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Interactive comment

Interactive comment on "Estimating the disequilibrium in denudation rates due to divide migration at the scale of river basins" by Timothée Sassolas-Serrayet et al.

Timothée Sassolas-Serrayet et al.

timothee.sassolas-serrayet@umontpellier.fr

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RC1: I've completed my review of Sassolas-Serrayet et al's paper entitled 'Estimating the disequilibrium in denudation rates due to divide migration at the scale of river basins. 'In this manuscript, the authors analyze a series of landscape evolution models to try to ultimately assess the ability for one to measure the background rock uplift rate through basin averaged erosion rates in the presence of divide migration and find that there is a drainage area dependence on the ability to do so. Using this, they are able to provide some recommendations for planning of sampling for things like cosmogenic erosion rates. This study seems timely and interesting and is a good fit for Earth





Surface Dynamics. While I think the general results are strong and consistent with what others have shown (or rather what is implied by the results others have shown), I do have some concerns about whether they've biased their detailed results with the specifics of their model setups. Much hinges on whether or not the models were ran with an imposed threshold area or not (it is a little ambiguous in the text, so it's possible that my concerns are for naught and I simply misunderstood what they meant). These concerns (along with other comments that the authors hopefully find helpful) are outlined in my detailed comments below.

AC: Thank you for your constructive comments. The remarks concerning the potential bias associated with the use of a threshold area Ac greater than zero leads to a great number of modifications, especially in the result and discussion sections. However, the results we obtained by using a Ac value equal to zero does not affect the main finding of our study: divide mobility can lead to significant differences between tectonic uplift and basin-wide denudation rates even if topographic steady state is achieved at large scale. We updated the figures in order to represent the new results and take into account the referee's comments. We hope this offers an improved and clearer version of our manuscript.

RC1: L37-38: Probably important to clarify that the divides are migrating in response to the same change (it's implied, but not explicitly stated in the way you word it).

AC: Thank you for this remark. Indeed, the persistence of migrations is not related with change of other factors (i.e. tectonic or climate) during the landscape evolution. Action: We modify the concerned paragraph as following: "Although rivers exhibit a rapid adjustment to tectonic or climatic changes to maintain their profiles, Whipple et al. (2017) show that divides continue to migrate over time periods of 106-107 years as response to the same changes. This suggests that long-term transience might be pervasive in the planar structure of landscapes, even in the absence of new variations in landscape characteristics or forcings (e.g. tectonic or climate) (Hasbargen and Paola, 2000; Hasbargen and Paola, 2003; Pelletier, 2004)."

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RC1: Equation 1: I think the top expression (U + $(dz/dt)_fluv$) should be for A > A sub c, correct?

AC: Thank you for pointing out this inconsistency. We use a value of Ac equal to 0 in the revised version of the manuscript in order not to separate hillslope and fluvial domains. That way diffusion and fluvial erosion affect simultaneously every pixel in the model. Action: we removed the condition that regards Ac in the equation 1.

RC1: L119 – 121: Is the stated critical drainage area applied in the model (i.e. the model is run with the rule set such that diffusion is only applied where A<A sub c and incision is only applied where A>A sub c) or is this simply the threshold area used for extracting the channels (and thus the channel heads) for analysis? My (anecdotal) experience has been that running TTLEM (or really any model that allows you to do so) with an explicit critical drainage area that is built in where it defines where incision/diffusion is applied can produce some odd behaviors and very odd drainage networks. If you were running TTLEM with the critical drainage area option turned on. did you experiment with the sensitivity of your results to turning this off (i.e. setting it to 0)? It's important to note that this option is kind of atypical, i.e. it is not something allowed in CHILD, LandLab, etc. I think more importantly, if you are running with Ac (or AreaThresh as it's named in the TTLEM setup) set to a value greater than zero you are artificially controlling the length of the hillslope (it would otherwise be set by the combination of K and D values you provide) and thus controlling the length scale over which the landscape responds to the divide migration (as this is happening mostly in the hillslopes based on prior results). This may in turn reflect some of your other results (e.g. erosion rates as a function of drainage area, etc).

AC: We agree. We tested the sensivity of our results with Ac equal to 0. Results confirm the referee's intuition, namely that a value of Ac greater than zero controls the length of hillslopes and thus produces odd behaviors. In the revised version of the manuscript, we use Ac = 0 and modified the text and figures accordingly.

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RC1: L125-126: This is the theoretical time to steady-state following a perturbation and assuming a fixed drainage area, which is not really applicable to the time to steady-state for a model ramping up (i.e. running from an initial random noise, low elevation topography to a stabilized topography). I don't think this necessarily matters that much to your results as you are basically just exploiting the fact that this portion of a model run has a lot of drainage reorganization, but I would be careful about equating these.

AC: We agree. Action: We removed the sentence.

RC1: L205-207: This pattern in erosion rates as a function of drainage area pretty much follows from the observation discussed in Forte & Whipple 2018, namely that if considering simulated landscapes experiencing progressive divide motion (as opposed to discrete captures), the erosion rate contrasts across divides is very spatially limited to areas very near the divides (essentially hillslopes), thus as you move to larger drainage areas, the ability to 'see' this across divide contrast in erosion rate in basin averaged values would be expected to decrease as the signal is diluted by more and more of the drainage basin eroding very near the background erosion rate / uplift rate.

AC: We agree. Action: We added the sentence "As exposed by Forte & Whipple (2018), the erosion rate contrasts across divides is spatially limited to areas very near the divides."

RC1: L232-236: This all seems logical, however it might be important to note that basin averaged statistics like this work best when a basin is either uniformly (or at least consistently) either expanding or contracting. This is probably (usually) the case in homogeneous models like the ones you use here, but in either more heterogeneous models or when applied to real landscapes, there is the danger of a basin appearing to be neutral because it is expanding in one direction and contracting in another (i.e. the metrics counterbalance when averaged over the whole basin). This could be especially noticeable when divide migration is driven by a lateral gradient in uplift rate with respect to the main drainage direction. Thus, I would (maybe somewhat self importantly) argue

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that along-divide metrics are still quite useful to consider.

AC: We agree. Even in homogeneous models like the ones we use, basins may experience both expansion and contraction on different parts of their perimeter and a single metrics may not reflect compound behaviors. Action: We added an analysis of the standard deviation of cross-divide differences in metrics along basin perimeter (Figure 7) and associated details in the main text ("Figure 7c shows that the dispersion is related to the standard deviation of aggressivity metrics, $\Delta\chi$ _std, Δ G_std and Δ H_std. In other words, basins where different divide segments migrate at different rates or in different directions are more scattered.").

RC1: L249: This is also consistent with what Forte & Whipple 2018 saw in natural landscapes, i.e. across divide contrasts in elevation were usually equivocal in terms of indicating potential for drainage divide motion compared to the other metrics.

AC: We agree. Our updated model shows the metric based on local slope seems less sensitive to basin-wide denudation from divide migration for area with rock uplift rates ($\leq 0.1 \text{ mm/yr}$). Conversely, even if it depends on the average elevation at regional equilibrium stage, the metric based on elevation seems more relevant. However, this metric would likely display significant noise in natural landscapes.

RC1: L254-255: Why do any of these basins have knickpoints? You're applying a constant uplift rate and progressive divide motion shouldn't really impart knickpoints onto any profiles. Are they coming from captures? While I understand the logic of ignoring basins with knickpoints, it's more that I wonder if the presence of knickpoints in this is suggesting that there may be some stability issues. One of the behaviors of the TVDFVM algorithm is to keep and accentuate any knickpoint (even if those are developed through numerical instability), so it would be good to try to diagnose why there are knickpoints in the first place to rule out model instability. You could try running one of your models with the same exact setup but using the implicit (fastscape) algorithm that's built into TTLEM and see if you also are getting knickpoints.

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AC: We agree, for uniform models knickpoints appear counter-intuitive. However, we observed two processes that produced actual knickpoints (1) the uplift of the initial plateau leads to the propagation of major knickpoints controlled by the edge of the plateau until \sim 2Myr and (2) as you suggest, discrete stream captures occur occasionally. Overall, the great majority of basins (and therefore drainages) are not affected by any knickpoints. Action: We clarified this point by adding the sentence "In our simulations, knickpoints may develop due to (1) the dissection of the initial flat surface or (2) discrete drainage captures (see Sec. 3.1).".

RC1: L274-278: I'm a bit confused by this statement. From my own simulations with TTLEM, if you're starting with the same random noise and keeping everything else the same (i.e. not changing the length of timestep, etc), the drainage network evolution will be pretty much the same regardless of uplift rate. I would expect changes in the effective drainage density to manifest more in response to changes in the diffusion constant or ratios between K and D.

AC: We agree. This behavior was driven by Ac > 0 and our updated model shows a different pattern. We now observe no differences in general drainage geometry. However, we observe an inverse relationship between uplift rate and drainage density consistent with previous theoretical works. Tucker and Bras (1998) found a similar relationship when using a formulation of diffusive processes that includes a threshold slope Sc, as we use in our simulation.

RC1: L283-285: Again, this might be a result of setting the area threshold to a non zero value (assuming you did). I'm also not sure how to interpret Sc if the area threshold is set to a non zero value, because you're artificially controlling the hillslope length and thus (I think) artificially controlling the maximum slope that can develop anyways. If I misunderstood your discussion of A sub c earlier and you were not running with A sub c set to a non zero value, feel free to ignore this comment.

AC: We agree, this is indeed driven by Ac>0. Action: We modified this part of the

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discussion based on the updated results.

RC1: L340-345: This is neat, though (and as you mention in the following sentence) it would be interesting to think about the applicability of this in more heterogeneous environments where, as I mentioned before, there's a greater chance that the basin averaged metric could be misleading (i.e. a low average metric because of coexisting drainage area loss and gain on different sides). Maybe a valuable approach to consider would be including the standard deviation (or min and max) in the basin averaged metric to try to capture this potential variability without having to look at the divide segments in detail?

AC: We agree. As we explained in the previous comment concerning L232-236, we assess the variability of cross-divide contrast in metrics by calculating the standard deviation of metrics along basin perimeter. This allows to discriminate between basins that are homogeneously stable and those that display both expansion and contraction along their perimeter. Action: See RC1: L232-236.

