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## **River intermittency and Eocene climate change in the Castissent and Montllobat formations of the southern Pyrenean Foreland**

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### **ABSTRACT**

Patterns of river water and sediment transport through time, or river intermittency factors, are generally considered to be highly sensitive to climate and tectonics. Determining the intermittency of rivers in ancient hothouse climates could provide a unique lens through which to investigate Earth's response to climate change. However, this requires strong constraints

27 on both mean and bankfull sediment and water discharges through time, which are rare in the  
28 stratigraphic archive due to the challenges of estimating material flux rates from source to  
29 sink. To address these challenges, we calculate basin-scale sediment volumetrics and  
30 palaeohydraulics to reconstruct water and sediment transport patterns in strata deposited  
31 under an ancient extreme climate punctuated by hyperthermal warming events: the Montllobat  
32 (52.0 – 50.5 Ma) and Castissent (50.5 – 49.7 Ma) formations of the Southern Pyrenees, during  
33 the Eocene hothouse. We reconstruct water intermittency factors ( $I_w$ ) in these ancient river  
34 systems averaging 0.15-0.25, whereas sediment intermittency factors ( $I_s$ ) of  $3 \times 10^{-3}$  –  $7 \times 10^{-3}$  in  
35 the Montllobat Formation increased up to 3-fold in the overlying Castissent Formation. This  
36 implies that whilst rivers were likely perennial, sand-grade sediment was transported  
37 significantly more often in the Castissent rivers ( $p < 10^{-3}$ ). A comparison with a global database  
38 of modern rivers also demonstrates that rivers during the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum  
39 were able to transport sediment more efficiently than most modern rivers of similar types and  
40 climate zones today. We hypothesise that a short-lived global warming event at c. 50.5 Ma  
41 enhanced monsoon seasonality in the Pyrenean foreland, causing heightened sediment  
42 transport efficiency which lasted up to 1 million years. This ancient example shows the long-  
43 lasting, basin-wide geomorphic consequences of short-term climatic change, resolved from  
44 river transport patterns in alluvial stratigraphy.

## 45 **1 INTRODUCTION**

46 Across the planet and throughout time, landscapes and sedimentary basins respond to climate  
47 and tectonic forcings (Knox, 1984; Bull, 1991; Tucker & Slingerland, 1997; Westra *et al.*, 2014;  
48 Yin *et al.*, 2023). Rivers, the most significant conduits of water, sediment and nutrients across  
49 Earth's continents, are particularly sensitive to climate change (Knox, 1993; Whittaker, 2012),  
50 and they provide a lens through which to investigate surface processes during extreme climate  
51 episodes of Earth's past. Present-day climate change threatens significant geomorphic  
52 ramifications (e.g., Alfieri *et al.*, 2017; Best, 2019), and decoding how Earth's surface has

53 responded to climates of the past provides one way to constrain the future impacts of global  
54 warming.

55 It is widely recognised that runoff regimes, discharge variability and river hydrographs are  
56 strongly determined by weather patterns driven by climate, and are vital to understanding river  
57 and landscape response to allogenic drivers from millennial to sub-daily timescales (Haines  
58 *et al.*, 1988; Nicholas *et al.*, 2016; Hansford *et al.*, 2020). Signals of climate-driven hydrological  
59 change can be preserved in alluvial stratigraphy (Allen, 2008), and deciphering the patterns  
60 of past river transport and discharge variability in the rock record is a critical way to reconstruct  
61 the impact of past climate change on the Earth's surface. Alluvial stratigraphy contains  
62 geological observables that can be used to reconstruct both formative depositional conditions,  
63 and mean transport rates in ancient rivers. Employing empirically- and theoretically-derived  
64 numerical models and relations (e.g., Leclair & Bridge, 2001; Bradley & Venditti, 2017; Lyster  
65 *et al.*, 2020, 2021; Long, 2021), the architecture, bedforms and grain-sizes associated with  
66 channel-fill and in-channel bar deposits can be employed to estimate key river characteristics  
67 and behaviour such as flow depth, channel gradient, river planform, and water and sediment  
68 discharge. Further, a range of downstream- and upstream-focused approaches are available  
69 to reconstruct long-term average water and sediment fluxes (e.g., Lyster *et al.*, 2020; Watkins  
70 *et al.*, 2020; Yan *et al.*, 2025). To constrain the temporal patterns of river activity in response  
71 to allogenic perturbations, we can extend previous approaches based on facies and  
72 stratigraphic analyses (e.g., Flood & Hampson, 2014; Fielding *et al.*, 2018; Lyster *et al.*, 2020;  
73 Wood *et al.*, 2022) by directly comparing two key parameters that can be reconstructed from  
74 independent geological observations: the maximum channel-forming transport flux and the  
75 long-term average conditions.

76 River intermittency factors ( $I$ ), introduced by Paola *et al.* (1992), describe the temporal  
77 distribution of water or sediment transport through rivers which can be presented as a simple  
78 ratio between the total flux over a set time scale and the potential bankfull flux if it were

79 sustained over the same period—in other words, how much water or sediment a river is  
80 moving versus what it could be moving (Fig. 1A):

$$81 \quad I = \frac{\sum Q_{s,w}(t)}{Q_{s,w(bf)} \sum t}, \quad (1)$$

82

83 where  $\sum Q_{s,w}$  is the sum of the sediment or water discharge over time period  $t$ , and  $Q_{s,w(bf)} \sum t$  is  
84 the potential bankfull sediment or water discharge multiplied by the sum of the time period.

