

433

434 **4.1.1. Karstification in low elevation and very stable cratonic area**

435

The Devonian limestone region of Buchan (South-East Australia) is a valuable example of slow,
long-term incision and speleogenesis. Three fluvial terraces and epiphreatic cave levels have
developed below a height of 30 m above the adjacent river (Webb *et al.*, 1992).
Geomorphological evidence and palaeomagnetic dating indicate that these formed before 780
ka, giving a maximum incision rate of 38.5 mm/ka. The Buchan area has experienced only 4-5

m incision over the last 40 Ma (i.e. 0.1–0.125 mm/ka), 2-3 m of this has occurred over the last
730 ka (i.e. 2.7–4.1 mm/ka).

443

444 4.1.2. Karstification on low altitude plateaus (<500 m a.s.l.)

445

446 **4.1.2.1. General cases**

447

448 There are many examples of epigenetic speleogenesis and fluvial incision as a result of 449 moderate (up to 10 mm/ka) uplift in cratonic areas, sedimentary basins, and low-altitude (<500 450 m-a.s.l.) basement plateaus, such as in the Paris, Aquitaine basins (Bridgland et al., 2009; see 451 in Audra, Ed., 2010) or British karst (Waltham et al., 1997). In North America, the karst 452 evolution of the Kentucky Appalachian Plateau has been dated in detail using TCN ages 453 (Granger et al., 2001). These karstic areas broadly correspond to one of two morphostructural 454 settings. 1) Extended horizontal or monoclinal strata of Palaeozoic age (e.g. the Kentucky 455 Plateau, USA: Granger et al., 2001), Mesozoic or Cenozoic karstified rocks (e.g. in the plateaus 456 of the Eastern Paris Basin, France; Jaillet, 2000; Losson, 2003; Devos et al., 2007). 2) Folded 457 strata in Alpine or older (e.g. Appalachian) structures. In most cases the caves are located in 458 narrow outcrops of limestone, such as the Devonian and Carboniferous rocks of the Ardenne 459 massif, Belgium (Quinif, 1999, 2006).

460

461 There have been several studies of Pleistocene sedimentary sequences from caves and river 462 terraces formed on low-level plateaus (Losson, 2003; Jaillet et al., 2004). These studies show 463 that Pleistocene incision rates were low, and reached up to 100 mm/ka in the Mosel catchment 464 (Harmand and Cordier, 2012). On low-elevation karst plateau, there is evidence for Quaternary 465 rejuvenation of older palaeo-karsts or crypto-karsts, such as the Belgian Ardenne, Eastern Paris 466 Basin, and Quercy plateaus (Bruxelles et al., 2013; Vergari and Quinif, 1997; Harmand et al., 467 2004). At Poissons (Eastern Paris Basin, France), Pleistocene incision of the upper Marne 468 reached 42 mm/ka to 58 mm/ka, and extended below the base of the palaeokarstic wells, which 469 were filled with continental Infra-Cretaceous (Wealdian) ferruginous deposits (Harmand et al., 470 2004). However, the presence of Late Pleistocene fauna and MIS 6 speleothems in the sediment 471 fill (Jaillet, 2000) was indicative of a Quaternary karstification of the older palaeo-karsts. 472

- 473 **4.1.2.2.** The relations between rivers, aquifers and karst in the Eastern Paris basin
- 474

475 In the Eastern Paris Basin, epigenetic speleogenesis and fluvial incision is linked to the 476 structural framework of the basin and entrenchment of the main valley into the alternating marl 477 and limestone strata (Losson, 2003; Devos et al., 2009, 2015). The main feature is the position 478 of the river with regard to the water table. Four situations can be distinguished (Figure 4A). 1) 479 When perched rivers are entrenched into limestone above the saturated zone, infiltration occurs 480 into and under the valley from local or allochtonous flows (Jaillet, 2000; Losson, 2003; Devos 481 et al., 2009, 2015; Figure 4A level a). 2) When the surface river channel is in contact with the 482 water table of the saturated zone, the lack of hydraulic gradient induces a ghost rock process 483 around the fractures of the valley floor (Quinif, 2010, Devos et al., 2011; Figure 4A level b). In 484 contrast, lowering of the piezometric level, due to fluvial incision, causes the discharge of 485 residual deposits of the ghost rocks and the creation of conduits in the epiphreatic zone. 3) 486 When the surface river channel is strongly entrenched into the limestone substratum, and drains 487 the flooded karst zone, a thin piezometric horizon develops (Figure 4A level c). 4) If fluvial 488 incision occurs in the marls or clays situated below the saturated zone, the perched karstified 489 zone is disconnected from the river (Figure 4A level d) and the flooded zone drains into low 490 flow springs (Devos et al., 2015). However, as shown in Figure 4B, it is important to remember 491 that the faulted tectonic basement can produce structural and aquifer compartments which 492 control the hydraulic gradient between aquifers and rivers (Devos et al., 2007). This can have 493 major impacts on the hydrological and geomorphological connectivity, between karst and 494 subaerial fluvial drainage networks.

495

496 4.1.3. Relationships between fluvial incision/aggradation and karstification on high 497 altitude plateaus and low mountain ranges (500 – 2,000 a.s.l.)

498

499 In low mountain ranges and high plateaus, a moderate uplift rate (up to 100-200 mm/ka) 500 commonly causes deep fluvial incision and epigenetic speleogenesis in thick limestone strata. 501 On some high plateaus, geomorphological processes have continuously shaped the landscape 502 since the Neogene. In the Southern part of the Causse of Larzac, four stages of speleogenesis 503 were identified from the Middle Miocene until the Pliocene (Camus, 1997, 2010). Even during 504 the Pleistocene, there is evidence of phases of incision and karstification in many regions, such 505 as the Sierra de Atapuerca and the Arlanzón valley (Moreno et al., 2012; Ortega et al., 2013), 506 the Languedocian plateaus (Audra et al., 2001) or the Swabian Alb (Abel et al., 2002). These 507 speleogenetic phases occurred in response to base-level and cave-level lowering, due to tectonic 508 uplift and glacially-driven sea level change. During Pleistocene glacial stages, sea level fell by

509 up to 140 m below modern levels (Rohling *et al.*, 2009). In some settings, such as the Arlanzón 510 and Ardèche valleys, incision has reached over 100 m deep since the Lower Pleistocene. The 511 number of terrace levels varies between the narrow middle Ardèche valley (4) and the wide 512 Arlanzón valley (14), but the karstified massifs exhibit only 2 or 3 cave levels, respectively

- 513 (Audra *et al.*, 2001; Moreno *et al.*, 2012; Ortega *et al.*, 2013).
- 514