RC1: L349-372: This is a good thing to focus on, but I think you could add an interesting discussion here of considering the sampling strategy with regards to the goal of the study. At present, this gives a (valuable) set of ideas for how large a basin needs to be to get an accurate assessment of the uplift rate from the erosion rate, but alternatively you could point out that this gives you a sense of the size of basin you need to target if you're explicitly interested in measuring divide migration rates, i.e. larger basins are not going to be helpful. Similarly, this speaks to the need to pre assess basins for their potential divide mobility before sampling (if your intention is to get at background uplift rate), i.e. if either the divide segment or basin average metrics suggest no divide mobility, you don't need to worry about the size of the basins as much (except for all the other concerns we already have, that you mention).

AC: We thank you for this pertinent suggestion. Action: We developed this aspect as a new full paragraph in the discussion section.

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Interactive comment on "Estimating the disequilibrium in denudation rates due to divide migration at the scale of river basins" by Timothée Sassolas-Serrayet et al.

Timothée Sassolas-Serrayet et al.

timothee.sassolas-serrayet@umontpellier.fr

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RC2: The paper in review presents a series of numerical models set up to investigate the impact of drainage divide migration on landscape denudation rates, as well as both presenting new topographic metrics and testing the ability of previous ones to detect divide migration. The authors then apply these metrics to provide some useful constraints for basin size for CRN sampling. I think the paper is interesting, well written, and builds well on previous work that quantifies the extent of drainage divide migration across landscapes, given the many papers that have been published in the last few years on the topic. However I have some concerns about the setup of the model, in





particular the use of a parametrised critical area threshold. I therefore think it will be very suitable for publication in ESURF provided that the comments detailed below can be addressed.

AC: Thank you for your positive and constructive comments. We carefully addressed every remark you formulated. Your concerns about threshold area Ac to distinguish hillslope and fluvial domains were justified. In the revised manuscript we produce a new set of results using simulations with no threshold area (Ac=0). This change largely corrects the atypical behaviors underline by both reviewers concerning the length of hillslope, the dependency of drainage network evolution to rock uplift, and the meaning of Sc, but it does not modify the major results concerning the impact of drainage migration on basin-wide denudation rates. We provide a revised version of the manuscript where we present our new results and addressing the referees comments.

RC2: Line 34 - 35: repetition of 'modern landscapes' twice in the sentence.

AC: We agree. Action: We reworded the sentence accordingly.

RC2: Eq 1: I think the fluvial expression should be A > Ac?

AC: We agree. Action: As modified our model with Ac = 0, we removed this condition in Equation 1. See RC1 for details.

RC2: Eq 1: Similar to Reviewer 1, I agree that the model setup described in equation 1 makes it seem like the position of channel heads and resulting drainage divide metrics will be determined by the critical area threshold (Ac) parameter. I'm not convinced that, in real landscapes, there is a critical area threshold for determining channel head location or, if there is, that this should be fixed across the landscape as a whole. This setup seems a bit unintuitive to me - why not just combine fluvial incision with hillslope diffusion at each node and eliminate the need for an Ac parameter in the LEM at all?

AC: We agree. See RC1's comment. Action: See RC1.

RC2: Line 118: Much work has shown that in many real landscapes it is most likely that

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n > 1 [e.g. Lague, 2014; Harel et al., 2016]. This will again have a significant impact on the distribution of slopes and erosion rates within the model landscapes, and may influence the calculation of the divide migration metrics. I think it would be useful to run some test landscapes where n > 1 to determine i) the impact this has on the variability of erosion rate with basin area; and ii) the impact on the aggressivity metrics.

AC: We agree this would be a very interesting alley to explore. However, this would constitute an entirely new study that would go far beyond the scope of the present study. Action: We mentioned this as a perspective in the conclusions.

RC2: Line 121: Following on from this, I would suggest running a sensitivity analysis changing Ac in the model setup to see what effect this has on the calculation of divide migration metrics.

AC: We agree this could be a worthy path to follow. However, following comments from both referees we opted to set Ac = 0 in line with the majority of works published previously in order to produce results that can be compared.

RC2: Line 125: How is it determined whether the model runs have indeed reached steady state?

AC: As expected, the model does not actually reach a perfect steady state but a quasistatic equilibrium. First, we study the reorganization of the drainage after an initial perturbation keeping in mind that the drainage network shall not be affected by the initial model geometry. Next, in our simulations, we consider that the landscape reaches a regional steady state once transient topographies are completely eroded, i.e. once the mean model elevation remains constant and when the average denudation rate and the imposed rock uplift rates deviate by less than 2%. Finally, transient events such as discrete stream captures susceptible to form knickpoints are carefully detected and discarded from the results.

RC2: Line 135: It's a bit unclear how the elevation is calculated. Is this the average

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elevation for all pixels in the basin at each time step?

AC: Basin-wide denudation rate is calculated using the average of differences of elevation in the basin borders during a 10 kyr interval.

RC2: Line 162: It would be good to include some more details here of how this averaging is carried out. Is local slope calculated using a moving window (including hillslopes), or is this just the slope of the first order channel? It wasn't clear to me whether the elevation at each channel head was averaged, or whether the first order channel downstream of the channel head was included. Fig S2: I think it would be useful to edit this figure and move it to the main paper, as it was difficult to follow how the aggressivity metric is calculated from the text. I realise some of this is based on previous work, but the averaging of the cross-divide metrics to produce a new metric for each basin is novel in this paper. I didn't understand how the segmenting shown in Fig S2 was done, or how the segment length over which the averaging should be performed is determined.

AC: We agree we did not provide enough detail on this. All metrics are measured at a reference drainage area. Across-divide metric differences are only calculated along divide segments shared by two reference basins. Hence, aggressivity metrics are the averaging of these documented segments along the perimeter of the sampled basin. Action: We reshaped section 2.3.2 and transferred Fig. S2 from the Supp. Mat. to the main text (now Fig. 2).

RC2: Line 221: As well as drainage divide migration, variability in erosion rate between basins could simply result from the transient propagation of knickpoints, especially in the earlier model runs. This seems to be supported by the fact that the variability decreases significantly through time as shown in Figures 4 (a) - (c). 1 What is the evidence that this variability is in fact due to divide migration and not due to transient knickpoint propagation? In the text it's stated that this is shown from Fig 2(e), but I didn't understand how this figure shows that.

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AC: It is true that transient propagation of knickpoints can affect basin-wide denudation rates. To avoid any erosion signal associated with these transient features, we do not take into account the first stage of the model (< 2Myr for the reference model), when as you highlighted it, major knickpoints are retreating along the edge of a plateau. We also discard from the analysis all basins that contain knickpoints generally formed by discrete stream captures.

RC2: Figure 6 and 7, and Lines 259 - 262: Is there any physical meaning/theoretical prediction for the linear trends on these figures, and how significant are they? If indeed there is a non-linear relationship between S and E, then I wouldn't expect a linear relationship between _G or _H and E/U.

AC: We agree that the relationship between aggressivity metrics and E/U may be more complex than a simple linear relationship (especially when considering the different trends between aggressor and victim basins). We do not propose any physical meaning to explain this relationship, but we simply use it to compare results in regard to the different parameters. Action: We agree this may be misleading and we decide to remove this aspect from our analysis.

RC2: Figure 7: I was quite surprised how noisy some of these data are, especially for the smaller basins, considering that these are all from LEMs and not real landscapes. Maybe this could do with a bit more discussion in the text as to potential reasons for this noise? In the text it's stated that it is due to the presence of significant knickpoints, but I was confused as to whether basins with knickpoints were excluded or not. It raises the possibility that some of these metrics, especially _H, would be too noisy in real landscapes when additional factors such as variations in lithology, rainfall or uplift are taken into account.

AC: We agree the level of noise observed in Figure 7 is surprisingly high. However, it cannot be explained by knickpoints retreats because we excluded all associated basins from our analysis. Action: Following RC1, we now assess the standard deviation of

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cross-divide metric differences along basin perimeter and find that it explains part of the dispersion. We also assess via a "confidence index" the proportion of documented segments when calculating aggressivity metrics. These results are now presented in section 3.

RC2: Lines 275 - 277: I'm also surprised that there is an increase in drainage density with increasing uplift when n = 1 in the model runs. Previous theoretical work by Tucker and Bras [1998] predicted that drainage density should be independent of erosion rate when n = 1, which was then shown by numerical modelling using CHILD by Clubb et al. [2016] (Figures 4 and 5). Furthermore, and more qualitatively, when I have run LEMs with detachment-limited stream power in the past I have generally found that the geometry of the network remains fixed when increasing uplift rate, and only the slopes of the network increase. I think this could be discussed in more detail as to why there is this discrepancy with previous theoretical predictions and numerical modelling results.

AC: Both Tucker and Bras (1998) and Clubb et al. (2016) found that drainage density is independent of erosion rates with n=1 (and therefore, uplift rate in steady-state topography) when using a linear formulation for diffusion. However, when using a formulation that takes into account a threshold slope for hillslope, both studies show an inverse relationship between drainage density and uplift rate. Thus, the results exposed in our study are consistent with these previous theoretical works.

RC2: Line 279: 'we obtain no significant changes in the relationship between the calculated aggressivity metrics and the E/U ratio for uplift rates...' I'm not sure I agree with this statement - from Fig 7, some of the distributions look quite different for U = 0.5 and U = 2 mm/yr, especially for _H. This may be just because of the smaller basins, or that it's difficult to get a sense of how dense the data are in the center of the plot.

AC: We agree the assertion may be misleading. We observe a clear decrease of dispersion for higher uplift rates. However, the trend remains the same regardless of the uplift rate value. In any event, results must be affected by a threshold area Ac fixed

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to a non-zero value. Action: We present detailed results concerning sensibility to uplift rate using a Ac = zero in section 4.1.1.

RC2: Lines 276 and 287: I think it would strengthen the paper to quantify this change in 'river channelization' proposed by the authors. At the moment this appears to be a qualitative statement which is difficult to verify from the current figures and analysis. It's an interesting result that changing the value of Sc influences drainage density, which makes sense from the theory and has implications for real landscapes where Sc is difficult to determine. I think more could be made of this, and suggest simply calculating drainage density for the different model runs. This would put some more weight behind the statement that increasing drainage density is the mechanism by which changing U and Sc impact the aggressivity metrics.