85 This can be reformulated as:

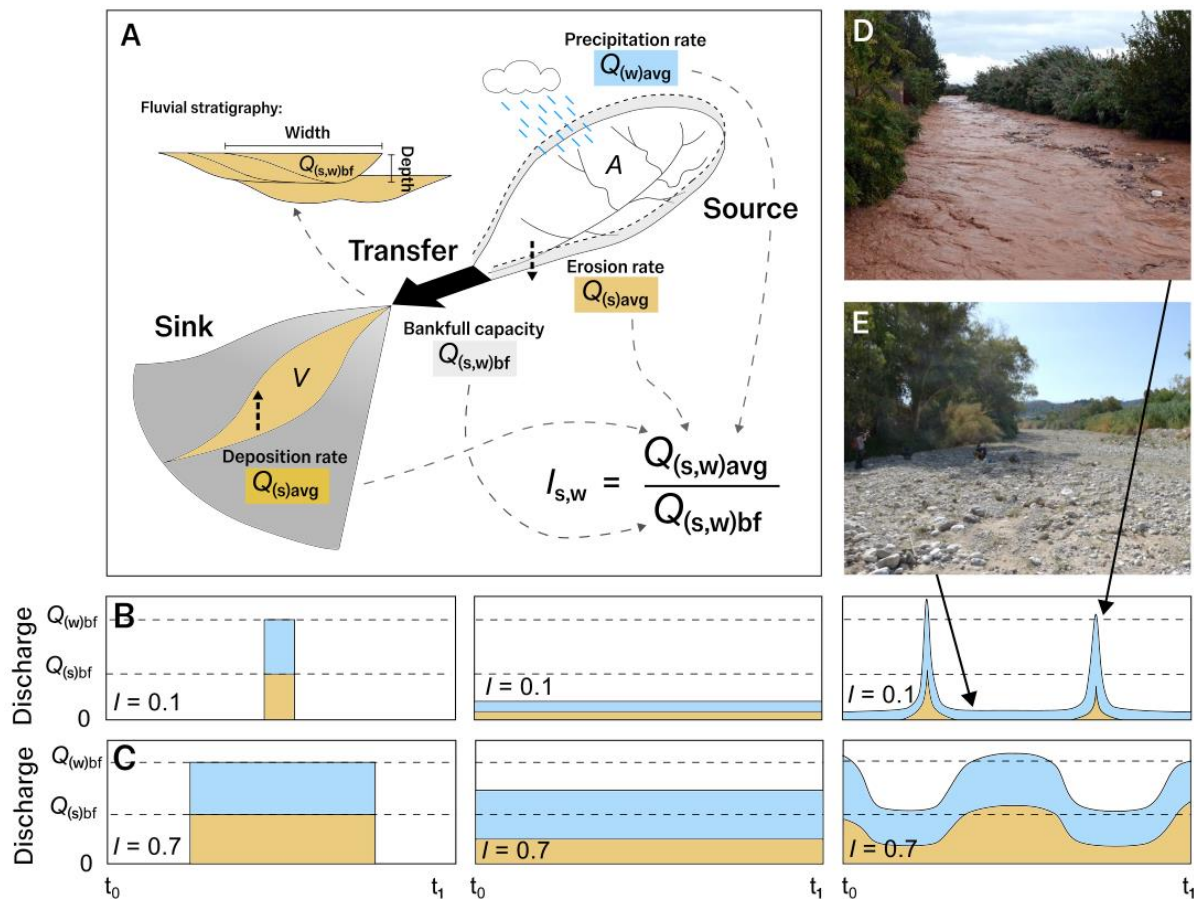
$$86 \quad I = \frac{Q_{s,w(avg)}}{Q_{s,w(bf)}}, \quad (2)$$

87 where  $Q_{s,w(avg)}$  is the average sediment or water discharge over an arbitrary long timescale  
88 and  $Q_{s,w(bf)}$  is the bankfull transport capacity of water or sediment if applied for the identical  
89 timescale.

90 Intermittency factors are strongly indicative of river processes and climate (McLeod *et al.*,  
91 2026), and reconcile the critical gap in timescales between reconstructions of instantaneous  
92 channel-forming and mean flow conditions (Lyster *et al.*, 2023). Intermittency factors do not  
93 rely on assumptions of hydrograph shape, because for a given intermittency factor the integral  
94 of the hydrograph could be distributed across an infinite number of shapes and could be  
95 applied on any timescale (Fig. 1B, C). In general, however, with decreasing intermittency factor  
96 (approaching zero), rivers are expected to concentrate activity in shorter, isolated periods of  
97 discharge, separated by longer periods of low or no discharge—this would be considered an  
98 ephemeral or intermittent river. Intermittent rivers (generally considered to have measurable  
99 water discharge <10% of the time; Hedman & Osterkamp, 1982) corresponding to water  
100 intermittency ( $I_w$ ) < 0.1, are associated with particular climate characteristics (Hansford *et al.*,  
101 2020). A high intermittency factor approaching 1, on the other hand, means water discharge  
102 is perennial. Sediment hydrographs can be characterised by intermittency factors in the same

103 way: where sediment discharge is concentrated into infrequent, extreme events in which  
 104 transport thresholds are surpassed, the ratio between  $Q_{s(avg)}$  and  $Q_{s(bf)}$ ,  $I_s$ , is likely to be close  
 105 to zero (e.g., Fig. 1B, D, E). A river transporting sediment year-round will have a high  $I_s$  value  
 106 approaching unity (e.g., Fig. 1C).

