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1 Permafrost Degradation Pathways during the 21st Century of 2 High-elevated Rock Ridge in the Mont Blanc Massif

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4 Florence Magnin¹, Benjamin Pohl², Jean-Yves Josnin¹, Julien Pergaud², Philip Deline¹,
5 Ludovic Ravanel¹

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7 ¹ Laboratoire EDYTEM, UMR5204, CNRS, Université Savoie Mont Blanc, Le Bourget du Lac,
8 France

9 ² Biogéosciences, UMR6282, CNRS, Université Bourgogne Franche-Comté, Dijon, France

10

11

12 **Abstract**

13 Rockwall permafrost is increasingly investigated because of its possible role in bedrock failure, related
14 hazards and geotechnical practices. In this study, we simulate the possible permafrost pathways during
15 the 21st century of one of the coldest rock ridge in the European Alps: the Grand Pilier d'Angle (4305
16 m a.s.l). Rockwalls permafrost evolution is primarily driven by air temperature and we thus run
17 simulations with 13 climate models declined with the most contrasted greenhouse gas emissions
18 scenarios (RCP2.6 and 8.5) until 2100 to account for climate models uncertainty. Results show that by
19 2050 permafrost would have warmed by about 1°C down to 35 m depth compared to 2020, and that
20 about 50, and 30 % of this perturbation will reach depths of 80 and 130 m respectively. But
21 uncertainty remains rather high before mid-century and possible permafrost pathways are more
22 reliable after 2050. By the end of the century, a “business as usual” scenario would result in a surge in
23 permafrost degradation with $+3 \pm 1.3$ and $+1.4 \pm 0.6$ °C at 35 m and 130 m depth respectively. In
24 narrow topographies where heat fluxes from opposite faces merge such as the top of our study site, the
25 temperature increase would be enhanced, reaching $+4^\circ\text{C} \pm 1.9^\circ\text{C}$. In this scenario, permafrost would
26 thaw in most alpine rockwalls except shaded rock faces > 4000 m a.s.l. that are several tens to
27 hundreds of meters apart from sun-exposed faces such as the north face of our study site. Conversely,
28 drastic reduction in greenhouse gas emissions would result in a stabilization in permafrost degradation,
29 restricting bedrock thawing to sun-exposed and shaded faces below 4000 and 3000 m a.s.l.
30 respectively, where warm permafrost is currently present.

31 **Introduction**

32 Permafrost (*i.e.* ground that remains at or below 0°C for at least two consecutive years¹) is commonly
33 regarded as a geological manifestation of climate. In this respect, the evolution of its temperature is
34 recognized as an Essential Climate Variable by the Global Climate Observation System (GCOS) and is
35 thus monitored throughout the world by the Global Terrestrial Network for Permafrost (GTN-P). In the
36 frame of this monitoring, temperature collected into boreholes within the last decade has shown a general
37 warming of about $+0.19 \pm 0.05^\circ\text{C}$ to $+0.39 \pm 0.15^\circ\text{C}$, depending on regions². Locally, permafrost
38 evolution does not only depend on regional climate but also on ground type and permafrost temperature
39 (*i.e.* more or less close to 0°C). The closer to 0°C and the greater the ice content, the more delayed its
40 response to warming signal due to latent heat consumption³. For this reason, bedrock permafrost is
41 particularly sensitive to air temperature because of its relatively low ice content, which is restrained to
42 pore space and fractures. In alpine environment, the sensitivity of rockwall permafrost to air temperature
43 is furthermore exacerbated by the topographical settings, as steepness favors a direct coupling with the
44 atmosphere, due to limited accumulation of snow or debris, and because of the multi-sided heat
45 propagation in peaks, ridges and spurs⁴.

46 Permafrost ice is also a key component for ground mechanical properties and rheology^{5,6}, and is thus of
47 concern for geotechnical engineering practices^{7,8}. Since the remarkably high number of rockfalls
48 observed during the heat wave that struck the European Alps in summer 2003⁹, systematic observations
49 have shown that low magnitude rockfalls (a few tens to a few hundreds of cubic meters) mostly occur
50 during hot summers^{10,11}. The role of permafrost is also suggested by frequent observations of ice in
51 rockfall scars, hinting at laboratory studies that showed the physical and mechanical alteration of ice-
52 filled fractures cementing bedrock compartments when warming towards 0°C^{6,12,13}. The recent increase
53 in periglacial rock slope failures is consequently attributed to permafrost degradation^{10,14} and rises
54 concerns for alpine communities as it jeopardizes mountain practices, professions and infrastructure¹⁵⁻
55 ¹⁷. In a further extent, rockfalls detached from high-elevation rockwalls may threaten people and
56 infrastructure down to the valley floor by provoking high magnitude hazard cascades¹⁸⁻²¹. Indeed, in
57 high mountain environments, rockfalls may impact sediment storages, lakes or glaciers and trigger the
58 sudden displacement of high volumes of non-consolidated materials. Such catastrophic chains of
59 processes constitute a new threat in deglaciating landscapes²². In this context, estimating the evolution
60 of rockwall permafrost throughout the 21st century is crucial to anticipate hazardous areas and bears
61 strong implications for land planning, risk mitigations and practice adaptations.