AC: We agree. However, the updated model using Ac = 0 does not display significant discrepancies when Sc varies. As pointed out by RC1, Ac > 0 can artificially control hillslope length and drainage density. Letting U vary does have an effect on drainage density, though, and we agree this should be explored. However, we think that this topic may deserve a dedicated study that is beyond the scope of the present work.

RC2: Lines 314 - 315: I don't understand what are the 'expected quadrants' that the basins are being compared to here. Is this compared to the reference model, or compared to Willett et al. (2014)?

AC: We agree we did not state our terminology clearly. We meant 'expected when comparing to the reference model'. Action: We clarified this by adding the following paragraph: "In agreement with cross-divide metrics tested by Forte and Whipple (2018), graphs in Figure 7 must be divided into four quadrants. Aggressor (victim) basins have negative (positive) $\Delta \chi_a v$ and $\Delta H_a v$ values and conversely positive (negative) $\Delta G_a v$ value (Fig. 2). Theoretically, aggressor (victim) basins have higher (lower) denudation rates than the underlying uplift rate." We also explicitly labeled the aggressors and victims quadrants in the associated figures.

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	Estimating the disequilibrium in depudation rates due to divide		
	migration at the goals of river basing		
	niigrauon at the scale of river basins.		
	Timothée Sassolas-Serrayet ¹ , Rodolphe Cattin ¹ , Matthieu Ferry ¹ , Vincent Godard ² , Martine Simoes ³		(Mis enforme: Français(France)
	¹ Géosciences Montpellier, Université de Montpellier and CNRS <u>UMR 5243</u>, Montpellier <u>34095</u>, France.		Mis en for me: Français(France)
5	 ²Aix Marseille Univ, CNRS, IRD, INRA, Coll France, CEREGE, Aix-en-Provence, France ³Université de Paris, Institut de physique du globe de Paris, CNRS, F-75005 Paris, France 		
	Correspondence to: Timothée Sassolas-Serrayet (timothee.sassolas-serrayet@umontpellier.fr)		Mis en forme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis)
	Abstract. Basin-averaged denudation rates may locally exhibit a wide dispersion, even in areas where the topographic	~	Mis en forme: A nglais(États U nis)
•	steady state is supposedly achieved regionally. This dispersion is often attributed to the accuracy of the data or to some		Mis enforme: Police :GrasAnglais
10	degree of natural variability of the signal, but it which can also be attributed related to stochastic processes such as		
	landsliding. Another physical explanation to this dispersion is that of local and transient disequilibrium between tectonic		
	forcing and erosion at the scale of catchments. Recent worksstudies have shown that divide migration can potentially induce		
I	such perturbations and they propose reliable metrics to assess divide mobility based on cross-divide contrasts in headwater		
	topographic features. Here, we use a set of landscape evolution models assuming spatially uniform uplift, rock strength and		
15	rainfall to assess the effect of divide mobility on basin-wide denudation rates. We propose the use of basin-averaged		
	aggressivity metrics based on cross-divide contrasts (1) in channel-head χ , an integral function of position in the channel		Mis en forme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis)
	network, (2) in channel local slopegradient and in elevation.(3) in channel height, measured at a reference drainage area.		
	From our simulations, we show that the metric based on differences in channel-head elevations across divides χ is the		
	leastmost reliable to diagnose local disequilibrium. For the The other metrics, our results suggest a nonlinear relationship		
20	with are more suitable for relatively active tectonic regions as mountain belts, where contrasts in local gradient and		
	elevation are more important. We find that the ratio of basin denudation associated with drainage migration to uplift, which		
	can reach up to a factor of two, regardless of the imposed uplift rate, erodibility, diffusivity coefficient and critical hillslope		
I	gradient. A comparison with field observations in the Great Smoky Mountains (southern Appalachians, USA) underlines the		
I	difficulty of using the metric based on $\frac{1}{2}\chi$, which depends on thepoorly constrained elevation of the outlet of the		
25	investigated catchment. Regardless-of- the considered metrics, we show that observed dispersion is controlled by catchment		
I	size: a smaller basin may be more sensitive to divide migration and hence to disequilibrium. Our results thus highlight the		
	relevance of divide stability analysis from digital elevation models as a fundamental preliminary step for basin-wide		
	denudation rate studies based on cosmogenic radionuclide concentrations.		

1 Introduction

- 30 Topographic steady state, in which average topography is constant over time, is one of the key concepts of modern geomorphology (e.g. Gilbert, 1877; Hack 1960; Montgomery, 2001). Though simple, this paradigm provides a useful framework to study landscape evolution related to tectonic and/or climatic forcing (e.g. Willett et al., 2001; Reinhart and Ellis, 2015), to spatial variations in rock strength (Perne et al., 2017) or to the geometry of active crustal structures (Lave and Avouac, 2001; Stolar et al., 2007; Scherler et al., 2014; Le Roux-Mallouf et al., 2015). To define topographic steady state,
- 35 the temporal and spatial scales of the processes involved are essential parameters. Compared to large scale geodynamic processes operating over 1-100 Myr timescales, river incision and sediment transport are rapid processes driving landscapes
 to stable forms over this long timescale, whereas rapid climatic fluctuations during the Quaternary may prevent modern landscapes from reaching the occurrence of steady-state conditions in modern landscapes (Whipple, 2001).

The timescale of river divide migration has received increasing attention in the recent years. Although rivers exhibit a rapid 40 adjustment to tectonic or climatic changes to maintain their profiles, Whipple et al. (2017) show that divides continue to 40 migrate over time periods of 10^{6} - 10^{7} years, suggesting as response to the same changes. This suggests that long-term 41 transience might be pervasive in the planar structure of landscapes<u>, even in the absence of new variations in landscape</u> 42 <u>characteristics or forcings (e.g. tectonic or climate)</u> (Hasbargen and Paola, 2000; Hasbargen and Paola, 2003; Pelletier, 2004<u>Dahlquist et al., 2018</u>). In addition to the influence of spatial variability of rock uplift rate, rock strength or rainfall (e.g.

45 Reiner et al., 2003; Godard et al., 2006; Miller et al., 2013), this long timescale could also explain the persistence of spatial variations in denudation rates observed in tectonically inactive orogens in spite of a supposedly and theoretically topographic achieved steady state is achieved (Willett et al., 2014).

As an example of this, in the Great Smoky Mountains in the southern Appalachians, uplift and erosion rates integrated over varying time periods from 10s kyr to 100 Myr give a similar average magnitude of $\frac{0.025 \cdot 0.030 \text{ mm.yr}^4}{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 0.030 \text{ mm.yr}^4}$

- 50 (Matmon et al., 2003a, b and Portenga and Bierman, 2011). These results suggest a regional quasi-topographic steady state over the last ~180 Myr, maintained by the isostatic response of the thickened crust since the end of the Appalachian orogeny
 (Matmon et al., 2003 a, 2003 a, b). Beyond this average value, individual basin-wide denudation rates exhibit a strong dispersion (up to a factor of two, Fig. 1), which is not related to spatial variation in rainfall or in erodibility of the substrate (Matmon et al., 2003b). In a recent study, Willett et al. (2014) assess divide mobility from the contrast in the channel head
- 55 topographic metric χ, taken here as a proxy for steady-state river profile elevation (Perron and Royden, 2012; Royden and Perron, 2013), and propose an explanation in which a significant part of the observed dispersion in denudation rates could be due to drainage divide migration associated with contrasting erosion rates across divides.

Divide migration is often assessed through the metric χ (Willett et al, 2014). More recently, to characterize divide migrations Forte and Whipple (2018) introduced other metrics, referred as "Gilbert metrics" (Gilbert, 1877), based on the cross-divide

60 contrast in channel head local slopegradient and elevation-in order to characterize divide migrations. This last study indeed focused on cross-divide contrasts in headwater basin shape. Here, we model divide migrations and propose to extend these

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 approaches by modeling divide migration and by developing new metrics ofto assess
 divide stability at the scale of the entire

 watershed, which are an expansion of the aggressivity metric initially suggested by Willett et al. (2014). We use these
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 metrics to assess the effect of persistent divide mobility on basin-averaged erosion rates at a timescale of 10⁴ yr. We use
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 numerical landscape evolution models, taking into account both hillslope diffusion and fluvial incision. For the sake of
 simplicity and to avoid the influence of other factors such as topography, lithology, climate or vegetation, we restrict our

 analysis to synthetic orogens with spatially uniform uplift, rock strength and rainfall. After a brief presentation of the used
 landscape evolution model (LEM), we describe the methods developed to assess basin-wide denudation rates and

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 investigate transient time and location of morphologic adjustments to divide migrations. We explore the relevance and

 complementarity of tested relative stability metrics between neighbouringneighboring basins. We then investigate the impact

 of uplift rate_erodibility and hillslope processprocesses on the dynamics of divide migration and associated denudation rates.

Finally, we apply our approach to the basin-wide denudation rates dataset of Matmon (2003a,b) in the case of the Great Smoky Mountains and propose new criteria to guide future sampling strategies to assess basin-wide denudation rates from 75 river sands.