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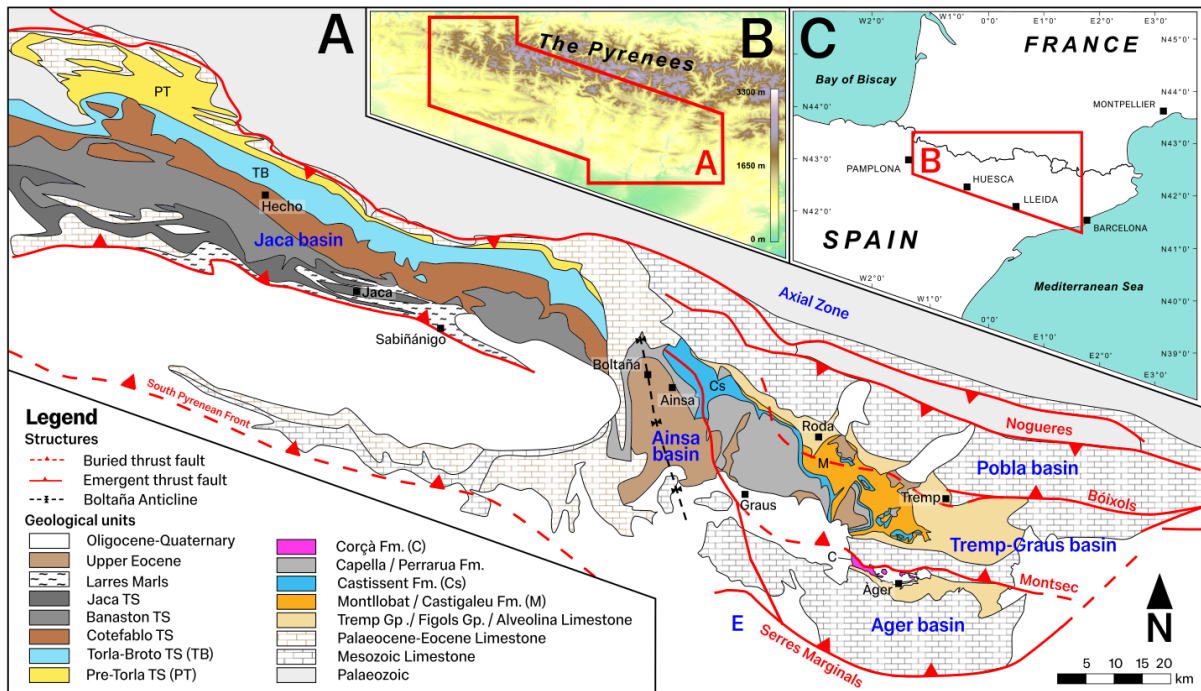


**Figure 1.** Diagrams outlining intermittency factors. A) Conceptual illustration highlighting the intermittency factor formula and its inputs where source — or upstream — approaches are used to estimate precipitation and erosion rates, sink — or downstream — approaches are used to estimate deposition rate, and palaeohydrology of alluvial deposits are used to estimate bankfull water and sediment transport capacity. B) Schematic hydrograph illustrating the potential hydrograph shapes for a low intermittency factor of  $I=0.1$ , where  $t_1-t_0$  is an arbitrary time-step containing variability, for example 1 year; the blue area represents the water hydrograph and the beige area represents the sediment hydrograph. As long as the integrated area of the hydrograph is maintained, a given intermittency factor could indicate an infinite number of hydrograph shapes. C) Schematic hydrograph illustrating the potential hydrograph shapes for a high intermittency factor of  $I=0.7$ . (D-E) Photographs of ephemeral rivers in Greece at bankfull discharge (D) and during low or no flow stages (E) (McLeod *et al.*, 2024).

108 Recent investigations of modern rivers demonstrate water intermittency factors are globally  
 109 linked to climate (McLeod *et al.*, 2026), and that sediment fluxes in arid regions are tied to  
 110 individual rare storms, suggesting that sediment budgets in Mediterranean catchments could

111 double by 2100 CE as a consequence of global warming (McLeod *et al.*, 2024). If river  
112 intermittency responds to allogenic forcing, then it should also be possible to resolve ancient  
113 landscape-scale climate and tectonic change from the alluvial archive, and contextualise  
114 future changes to river transport patterns due to global warming, which could dramatically alter  
115 the carbon and nutrient cycle (Dunne *et al.*, 2007; Goñi *et al.*, 2013). New data describing  
116 water and sediment intermittency in modern systems worldwide (Hayden *et al.*, 2021; McLeod  
117 *et al.*, 2026) in theory enable calibration of interpretations of ancient tectonic and climatic  
118 conditions from fluvial intermittency. However, constraints on the intermittency of both river  
119 water and sediment transport are rare in the geological record, because they require estimated  
120 bankfull material fluxes to be tied directly with corresponding mean fluxes in space and time  
121 (Lyster *et al.*, 2023). In practice, this means robust, high-resolution stratigraphic correlations  
122 are required between alluvial strata and strata located downsystem in the corresponding  
123 depositional sink (Watkins *et al.*, 2019; McLeod *et al.*, 2024), and/or or well-constrained  
124 reconstructions are required for palaeo-catchment areas and climates (Lyster *et al.*, 2023). It  
125 also remains untested whether water or sediment transport patterns in ancient rivers exposed  
126 to external perturbations were affected to a degree that has stratigraphic preservation  
127 potential.

128 In order to address these research gaps, this paper aims to: (1) develop a framework to  
129 estimate basin-scale depositional volumes and long-term water and sediment fluxes through  
130 time in an Eocene source-to-sink system during an extreme hothouse period; (2) calculate  
131 evolving water and sediment intermittency factors in this stratigraphic setting; and (3) leverage  
132 reconstructed intermittency factors and palaeohydrological observations to determine  
133 landscape response to an Eocene global warming event. Using palaeohydrological techniques  
134 in parallel with geological and modelling approaches, we show that it is possible to reconstruct  
135 the evolving patterns of river activity in response to changes in climatic boundary conditions  
136 from the alluvial sedimentary record, using the stratigraphy of the Spanish Pyrenees as a  
137 natural laboratory.

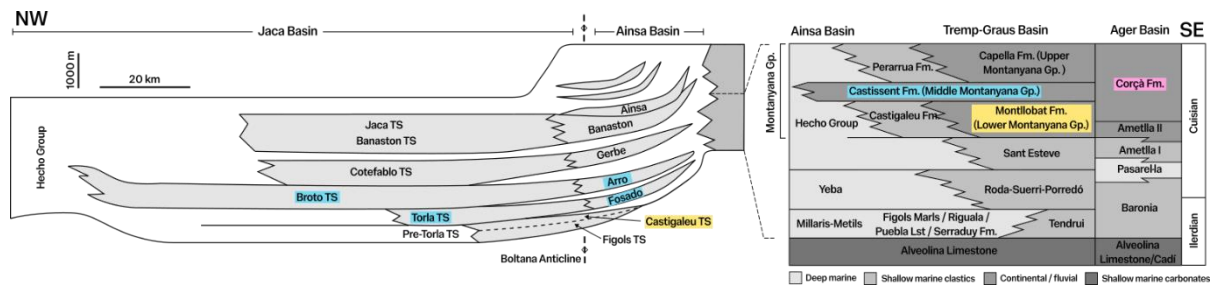


**Figure 2.** Study area geological and location maps in the southern Pyrenees. A) Geological sketch map highlighting the key sedimentary units of the Ypresian. B) Digital elevation model of the present-day Pyrenees. C) Geographical location map.