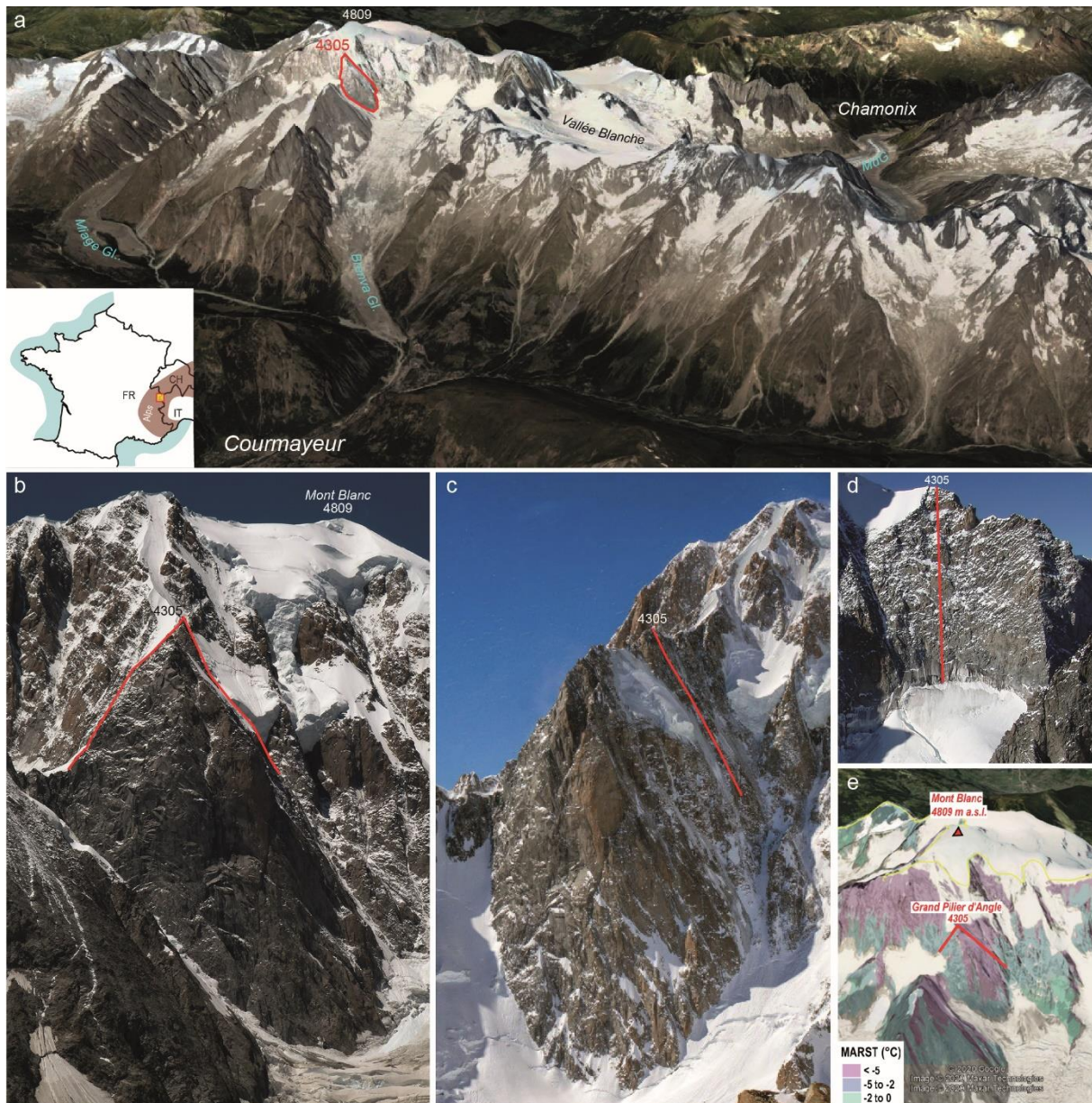
62 Due to its enhanced sensitivity to climate signal, rockwall permafrost evolution is primarily driven by
63 air temperature and local topographical settings. Thus, the realism of permafrost projections strongly
64 relies on the skill of climate models. Within the 5th Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5²³)
65 of the IPCC 5th Assessment Report (AR5²⁴), fully coupled climate models were forced by idealized