2 Methods

2.1 Landscape Evolution Model (LEM)

We use TTLEM (TopoToolbox Landscape Evolution Model) (Campforts et al., 2017), a landscape evolution model based on the Matlab function library TopoToolbox 2 (Schwanghart and Scherler, 2014). This LEM uses a finite volume method (Campforts and Govers, 2015) to solve the following equation of mass conservation for rock/regolith subject to uplift and denudation:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial t}\right)_{td} + \left\{ \begin{array}{c} -U + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial t}\right)_{fluv} & \text{for } A < A_{\overline{\varphi}} \\ \frac{\rho_{\overline{\varphi}}}{\rho_{\overline{\varphi}}} U + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial t}\right)_{hill} & \text{for } A < A_{\overline{\varphi}} \end{array} \right. \frac{\rho_{T}}{\rho_{S}} U + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial t}\right)_{hill} + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial t}\right)_{fluv},$$

$$(1)$$

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where $\partial z/\partial t$ is the variation of elevation with time, $(\partial z/\partial t)_{td}$ is the change of elevation due to tectonic horizontal advection, U is the rock uplift rate-, ρ_r/ρ_s is the density ratio between the bedrock and the regolith, A is the upstream area and A_{z} is. We use a linear formulation of hillslope diffusion (Culling, 1963) limited by a critical drainage area which corresponds to the transition between hillslope and fluvial processes. slope S_c :

90 Hillslope denudation is given by a non-linear formulation (Roering et al., 1999):

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$$\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial t}\right)_{hill} = -\nabla q_s \qquad \text{with} \qquad q_s = -\frac{\frac{D\nabla z}{ds}}{\frac{1-\left(\frac{d\nabla z}{ds}\right)^2}{s_z}} D\nabla z,$$
(2)

- 95 where g_s is the flux of soil-regolith material. This flux rate increases to infinity when slope tends to a critical value S_c . When slopes values exceed S_c , they are readjusted to the critical value by using a modified version of the excess topography algorithm (Blöthe et al., 2015). The diffusivity D gives the rate of soil-regolith material creep. Its magnitude ranges from 10^{-3} to 10^{-1} m².yr⁻¹ in natural settings and varies with soil thickness, lithology and vegetation (Roering et al., 1999; Jungers et al., 2009; West et al., 2013; Richardson et al., 2019). Hillslope diffusion is implemented in TTLEM using an implicit scheme,
- 100 which is unconditionally stable at large time steps (Perron, 2011).

Pelletier, 2008). Non-linear diffusion formulation (Perron, 2011) is also implemented in TTLEM. However, we favored the use of a linear diffusion with a critical slope, which is more convenient for the time step used in our simulations (=5000 yr) and the set of parameters considered (see section 2.2). Due to the relatively coarse spatial resolution of our models (= 90m), any of these diffusion formulations generate negligible topographic differences on the direct vicinity of crest lines (Roering

105 et al., 1999. Campforts et al., 2017) and do not affect our results (see Fig. S1). Fluvial incision is calculated with a stream power law:

$$\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial t}\right)_{f \, l u \, \nu} = -K A^m \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_\Gamma}\right)^n \,, \tag{3}$$

110 where K is the erodibility coefficient reflecting climate, hydraulic roughness, sediment load and lithology. Its value ranges between 10^{16} and 10^{0} m^(1-2m), yr⁻¹ (Kirby and Whipple, 2001; Harel et al., 2016). A is the upstream area. x_{Γ} is the along stream distance from the outlet of the river. m and n are two parameters which that are usually reported as a m/n ratio ranging between 0.35 and 0.8. River The river incision law is implemented in TTLEM using an explicit scheme based on a higher-order flux-limiting finite volume method that is total variation diminishing (TVD-FVM) [see Campforts and Govers 115] (2015) and Campforts et al. (2017) for further details]. Its main advantage is to eliminate numerical diffusion, which is

present in most other schemes solving differential equations of river incision. This last point has a significant impact on the accuracy of basin-wide simulated denudation rates, making TTLEM a well-suited LEM for the purpose of this study.

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2.2 Modeling approach and assumptions

2.2.1 Geometry and meshing

120 Since the computation is performed using a discretized land surface, smaller mesh sizes will-lead to detailed topography but will lengthen the computation time and memory requirements. Hereinafter, we consider a reference square landscape model of 50 km side with a grid resolution of 90 m, which is a good compromise between computation time (3-5 hours on a PC workstation) and the total amount of basins that can be studied (>1000). Our results are not affected when the meshgrid resolution is increased to 30 m nor are they when the model size is multiplied by four (100x100 km) (See (see Fig. S1S2).

125 2.2.2 Boundary conditions

In order to isolate the effect of divide migrations on the variability of basin-wide denudation rates, we explore simple models with constant and spatially uniform uplift and precipitation rates and we assume no horizontal advection $(\partial z/\partial t)_{td} = 0$. We use a Dirichlet boundary condition: simulation edges are not affected by uplift on a one pixel band to represent a stable bas e level for rivers. The model presents no initial topography, except for gaussian noise ranging between 0 and 50 m so as to initiate a random fluvial network.

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2.2.3 Set of parameters

Firstly, we consider a reference model with parameters commonly used for moderately active orogens: an uplift rate U of 0.1 mm.yr⁻¹, a diffusivity D of 10^2 m².yr⁻¹ (Roering et al., 1999), a threshold slope S_c of 30° (Burbank et al., 1996; Montgomery et Brandon, 2002; Binnie et al., 2007), a m/n ratio of 0.5 with m = 0.5 and n = 1, an erodibility coefficient K of $\frac{5 \times 10^6}{5 \times 10^6}$ $m^{+}1x10^{-5}$ m^(1-2m)-yr⁻¹, a ρ_r / ρ_s ratio of 1.3 and a critical drainage area A_{z} of 0.2 km² (Montgomery et al., 1993).

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Secondly, all other parameters held constant, we investigate the specific impact of uplift rate, erodibility and hillslope processes in other models by varying U, K, D and S_c between 0.501 and 21 mm. $vr^{-1}, 5.10^{5}$ m^(1-2m). vr^{-1} and 5.10^{6} m^(1-2m). vr^{-1} . 10^{-3} and 10^{-1} m².yr⁻¹ and 20° and 40° , respectively.

In order to better constrain the variability of our results under similar conditions, we run for each model five simulations using the same parameters, but with different initial random topographies.

2.2.4. Timescale

The total duration of simulations is 10 Myr, which is nearly one order of magnitude longer than the theoretical time to reach general topographic equilibrium for our set of parameters (Willett, 2001)... The implicit scheme used to simulate non-linear hillslope processes provides stable solutions regardless of the time step. In contrast, the explicit scheme used to model fluvial

145 incision requires a time step that satisfies the Courant-Friedrich-Lewy criterion. Hereinafter, we choose a time step Δt of $\frac{5005000}{5000}$ yr for hillslope diffusion. Our results are not affected when using a smaller Δt (i.e. 1000 yr) (see Fig. S1). Incision

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computation is nested in this time step and uses another time step that is automatically determined to assure model stability (Campforts et al., 2017).

2.3 Basin-wide denudation rates and aggressivity metrics

150 2.3.1 Basin-wide denudation rates

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We derive basins from the synthetic DEMs (Digital Elevation Models) using an accumulation map computed with a single flow direction algorithm implemented in TopoToolbox (Schwanghart and Scherler, 2014). Next, we calculate for each basin the variation in <u>average</u> elevation over a time interval of 10 kyr, which averages the results over 20 time steps. The drainage network <u>can migratemigrates</u> during the simulation, so we only survey the basins that keep the same outlet location during this time interval. Furthermore, due to divide mobility, the geometry of watersheds can also change. Hence, we measure the average difference in elevation inside the basin perimeter after 10 kyr. Here we only assess the surface uplift U_c (England

- and Molnar, 1990). To obtain approximate the real-denudation rates $E_{\rm f}$ for each basin, we sum the surface uplift U_s with the rock uplift rate $U_{\rm assumed in our simulation}$ and divide the result by the time interval, which is an approximation. However, ealculating incremental denudation rates over each time step is prohibitive in terms of computation time for the number of
- 160 extracted basins. By considering the relatively small period over which we integrate denudation (10 kyr), we then assume that these approximations have a negligible impact on the results at first order. Calculated that way, the denudation rate. If the basin is in a topographic steady state, U_s is equal to zero and E is equal to the background uplift rate. Thus, a positive (negative) value of U_s traduce a deficit (an excess) of denudation. Calculated that way, E is sensitive to divide migration but also to transient features like knickpoints that migrate along the river network. In our simulations, knickpoints may develop due to (1) the dissection of the initial flat surface or (2) discrete drainage captures (see Sec. 3.1). We use the knickpointfinder
 - algorithm implemented in TopoToolbox (Schwanghart and Scherler, 2014) to identify the affected basins.

2.3.2 From cross-divide metrics to basin averaged aggressivity metrics

Most recent studies have focused on the relationship between drainage divide mobility and headwater across-divide contrast in either χ , slopegradient, elevation or local relief values (e.g.-Whipple et al., 2017; Forte and Whipple, 2018). Here, in line with Willett et al. (2014, see Supp. Mat. therein) we focus on the specific influence of divide migration on denudation rates

at the scale of the entire stream basin. Our approach aims to integrate cross-divide contrasts in drainage network properties along the entire basin perimeter. We then obtain basin-averaged aggressivity metrics that determine if a watershed is either growing or shrinking (Willett et al. 2014).

First we calculate χ , local slope and elevation map for each channel pixel. χ First, we assess χ , local topographic gradient *G* and height *H* of the drainage network at a reference drainage area A_{ref} (Fig. 2). Ideally, A_{ref} must be equal to the area at which channelization occurs (Forte and Whipple, 2018). However, it is challenging to locate the accurate position of channel

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heads (Clubb et al., 2016). Hence, we use a constant value of A_{ref} set to 1 km². The parameter χ , is an integral function of position along the channel network (Perron and Royden, 2012) described by the equation:

180
$$\chi = \int_{x_b}^x \left(\frac{A_0}{A(x)}\right)^{\frac{m}{n}} dx$$

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(4)

where A(x) is the upstream drainage area at the location x, A_0 is an arbitrary scaling area set to 1 km². The *m* over *n* ratio refers here to the reference concavity of an equilibrated river profile. Its value is set to 0.5 in accordance with the model parameters. For each independent drainage network, we integrate χ from the outlet x_{b_1} located at the model boundary (< 1 m high), to the channel heads. We then Local gradient is determined for each DEM pixel from its eight-connected neighbors.

Height is simply extracted from the DEM.