4.1.4. Long-term records of fluvial incision and karstification in high mountain regions (>2,000 m a.s.l.)

517

518 Many high altitude limestone mountains contain horizontal cave networks at elevations 519 exceeding 2,000 m a.s.l. (Feichtnerschacht, Austrian Alps: 2,000 m; French subalpine chains: 520 2,300 m; Dolomites, northeastern Italy: 2,775 m; Siebenhengste-Hohgant-Höhle, Berner 521 Oberland, Switzerland >2,000 m; Häuselmann and Granger, 2005; Audra et al., 2007; Wagner 522 et al., 2010, Hoblea et al., 2011; Figure 5A). Many of these mountains contain thick horizons 523 of karstified rock that extend vertically for up to 1 km, and are characterized by cave to rock ratios as high as 1.3 m³ per 1000 m³. Some high mountains also contain long karstic cavities 524 525 (up to 90 km in the Granier massif, Grande Chartreuse, France, Hoblea et al., 2011) and many 526 cave levels (9 in the Têt catchment; 14 in the Siebenhengste; Calvet et al., 2015; Häuselmann, 527 2002). These stacked caves indicate numerous speleogenetic phases and strong uplift trends. Where these endokarstic galleries contain alluvial sedimentary sequences, they have the 528 529 potential to record long-term fluvial evolution. Key examples include the European Alps 530 (Styrian Alps: Wagner et al., 2010; Grande Chartreuse massif: Hoblea et al. 2011), the Alpi 531 Apuane, Italy (Piccini et al., 2011), the Sierra Nevada, California (Stock et al., 2004, 2005), 532 and the Hengduan Shan, Tibet (McPhillips et al., 2016).

533

534 In the Alps and Pyrenees, TCN burial dating of sediment infills from the highest cave levels 535 frequently yielded Pliocene ages (Häuselmann and Granger, 2005; Wagner et al., 2010; Hoblea et al., 2011; Calvet et al., 2015). The same method, based on the ¹⁰Be and ²¹Ne isotope pair, 536 537 revealed a Lower Miocene karstification age at the Southeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau at 538 the First Bend (McPhillips et al., 2016). Valley incision and karstification continued during the 539 Quaternary period in European karst regions (Häuselmann and Granger, 2005; Wagner et al., 540 2010; Calvet et al., 2015), and in China (Qinling: Wang et al., 2004; Northwestern Hunan: 541 Guifang et al., 2011; Guizhou plateau: Liu et al., 2013).

542

543 Many high altitude karstified massifs, including the limestone mountains of Europe (e.g. 544 Hughes *et al.*, 2010) and North America (Palmer and Palmer, 1993), were glaciated during 545 Pleistocene cold stages, including MIS 12, 6, and the Younger Dryas. As a result, they evolved 546 into a distinctive 'glaciokarst' landscape (See section 4.3).

547

548 **4.2. Karstification in association with rising base and cave level**

549

The *per ascensum* model of speleogenesis is initiated by eustasy and climatically-driven aggradation and subsidence (Audra *et al.*, 2001; Figure 5B). The influence of eustatic base level does not typically extend more than 200 km inland (Antoine *et al.*, 2000). In Europe, one of the most significant examples of rising base level and its impacts on terrestrial landscape change is the Pliocene transgression after the Messinian regression of the Mediterranean basin (e.g. Clauzon, 1978; Audra *et al.*, 2004).

556

557 The Languedocian plateaus, incised by the Lower Ardèche canvon (at Saint-Remèze), present 558 a record of rising base and cave level since the Messinian. TCN dating combined with 559 magnetostratigraphy revealed that, following an early phase of karstification during the 560 Messinian regression, subsequent phases of speleogenesis took place during marine and 561 continental aggradation in the Pliocene rias (Mocochain et al., 2009; Tassy et al., 2013, 2014). 562 Rising base level caused flooding of the lower cave levels, which discharged as Vauclusian 563 springs. Pleistocene valley incision led to the progressive draining of horizons situated above 564 base level and the reactivation of caves at the same altitude as the river.

565

566 Other cases of base and cave level fluctuations follow a similar evolutionary model (Bruthans 567 and Zeman, 2003; Audra and Palmer, 2011). Several cases of *per ascensum* speleogenesis by 568 fluvial (or glacial) aggradation occur in Europe, including Podtraťová jeskyně in the Moravian 569 karst (Czech Republic, Bruthans and Zeman, 2003) and in the Devoluy mountains, France 570 (Audra & Palmer, 2011). In the Devoluy chain, the Pleistocene glacial, lacustrine, and 571 glaciofluvial sediment fill increased the elevation of the Gillardes karst springs, and caused the 572 300 m high chimney shaft at Puits de Bans to overflow.

573

574 **4.3.** Pleistocene incision and karstification in association with glaciation

575

576 Broadly, there are three mechanisms through which Pleistocene glacial activity influenced karst 577 areas. First, in non-glaciated mountains or plateaus areas, incision and karstification were 578 indirectly conditioned by glacial activity, such as the Kentucky Appalachian Plateau (Palmer 579 and Palmer, 1993). Second, in glaciated mountain regions, such as parts of the Dinaric Alps in 580 Montenegro (Hughes et al., 2010; 2011; Adamson et al., 2014), and the Pindus mountains in 581 Greece (Hughes et al., 2006; Woodward et al., 2008), fluvial evolution and karstification were 582 directly influenced by glaciers. Third, some karst areas were covered by ice sheets up to 3 km 583 thick that developed across much of Northern Eurasia (Eurasian Ice Sheet) and North America 584 (Laurentide Ice Sheet) during Pleistocene glacial phases. The erosional effects of the ice sheets 585 on karst and non-karst landforms and deglacial speleogenesis, are beyond the scope of this 586 paper, which concentrates on karst geomorphology south of the major ice-sheets, and 587 downstream of ice caps and valley glaciers (mechanisms one and two outlined above).

588

589 4.3.1. Indirect impacts of glaciation: the Appalachian plateau of Kentucky, USA

590

591 The Kentucky Appalachian Plateau (c. 2,000 m a.s.l.) is a vast karstified area that contains an 592 extensive sinkhole plain (Pennyroyal Plateau) and the Mammoth Cave Plateau where the 593 famous cave provides a well-preserved example of the indirect influence of glaciers on Plio-Quaternary morphologic evolution (Palmer and Palmer, 1993). TCN (²⁶Al and ¹⁰Be) dating of 594 595 sediments in the five levels of Mammoth Cave, as well as vertical vadose passages, is in 596 accordance with the timing of Pliocene and Pleistocene glaciations of North America (Granger 597 et al., 2001). Major aggradational phases occurred at c. 3.2, 2.3 and 0.8 Ma, when large volumes 598 of sediment would have been produced by the ice sheet and delivered downstream via meltwater 599 channels. A major incision phase occurred at c. 1.39 Ma in relation to a drainage change towards 600 the Mississipi catchment when the Ohio river formed along the Southern North-American ice-601 sheet margin.