139 The Pyrenees are a NW-SE-oriented compressional mountain belt on the boundary between  
 140 the Iberian and European plates (Fig. 2). The Alpine orogenic history of the Pyrenees was  
 141 initiated in the late Cretaceous, when seafloor spreading in the southern Atlantic and Indian  
 142 oceans drove northwards motion of the Iberian plate, resulting in the onset of convergence  
 143 between the Iberian and European plates (Capote *et al.*, 2002; Martín-Chivelet *et al.*, 2002).  
 144 Owing to prior Mesozoic crustal extension and attenuation, crustal loading and flexural  
 145 subsidence formed deep, narrow foreland basins on both the Iberian and European sides of  
 146 the mountain belt (Clark *et al.*, 2017). Exhumation of the Axial Zone of the Pyrenees continued  
 147 through the late Cretaceous, and the southward propagation of a foreland fold-and-thrust belt  
 148 caused the redistribution of sediment through a series of piggy-back basins. Compression  
 149 continued into the Palaeocene, Eocene, Oligocene and upper Miocene, until regional  
 150 convergence shifted to the southern margin of the Iberian plate by the Neogene (Clark *et al.*,  
 151 2017).

152 The South-Central part of the Pyrenean foreland is characterized by thin-skinned thrusting on  
153 Triassic and Paleogene evaporite décollements or basement-involved thrusting, in those  
154 sectors where salt levels are lacking, both often connected laterally by oblique fault zones  
155 (Muñoz et al., 2025). Three major thrust sheets can be recognized, which by order of  
156 emplacement, are: the Cotiella-Bòixols thrust sheet, starting its emplacement by late  
157 Cretaceous; the Peña Montañesa-Montsec sheet, starting in the Paleocene up to the Late  
158 Ypresian; and the Sierras Exteriores–Serres Marginals sheet, emplaced from the Lutetian to  
159 the Lower Miocene (Simó et al., 1985; Simó, 1986; Oliva-Urcia et al., 2019). The Eocene  
160 foreland basin can be divided into four sub-basins, governed by the evolving thrust sheets and  
161 their transfer zones: the Tremp-Graus, Àger, Ainsa, and Jaca basins (Garcés et al., 2020).  
162 These four zones contained the major sediment routing systems of the South-Central  
163 Pyrenees Foreland Basin in the lower Eocene.

164 The Ypresian Montanyana Group (Nijman & Nio, 1975; also “Montañana Group”), represents  
165 the first major phase of clastic sedimentation and alluvial progradation driven by Pyrenean  
166 orogenesis. The first two megasequences of the Montanyana Group correspond to the fluvial  
167 Montllobat and Castissent formations (Nijman & Nio, 1975; Nijman & Puigdefàbregas, 1977;  
168 Nijman, 1998), which are the focus of this study. The Montanyana rivers of the Tremp-Graus  
169 basin transported sediment downsystem (northwest) into a shallow-marine setting dominated  
170 by deltaic mouth bars (Marzo *et al.*, 1988). In the Ainsa Basin, marine siliciclastic and  
171 carbonate slope facies are incised by deep, composite submarine canyon fills (Marzo *et al.*,  
172 1988; Nijman, 1990; Ayckbourne *et al.*, 2024). Siliciclastic submarine channel sediments were  
173 routed into the marine Hecho Group of the Jaca basin (Mutti, 1985a), which contains coarse  
174 turbiditic lobes, distal turbidite deposits and Mega Turbidite (MT) beds (Labaume *et al.*, 1987;  
175 Labaume *et al.*, 2016) on which various correlative schemes for the Jaca Basin are based.  
176 We discuss this fluvial-to-submarine-fan correlation framework, variations upon it, and their  
177 potential implications in detail in Section 3.1, and provide alternative stratigraphic correlation  
178 schemes in the Supplementary Material (Fig. S2).



**Figure 3.** Stratigraphic framework for the lower Eocene units of the southern Pyrenean foreland in the Jaca, Ainsa, Tremp-Graus and Àger basins (modified after Mutti, 1985a; Labaume *et al.*, 1987; Gupta & Pickering, 2008; Caja *et al.*, 2010; Scotchman *et al.*, 2015; Garcés *et al.*, 2020). Variations on this framework could arise from different age-date interpretations and unit correlations. An alternative correlative scheme is provided in the Supplementary Material and discussed in Section 5.2.

179 Deposition of the Ypresian Montllobat and Castissent formations of the Lower and Middle  
 180 Montanyana Group coincided with the later part of the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum  
 181 (EECO) (Westerhold & Röhl, 2009; Hyland & Sheldon, 2013), with global temperatures  
 182 gradually decreasing from a hothouse state that persisted through the start of the Ypresian.  
 183 Global mean annual temperatures (MAT) in the EECO were approximately 23-29°C  
 184 (Westerhold & Röhl, 2009; Honegger *et al.*, 2020), compared to 14-15°C in the present-day.  
 185 Humidity reconstructions from CaO/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ratios in Castissent Formation palaeosols indicate  
 186 the climate of the southern Pyrenean foreland during the Ypresian was semi-arid (Honegger  
 187 *et al.*, 2020). The lower Eocene climate was also characterised by hyperthermal events, short-  
 188 duration (40-200 kyr) periods of global warming which punctuated the overall, long-term  
 189 cooling trend of the late EECO (Lourens *et al.*, 2005; Kirtland Turner *et al.*, 2014; Westerhold  
 190 *et al.*, 2017; Turner, 2018; Honegger *et al.*, 2020). These hyperthermal events are  
 191 hypothesized to have affected continental sedimentation and fluvial dynamics in the Eocene  
 192 Pyrenean foreland (Honegger *et al.*, 2020; Boyrie *et al.*, 2025; McLeod *et al.*, 2025).