Then, we calculate the difference in channel head χ , local slope of metrics $(\Delta \chi, \Delta G$ and elevation ΔH) across each first order basin the segments of divide segment. The shared by two reference basins. Finally, the aggressivity metric is finally obtained by averaging these first order across-divide differences along the perimeter of each extracted sampled basin (Fig. S-2). This way, the sign of the aggressivity metric in a basin corresponds to the difference of the averaged value of considered metric

- 190 way, the sign of the aggressivity metric in a basin corresponds to the difference of the averaged value of considered metric (Channel head χ , slope or elevation difference ($\Delta \chi \Delta G$ and ΔH) in this basin with respect to hisits neighbours. This method has the advantage to ponderate the weight of individual divide segments by the number of pixels they contain, and then to provide a robust assessment of the basin aggressivity. Aggressivity metrics based on χ , G and H are hereafter referred to as $\Delta \chi_{av} \Delta G_{av}$ and ΔH_{av} , respectively, which provide an accurate assessment of the basin aggressivity. However, due to
- 195 topology issues, some parts of the perimeter of the sampled basins may be not shared by two reference basins (Fig. 2). We quantify this incompleteness by assessing the ratio of documented pixels over the total amount of pixel along the basin perimeter. We refer to this ratio as the "confidence index" CI, assuming that an higher CI is associated with a more robust basin aggresivity assessment.

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3 Results

200 **3.1 Evolution of reference model**

A detailed analysis of the DEM suggests that during the initial phase, the flat initial surface (Fig. 2a3a) is progressively uplifted to form a plateau. At the same time the edges of this plateau are gradually regressively eroded by drainage networks that spread from the base level toward the center of the model (Figs. 2b3b and c). This transient landscape is completely dissected after 2 Myr. From this time and until the end of the simulation, landscape changes are mainly due to competition

²⁰⁵ between watersheds, resulting in continuous divide migrations with decreasing intensity as the model is moving toward a total topographic equilibrium (Fig. 2d3d to f; Supplementary Video n°1).

WeTo define the time period of regional steady state, we measure the average elevation, the maximum elevation and the average denudation rate over the entire model for each time step (Fig. 3a) and 4a). We identify two distinct stages during the evolution of our reference simulation. During the first million years, due to long wavelength topographic building, the calculated landscapes are far from steady state. This leads to a major increase of the mean elevation from 0 m to ca. 70075

calculated landscapes are far from steady state. This leads to a major increase of the mean elevation from 0 m to ca. 70075
 m. In a second stage, this trend reverses and the mean elevation decreases asymptotically toward ca. 60060 m until the end of the simulation.

The evolution of the maximum elevation follows the same pattern but can be affected by temporal changes in the location and altitude of higherhighest peaks. The maximum elevation increases between 0 and ca. $\frac{2200250}{2200250}$ m over the first $\frac{2}{2}$ Myr

215 (Figs. 3a<u>3Myr (Fig. 4a</u>) then decreases progressively to reachremain at ca. 1600200 m atduring the endrest of the simulation. We compute the average denudation rate from the tectonic prock uplift rate and from average elevation change over the entire model between two time steps ÷:

$$(\Delta z / \Delta t)_{av} = U - E_{av} ,$$

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where $(\Delta z/\Delta t)_{av}$ is the average surface uplift over the entire model on a time-step Δt , U-is the imposed uniform uplift rate Mis enforme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis) Mis enforme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis) (0.1 mm.yr⁻¹) and E_{av} is the average "real" denudation rate. During the first 0.25 Myr, the mean denudation rate falls Mis enforme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis) abruptly from ca. 0.6 mm, yr⁻¹ to nearly 0 mm, yr⁻¹ as a consequence of diffusion over the initial flat topography. After that Mis enforme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis) time and until the first 1 Myr, the mean denudation rate increases but remains lower than the uplift rate, leading to the 225 increase in average elevation over this time period. Next in In the following 0.51 Myr. Fax exceeds the uplift rate to reach up Mis enforme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis) to 1.030.104 mm.yr⁻¹. It then before it gently decreases to 0.1 mm.yr⁻¹ duringuntil the restend of the simulation. This shows that topography tends to - but never reaches - a strict steady state over the simulation time. Abrupt changes in E_{av} after ca. 2Mis enforme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis) Myr, 2.5 Myr and 3.2 Myr can also be highlighted (Fig. 3b). These brief variations 2.5, 3.5, 4.5 and 9.5 Myr (red circles in Figure 4b) are related to major local captures in the drainage network, which can be observed during the model evolution 230 (red circles in Fig. 2d3e and f and Supplementary Video n°1). On the basis of Based on these results, we will consider that quasi-a regional topographic steady-state is reached between 1.5 and 2 Ma, when the plateau relict topography is totally eroded and F_{av} begins to decrease (Figs. $\frac{23}{24}$ and $\frac{34}{24}$). This time is Mis enforme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis) consistent with the time required to reach topographic steady state proposed from models with constant uplift rate and no horizontal advection (Willett et al., 2001). 3.2 Basin-wide denudation rates variability 235 We calculate basin-wide denudation rates E upstream of each stable drainage network confluence after 2.5 Myr, 5 Myr and Mis enforme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis) 10 Myr of simulation (Figs. 4a, b and c). As explained in the method section, we compiled the results obtained for five runs ampled basins.5a, b and c, in order to

(5)

I	respectively) Regardless of the duration, we observe a significant variability in the calculated depudation rates depending on	 Mis on former Anglais/Poyaume-Un
240	basin size. This As exposed by Forte & Whipple (2018), the erosion rate contrasts across divides is spatially limited to areas	
	very near the divides. Thus, the variability is maximum for small basins (ca. 1 km ²) and decreases with increasing basin area	 Mis on former Anglais/Poyaume-Uni
	In our approach small basins are nested in larger ones. Hence these results can be related to the averaging of depudation	
	rates along the drainage network in agreement with the measurements of Matmon et al. (2003b). This variability along	
	decreases with time (Eise 4a h and 5a c). For basing with an average of depudding relative to the writing rote II the E/II ratio	
245	decreases with time (Figs. $\frac{4}{40}$, $\frac{1}{100}$ and $\frac{3}{24}$ -c). For basins with an excess of denudation relative to the uplit rate U , the E/U ratio	Mis enforme: Anglais(EtatsUnis)
245	can reach up to $\frac{32.5}{2.5}$ after 2.5 Myr but only 2 after 5 Myr and 1.57 after 10 Myr. <u>Basins with a denudation excess that stand</u>	Mis en forme: Anglais(ÉtatsUlhis)
	out of the general trend at 10 Ma (Fig. 5c) are associated with a capture event visible in Figure 4b. For basins with a deficit of	
	denudation, this the evolution of the ratio is less obvious. It can be lower than 0.255 after 2.5 Myr, but increases slightly to	
	0.4 after 56 until 10 Myr. These results reflect a significant spatial variability of the difference between basin-wide	
	denudation rates and 0.5 after 10 Myruplift rate. To assess more accurately the temporal evolution of this variability, we	
250	calculate <u>E</u> every 0.5 Myr for three distinct categories of basin sizes: 1-2 km ² , 10-20 km ² and 100-200 km ² . We then	 Mis en forme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis)
	estimate the mean absolute deviation (MAD) from the uplift rate by considering separately basins with a denudation in	
	excess or in deficit (Fig. 445d). Until 1.5 Ma, basins are located on the plateau where denudation rate is null. This leads to a	
1	low MAD for basins with a denudation deficit and to the absence of basins with a denudation excess. After 1.5 Ma, basins in	
	deficit exhibit an $\frac{\text{asymptotic}}{\text{increase}}$ in MAD from nearly -0.215 to -0.0504 mm.yr ⁻¹ , regardless of the area class considered.	
255	For basins in excess, the MAD value decreases through time, depending on drainage area : from ca. $0.\frac{28 \text{ mm.yr}^4 25}{25}$ to ca.	
	0.0507 mm.yr ⁻¹ for basins with an area of 1-2 km ² and 10 20 km ² ; from ca. 0.142 mm.yr ⁻¹ to ca. 0.0507 mm.yr ⁻¹ for basins	
	with an area of 100-200km?. These results reflect a significant spatial variability of 10-20 km ² and from ca. 0.7 to ca. 0.04	
	mm.yr ⁻¹ for the difference between basin-wide denudation rates and uplift rate in our reference models-largest basins. We	
	also see a coherent evolution of this difference over the simulation time, consistent with the model progression toward a total	
260	topographic equilibrium.	
	The spatial variability of the denudation rates is neither homogeneous nor randomly distributed (Fig. 5a6a). The location of	
	drainage basins with denudation rates far from the equilibrium value of 0.1 mm.yr ⁻¹ coincides with migrating drainage	
	divides (Fig. 2e3d) and with cross-divide contrasts in headwater channel χ , slope gradient and elevation height (Figs. 5b, e and	 Mis enforme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis)
	6b-d). Following Willett et al. (2014) and Forte and Whipple (2018), the divide migrations predicted by these contrasts are	
265	consistent with the direction of divide mobility obtained from our model. One may note that the higher the contrast in these	
200	parameters across the divide the higher the deviation of the depudation rate from the unlift rate and therefore from	
I	tonographic equilibrium These None of sampled basin in this data-set contains a knickpoint. Thus, these results based on	
	simulations assuming uniform and constant properties as well as constant boundary conditions confirm that the dispersion	
	observed in depudation rates is primerily controlled by divide migration. Basing that around (christ) show higher (lower)	
270	donudation rates compared to unlift rate and an homefter referred to accompare (victime) following the territed or	
270	denudation rates compared to upint rate, and are nerearter referred to as aggressors (victims), following the terminology	()
	adopted by whilet et al. (2014).	 Mis en forme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis)