602

4.3.2. Direct impacts of glaciation: Glaciated limestone mountains: examples from the Dinaric Alps

605

Limestone mountains that were glaciated by ice caps or valley glaciers during Pleistocene cold stages, such as the Dinaric Alps, are characterized by a distinctive 'glaciokarst' terrain, which displays features including limestone pavements and bare bedrock surfaces. The presence of glaciers in karst environments can have major impacts on glaciofluvial drainage pathways, and 610 subsequent karst drainage evolution. On the Orjen massif in western Montenegro, a large ice 611 cap developed during the Pleistocene (MIS 12, 6, 5d-2 and the Younger Dryas, Hughes et al., 612 2010). The configuration of the Orjen massif, with its high altitude (c. 1,800 m a.s.l.) ice 613 accumulation zone, and surrounding depocentres (such as valleys, polies and dolines), meant 614 that during the major ice advance of MIS 12, ice extended over the plateau, and likely plugged 615 the surface of karst depressions and conduits. Meltwater was delivered directly downstream 616 and largely flowed at the land surface. This is evidenced by the presence of large volumes of 617 glaciofluvial sediments that have been deposited and preserved in large polies, as terraced 618 valley fills, and as alluvial fans at the margins of the plateau (Adamson et al., 2014; 2016a). 619 One of these alluvial fans, the Lipci fan, extends offshore into the Bay of Kotor. It was deposited 620 subaerially at the southern margins of the Orjen massif during the major glacial phase of MIS 621 12, when sea level in this part of the Mediterranean was up to 140 m lower than present, and 622 the Bay of Kotor was exposed subaerially (Adamson et al., 2016b). U-series ages of the alluvial 623 deposits at Orjen are consistent with the timing of glacial activity (Hughes et al., 2010). During 624 subsequent cold stages (MIS 6, 5d-2, and the Younger Dryas), the ice cap did not advance 625 beyond the plateau. During these periods, large areas of karst were exposed on the plateau, and 626 meltwater was channeled into subterranean cavities (Adamson et al., 2014). There is only 627 limited evidence of post-MIS 12 alluvium preserved at the surface of the Orjen massif, and 628 incision into the sediment fills is negligible. As a consequence, the oldest (Middle Pleistocene) 629 part of the alluvial record is exceptionally well-preserved, but the youngest archives are not 630 accessible at the surface. The interactions between glacial activity, karst terrain, and fluvial 631 pathways, can therefore be a major control on the Quaternary sedimentary record in such 632 glaciated regions (Stepišnik et al., 2009; Adamson et al., 2014).

633

634 **4.4. The particular case of karstified evaporites**

635

636 In evaporite rocks, karst systems are sparser and tend to be restricted to relatively drier climate 637 regions due to the restricted availability of moisture. However, in such environments the 638 preservation potential of karst systems is much higher. In some regions of evaporitic bedrock, 639 most commonly gypsum, climate forcing in uplifting areas generates cave levels associated 640 with patterns of river incision and aggradation. In the Northern Apennines, Italy, especially in 641 the region of Emilia Romagna, the Re Tiberio cave system is hosted in Messinian gypsum 642 (Columbu et al., 2015). Gypsum is much more soluble than limestone, and cave levels form 643 very rapidly.

Two significant examples of karstified evaporites also exist in Spain, in the Sorbas basin,
Southeastern Spain, and in the Gállego valley, in the central Ebro Basin, with cave levels and
subsidence areas respectively (Calaforra and Pulido-Bosch, 2003).

647

648 4.4.1. Cave levels in karstified evaporites

649

650 The Sorbas basin, Southeast Spain, contains an interstratal karst system formed within 651 intercalated Messinian gypsum and marls (Calaforra & Pulido-Bosch, 2003; Figure 6A). At 652 first, the gypsum karst evolved under phreatic conditions during the early Pleistocene, enabling 653 the formation of small conduits. Subsequently, mechanical erosion occurred under vadose 654 conditions. Increased incision, as a consequence of rapid Plio-Pleistocene uplift (>80-160 655 mm/ka; Mather, 2000) allowed an eastward capture of the Upper Aguas river system at c. 70 656 ka (based on U series dating of river terrace calcretes, Candy et al., 2005, Harvey et al., 2014). 657 Dated pre-capture terraces represent the former southern drainage system of the Rio Aguas, 658 prior to the river capture event, enabling incision rates to be calculated (Stokes et al., 2002). In 659 fact, the capture leads to a 10 fold increase in incision rates, driven by the ~90m base level drop 660 that it initiated (Stokes et al., 2002). This incision led to the development of further cave levels. 661 Karst tributaries that were connected to the Aguas channel at the surface, were protected from 662 enhanced incision due to the development of the cave network (Mather 2000). Headward 663 incision in the Upper Aguas catchment induced a lowering of the piezometric level in the Sorbas 664 basin. Subterranean erosion processes, largely concentrated into the marl strata, occurred under 665 vadose conditions (Calaforra & Pulido-Bosch, 2003), and these processes continue at the 666 present day.

667

668 4.4.2. Subsidence in evaporite rock areas

669

670 Bruthans and Zeman (2003) identified a suit of features typical of salt karst terrain, including 671 broad and low caves shaped by subterranean meandering streams, and the development of large 672 subterranean alluvial fans, due to the high solubility of salt (NaCl). Apart from these forms, a 673 key feature of evaporite karst (e.g. gypsum karst) is the incomplete record of valley evolution 674 due to high solubility and enhanced dissolution and subsidence. A number of examples exist 675 worldwide, most notably in Spain (Benito et al., 1998, 2010; Figure 6B). In the Gállego valley, 676 in the central Ebro Basin, Northern Zaragoza, 12 stepped terraces (2-5 m thick) were mapped 677 upstream of Zuera. Downstream, the complex of alluvial formations is over 100 m thick. This

678 downstream thickening of the alluvial formations, as well as multi-scale karstic depressions and 679 syn- and post-sedimentary deformations, such as collapses, reverse faults, and marl-clay 680 diapiric structures, reflect the dissolution of Cenozoic evaporitic bedrock. Palaomagnetic and 681 OSL dating revealed two main periods of subsidence and associated alluvial aggradation: the 682 first (represented by terraces T2, T3, and T4) began in the Early Pleistocene (Benito et al., 683 1998). The second occurred during MIS 6, primarily when glaciers were present in the 684 Pyrenees. A later phase also occurred during the Warthe Advance, a later part of MIS 6 (155-685 140 ka), as a result of high discharge delivered by the upper catchment of the Gállego River 686 (Benito et al., 2010).

687

688 In the Eastern Cinca and Segre catchments of the Ebro Basin, Lucha et al. (2012) identified a 689 phase of dissolution subsidence and halokinetic uplift along the evaporitic core of the 690 Barbastro-Balaguer Anticline. Eight of the nine fluvial terraces were affected by dissolution-691 induced synsedimentary subsidence, by dissolution-induced post-sedimentary subsidence, or 692 by deformation due to salt flow, especially the upper Pleistocene terrace 4 of the Cinca River. 693 OSL ages obtained in the alluvial sediments of this backtilted terrace indicated a minimum 694 uplift rate of 0.3 mm/a (Lucha et al., 2012). Moreover, deposits of the highest terrace levels 695 reach over 100 m thickness in the Segre catchment, in basins generated by dissolution-induced 696 synsedimentary subsidence.