193 The Montllobat Formation comprises the Ypresian fluvial deposits of the Lower Montanyana  
 194 (LM) Group in the Tremp-Graus basin. Approximately 150-250 m thick, it is composed of  
 195 overbank mudstones interbedded with channelised sandstone and conglomeratic bodies  
 196 (Nijman & Nio, 1975). The fluvial channel-fill deposits include structureless kilometre-wide  
 197 sheetflood deposits (Van der Meulen, 1989), multi-lateral and multi-storey sandstone bodies  
 198 with well-developed lateral (point-bar) accretion (Nijman & Nio, 1975; Cabello *et al.*, 2018),

199 and both simple and multi-storey ribbon channel bodies (Nijman & Nio, 1975). The  
200 petrographic composition of the Montllobat Fm. is characterised by alluvial fan supply from  
201 the northern margin of the basin (Nijman, 1998). New palaeohydrological reconstructions  
202 (McLeod *et al.*, 2025) show palaeo-river flow depths averaged 1.40 m across the Tremp-Graus  
203 Basin, and field-based reconstructions indicate the median channel gradient was ca.  $8.0 \times 10^{-4}$   
204 (m/m), with a median bedload grain-size of medium sand (0.38 mm). The Montllobat  
205 Formation has been interpreted to represent a mostly wandering or anastomosing multi-  
206 threaded river system (Van der Meulen, 1989; McLeod *et al.*, 2025) with distinct meandering  
207 reaches (Van Eden, 1970; Nijman & Nio, 1975; Puigdefabregas & Vliet, 1977; Cabello *et al.*,  
208 2018). The Montllobat Formation is subdivided by the Mid-Lower Montanyana (MLM)  
209 unconformity, which marks a sequence boundary (Nijman, 1998), and the two subdivisions  
210 are referred to herein as Montllobat members A and B (McLeod *et al.*, 2025). With dominantly  
211 north-west-directed palaeocurrents, the Montllobat rivers pass downsystem into the shallow-  
212 marine clastic deposits of the Castigaleu Formation (Van Der Meulen, 1986).

213 The Montllobat Formation is overlain by the Castissent Formation, a widespread,  
214 comparatively thin (50-150 m) fluvial unit comprising the alluvial deposits of the Middle  
215 Montanyana (MM) Group. The Castissent Formation represents pronounced progradation of  
216 the Montanyana clastic wedge (Nijman & Puigdefàbregas, 1977; Marzo *et al.*, 1988; Nijman,  
217 1998), which has been attributed to an increase in hinterland tectonic uplift rates (Whitchurch  
218 *et al.*, 2011; Curry *et al.*, 2021) and/or a climatic change (Honegger *et al.*, 2020; McLeod *et al.*  
219 *et al.*, 2025). The Castissent Formation, like the underlying Montllobat Formation, comprises  
220 mottled overbank mudstone deposits and channelised fluvial sandstones (Marzo *et al.*, 1988).  
221 Its petrographic composition is carbonate-poor in comparison to the Montllobat Formation  
222 (Nijman, 1998), with a white-weathering appearance and rounded exposure style that  
223 distinguishes it from the other units of the Montanyana Group in the Tremp-Graus basin. The  
224 fluvial deposits of the Castissent Formation are dominantly multilateral and multi-story sheet  
225 sandstones, with some coarser conglomeratic channel fills. The fluvial deposits include

226 lenticular-bedded sheet sandstone bodies, tabular bodies containing lateral-accretion and  
227 ribbon-like channel fills (Marzo *et al.*, 1988). The Castissent Formation is composed of three  
228 main coarse-grained channel complexes (members A, B and C) separated by marine  
229 incursions (Marzo *et al.*, 1988; Honegger *et al.*, 2020), and these represent successive alluvial  
230 depositional phases (Martinius, 2012). The Castissent rivers were 1.40 m deep on average,  
231 but in contrast to the Montllobat Formation, they were developed on a steeper gradient  
232 ( $1.2 \times 10^{-3}$ ) and they transported a coarser bedload of coarse sand averaging 0.94 mm (McLeod  
233 *et al.*, 2025). The Castissent rivers have been interpreted as braided (Nijman &  
234 Puigdefàbregas, 1977; Marzo *et al.*, 1988; McLeod *et al.*, 2025), and McLeod *et al.* (2025)  
235 reconstructed an increase in water and sediment discharge in comparison to the underlying  
236 Montllobat Formation, reaching maximum transport capacity in Castissent member B.

237 Fluvial sedimentation also occurred south of the Montsec Thrust in the Àger Basin, coeval to  
238 the Montllobat and Castissent rivers (Nijman, 1998). Cropping out in the Serres Marginals  
239 thrust sheet (Fig. 2), the depositional duration of the Corçà Formation was equivalent to, or  
240 strongly overlapping with, that of the Montllobat and Castissent formations (Nijman, 1998;  
241 Juvany *et al.*, 2024) (Fig. 3). The Corçà Formation is comprised of stacked sheet sandstone  
242 complexes with north- to north-west-directed palaeocurrents, and a distinctly white-weathering  
243 exposure style, bearing notable similarities at outcrop to the Castissent Formation. The  
244 petrographic composition of the Corçà Formation suggests significant mixing with the  
245 Castissent Formation, supported by detrital zircon geochronology (Clark *et al.*, 2017; Thomson  
246 *et al.*, 2017). This mixing implies the two river systems had a similar source terrane, and they  
247 have been interpreted to effectively represent components of the same axial sediment routing  
248 system (Nijman, 1998; Martinus, 2012). The precise sediment routing palaeogeography,  
249 however, may be more nuanced. The routing system was split around the emergent Montsec  
250 Thrust (Martinius, 2012; Garcés *et al.*, 2020; Juvany *et al.*, 2024), but since transitional-to-  
251 shallow-marine Corçà deposits do not outcrop in the Àger Basin, the down-system  
252 continuation of the Corçà river's course is unclear. The compositional differences between the

253 Corçà and Montllobat formations (Nijman, 1998) suggest lower degrees of mixing earlier in  
254 the Ypresian. Uncertainties in the source regions of the Castissent and Montllobat formations,  
255 their catchment areas in relation to those of the Corçà Formation, and the size of their  
256 depositional sinks have the potential to affect interpretations of foreland-scale sedimentary  
257 dynamics, including our intermittency analyses. We outline our approach to addressing this  
258 uncertainty in the Methods section, below.