66 radiative forcing approximating anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions. These scenarios, named
67 Representation Concentration Pathways (RCPs), correspond to additional radiative forcing of +2.6 to
68 +8.5 W.m⁻² by 2100 compared to the pre-industrial era. Considering an ensemble of climate models is
69 necessary to quantify the model dependency of the results, and thus, the uncertainties associated with
70 the climate change projections. However, these models have rather coarse spatial resolutions (typically,
71 a few tens of kilometers) that make their use for impact studies rather difficult, especially in complex
72 environments like mountain massifs. Thus, efforts are conducted to provide downscaled climate
73 projections at high spatial resolution in realistic topographical settings for the coming decades. Recently,
74 Joly et al.²⁵ have downscaled 13 models taken from the CMIP5 modeling exercise under the most
75 contrasted scenarios (namely, RCP2.6 and 8.5) in the Mont Blanc massif (Northwestern European Alps;
76 MBM hereafter) at a spatial resolution of 200 × 200 m. Their results show major decrease in frost
77 frequency over and around the Mont Blanc summit²⁶. These results provide a unique opportunity to
78 assess how climate pathways could affect rockwall permafrost within the 21st century.

79 In this study, we run simulations of permafrost evolution at the Grand Pilier d'Angle site (4305 m a.s.l.)
80 in the MBM (Fig. 1) by combining mean annual rock surface temperature distribution (MARST)
81 statistically determined from air temperature and potential incoming solar radiation²⁷ (Fig. 1e) with the
82 physic-based Feflow® (DHI-WASY) modeling tools, to simulate heat conduction and latent heat
83 processes²⁸. These simulations are forced by the aforementioned downscaled CMIP5 projections under
84 RCP2.6 and 8.5.

85 The Grand Pilier d'Angle is the outermost part of the ridge extending eastwards of the Mont Blanc
86 summit (4809 m a.s.l.). Its north and east faces respectively stand 700 and 1000 m above the Brenva
87 glacier, while its south face dominates the summital cirque of the Frêne glacier by about 200 m height.
88 A part of its north face is covered by a hanging glacier witnessing of cold permafrost (< -2°C)
89 occurrence, which is also suggested by the permafrost map produced by Magnin et al. ²⁷ (Fig. 1e and
90 2a). Its east face has been affected by several rock avalanches within the 20th century, with a succession
91 of five events in November 1920 with a total rock volume around 3 × 10⁶ m³, and a similar magnitude
92 event in January 1997 ^{29, 30}. Despite the historical recurrence of such hazards, the Grand Pilier d'Angle
93 is famous for his highly challenging climbing routes.

94 This site was chosen as a theoretical study-case because (i) its high elevation guarantees that permafrost
95 will persist by the end of the 21st century²⁸, (ii) its > 300 m wide basis helps in disentangling the
96 respective effects of the climate signal and topographical perturbation in the temperature evolution, and
97 (iii) its narrow summit is representative of high alpine rockwalls, where temperature reflects the
98 enhanced and mixed lateral heat fluxes coming from the opposite rock faces⁴. Such topographical
99 characteristics allow us to assess the broad significance of the results for high-alpine permafrost
100 evolution pathways.



101

102 **Figure 1. a.** Location of the Grand Pilier d'Angle (red polygon) in the Mont Blanc massif (Google
 103 Earth image). **b.** Profile on South face (on left) and North face (on right) of the GPA. **c.** North face of
 104 the GPA. **d.** South face of the GPA. **e.** Mean Annual Rock Surface Temperatures (MARST) at the
 105 GPA mapped by Magnin et al.²⁷. Elevations in m a.s.l.

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107 **Modeling the rockwall temperature evolution**

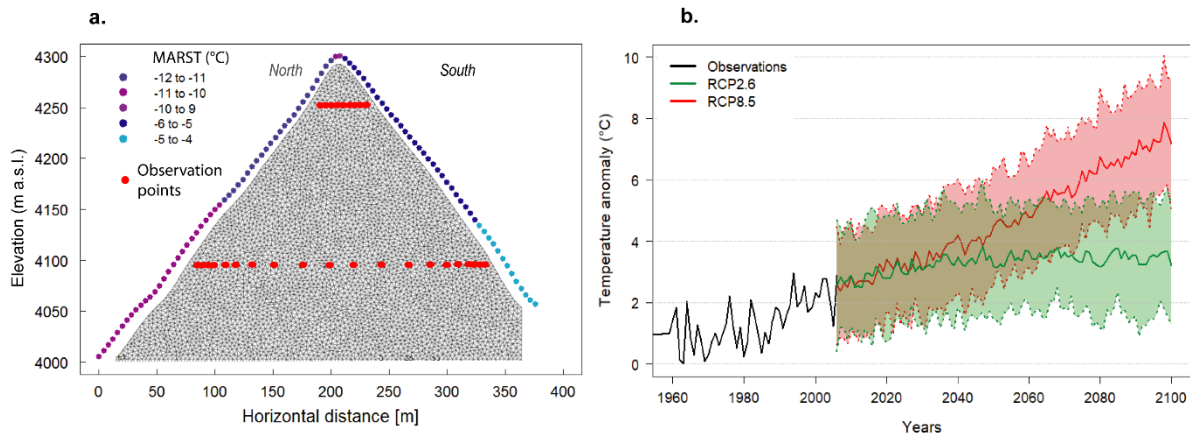
108 Rockwall temperature modeling is a common tool to investigate permafrost dynamics and predict
 109 evolutions at mountain sites^{4,28,31–34}. In a first step, rock surface temperature time series are obtained by
 110 mean of energy balance modeling, measurements, or statistical relationship between rock surface
 111 temperature, air temperature, incoming solar radiation and snow depth. These time series are then used
 112 to calculate heat transfers from surface to depth, by generally considering heat conduction and latent