- 697
- 698 **5. Discussion**
- 699

700 5.1. Variability of incision rates in karst fluvial systems

701

702 Based on chronological evidence from karstic fluvial sedimentary fills and secondary carbonate 703 forms, such as travertine and calcrete, long-term regional incision rates can be securely 704 constrained. In fact, numerical dating highlights the variability in space and time of river 705 incision rates. Incision rates are highest in high mountains (>2,000 m a.s.l.), exceeding 100 706 mm/ka in the Alps (Hobléa et al., 2011; Häuselmann & Granger, 2005; Wagner et al., 2010) or 707 in China (especially on the southeast margin of the Tibetan Plateau, McPhillips et al., 2016). 708 Incision rates are lower (<100 mm/ka) in the plateaus and low mountain range areas (200-2,000 709 m a.s.l.), such as the Eastern Paris Basin (Harmand & Cordier, 2012), the Languedocian 710 plateaus (Ambert & Ambert, 1995; Camus, 1997; Audra et al., 2001), the Duero basin (Moreno 711 et al., 2012; Ortega et al., 2013), Swabian Alps (Abel et al., 2002), or the Eastern Pyrenees

(Calvet *et al.*, 2015). The lowest incision rates (typically <10 mm/ka) are measured in
Palaeozoic crustal provinces, such as the Southeastern part of Australia (Webb *et al.*, 1992) or
on the Appalachian plateau (Granger *et al.*, 2001).

715

716 Most of the time, higher incision rates are related to periods of stronger uplift, such as in the 717 Styrian Alps or the Western American Sierra Nevada, where Miocene uplift rates reached 140 718 mm/ka (Stock et al., 2005; Wagner et al., 2010). Where karstification and fluvial dynamics 719 have been studied in particular detail, it is possible to identify multiple uplift phases during the 720 Cenozoic era. This is the case in the Languedocian plateaus where karstic and valley evolution 721 corresponded to several uplift pulses since the Cretaceous period (Séranne et al., 2002); the last 722 pulse occurring during the Middle to Late Miocene. The onset of accelerated incision is related 723 to Pliocene and Pleistocene tectonic uplift and climate change, in the Sierra Nevada (from 3 724 and 1.5 Ma; Stock et al., 2005), in the middle Ardèche valley (since 2 Ma; Audra et al., 2001) 725 or in the Eastern Pyrenees (since the beginning of the Pleistocene; Calvet et al., 2015). 726 Variations in tectonically- and climatically-driven incision rates are conditioned locally by 727 geomorphology and fluvial behavior, such as river capture. In the Styrian Alps, strong incision 728 of the Mur River, from 4 to 2.5 Ma was connected with an extension of the Mur catchment 729 following river drainage change (Wagner et al., 2010). Decreased incision during the 730 Quaternary corresponded to fluvial aggradation during Pleistocene cold periods and reduced 731 potential for bedrock entrenchment. Short-term increase in incision rate in the Siebenhengste at 732 800 ka has been related to a change in flow direction from the Eriz valley to the south, to the 733 Aare valley in the north (Häuselmann & Granger, 2005). Similar short-term changes in incision 734 rate are evident in the Mammoth Cave record, where an incision event at c. 1.4 Ma has been 735 correlated with headward erosion in the Green River valley, after the formation of the Ohio 736 River, at the end of an ice-sheet advance (Granger et al., 2001).

737

738 Delayed response between tectonic uplift and resulting fluvial incision can also be discerned from the karst-fluvial archive. This is the case in the Ardenne massif where ¹⁰Be dating 739 740 highlighted diachronous river incision from the lower Meuse valley at the northern rim of the Ardenne to its intra-massif (sub-) tributaries, i.e. Belle-Roche in the Amblève valley (Rixhon 741 742 et al., 2011, 2014). However, rates of knickpoint retreat are variable, and depend on many 743 factors, including climate, discharge, lithology, tectonics and time (Whittaker & Boulton, 744 2012). These controls are translated into the morphosedimentary record as spatial variations in 745 the timing of uplift, valley incision, aggradation, and karstification. In the Upper Yangzi

catchment, cosmogenic nuclide ages suggest a considerably delayed response (c. 20 Ma)
between Late Eocene uplift (Hoke *et al.*, 2014) and Miocene incision (from 18 to 9 Ma), such
that valley incision is not a useful proxy for surface uplift (McPhillips *et al.*, 2016).

749

750 **5.2. Models of valley evolution and karstification**

751

752 At the regional scale (e.g. across the Mediterranean basin), eustatic, isostatic, tectonic and 753 climatic factors, largely explain the rise or fall of base and cave levels. These drivers do not 754 influence hypogenic caves and ghost rocks (isovolumetric weathering with very low flow) 755 because these types of speleogenesis are not connected to a fluvial base level. However, uplifted 756 hypogenic and ghost rock karsts can be reactivated, as cryptokarsts (when karstification occurs 757 under an impervious sedimentary cover) or palaeokarsts, when they can be influenced by base 758 and cave level change (e.g. Wealdian: continental Infra-Cretaceous (Vergari & Quinif, 1997; 759 Jaillet et al., 2004). In most karst regions, geomorphological evolution consists of valley 760 incision and per descensum speleogenesis. Over Quaternary timescales, this model is 761 underpinned by climate change, since tectonic uplift and subsidence change over much longer 762 geological time spans. Thus, Quaternary glacial and interglacial cycles are recorded in terraces 763 and caves by aggradation, incision, or concretion phases (Antoine, 1994; Quinif, 2006; 764 Columbu *et al.*, 2015).

765

766 At the catchment scale, Pleistocene climatic cycles and geomorphological factors influenced 767 fluvial and karstic environments. In many catchments, river incision chiefly occurs during cold-768 to-warm or warm-to-cold climatic transitions, in accordance with regional climate change 769 (Antoine, 1994; Bridgland et al., 2009). Underground streams adjust to falling base level by 770 incising new passages. However, there is evidence that per descensum speleogenesis also 771 depends on the timing of valley incision, as well as geological factors such as (i) the degree of 772 bedrock karstification (Abel et al., 2002), (ii) alternating pervious and impervious strata causing 773 perched karsts (Devos et al., 2015, Figure 4A level a) and iii) underground karstic flows towards 774 a lower elevation river in a neighbouring hydrographic basin or in the downstream position of 775 the same river (Losson, 2003). As a consequence, numerous interactions between fluvial 776 evolution and karstification can exist. We therefore propose four local to regional models of 777 Quaternary geomorphological evolution from different settings: 1) Eastern Pyrenees, in 778 limestone rocks, 2 and 3) low limestone plateaus of the Eastern Paris Basin and 4) a rapidlyuplifted gypsum area in the Northern Apennines, Italy (Losson, 2003; Antoine *et al.*, 2006; Hez *et al.*, 2015; Colombu *et al.*, 2015).