Willett et al. (2014) showed that the basin-averaged cross-divide contrast in χ , could be used to deduce an aggressivity metric for basins. We extend this basin-scale approach to the Gilbert's metrics recently proposed by Forte and Whipple (2018) including cross-divide contrast in headwater slope and elevation. Hereinafter, we refer to these aggressivity metrics based on cross-divide contrast in headwater χ , headwater slope (gndient) and headwater clevation (height) as 4χ - $4G$ and $4H_{\rm gradient}$ and elevation, mespectively.Mis enforme: Anglais(États205(2018) including cross-divide contrast in headwater χ , headwater slope (gndient) and headwater clevation (height) as 4χ - $4G$ and $4H_{\rm gradient}$ and elevation, mespectively.Mis enforme: Anglais(États206reference models after a simulation duration of 2.5 Myr. Denudation rates may be affected by knickpoints, which are a source of transient perturbation at the scale of the catchment. Therefore, in order to focus only on perturbations associated with drainage divide dynamics, basins that contain knickpoints are ignored. In agreement with cross-divide metrics tested by Forte and Whipple (2018), aggressorgraphs in figure 7 must be divided into four quadrants. Aggressor (victim) basins have negative (positive) $4\chi d\chi_{av}$ and $4H dH_{av}$ values and conversely positive (negative) $4G dG_{av}$ value: (Fig. 2). Theoretically, aggressor (victim) basins have higher (lower) denudation rates than the underlying uplift rate. Therefore graphs in figure 6 must be divided into four quadrants, with aggressors situated in the lower left one, and victims in the higher right one. This result is verified for ca. 91, 8881 %, 52 %, and 8281 % of basins of aggressivity metric based on headwater χ , slope and elevation value: $A_{drav} and AH_{arx} respectively (Figs. 6a, b and c). Sevenal basins depart significantly formthe expected$	Unis) Unis) Unis)
 metric for basins. We extend this basin-scale approach to the Gilbert's metrics recently proposed by Forte and Whipple (2018) including cross-divide contrast in headwater slope and elevation. Hereinafter, we refer to these aggressivity metrics based on cross divide contrast in headwater x, headwater slope (gradient) and headwater clevation (height) as 4x, 4G and 4H-gradient and elevation, respectively. We here assess the relationship between the <i>E/U</i> ratio and these aggressivity metrics. First, to exclude variability related to both basin area and time, we focus on a single class of basins with a size of 10-202-4 km² gathered from five computed reference models after a simulation duration of 2.5 Myr. Denudation rates may be affected by knickpoints, which are a source of transient perturbation at the scale of the catchment. Therefore, in order to focus only on perturbations associated with drainage divide dynamics, basins that contain knickpoints are ignored. In agreement with cross-divide metrics tested by Forte and Whipple (2018), negreessorgraphs in figure 7 must be divided into four quadrants, with aggressors situated in the lower left one, and vietures in the higher right one. This result is verified for ca. 91, 8881 %, 52 % and 8281 % of basins for aggressivity metrics denue denue for <i>AG</i> and <i>AH</i> these exhibit significant knickpoints in their durange network that increase measured denutation measure denutation measure denutation for <i>AG</i> and <i>AH</i>. these exhibits significant knickpoints in their durange network that increase measured denutation for the dispersion observed around this first order trend may be explained by a linear relationship (Figs. 6a and b). Part of the dispersion observed around this first order trend may be explained by a metric Anglais(États) 	Unis)
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seems to be ΔG_{av} is less sensitive to drainage migration and shows a more scattered distribution (Fig. 6e).	
In natural settings, the stage of evolution of landscapes cannot be easily defined and the total amount of basins with a	
295 specific size may be limited. The large dataset provided byfrom our model modeling can provide further insights by gathering	
the results obtained every 0.5 Myr for seven classes of basin areas expanding geometrically with a multiplying factor of 2	
from 1-2 to 64-128 km ² (Figs. 6d, e and f). Denudation rates can be affected by knickpoints, which are an additional source	
of transient perturbation at the seale of the eatchment. Therefore, in order to focus on perturbations associated with drainage	
divide dynamics, basins that contain knickpoints are ignored. 7b). Basins that contain knickpoints are discarded from the	
300 analysis. Our results highlight the major control of basin size on the dispersion <u><i>E/U</i></u> : When all classes of drainage areas are	Unis)
combined together, we still obtain a clear relationship between aggressivity metrics and <i>E/U</i> , with 77 %, 56 % and 78 % of Mis enforme: Anglais(États)	Unis)
basins lying in aggressors or victims quadrants for $\Delta \chi_{av} \Delta G_{av}$ and ΔH_{av} , respectively (Fig 7b). Our results highlight the	
major control of basin size on the dispersion $E/U_{2}A_{2}$ and AG and E/U_{2} (Fig 6d and e). One may note however Part of the Mis enforme: Anglais(États	U nis)
variability intrinsic for each class of basin area may in turn be explained by heterogeneities in aggressivity between different Mis en forme: Anglais(États	U nis)

- 305 parts of a basin. Figure 7c shows that this dispersion is related to the standard deviation of aggressivity metrics. $\Delta \chi_{std} \Delta G_{std}$ and ΔH_{std} . In other words, basins where different divide segments migrate at different rates or in different directions are more scattered. The lower the confidence index, the more scattered the results (Fig. 7d). Thus, some dispersion may come from approximations due to undocumented divide segments performed when averaging metrics differences between reference basins (Fig. 2). One may note two different trends for victim and aggressor basins. Aggressors show a more
- scattered distribution for $4 \chi \Delta \chi_{av}$ and $4 G \Delta G_{av}$ metrics. When compared to victims, these basins have hillslopes closer to the critical value *Sc* (Fig. S3). Hence, the dispersion may be explained by the non-linear relationship existing between denudation rates and basin slope (Montgomery and Brandon, 2002; Binnie et al., 2015). Therefore, a simple linear trend is no longer sufficient to properly fit our results. Hence we consider victim and aggressor basins independently assuming two

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315 4 Discussion

4.1 Sensitivity tests

linear trends between-E/U-and each aggressivity metrie.

The reference model involves various parameters related to uplift, <u>fluvial incision and</u> hillslope denudation-and fluvial incision. A systematic analysis of all parameters-trade-off between allparameters is out of the scope of this manuscript. Here, we do not investigate the effect of erodibility, because it remains poorly constrained in nature and because our study is

320 mostly focused on channel head properties. In this section, we assess the sensitivity of the results to both tectonic and hillslopeerosion processes, by studying the specific impact of uplift <u>U</u>, erodibility <u>K</u>, diffusivity <u>D</u> and critical hillslope gradient <u>Sc taken separately. Varying these parameters may change the simulation time required to erode the plateau</u> associated with the initial boundary conditions. In this section, to reduce sensitivity dependence on these initial conditions. we only consider results obtained between 5 Ma and 10 Ma.

325 4.1.1 Sensitivity to uplift rate

We vary the tectonic test rock uplift rate from rates of 0.501 mm.yr^{-1} , 0.1 mm.yr^{-1} (hereafter called reference model) and 1 mm.yr^{-1} to 2 mm.yr^{-1} , which is incover the range observed in moderately active mountain belts; e.g. the Alborz, the Alps or the Caucasus of a large variety of geodynamic settings (Champagnac et al., 2009; Djamour et al., 2010; Vincent et al., 2011), 2012). It is well-known that a river responds to a fall in base level (due to changes in rock uplift rate or other forcing)

by cutting downward into its bed, deepening and widening its active channel. In our simulations, changes in uplift rate lead to variations in the geometrydensity of the drainage network. Compared to the reference model, an uplift rate of 21 mm.yr⁻¹ (0.501 mm.yr⁻¹) results in an a decrease (increase (decrease) of river channelization - inversely proportional to drainage density - which induces larger (smaller) river basins, a lower (higher) range of values for 4χ and 4G and a higher (lower) range of values for 4H (Fig. 7). More importantly, our simulations suggest a linear. These results are consistent with

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- previous studies that show an inverse relationship between tectonic upliftdrainage density and denudationerosion rates. As a 335 result, assuming no climate tectonic feedback we obtain no significant changes in equilibrium topography when using a threshold slope for diffusion processes (Tucker and Bras, 1998; Clubb et al., 2016). An increase in uplift rate favors river entrenchment leading to increase the range of ΔG_{av} and ΔH_{av} (Fig. 8). relationship between the calculated aggressivityHence, these two Gilbert's metrics and the E/U-ratio for appear to be well suited to diagnose local disequilibrium 340
- for higher uplift rates ranging between 0.5(i.e. ≥ 1 mm.yr⁻¹ and 2 mm.yr⁻¹. Conversely increase uplift rate induces a lower range of values for $\Delta \chi_{av}$. This last observation is explained by the decrease of drainage density, and associated stream length.

<u>Maximum variability of E/U reaches a factor regardless the assumed uplift rate between 1 mm.yr⁻¹ and 0.01 mm.yr⁻¹. The</u> observed small differences suggest that limited uplift rate promote diffusive processes (see Sect. 4.1.3).

345 4.1.2 Influence of erodibility

Fluvial erosion is proportional to the erodibility coefficient K that may reflect, among others, rock strength and climate. We let this parameter vary between 5.10^6 m^(1-2m), yr⁻¹ and 5.10^5 m^(1-2m), yr⁻¹. As expected from (Eq.1 and 3), we find that erodibility and uplift rates have opposite effects. Lower (higher) values of erodibility lead to higher (lower) average topography. Thus, an increase (decrease) in erodibility decreases (increases) the range of all aggressivity metrics (Fig. 9).

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Lower values of erodibility also increase the range of the E/U ratio. Models with higher (lower) erodibility reach a quasitopographic steady state earlier (at a later stage). Hence, differences in the variability of E/U may be related to different stages of evolution for each models over the period we consider (5 to 10 Ma) (Fig. 5d).

4.1.3 Influence of hillslope processes

	Hillslope denudation is proportional to the diffusivity coefficient <i>D</i> and depends on the critical slope SeSc (Eq. 2). To test	Mis en forme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis)
355	the effect of hillslope processes, we first vary let p vary between 10^{-3} and 10^{-4} m ² .yr ⁻¹ . We find and 10^{-1} m ² .yr ⁻¹ . Compared to	Mis en forme: A nglais(États U nis)
	the reference model, we find no major difference with the reference model over that range of values for D (Fig. differences	
	in the case of a lower diffusivity (i.e. 0.001 m ² .yr ⁻¹) (Fig. 10c). In contrast, for models with higher diffusivity coefficient (i.e.	
	0.1 m ² .yr ⁻¹), this parameter has a significant effect on both the range of E/U and the aggressivity metric ΔG_{av} (Fig. 10a).	
	This result derives from a stronger impact of diffusive processes in the upstream parts of the drainage network, consistent	
360	with the observations described in section 4.1.1.8)-Denudation intensity also varies inversely to the square of the critical	
	hillslope gradient Sc (Eq. 2). Assuming a critical slope between 20° and 40°, we find that Sc is a parameter influencing	Mis en forme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis)
	aggressivity metrics (Fig. 9). As in the case of variations in uplift rate, changes in Sc-lead to differences in the organization	
	of the drainage network. Compared to the reference model, a low Sc-leads to large river channelization, reducing the range	
	of all aggressivity metrics, but does not affect significantly the relationship between the E/U ratio and the studied metrics-	Mis en forme: Anglais(ÉtatsUnis)
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365 These observations are consistent with a landscape where hillslopes are completely determined by the assumed critical slope value. (Fig.11).