113 heat processes into a homogeneous, isotropic and saturated rock media with a higher porosity value than
114 in natural rock to indirectly account for ice or water content in fractures. Complex convective heat
115 transfer processes possibly induced by water percolation or air ventilation into bedrock fractures^{35,36} are
116 assumed to play a secondary role in pluri-decadal permafrost evolution and are thus overlooked in such
117 approaches.

118 In the MBM, Magnin et al.²⁷ have mapped the (MARST (Fig. 1e) by mean of average potential incoming
119 solar radiation at the rock surface and air temperature of the period 1961-1990. By using measured and
120 reconstructed air temperature time series, Magnin et al.²⁸ have later simulated the past evolution of
121 rockwall permafrost between the end of the Little Ice Age (1850) and the present time for N-S profiles
122 of three sites distributed along an altitudinal profile in the MBM, including the Grand Pilier d'Angle.
123 This study has shown that modeled temperature match measured temperature in 10 m deep boreholes
124 for depths > 8 m. Authors also proposed a preliminary projection for permafrost evolution by the end of
125 the 21st century, showing that, under RCP8.5, permafrost will likely subsist only at the Grand Pilier
126 d'Angle, the highest-elevated study site. These projections were based on the IPSL-CM5A-MR model
127 run at a spatial resolution of $1.25 \times 2.5^\circ$ (that is roughly 140×200 km at this latitude, one of the highest
128 spatial resolutions available among the CMIP5 ensemble). Orographic effects on the local climate were
129 still largely insufficient to produce realistic climate boundary conditions to force rockwall permafrost
130 simulations. Here, we apply the same modelling approach (details in Supplementary materials S1) to
131 the Grand Pilier d'Angle site (Fig. 1) with the downscaled CMIP5 ensemble.

132 To ensure model comparability throughout the 21st century and account for uncertainty in our
133 conclusions, climate models are run from 2006 only (Fig. 2a), while the air temperature history –
134 required to initialize permafrost conditions prior to 2006 – is identical for all models and based on
135 assumptions (-1°C in 1850 compared to 1961) and local temperature observations (from 1961 to 2006)
136 similarly to Magnin et al.²⁸.

137 Permafrost evolution is then analyzed by mean of respectively 9 and 20 observation points spread along
138 two crosscutting profiles (Fig. 2a). Shallowest points are located at 10 m depth below the SE and NW
139 faces as bedrock temperature near the surface is influenced by a variety of processes not accounted for
140 in our modelling approach. We register simulated bedrock temperature at each time step for each of
141 these observation points and use the simulated time series to analyze permafrost evolution in details
142 while 2D images are extracted the 1st March and 1st September of the years 2015, 2035, 2050, 2075 and
143 2100.



145

146 **Figure 2. a.** Model geometry of the Grand Pilier d'Angle (a 5 km box is drawn below and crossed by
 147 the geothermal heat flux, not shown here; see S1 in the Supplements) with initial MARST and
 148 observation points recording simulated temperature at each time step. **b.** Local air temperature
 149 anomaly pathways (compared to 1961-1990 as calculated by Magnin et al.²⁷) under RCP8.5 and 2.6
 150 applied to the initial MARST. The thick lines show the means of the 13 models while the filled areas
 151 set the ± 1 standard deviation around the mean to account for models uncertainty.