781

5.2.1 A conceptual model of valley scale karstic and fluvial development: river terrace records in the Têt basin (Eastern French Pyrenees)

784

785 On the basis of river terrace records from the Eastern French Pyrenees (Calvet et al., 2015; Hez 786 et al., 2015), a valley-scale conceptual model of karst drainage evolution is presented in Figure 787 7. This reflects changes in karst genesis, evolution, and abandonment as well as fluvial incision 788 into bedrock, sediment aggradation, and terrace incision/abandonment. This model is based on 789 cavities in the Têt basin, especially in the Devonian limestones syncline of Villefranche, where 790 nine horizontal conduits exist up to 1,000 m above the present valley floor (Hez et al., 2015; 791 Calvet et al., 2015). The two lowest karstic tubes contain rich morphologies of sediment fill 792 and corrosion forms, which can be explained by the succession of three genetic karstic phases 793 (Figure 7A, C). In phase 1, the presence of phreatic caves indicates syngenetic karstification 794 below base level during or after valley incision. In phase 2, bench walls and the corroded ceiling 795 of the horizontal conduit indicate aggradation at the valley bottom leading to progressive and 796 synchronous base-level rise during a paragenetic phase. During phase 3, funnel shaped conduits 797 cutting down into the horizontal tubes highlight a period of renewed incision ("trepanning", 798 Jaillet *et al.*, 2004). This suggests a diachronic evolution of the caves with: a) lowering of the 799 base-level inducing downstream incision of the paragenetic stage sediments. Thus, ancient 800 horizontal conduits shaped in the flooded zone evolve downstream in the vadose zone where 801 the cave deposits are partially reworked (see phase 1); b) formation of bench walls in the middle 802 part of the galleries; and c) deposition of a cave fan delta upstream. Indeed, a strong hydraulic 803 gradient (1/1000) and flooding on the perched valley floor causes upstream transport and deposition of coarse alluvium in karstic caves. In a last stage d), headward erosion along the 804 805 valley axis induces fluvial incision of the alluvial plain and underlying bedrock, and 806 entrenchment of the cave fill. Beneath the valley floor, a karstic drain is initiated in the flooded 807 zone (Figure 7B).

808

809 One must note that this model of karstic drain evolution and the relationships between valley

810 and karstic development during a Pleistocene climatic cycle is not valid when underground flow

811 is diverted to stream capture or piracy (see below, Figure 8B). Thus, in the capture area of the

- 812 Moselle river by the Meurthe (Losson, 2003), the caves of Pierre-la-Treiche show that the 813 endokarstic networks are not correlated in elevation with the Moselle terraces.
- 814

5.2.2. Two conceptual models of regional karstic and fluvial development in low limestone plateaus: cave records

817

818 In limestone plateaus, alluvial stepped terraces and tiered cave infills record successive 819 Milankovitch cycles of palaeoenvironmental change (Figure 8). In both models (Figure 8A and 820 8B), two positions are distinguished based to the type of speleogenesis. Figure 8A shows the 821 evolution of a plateau karst where the caves are in connection with the valley bottom. Figure 822 8B presents a valley karst. The lower caves, situated below the water table, are in connection 823 with the base level of another valley which is located below the water table, as in Pierre-la-824 Treiche (Losson et al., 2006). Figure 8B3 presents a valley karst where underground flows 825 occur between zones of karstic losses and resurgences along the same valley, such as the upper 826 Meuse upstream of Neufchâteau, Eastern Paris basin (Losson, 2003).

827

828 In both models, stage 1 corresponds to an interglacial period with pedogenesis and silt 829 deposition in river systems and caves. Biological CO₂ allows speleothem, travertine and tufa 830 growth, especially in warm environments or in chalk Cretaceous catchments where thick tufa 831 deposits occur (Antoine et al., 2006, Figure 8A). During stage 2, at the onset of climate cooling, 832 the progressive disappearance of forests leads to soil erosion on the slopes, lateral erosion in 833 the meandering valleys, and headward erosion of the steep slopes of the karstic massif (Antoine, 834 1994). As a consequence, cave entrances become disconnected from the valley bottom in a 835 plateau karst (Figure 8A). There is little or no speleothem growth in vadose caves and fine 836 clastic deposits (from soil erosion) are deposed in flooded cavities. Lower flooded caves are 837 situated below the water table in relation to neighbouring valley (such as the Palaeo-Meurthe 838 valley, Figure 8B). In the cold period (stage 3), for example in the Moselle valley (Figure 8B), 839 the river entrenches into the bedrock, above the former flooded caves connected with the 840 Palaeo-Meurthe river. In stage 4, during full glacial conditions (such as the Last Glacial 841 Maximum, MIS 2), coarse alluvium, originating from the glaciated Vosges massif, was 842 deposited by a braided river in the valley bottom. This material was also deposited in the lower 843 elevation flooded or vadose caves (Losson et al., 2006). In fact, glaciated karst regions where 844 a major glacial advance occurs generates large volumes of sediment that are deposited in karst 845 cavities at the surface and subsurface, leading to major phases of aggradation

(e.g. Lewin & Woodward, 2009; Adamson *et al.*, 2014, 2016a and b). No speleothem formation
occurs during full glacial conditions (Fairchild and Baker, 2012).

848

849 When large volumes of alluvium are deposited on the valley floor, they can fill caves that are 850 situated (almost) at the same altitude as the river (Figure 8A), such as the Middle Pleistocene 851 filling of the Belle-Roche cave in the Ardenne massif (Rixhon et al., 2014). Some authors have 852 highlighted the difference between wet glacial periods characterized by sediment-laden rivers, 853 and dry cold periods with reworked loess, for example in Belgian caves, close to the former 854 margins of the Fennoscandian ice sheet (Quinif, 2006). Where caves have become filled, they 855 display evidence of a complex geomorphological evolution, with successive phases of 856 aggradation and incision (Quinif & Maire, 1998).

857

858 The wide caves of Pierre-la-Treiche, filled with coarse grained alluvium (Figure 8B) indicate a 859 speleogenetic phase during an interglacial period, before the deposition of alluvium in the 860 subsequent glaciation. However, the horizontal cave levels of the (epi)phreatic zone, which 861 correspond to stable base levels without tectonic uplift, require a minimum formation time by 862 solutional processes of 10-40 ka (Ford & Williams, 1989). The time period between two 863 Quaternary glaciations (MIS 5e, c, a) is thus long enough for dissolution processes to excavate 864 the horizontal tubes. During the subsequent interglacial, new flooded caves were formed at the 865 bottom of the valley where tufa deposits can develop (Antoine *et al.*, 2006; Dabkowski *et al.*, 866 2011; Figure 8A). Today, at Pierre-la-Treiche, the entrenched valley of the Moselle is situated below the vadose caves (Losson, 2003; Cordier et al., 2006) where speleothems have grown 867 868 since 300 ka, spanning several interglacial and interstadial periods (Losson, 2003, Losson et 869 al., 2006; Pons-Branchu et al., 2010).