Altogether, these sensitivity tests demonstrate the robustness of our findings: $\frac{4}{3}$ and $\frac{46}{4}$. Regardless of the tested parameter values, we observe a relationship between aggressivity metrics and deviation of denudation rates from uplift rates. Thus,

370 aggressivity metrics are, to the first-order, reliable metrics to assess the effect of divide mobility on basin-wide denudation rates inferred from simulations. In the following section, we apply this approach to field observations and discuss the consequences for sampling and interpretation.

4.2 Implication Implications for the interpretation of basin-wide denudation rate interpretation rates

Over the last decades, measurements of cosmogenic radionuclides (CRN) concentration in alluvial sediments (see Granger et 375 al., 2013 and references therein), of suspended sediments (Gabet et al., 2008) and of detrital thermochronology (Huntington and Hodges, 2006) have become common practices to assess basin-wide denudation rates. However, their interpretation remains debated, even in settings where topographic steady state is supposedly achieved regionally.

4.2.1 Application to the Great Smoky Mountains

As previously mentioned (Matmon et al., 2003a, b), while the Great Smoky Mountains in the southern Appalachians are 380 expected to be in a quasi-topographic steady state, basin-wide denudation rates show a strong dispersion up to a factor of 2two in comparison withto the estimated uplift rate (0.025 toca. 0.03 mm.yr⁻¹, see Fig. 1). Basins in We use the Great Smoky Mountains exhibit average slope values ranging between 20 and 30° (Matmon et al., 2003a). This may suggest that hillslopes of repose. On the basis of the consider that our approach is applicabl thedata associated with 40 basins studied originally sampled by Matmon et al., (2003a, b), even though estimated uplift rates 385 differ by nearly two orders of magnitude when compared to the uplift rates used in our models. We use the data associated with 40 basins originally sampled by Matmon et al., (2003a) and for which denudation rates were re-calculated by Portenga and Bierman (2011). Following our method, we calculate the three basin-averaged aggressivity metrics $\frac{4\chi}{4G} \frac{4G}{\chi_{aux}} \Delta G_{aux}$ and $\Delta H\Delta H_{av}$ associated with these 40 catch ments (Fig. 1012; See also Fig. S4S3). The calculation of χ requires to define the elevation of the catchment outlets H_b and the m/n ratio (Eq. 4). As underlined by Forte and Whipple (2018), the choice of

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- 390 the "correct" outlet elevation is non-trivial in natural settings. We first consider a local base level given by the Tennessee river<u>River</u>. To test the relevance of this choice, we also testuse a base level located at a fixed <u>arbitrary</u> elevation $H_b = 400$ m. We use assume the same m/n ratio value of 0.45 as used in the by Willett et al. (2014) study for the Great Smoky Mountains. For all calculated metrics, the majority (ca. 7558% for $4G\Delta G_{av}$ and 55ca. 66% for $4H\gamma\Delta H_{av}$) of the basins are located in the expected quadrants (see Fig. 7). However, more attention must be given to the results based on 4χ $\Delta \chi_{av}$. For this metric, 62ca. 58% of the analyzed basins lie in the expected quadrant when we consider the Tennessee river as the local base level
- 395

versus $-\frac{67ca}{68}$ for $H_b = 400$ m (Fig. 10). If (12b). A lthough the general result remains overall results are similar here, we show that the choice of a different base level H_b leads to significant variations in $4\chi \Delta \chi_{av}$ for individual basins. This highlights the main weakness of the $4\chi \Delta \chi_{av}$ metric, which is highly sensitive to the choice of the proper base level H_b . Nevertheless, our results confirm the findings of Willett et al. (2014), suggesting that a significant part of the data variance

- 400 observed in the Matmon et al. (2003a, b) can be explained by divide migration (Fig. 1012), raising this possible explanation for the variability of most natural data-sets. One may note that the Southern Appalachians exhibit migrating knickpoints that can locally affect denudation rates (Gallen et al., 2011-; Gallen et al., 2013). This last point can also explain part of the observed variability in this dataset but this specific impact is beyond the scope of the present <u>manuscriptstudy</u>.
- Based on both our simulations and this field dataset, we propose to favor the use of the Gilbert metric ΔG based on the crossdivide contrast in channel head local slope (Forte $\Delta \chi_{av}$ and Whipple, 2018). ΔH_{av} . Among the tested metrics, $\Delta H \Delta G_{av}$ appears the least sensitive to disequilibrium, and $\Delta \chi$ requires better constraining and defining objective criteria for H_{π} -excepted in active mountain belts with rock uplift U > 1 mm.yr⁻¹.

4.3.2 Assessment of topographic disequilibrium

410 Topographic steady-state is a very convenient assumption and concept to deduce the uplift pattern in mountains ranges from denudation rates, and thus to obtain significant information on the geometry of active structures and on orogen dynamics (Lavé and Avouac, 2001, Godard et al., 2014; Scherler et al., 2014; Le Roux-Mallouf et al., 2015). However, this assumption is seldom verified at the scale of sampled watersheds.

On the basis of our modeling, we show that the competition between low-order basins has a significant impact on basin-wide denudation rates. The proposed approach provides a new tool to assess the potential maximum deviation from topographic steady state based on aggressivity metrics and drainage area, which can both be inferred from a simple DEM. The: the closer to zero the aggressivity metrics and the lower the standard deviation of cross-divide metrics, the more representative toof

uplift rate are the measured denudation rates. However it still remains dispersion of denudation rates values, especially for smaller catchments.
 Based on our sensitivity tests for moderately active orogens (with uplift rates between 0.5 and 2 mm/yr), the empirical

relationship between ΔG and E/U obtained from the reference model (Fig. 6) can be used to assess the topographic disequilibrium of basins. Especially for victim basins ($\Delta G < 0$), this relationship exhibits a linear relationship:

 $\frac{-4}{2} = 0.03\Delta G$ for basin area > 50 km²-

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For the sake of simplicity our models involve spatially homogenous and time invariant parameters. Additional simulations are now needed to test this approach in more complex settings, including spatial and temporal variability in climate and tectonic forcing or internal landscape parameters like erodibility.

4.4.3 Improvement of sampling strategy

- 430 Basin-wide denudation rates obtained from CRN concentration measurements, suspended sediments or detrital thermochronology depend on many parameters including lithology, ice cover, rainfall, landslide activity or tectonic uplift (Vance et al., 2003; Bierman and Nichols, 2004; Wittmann et al., 2007; Yanites et al., 2009; Norton et al., 2010; Godard et al., 2012; Whipp and Elhers, 2019). Hence, to unravel the influence of tectonics from other processes, a specific sampling strategy is usually recommended: (1) to sample catchments with homogeneous lithologies to limit the effect of spatial
- 435 variations in the abundance of target minerals in bedrock formations; (2) to select catchments with no ice cover (past or present) because the input of glacier-derived sediments can significantly complicate the interpretation of CRN concentrations; (3) to choose areas with spatially uniform rainfall distribution; and (4) to consider watersheds where the relative contribution of landslides to long-term landscape evolution is low. Unfortunately, these different criteria imply to select watersheds with variable sizes. The first three criteria favor the sampling of small catchments, whereas the last one
- 440 requires basins large enough to be less affected by landslides.-Indeed, Niemi et al. (2005) proposed that mixing effects efficiently dampen the stochastic nature of hillslope sediment delivery by landsliding above a critical catchment area. Considering an uplift rate of 0.5-2 mm.yr⁴, the recommended minimum area needed to mitigate these biases associated with the stochastic input from landslides is of 50 to 200 km².

Our approach suggests the need to pre-assess targeted basins for their potential divide mobility before sampling for CRN

445 concentration measurements. If the objective is to quantify the background uplift rate, one should sample basins that satisfy the conditions we previously enounced in the current section and also display an aggressivity close to zero and with the smallest associated standard deviation. Conversely, to quantify the specific denudation rate associated with the migration of drainage divides, small aggressor or victim basins should be favored.

Based on our simulations, a relationship between <u>the</u> maximum of erosion variability (0.5 and 99.5 percentiles, respectively) due to divide mobility $[(E - U)/U]_{max}$ and the catchment size A can be derived (Fig. <u>1113</u>). Our results suggest a logarithm dependence between these two parameters, regardless of the assumed $U, K_{\perp}D$ and $S_{c} \rightarrow :$

$$\left[(E - U)/U \right]_{max} = c_1 \log(A) + c_2 \text{ for } -1 \text{ km}^2 < A < 100 \text{ km}^2 ,$$

(7)

455 For victim basins ($\Delta G < 0$), $c_1 \simeq 0.05$ and $c_2 \simeq -0.5$, whereas for aggressor basins $c_1 \simeq -0.14$ and $c_2 \simeq 1$. This provides a new additional guideline for the design of sampling strategies in terms of basin size. For instance, considering a quasisteady state mountain belt with an uplift rate of 1 mm.yr⁴, the minimum basin area required for an erosion rate variability

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lower than 0.5 mm.yr^{\pm} is ca. 1 km² for victim basins and 30-40 km² for aggressor basins.with c_1 and c_2 two parameters that depend on balance between erosion processes, uplift rate and state of evolution of the landscape.

460 5 Conclusions

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Calculations from a Landscape Evolution Model assuming spatially uniform uplift, rock strength and rainfall confirm that the concept of topographic steady state is relevant at the scale of entire mountain belts, but represents an oversimplification at the scale of individual watersheds. Our simulations underline the role of divide mobility on deviations from equilibrium, which can lead to significant differences between tectonic uplift rate and basin-wide denudation rates even if an overall topographic steady state is achieved at large scale.