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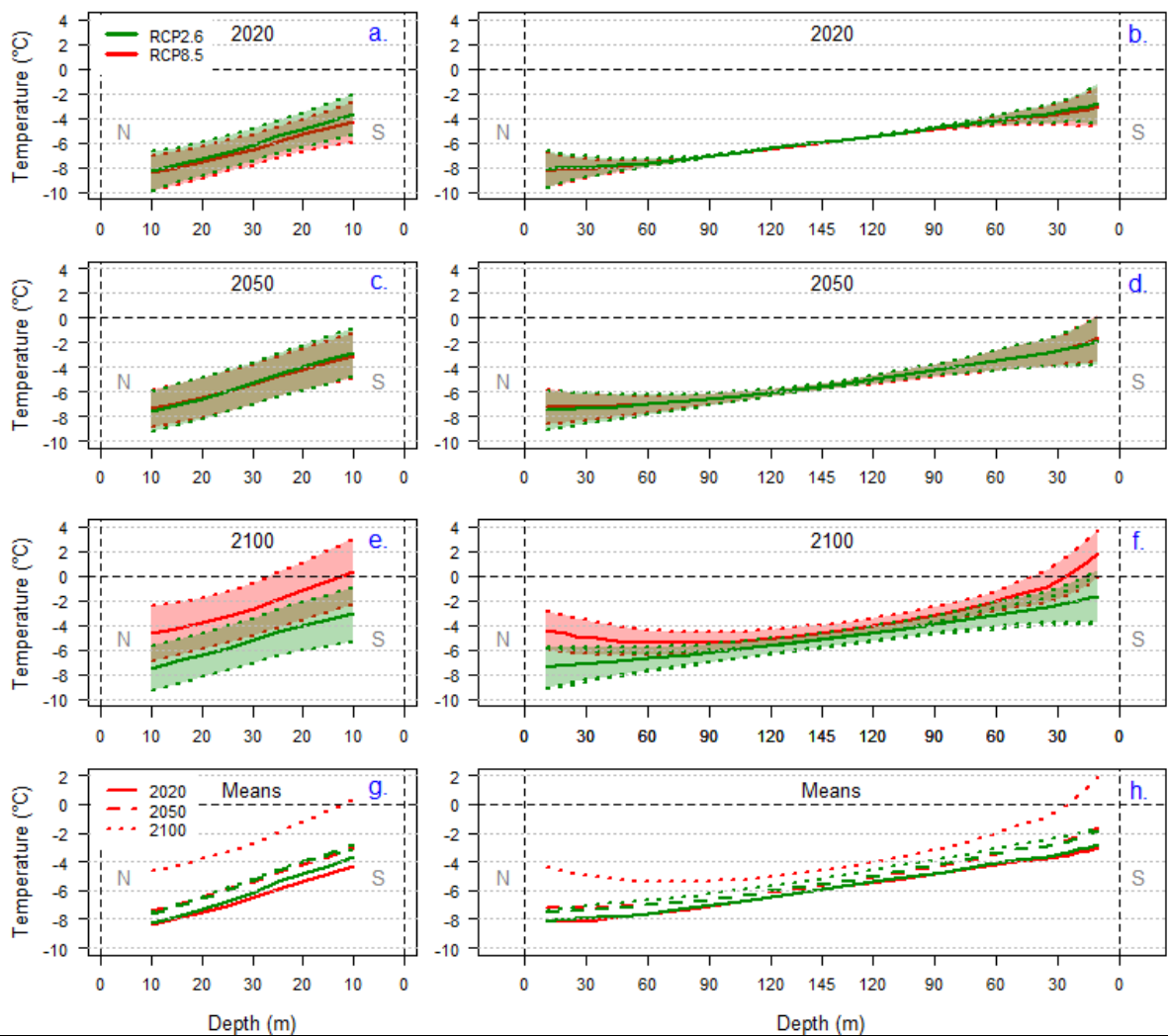
153 **No distinctive pathways in rockwall permafrost evolution prior to 2050**

154 Air temperature trends are very similar between RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 until 2035 (Fig. 2a) and
 155 distinctive pathways only appear between 2035 and 2050. RCP8.5 increasingly differentiates
 156 from RCP2.6 during the second half of the century, when the radiative forcings themselves
 157 strongly differ. The strong decrease in anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions in RCP2.6 leads
 158 to a rapid stabilization of air temperature, while the latter continuously increases under RCP8.5,
 159 in line with rather similar trajectories in corresponding greenhouse gas concentrations.

160 The consequence of these uniform air temperature trends is that permafrost evolution is similar
 161 whatever the considered scenario until 2050 (Fig. 3a-d). In 2020, the first 15 years of climate
 162 projections have impacted the bedrock temperature down to about 80 m depth (Fig. 3b). Close
 163 to the top, where the ridge is narrow, the bedrock temperature is thus entirely controlled by the
 164 different climate models and scenarios which respective propagation from the SE and NW faces
 165 add up at the core (Fig. 3a). Transient effects of the historical data have a marginal influence
 166 for narrow (< 80 m wide) ridges or peaks and bedrock temperature is thus in a certain
 167 equilibrium with recent climate evolution. This is notably revealed by the steady temperature
 168 gradient between N and S faces, depicting near vertical isotherms such as shown in idealized
 169 steady state cases⁴. The slightly higher temperature for RCP2.6 than the one of RCP8.5 is

170 consequently reflecting the past 15 years of climate projections and the little influence of
171 radiative forcing at this time. Conversely, the core of the bottom profile remains isolated from
172 the thermal disturbance induced from 2006 until 2050 (Fig. 3b, d) in reason of its remoteness
173 from the surface (> 140 m below the NW and SE surfaces) and the slow heat propagation
174 throughout the bedrock medium.