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871 5.2.3. Model of climate-driven speleogenesis of gypsum caves

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Figure 9 presents a model of climate-driven river incision and karstification based on the multilevel gypsum cave systems of the Re Tiberio (Fig. 1) situated in the moderately-rapidly uplifted Northern Apennines, Italy (Columbu *et al.*, 2015). This Italian karstified area presents a more relevant model than the Spanish karsts, where the subsidence is irregular in time and space (Gállego valley) or where the geomorphological evolution is accelerated by a river capture event (Rio Aguas, Sorbas basin, see 4.4). Mostly, in the Re Tiberio valley, dating speleothems provide a more precise chronological framework (Columbu *et al.*, 2015). U-series ages of 880 calcite speleothems from the three cave levels, situated at 340, 215, and 190 m a.s.l., revealed 881 growth phases during the MIS 5e, MIS 5d-c (Dansgaard-Oeschger cycle 24) and MIS 5b-a (D-882 O cycles 22 to 20), respectively. The ages suggest rapid entrenchment during cold periods, 883 because uplift rates had reached c. 1 mm/yr since the end of the Middle Pleistocene (Columbu 884 et al., 2015).

885

886 This model presents significant differences with previous conceptual models (see Figs 7 and 8), 887 because horizontal cave levels formed during cold periods. Karst evolution was rapid, 888 especially during wetter phases, due to increased bedload (Figure 9B2, 9B3, 9B4). Valley 889 aggradation led to the infilling of cave passages and a paragenetic karstification due to slowly 890 rising base level. During the subsequent warm period, decreased bedload initiated incision into 891 the cave sediments, but karstification was slow (Figure 9A, 9B5). The key similarities with the 892 models presented in Figures 7 and 8, are that carbonate speleothems grew during wet and warm 893 interglacials or interstadials (MIS 5e, 5d-a, 5b-a, figure 9A, 9B1) and valley incision occurred 894 at cooling transitions due to high stream discharge and low bedload concentrations (figure 9B2).

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5.2.4. Diverse models of karstic and valley evolution

898 The four models outlined above present idealised scenarios, based on existing evidence, but 899 more complex models of fluvial and karstic evolution can occur in response to local to regional 900 conditions. Thus, successive aggradation or erosion phases can occur over multiple cold 901 periods. These can be recorded in the same cave level, as in the Pierre-Saint-Martin caves in 902 the French Pyrenees (Quinif & Maire, 1998). On the other hand, tiered caves can be filled with 903 deposits of the same age, as in the Mammoth cave, USA (Granger et al., 2001). Establishing 904 the model of karst and valley evolution in different settings relies on the number of cave levels 905 and river terrace surfaces in a connected valley. However, the number of cave passage levels 906 present in karst landscapes is commonly lower than the number of 100 ka cycles that have 907 occurred over the last 1 Ma of the Quaternary. This suggests that karst-fluvial systems might 908 record only the major climate changes ('supercycles' of Kukla, 2005; Bridgland et al., 2009) 909 or/and variations in uplift rate.

910

911 6. Conclusion

912

For two decades, analysis of river systems in karstic areas, including the wider application of dating methods, such as cosmogenic nuclide dating of cave infills, have provided a better understanding of geomorphological evolution over the Cenozoic era, especially during the Quaternary. Alluvial records in karst terrain, especially in European karst catchments, where the sedimentary records are particularly well preserved compared to their sub-aerial counterparts, now provide a reliable record of landscape evolution that can be effectively tied to wider, regional morphosedimentary archives.

920

921 Evidence indicates that many factors, including uplift, eustatic fluctuations, climatic conditions 922 and fluvial dynamics (e.g. knickpoint retreat, increased channel flow and/or sediment load, and 923 stream piracies), can play a major role in speleogenesis and geomorphological evolution. Data 924 reviewed here have allowed us to propose a four-fold typology of the relationship between 925 fluvial evolution and karstification: 1) karstification in association with base and cave level 926 lowering, i) in low elevation and tectonically-stable cratonic area, ii) on low altitude plateaus 927 (<500 m a.s.l.), iii) on high altitude plateaus and low mountain ranges (500 - 2,000 a.s.l.), where 928 long-term records of fluvial incision and karstification are present; iv) in high mountain regions 929 (>2,000 m a.s.l.), 2) karstification in association with rising base and cave level, 3) Pleistocene 930 incision and karstification in association with glaciation, and 4) the particular case of karstified 931 evaporites. In, gypsum and salt speleogenesis is characterized by rapid dissolution and 932 subsidence. In European catchments, gypsum cave enlargement has occurred during cold 933 climate periods, while limestone caves formed during warm interglacial or interstadial phases. 934 However, in limestone rocks, the bulk of karstic cave fills correspond to cold periods, with 935 thick, clastic sediments deposited under glacial conditions. Speleothems and tufa deposits are 936 formed chiefly during interglacial periods. This demonstrates that, over Quaternary timescales, 937 climate plays an important role in karst processes. The regional and local setting determines the 938 modes of valley evolution and karstification, and the geomorphological framework plays a 939 triggering factor to initiate speleogenesis.

940

941 In addition, our synthesis is used to propose four models of fluvial and karst evolution, from 942 different settings: 1) in the Eastern Pyrenees, in limestone rocks, 2 and 3) in low elevation 943 limestone plateaus of the Eastern Paris Basin, and 4) a rapidly-uplifted gypsum area in the 944 Northern Apennines, Italy.

945

946 Future research should focus on improved reliability and application of dating methods, 947 because in many cases, numerical dating is not possible, due to a lack of alluvial sequences 948 such as fluvial terraces or sedimentary fills within karstic caves and surface depressions (such 949 as polies and dolines). Even if alluvium is preserved in karstic terrain, it may not contain 950 sufficient siliceous content for OSL dating, or secondary carbonate concretions, such as 951 travertine or calcrete, for U-series dating. Moreover, U-series dating is further complicated by 952 the ingrowth of younger calcite into pre-existing sediments. Alluvial sequences might also bear 953 the imprint of sediment reworking, meaning that the sedimentary sequence is not indicative of 954 primary formation mechanisms. Further research should also include other karstic regions, 955 especially low latitude regions, as well as arid regions, around the Mediterranean Sea, to 956 enhance our understanding of karstic processes in other global regions.