## 259 **3 METHODS**

260 In Section 3.1 we outline our methodology for reconstructing the depositional volumes of the  
261 early Eocene sediment routing systems, first detailing our stratigraphic correlations and  
262 subsequently describing our approaches to estimating sandstone thicknesses and calculating  
263 sediment volumetrics. In Section 3.2 we provide our methods for estimating both bankfull and  
264 mean water and sediment fluxes. These methods include utilising basin volumetrics to  
265 estimate mean sediment flux and calculations of mean water flux, followed by a description of  
266 our field-based workflow for palaeohydrological reconstruction of bankfull water and sediment  
267 discharge. We also outline our approach to addressing uncertainties, including those arising  
268 from multiple potential scenarios for specific sediment routing palaeogeographies in the  
269 Tremp-Graus and Àger basins. These methods permit the quantification of foreland-scale  
270 transport dynamics of river water and sediment during the Eocene hothouse, providing the  
271 first insights to date into river transport patterns in the southern Pyrenean foreland.

### 272 **3.1 Sediment volumes**

#### 273 *Stratigraphic correlation*

274 Understanding transport patterns using intermittency factors — a ratio between bankfull or  
275 maximum rates and average conditions — requires the calculation of long-term water and  
276 sediment discharge rates and instantaneous (bankfull) transport capacities. In order to  
277 estimate basin sediment volumes and therefore long-term averaged sediment fluxes in the  
278 Eocene Pyrenees, we first isolated the target stratigraphic intervals. As outlined above, the

279 stratigraphic frameworks of the Tremp-Graus, Ainsa, and Jaca basins are extremely well-  
280 developed individually. However, the Boltaña Anticline, situated west (down-system) of the  
281 Ainsa Basin (Fig. 2), has removed most sediment of Montanyana age from this region due to  
282 post-depositional erosion. As a consequence, stratigraphic correlation across the Boltaña  
283 Anticline, between the Ainsa and Jaca basins, is challenging and associated uncertainties  
284 have resulted in differing published interpretations. We conducted a survey of existing  
285 stratigraphic correlations based on measured sedimentary logs and outcrop sections. Below,  
286 we outline the stratigraphic correlations used to estimate depositional volumes for our  
287 intermittency analysis, and we provide an alternative correlation framework in the  
288 Supplementary Materials (Fig. S2).

289 The last shallow-marine carbonate deposition in the Tremp-Graus and Àger basins before the  
290 onset of major stable siliciclastic input was the Ilerdian Alveolina Limestone Formation, directly  
291 overlain by the Fígols Formation and related strata that record alluvial fan and delta  
292 progradation (Fig. 3). The rivers of the Montanyana Group in the Tremp-Graus Basin  
293 transported sediment downsystem (northwest) into a shallow-marine setting dominated by  
294 deltaic mouth bars. In the Montllobat interval, these sediments comprise the Castigaleu  
295 Formation. In the Ainsa Basin, marine siliciclastic and carbonate slope facies are incised by  
296 deep, composite submarine canyon fills (Marzo *et al.*, 1988; Nijman, 1990; Ayckbourne *et al.*,  
297 2024). Siliciclastic sediment was further routed through submarine channels into the distal  
298 Jaca Basin, which is dominated by Hecho Group turbidite deposits (Mutti, 1985a).

299 The Hecho Group (Fig. 3) is dominated by thick-bedded turbidites, interbedded with deep  
300 water mudstones and thin-bedded turbidites (Mutti, 1985b). Each turbidite system in the Jaca  
301 Basin (in stratigraphic order, the Pre-Torla, Torla, Broto, Cotefablo, Banastón, and Jaca  
302 turbidite systems; Fig. 3) represents between 500 and 1000 m of stratigraphy, and these  
303 successions are punctuated by 8 large-volume event beds, or Mega Turbidites (MTs; Seguret  
304 *et al.*, 1984; Labaume *et al.*, 1987; Remacha & Fernández, 2003), used to inform correlation  
305 frameworks. There is, however, some inconsistency amongst published correlation schemes

306 and stratigraphic frameworks for the Jaca Basin, and some schemes are directly contradictory  
307 (Scotchman *et al.*, 2015). In Figure 3 we present the stratigraphic framework selected for our  
308 primary intermittency analyses, based on a compilation of correlations (Remacha &  
309 Fernández, 2003; Payros *et al.*, 2009; Caja *et al.*, 2010; Scotchman *et al.*, 2015; Chanvry *et*  
310 *al.*, 2018). Alternatively, some schemes correlate the Castissent Formation to the Torla-  
311 Fosado units in the Ainsa-Jaca Basin, and the Montllobat Formation to the Pre-Torla turbidite  
312 system (Mutti, 1985b; Labaume *et al.*, 1987; Gupta & Pickering, 2008; Garcés *et al.*, 2020;  
313 Muñoz *et al.*, 2025). In the Supplementary Materials (section S4) we discuss these differing  
314 correlation schemes in detail.