175 When comparing the averaged trends of 2020 and 2050, bedrock temperature has increased by
176 1 ± 1 °C at 35 m depth, 0.5 ± 0.5 and 0.3 ± 0.3 °C at 80 and 130 m depth respectively for RCP8.5.
177 The top profile is marked by a 1.1 ± 1.4 °C increase in average (Fig. 3g-h) and uncertainty
178 remains fairly high within this horizon. It however appears very unlikely that the highest part
179 of the ridge will start to thaw before mid-century, with respectively 1 model out of 13 showing
180 positive temperature at 10 m depth in the SE face under RCP2.6, and none under RCP8.5 (Fig.
181 4). Thawing may possibly occur at the foot of the SE face according to the three warmest
182 predictions of each RCP. It may reach a maximum of 15-20 m depth by 2050, according to the
183 warmest predictions, but > 75 % of the models predict the absence of thawing. Major changes
184 will rather occur within the second half of the 21st century.



186

187 **Figure 3.** Permafrost temperature pathways from 10 m depth to the core of the rock mass in
 188 the top profile (left) and the bottom profile (right). Profile locations are shown on Figure
 189 1. Thick lines are the means of the 13 models while the dashed lines represent the 68 %
 190 confidence interval.

191

192 Pathways stabilizing versus surging by 2050

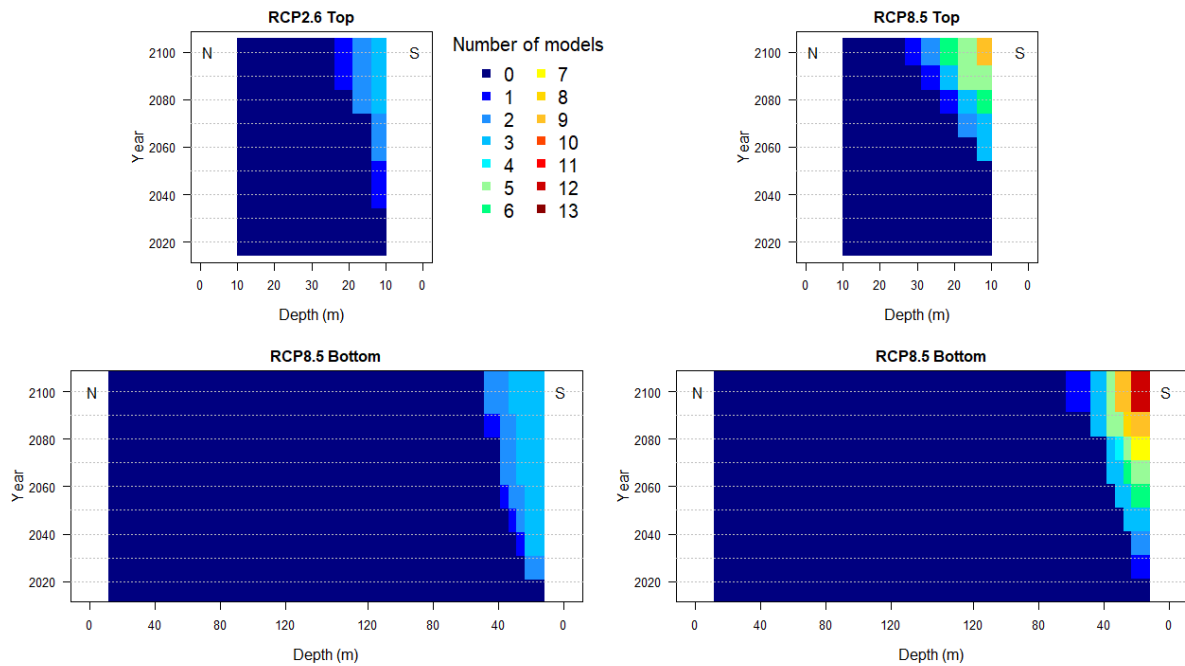
193 By 2050, the effect of the different RCPs becomes clearly predominant upon internal climate
 194 variability, and has a strong impact on permafrost degradation pathways. Under RCP2.6, the
 195 permafrost evolution almost reaches an equilibrium by 2050, as revealed by identical averaged
 196 temperature trend in the top profile between 2050 and 2100 (Fig. 3g), steady temperature
 197 gradient from the N to the S face (Fig. 3h), and the near vertical isotherms close to the top (Fig.
 198 5b)⁴. Because of this temperature balancing, the average temperature slightly increases between
 199 2050 and 2100 in the core of the bottom profile, as a result of transient effects of the first half
 200 of the 21st century.