To better assess these deviations, we propose new basin-averaged aggressivity metrics $-\Delta \chi_{av} \Delta G_{av}$ and ΔH_{av} based on the approach of Willett et al. (2014) and Forte and Whipple (2018). They include mean cross-divide contrasts in channel-heads χ_{a} local slope gradient and elevation at the scale of entire river basins-height. From our calculations, contrasts in channel head elevation appear $\Delta \chi_{av}$ is the most reliable aggressivity metric to be weakly sensitive to assess local disequilibrium, whereas,

- 470 but is highly depend on the basin denudation to chosen base level, which remains hard to constrain. Gilbert's metrics ΔG_{av} and ΔH_{av} are more suitable for relatively high uplift ratio E/U-exhibits a nonlinear relationship with $\Delta \chi$ and ΔG . Together, these two rate (i.e. ≥ 1 mm.yr-1). Altogether, our metrics reveal that E/U deviation of denudation rates from uplift rate related to divide migrations depends on both basin aggressivity and basin area. This last parameter has a key control on the dispersion in E/U, which can reach a factor of two, regardless of the imposed uplift rate (here 0.5-2 mm.01-1 mm.yr⁻¹).
- 475 erodibility (here $5.10^{6} 5.10^{5}$ m^(1-2m), diffusivity (here $10^{-3} 10^{-1}$ m².yr⁻¹) and hillslope gradient (here $20^{\circ} 40^{\circ}$). By comparing our results to CRN measurements from the Great Smoky Mountains (Matmon, 2003a, b), we show that this approach can be used to improve field sampling strategies and provides a new tool to derive a minimal uncertainty in basin-wide denudation rates due to topographic disequilibrium.

For the sake of simplicity our models involve spatially homogenous and time invariant parameters. Additional simulations
 are now needed to test this approach in more complex settings, including spatial and temporal variability in climate and tectonic forcing or parameters like stream power equation exponents *n* and *m*.

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485

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635 Figure 1: Basin-wide denudation rate variability as a function of drainage area in the Great Smoky Mountains. Data originallyOriginal dataset from Matmon et al., (2003a, b), denudation rates are reprocessed by Portenga and Bierman, (2011). Dashed black line show the estimated background uplift rate for the region of 0.03 mm.yr⁴.

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Willett et al. (2014) and Forte and Whipple, (2018). For x and height, divides migrate toward the drainages that present higher values. For channel gradient, divides migrate toward the drainages that present lower values. In our study, channel χ , local gradient and height are measured at the outlet (indicated by red circles) of basins for a reference area (basins bounded with thin black lines). Aggressivity metrics are then calculated for a given basin (represented in grey) by averaging along its perimeter the individual across divide differences in metrics between reference basins. The proportion of perimeter which is not shared by two reference basins is measured to give a confidence index of the calculated aggressivity.



Figure 3: Map view of the temporal evolution of the reference model. Colorbar gives the model elevation. Black lines show the evolution - and the migration - over time of drainage divides for five drainage basins. One basin is colored in orange to underline its expansion. The red circleRed circles in figure 3d shows the location of an imminent3e and 3f show transient topography associated with drainage capture after 2.5 and 10 Myr of simulation, respectively (see Supplementary Video n°1).

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Figure 34; Evolution of the reference model over time. (a) Average elevation (blue solid line), maximum elevation (blue dashed line) and average denudation rate (green solid line) over the whole model. (b) Expanded view of the mean denudation rate of figure 3e4a (in the light grey area). Red circles highlight significant stream captures that lead to an abrupt increase in average denudation rates over a subsequent period of several time steps, (effects associated with stream captures at 4.5 Ma and 9.5 Ma are visible in Fig. 3e and 3f, respectively).

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Figure 45: Variability of denudation rates over time for a compilation of five simulations of the reference model, with different initial noised DEM, (a) to (c) Variability of denudation rate as a function of basin area after 2.5, 5 and 10 Myr of simulation, respectively. (d) Mean absolute deviation (MAD) from uplift rate (0,1 mm.yr¹) for three <u>setsclasses</u> of basin sizes: 1-2 km², 10-200 km² and 100-200 km²/₂ between 0.5 and 10 Ma. Negative (positive) deviation is related to basins with a deficit (excess) of denudation. The orange color gradient corresponds to the transient period associated with the rising plateau before the model reaches an average topographic equilibrium.

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 - Figure 56: Denudation rates and cross-divide contrast metrics obtained for the reference model after 2.5 Myr- of simulation. Drainage network is extracted from a minimal drainage area of 1 km². (a) Map of denudation rates for basins of 2-4 km². Black thick lines correspond to basin divides in figure 2e2d. Black arrows, show the direction of divide migrations for one-basin.three selected basins. (b) X map. (c) Channel slopegradient map. (d) Channel elevationheight map.

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Figure 6.2 Definitiation rates nonnanzed by upmer rate as a function or aggressivity incident sector what and parameters initiating data dispersion. (a) Basins of 2-4 km² for the x-axis is reversed for both $A\chi$ and AH-reference model after 2.5 Myr. Red squares correspond to basins that contain at least one knickpoint. (d) to (f) Basins of 10-20 km² for reference model after 2.5 Myr. Red squares correspond to basins that contain at least one knickpoint. (d) to (f) Basins with a confidence index lower than 50 % are discarded from the analysis. (b) Basins of variable sizes, dessifiedsorted in seven area classes expanding geometrically with a multiplying factor of 2 from 1-2 to 64-128 km², every 0.5 Myr, over the time period 2-10 Myr. Color scale indicates basin area. -5 10 Myr. Red lines are linear fits for victim and aggressor basins Basins with a confidence index lower than 50 % are discarded from the analysis. (c) Basins of 1-2 km² over the time period 2-10 Myr, color scale indicating the standard deviation of $\Delta\chi$, ΔG and ΔH , respectively. Basins with a confidence index lower than 50 χ are the time period 2-10 Myr. Color scale indicates confidence index lower than 50 $\Delta\chi$. ΔG and ΔH , respectively. Basins with a confidence index lower than 50 $\Delta\chi$, ΔG and ΔH , respectively. Basins with a confidence index (d) Basin of 1-2 km² over the time period 2-10 Myr. Color scale indicates confidence index lower than 50 $\Delta\chi$.

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Figure 75: Sensitivity to uplift rates. Note that the horizontal axis is reversed for both $\Delta \chi$ and ΔH . Color scale indicates basin area. Basins of variable sizes, sorted in seven area classes expanding geometrically with a multiplying factor of 2 from 1-2 to 64-128 km², every 0.5 Myr over the time period 5-10 Myr. Basins with a confidence index lower than 50 % are discarded from the analysis. (a) Results Color scale indicates basin area. Red dashed lines correspond to the linear fits obtained for the reference model (see figure 6), (a) to (c) Same as Fig. 6d f, with an uplift rate of 0.51 mm.yr¹, (d) to (f) Same as Fig. 6d f, (b) Results with an uplift rate of 2 mm.yr⁴, 0.1 mm.yr¹ (reference model). (c) Results with an uplift rate of 0.01 mm.yr⁴.

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Figure 9: Effect of erodibility, Color scale indicates basin area.

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Figure 8: Basins of variable sizes, sorted in seven area dasses expanding geometrically with a multiplying factor of 2 from 1-2 to 64-128 km², every 0.5 Myr over the time period 5-10 Myr. Basins with a confidence index lower than 50 % are discarded from the analysis. (a) Results with an erodibility coefficient of 5.10^{5} m^(1-2m).yr⁻¹. (b) Results with an erodibility coefficient of 5.10^{6} m^(1-2m).yr⁻¹.



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Figure 10: Effect of diffusivity. Note that the x axis is reversed for both 4χ and 4HColor scale indicates basin area. Basins of variable sizes, sorted in seven area dasses expanding geometrically with a multiplying factor of 2 from 1-2 to 64-128 km², every 0.5 Myr over the time period 5-10 Myr. Basins with a confidence index lower than 50 % are discarded from the analysis. (a) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-1} m^2 , yr^{-1} . (b) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-2} m^2 , yr^{-1} . (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-3} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-3} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-3} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-3} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-3} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-3} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-3} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1} , (c) Results with a diffusivity of 10^{-4} m^2 , yr^{-1}

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- Figure 911: Effect of critical slope. Note that the x axis is reversed for both 4x and 4H. Color scale indicates basin area. Red dashed lines correspond to Basins of variable sizes, sorted in seven area classes expanding geometrically with a multiplying factor of 2 from 1-2 to 64-128 km², every 0.5 Myr over the time period 5-10 Myr. Basins with a confidence index lower than 50 % are discarded from the linear fits obtained for the analysis. (a) Results with a critical slope of 40°. (b) Results with a critical slope of 30° (reference model (see figure 6), (a) to), (c) Same as Fig. 6d f. Results with a critical slope of 20°. (d) to (f) Same as Fig. 6d f.
 with a critical slope of 40°.
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Figure 10: Denudation 12: Normalized denudation rates in the Great Smoky Mountains as a function of aggressivity metrics. Note that the x axis is reversed for both $\Delta \chi$ and ΔH . Color circles are reported according to the *E/U* ratio for basins sampled by Original dataset from Matmon et al., (2003b), with *E* recalculated by Portenga et al., 2011, error, (2011). Denudation rates and uncertainties are normalised by the estimated background uplift rate in this region of 0.03 mm.vr⁻¹. Error, bars are represented with thin black line-but are almost always smaller than symbols. Color scale of these circles is related to indicates basin size. Red squares are basins with an area less than 10 km². Red dashed lines correspond to linear fits obtained for the reference model. Grey circles in the background correspond to the reference model (see figure 6), (a) and (b) Relationship between denudation rates and $\Delta \neq \Delta \chi_{av_0}$ with a base level corresponding to the Tennessee river and at a fixed elevation of 400 m, respectively. (c) and (d) Relationship between denudation rates and GilbertGilbert's aggressivity metrics, AGA *G*_{ave} and AH, *A H*_{ave}, respectively.

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760 basin area for victim and aggressor watersheds (Eq.7).indicate the reference model. Seven sets of basin size are considered: 1-2, 2-4, 4-8, 8-16, 16-32, 32-64 and 64-128 km² every 0.5 Myr between 2,5 and 10 Myr. (a) Effect of uplift rate. (b) Effect of diffusivity erodibility. (c) Effect of diffusivity. (d) Effect of critical slope. Thin dashed black lines show the minimal basin area required for a maximal denudation rate deviation from uplift rate equal to 0.5.

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