315 Different potential stratigraphic correlations somewhat alter depositional volume  
316 reconstructions associated with each successive fluvial system, meaning the correlation we  
317 use might result in minor differences in reconstructed sediment intermittency factors. However,  
318 these uncertainties do not impact the duration of each depositional interval. To avoid  
319 inconsistency, we have selected the correlation framework shown in Figure 3, based on a  
320 compilation of schemes (Remacha & Fernández, 2003; Payros *et al.*, 2009; Caja *et al.*, 2010;  
321 Scotchman *et al.*, 2015; Chanvry *et al.*, 2018), and chosen for simplicity to avoid potential  
322 disagreements in the exact correlations between the Tremp-Graus Basin, Ainsa Basin and the  
323 individual MTs in the Jaca Basin. Henceforth, we assume the Arro and Fosado Channels in  
324 the Ainsa Basin are correlated eastwards to the Castissent Formation in the Tremp-Graus  
325 Basin (Poyatos-More, 2014; Chanvry *et al.*, 2018) and westwards to the Torla and Broto  
326 turbidite systems in the Jaca Basin (Mutti, 1985b; Labaume *et al.*, 1987; Gupta & Pickering,  
327 2008). Any Jaca Basin clastic sediment between the top of the Lower Eocene Alveolina  
328 Limestone and the base of the Torla turbidite system should be associated with the pre-  
329 Castissent fluvio-deltaic deposits of the Tremp-Graus-Àger Basin, including the Figols Group  
330 and Montllobat Formation (Remacha & Fernández, 2003). These intervals can be identified in  
331 the Jaca Basin as the Figols and Castigaleu turbidite systems (Caja *et al.*, 2010). The upper  
332 Montanyana Group is correlated to the later Jaca turbidite systems. Hence, the stratigraphic

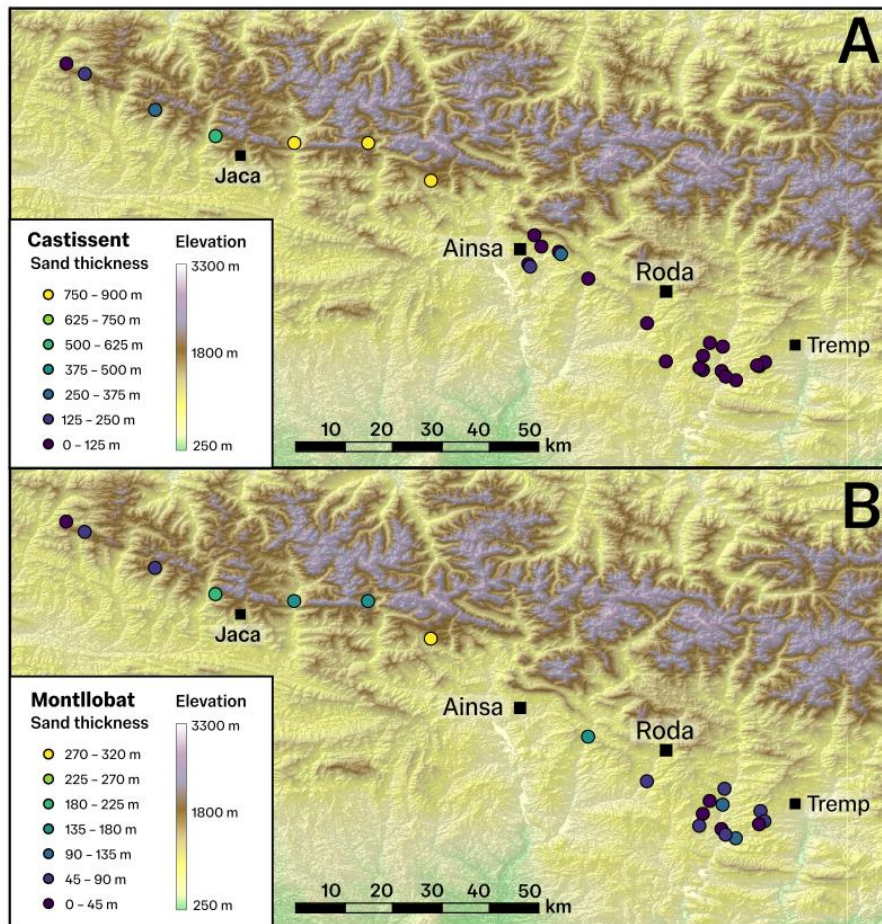
333 correlation framework we prefer in our volumetric reconstructions is as follows: the Castissent  
334 Formation in the Tremp-Graus Basin correlates with the Fosado-Arro channels in the Ainsa  
335 Basin, and the Torla-Broto turbidite system in the Jaca Basin; the Montllobat and Castigaleu  
336 formations in the Tremp-Graus Basin correlate with the uppermost succession of the Pre-Torla  
337 turbidite system, also known as the Castigaleu turbidite system, in the Jaca Basin.

338 We note that this is not the only possible interpretation of the available stratigraphic  
339 frameworks linking the Tremp-Graus, Ainsa and Jaca basins (e.g., Fig. S2). In Section 5.2 we  
340 discuss the potential impacts of uncertainty in correlations on intermittency factor  
341 reconstructions, provide alternative  $I_s$  values, and conduct further analyses to corroborate the  
342 results.

#### 343 *Sediment thickness*

344 To calculate depositional volumes along the source-to-sink correlations described above, we  
345 used a series of published outcrop measured sections, sedimentary logs and grain-size  
346 distribution estimates through the Eocene foreland basin (Fig. 4).

347 In the Tremp-Graus Basin, we estimated the thickness of sandstone and coarser sediment  
348 using 16 previously published measured sections (Tables S3, S4; Nijman, 1998; Chanvry *et*  
349 *al.*, 2018). To estimate the total apparent thickness of the units in the Jaca and Ainsa basins,  
350 we used geological maps resolving the Torla-Broto and Pre-Torla turbidite systems (IGME,  
351 2003; Remacha & Fernández, 2003; Chanvry *et al.*, 2018) to measure the apparent thickness  
352 of these units based on the maximum topographic range of the mapped outcrop. In this  
353 topographic approach, we measured the Torla-Broto unit to represent Castissent-age  
354 sediment, and the Pre-Torla unit to represent Figols-to-Montllobat age sediment according to  
355 our correlation framework (Fig. 3). We outlined 15 km boxes oriented parallel to palaeocurrent  
356 direction along the mapped outcrop, determined based on sedimentological observations  
357 (Marzo *et al.*, 1988; Cornard & Pickering, 2020; McLeod *et al.*, 2025) and measured the  
358 maximum topographic range within the mapped outcrop for each turbidite system to attain an



**Figure 4.** Sand thickness dataset locations for the (A) Castissent Formation and correlative strata (Fig. 3), and (B) Montllobat Formation and correlative strata (Fig. 3). Data points are coloured according to total sand deposit thickness. See Supplementary Material (section S2) for the full thickness dataset.