201 Conversely to RCP2.6, RCP8.5 results in major temperature changes within the second half of
202 the 21st century. It will reach $+4 \pm 1.9$ °C compared to 2020 in the top profile in 2100 compared
203 to 2020, $+3 \pm 1.3$, $+1.8 \pm 0.8$ and $+1.4 \pm 0.6$ °C at 35 m, 80 and 130 m depth respectively in the
204 bottom profile. When considering the 68 % confidence interval, the average warming is well
205 higher than the 68% confidence interval (Fig. 3 c-h). When considering a higher confidence
206 interval, one of the colder RCP8.5 models (95 % confidence interval) displays significant
207 permafrost thawing on the S face, while this only occurs with the warmer RCP2.6 model. (Fig.
208 5b, d). The warmer climate models (95 % confidence interval) result in similar temperature
209 field patterns on the S face for both scenarios but a significant curling up of the -4°C isotherm
210 below the N face under RCP8.5 (Fig. 5c, f).

211 Permafrost thawing still remains very unlikely under RCP2.6, even though it slightly progresses
212 down to 25 m depth in the top profile for the warmest prediction as a delayed response to
213 thermal perturbation from the previous decades (Fig. 3e, 4). However, permafrost thawing
214 becomes very likely under RCP8.5 as 50 % of the models predict positive temperature down to
215 25 m depth by 2100 in the S side of the bottom profile (Fig. 4). Closer to the surface, permafrost
216 thawing is predicted by > 90 % of the RCP8.5 models. The warmest RCP8.5 model even
217 predicts permafrost thawing at a depth of 45 m for the bottom profile and down to the core of
218 the top profile in the SE side by the end of the 21st century. By contrast, the N face will remain
219 frozen in any case due to its very cold state at present time.

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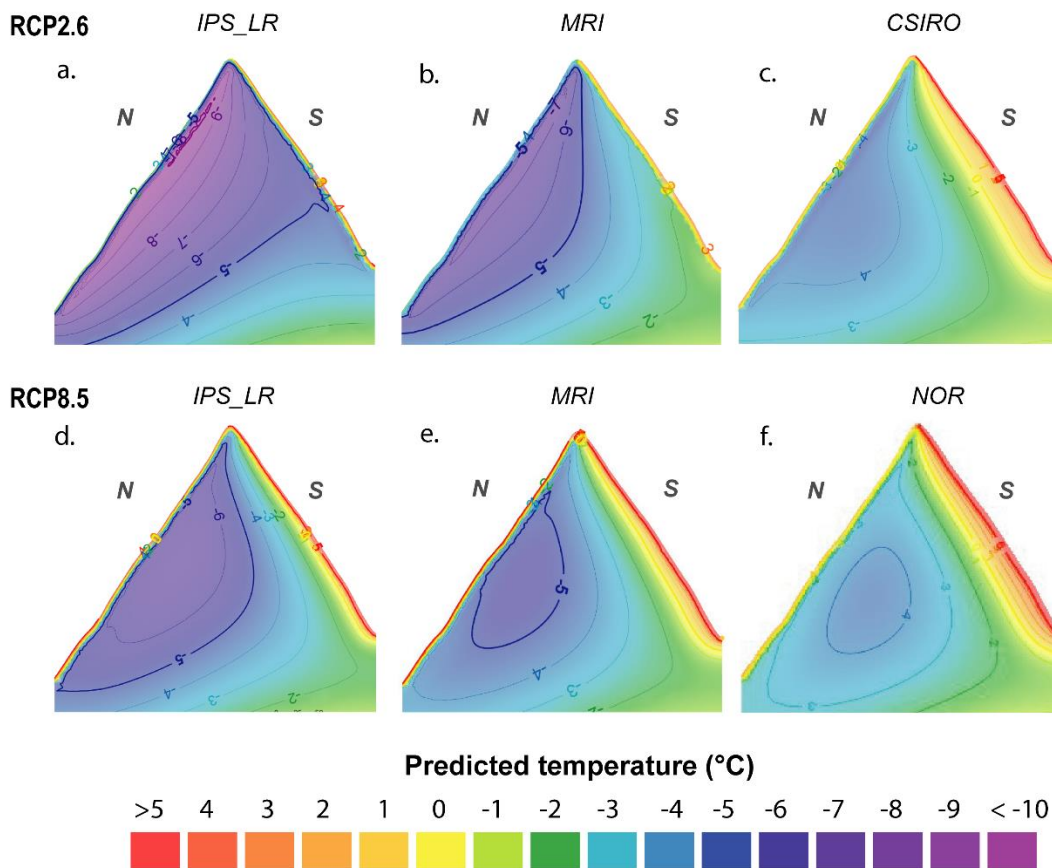
223 **Figure 4.** Number of models predicting permafrost thawing (i.e. mean annual temperature
 224 becomes positive) for both profiles and both RCPs according to depth, time and aspect.