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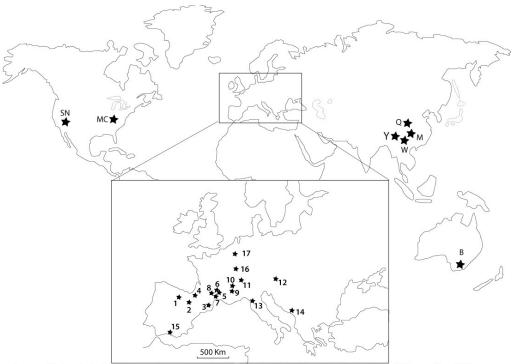
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- 1344 Figure 1: Location map of the karstic areas discussed in the text.
- 1345 Figure 2: Schematic diagrams of the relationships between valley evolution and karstification:
- 1346 A) The concept of correlation between surface features (alluvial terraces) and subsurface
- 1347 karstification levels (caves) (modified from Abel et al., 2002); B) Different types of cave profile

- 1348 development, constrained by recharge (a and b) and base-level controls (c and d) (after Audra
- 1349 & Palmer, 2011).
- 1350 Figure 3: Typology of the relationships between karst and valley incision, demonstrating the
- 1351 type of speleogenesis, characteristic morphologies, and examples (after Losson, unpublished)
- 1352 Figure 4: Karst and entrenched valleys in the Eastern Paris Basin: A) Typology of the relations
- 1353 between karstification and valley evolution; B) hydraulic gradient between aquifer
- 1354 compartments and rivers (after Devos, unpublished).
- Figure 5: Idealised models of *per descensum* (A) and *per ascensum* (B) speleogenesis using examples from the Vercors Subalpine Chain (A) and the Lower Ardèche River (B).
- 1357Figure 6: Two conceptual models of gypsum karst: A: interstratal karstification with1358contemporary underground erosion processes (after Calaforra & Pulido-Bosch, 2003); B: karst
- 1359 subsidence and accelerated fluvial aggradation (after Benito *et al.*, 2010)
- 1360 Figure 7: A conceptual model of valley scale karstic and fluvial development in relation to river
- 1361 terrace records: A) successive stages of evolution of a karstic drain and a valley floor, B)
- 1362 schematic cross-section of relationships between cave passage and valley terrace during phase
- 1363 4 (upstream part); C) Model elevation / time of the hydrographic network and the cave passage
- 1364 (Jaillet, unpublished)
- 1365 Figure 8: Valley entrenchment during a Pleistocene glacial-interglacial cycle in limestone areas.
- A: connected cave and base levels of a same valley (plateau karst); B) speleogenesis in connection with an neighbouring valley (valley karst) (after Antoine, 1994; Losson, 2003; Antoine *et al.*, 2006; Quinif,
- 1368 2006)
- 1369 Figure 9: Conceptual model of climate-driven speleogenesis of gypsum cave systems in relation
- 1370 with valley incision and aggradation in moderately and rapid uptlifted gypsum area: A) climate-
- 1371 driven speleogenesis of epigenic gypsum cave systems, B) evolution of river valleys and
- 1372 adjacent gypsum cave systems (based on the Northern Apennines after Colombu *et al.*, 2015)
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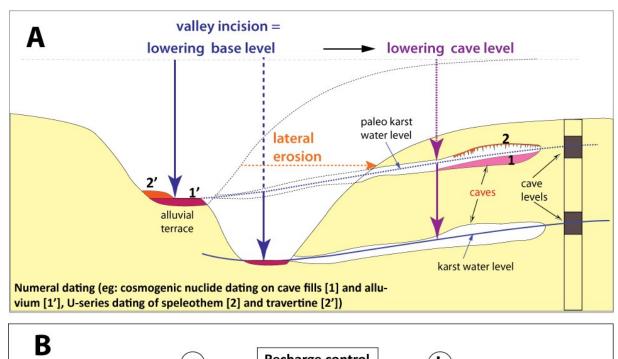
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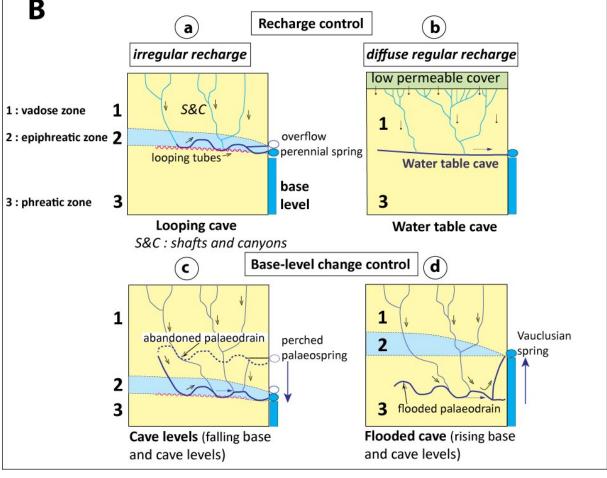


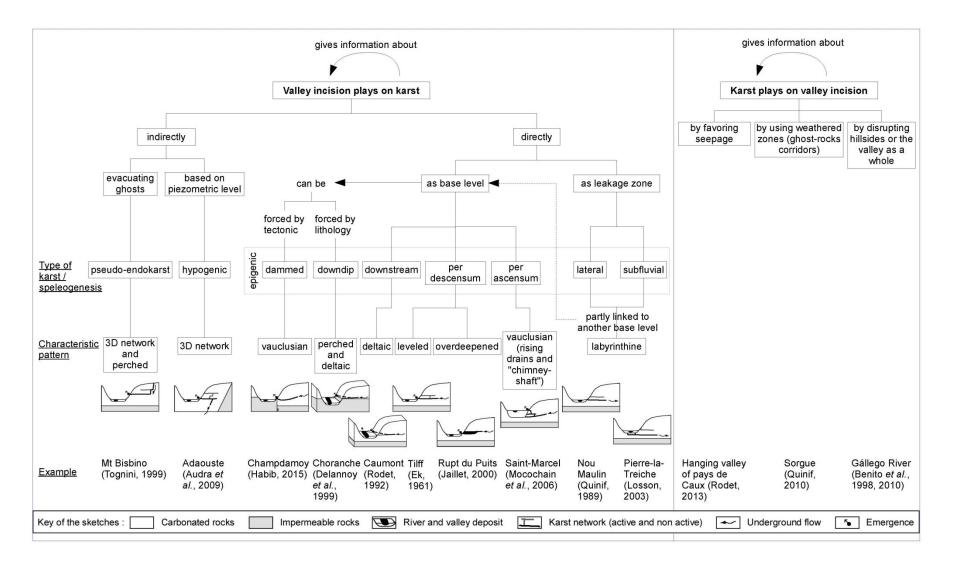
B: caves of Buchan, Australia; MC: Mammoth cave, USA; SN : Sierra Nevada, USA; M: Miaoxi River, Hunan, China; Q: Qianyou River, Qinling mountains, China; W: Wujiang River, Guizhou, China; Y: Yangzi Gorge,Yunnan, China; Europe: 1: Arlanzón, Spain; 2: Gállego River, Spain; 3: Têt valley, Eastern Pyrenees, France; 4: Pierre-Saint-Martin, Western Pyrenees, France; 5: Lower Ardèche valley, France; 6: Middle Ardèche valley, France; 7: Southern Larzac plateau, Grands Causses, France; 8: Tarn valley at Millau, Grands Causses, France; 9: Vercors, subalpine massif, France; 10: Mont Granier, Grande Chartreuse, subalpine massif, France; 11: Siebenhengste, Switzerland; 12: Mur valley, Eastern Alps, Austria; 13: Monte Corcia, Alpi Apuane, Italy; 14: Mount Orjen, Montenegro; 15: Gypsum karst of Sorbas, Spain; 16: Caves of Pierre-la-Treiche, Eastern Paris Basin, France; 17: Cave of Belle-Roche, Ardenne massif, Belgium