225

226 Figure 5 further shows that the average and colder models (within the 95 % confidence interval)
 227 have significantly different temperature fields according to RCP. The colder RCP8.5 will result
 228 in a substantial permafrost thawing and warm permafrost progression below the entire S face
 229 (Fig. 5d) which will remain in cold permafrost conditions for the same colder model forced
 230 with RCP2.6 (Fig. 5a). Similarly, the average model shows a certain thermal equilibrium and
 231 warm permafrost only at the foot of the S face under RCP2.6 (Fig. 5b), but a substantial
 232 shrinking of the cold permafrost body (-5°C isotherm) and a significant deepening of permafrost
 233 thawing and warm permafrost when forced with RCP8.5 (Fig. 5e). These latter patterns
 234 (significant permafrost thawing and warm permafrost progression) are actually similar for the
 235 three RCP8.5 models, witnessing of their reliability under a scenario of enhanced anthropogenic
 236 greenhouse gas emissions. However, affected depths are about twice greater with the warmer
 237 model compared to the colder, and this result in permafrost disappearance at the top of the
 238 Grand Pilier d'Angle with the former, due to the predominance of lateral heat fluxes from the
 239 S face⁴ – a pattern which is also found for the same model under RCP2.6 (Fig. 5, c, f).

240

September 2100



241

242 **Figure 5.** Extreme (95 % confidence interval) and average permafrost predictions in
243 September 2100. High temperature at the very near surfaces (including the NW face) are
244 related to seasonal thawing (i.e. active layer) which is usually near its maximum thickness at
245 this time of the year. IPS_LR (a, d), MRI (b, e), CSIRO (c) and NOR (f) are some of the
246 colder, average and warmer models, respectively, among the 13 used models.

247

248 **Key messages on high elevated permafrost degradation pathways within the 21st century**

249 The Grand Pilier d'Angle is one of the highest and coldest rockwall permafrost site of the
250 European Alps and may be one of the few sites above 4000 m a.s.l. where permafrost will
251 subsist by the end of the 21st century in a “business as usual” scenario. However, under drastic
252 reduction of the greenhouse gas emissions, climate stabilization by the turn of mid-century
253 would significantly slow down the ongoing permafrost degradation.

254 The thermal perturbation caused by atmospheric warming within the first half of the century
255 would be similar whatever the considered RCP (about 1°C), and would affect a depth of about
256 30-40 m below the surface. About 50 and 30% of this perturbation will reach depths of 80 and
257 130 m. However, model uncertainty is as least as high as the predicted average evolution, if not

258 higher, and firm conclusions are thus limited within this horizon. Current temperature increase
259 is already up to 1°C per decade in alpine bedrock according to Hock et al.³⁷ and the discrepancy
260 between the projected temperature increase and the observed one within the early 21st century
261 partly results from climate models adjustment compared to air temperature observations. In this
262 respect, predictions are more certain for the second half of the 21st century when model
263 uncertainty is well lower than the projected anomalies and that climate models have aligned
264 with the climate history.

265 During the second half of the century, bedrock temperature may reach a certain thermal
266 equilibrium under RCP2.6. Such scenario will restrict permafrost thawing where warm
267 permafrost is currently present, *i.e.* below 4000 m a.s.l. for south-facing rock faces, tops of
268 peaks and ridges, and sun-exposed spurs, as well as for north-exposed faces below 3000 m
269 a.s.l.^{4,28}. In such scenario, warm permafrost will certainly spread in most of the high-elevation
270 S-facing slopes such as the one of the Grand Pilier d'Angle while cold permafrost conditions
271 will remain in N-facing slopes. However, under a “business as usual scenario”, permafrost may
272 almost entirely disappear of most of the alpine rockwalls by 2100 and only subsist in high-
273 elevated (> 4000 m a.s.l.), north-exposed and several tens and even hundreds of meters apart
274 from sun-exposed faces such as the middle of the Grand Pilier d'Angle N face.

275 These models do not account for a couple of factors contributing to permafrost degradation
276 dampening such as snow deposit in sun-exposed faces³⁴ or air ventilation in highly fractured
277 bedrock³⁶. Such factors may also experience substantial changes in the coming decades and in
278 turn have opposite effects on permafrost dynamics. Snowfall for example, which occur
279 nowadays all year round at high elevation may give way to rainfall in reason of the projected
280 reduction in frost frequency²⁶. Instead of protecting the bedrock surface from intense solar
281 radiation³⁴, this may accelerate permafrost degradation by causing advective heat transport in
282 bedrock clefts³⁵.

283 Enhanced permafrost degradation will result in increasing bedrock destabilization with
284 considerable consequences for mountain communities facing endangered practices such as
285 tourism, mountaineering, use of natural resources (e.g. hydroelectricity), and for valley floors
286 due to possible chain reaction hazardous processes^{19,22}.

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Acknowledgments

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