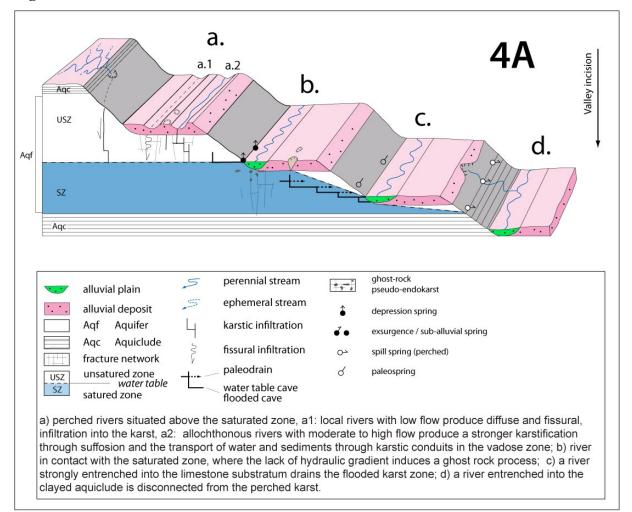
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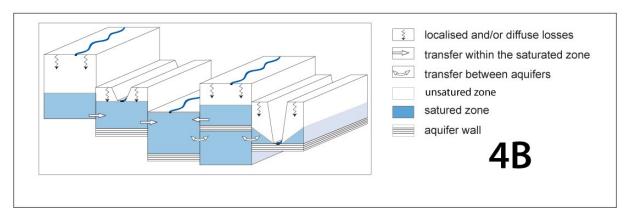
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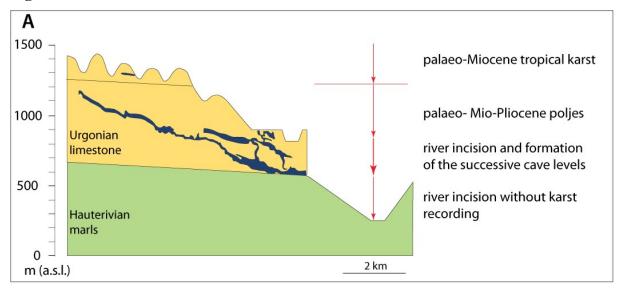


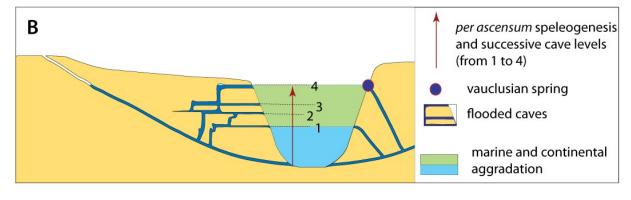






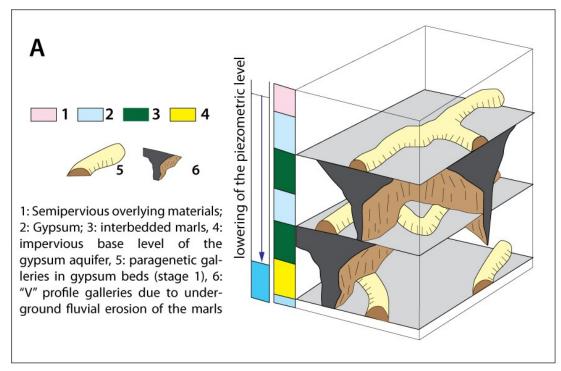


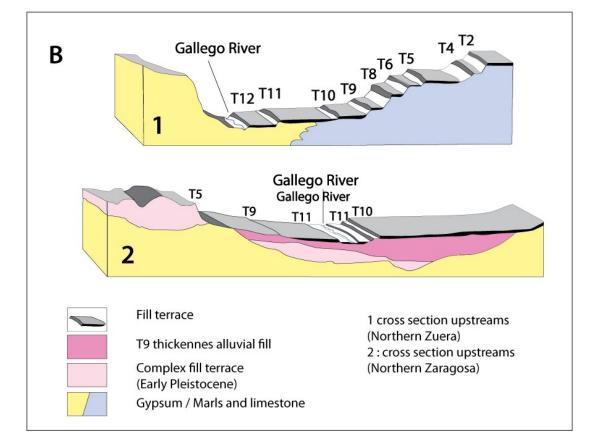




A: Per descensum speleogenesis incision in connection with uplift and valley incision (model of the Vercors subalpin chain, after Delannoy et al., 2009); B: Per ascensum speleogenesis : model of the Lower Ardèche river (after Audra & Palmer, 2011)







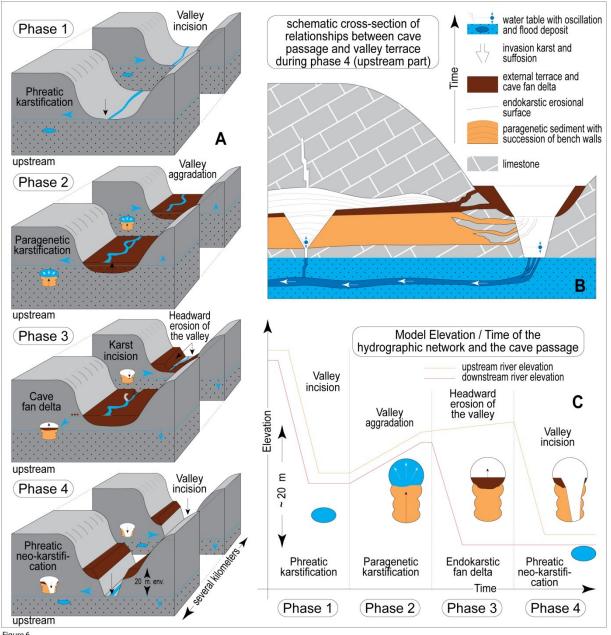


Figure 6

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Figure 8:
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