359 estimate of total unit thickness. This approach, used in the context of our stratigraphic  
 360 framework, permits simple measurements of stratigraphic thickness. The thickness estimates  
 361 yielded by our approach are reasonable, with maximum values of 375 – 1300 m: they present  
 362 both a lower bound on thickness considering erosion that may have taken place following  
 363 exhumation, and an upper bound on thickness considering structural thickening of the units  
 364 due to compression.

365 To estimate sediment thickness in each member of the Castissent and Montllobat-age fluvial  
 366 and shallow-marine deposits, we used published measured outcrop sections in the Tremp-  
 367 Graus basin (Tables S3, S4; Nijman, 1998; Chanvry *et al.*, 2018) to estimate the average  
 368 thickness ratio between the members within each formation. We extrapolated these thickness  
 369 ratios across the Ainsa and Jaca basins, assuming that the thicker members and sequences

370 in the alluvial domain correspond to thicker deposits downsystem in the marine domain of this  
371 foreland basin. These approaches generate reasonable first-order estimates of stratigraphic  
372 thickness through the Ypresian Pyrenean foreland.

### 373 *Sand proportion*

374 We next required estimates of the proportion of each unit comprised of sandstone, as a  
375 counterpart to the bankfull sand transporting capacity we will calculate for the Castissent and  
376 Montllobat rivers.

377 We employed an approach using total sediment thickness measurements and estimates of  
378 sandstone proportion. According to the stratigraphic correlation framework used (Fig. 3) the  
379 Castissent rivers correlate to the Torla-Broto turbidite systems and the Montllobat rivers to the  
380 comparatively sand-poor Castigaleu turbidite system. In the continental Tremp-Graus Basin,  
381 a high density of measured sections (Nijman, 1998; Chanvry *et al.*, 2018) permitted direct  
382 measurements of sandstone proportion in the Castissent and Montllobat deposits at those  
383 locations. In the Ainsa and Jaca basins, there is more uncertainty associated with sandstone  
384 proportion within each unit.

385 To estimate sand proportion in the Castissent- and Montllobat-aged units of the Ainsa-Jaca  
386 basin, we first collated estimates of sandstone proportion across the basin. To obtain data  
387 support for estimates of the amount of sand entering the deep marine basin, we used  
388 measured sections from the Broto region for the Castigaleu turbidite system (Raimat Quintana  
389 *et al.*, 1997), and for Castissent-age sediment (Arro-Fosado deposits) in the Ainsa Basin we  
390 used measured sections from Ayckbourne *et al.* (2024) and Chanvry *et al.* (2018). To  
391 determine the proportion of the Pre-Torla sediment thickness that is attributed to the  
392 sandstones of the Castigaleu turbidite system, we used the measured sections of Caja *et al.*  
393 (2010). Based upon these estimates for the Broto region, where sand entered the deep marine  
394 basin, we estimated a linear down-system trend of decreasing sand content that is calibrated  
395 to measurements from the Broto turbidite system (Cornard & Pickering, 2020), which we

396 applied to both Castissent- and Montllobat-age deposits. We subsequently estimated  
397 sandstone thickness in the Jaca Basin by scaling our total unit thickness estimates from the  
398 topographic approach described above, according to the sandstone proportions acquired from  
399 the linear down-system fining trend. This approach permits the characterisation of sandstone  
400 thickness from source to sink (Figure 6; Tables S3, S4).

#### 401 *Volume calculation*

402 To estimate the deposit volumes based on the above constraints on sand thickness, we first  
403 required estimates of sediment fairway geometry. To estimate the shape and size of the  
404 sediment fairway in the Jaca Basin, we used reconstructions of palaeogeography (Remacha  
405 *et al.*, 2005; Vinyoles *et al.*, 2021) and turbidite deposit extent based on the Broto turbidite  
406 system (Cornard & Pickering, 2020). In the Tremp-Graus, Àger and Ainsa basins, fairway  
407 extent was based on outcrop extent, palaeogeographic reconstructions (Juvany *et al.*, 2024)  
408 and structural controls including the positions of the Montsec and Boixols thrusts which  
409 imposed constraints on sediment routing. We accordingly allocated the edge of the sediment  
410 fairway zero sand thickness (Tables S3, S4). Thus, from outcrop sections, sedimentary logs  
411 and, grain-size distributions and palaeogeographical reconstructions, we resolved 1D  
412 sediment thicknesses across the early Eocene source to sink system.

413 Whilst folding and thrusting in the northern part of the Jaca basin (e.g., Muñoz *et al.*, 2025)  
414 modifies unit geometry and could therefore introduce uncertainty regarding true unit thickness,  
415 average bedding dip is  $<10^\circ$  basin-wide, meaning that true unit thicknesses could be c. 2%  
416 less than their apparent thicknesses. This uncertainty is significantly less than those involved  
417 in estimating Jaca Basin sediment fairway geometry and stratigraphic correlation, so it is  
418 disregarded for further analysis, and we treat sediment thickness measurements as estimates  
419 of true unit thickness.

420 Using industry-standard subsurface mapping software, we applied a convergent interpolation  
421 method (Schlumberger, 2017) to interpolate our 1D sediment thickness dataset to a sediment

422 thickness grid for the full fairway. To address uncertainty in sediment thickness grids arising  
423 from the outcrop sections, logs, sandstone proportions and fairway geometries used, we  
424 produced two isochores for each time interval: one in which the maximum thickness of the unit  
425 was permitted to be 10% greater than the limit of input data, improving the smoothness of  
426 isochore surfaces and implied basin geometry; and one with a 0% leeway on the maximum  
427 unit thickness (Table S2). After manual smoothing, we then calculated the integrated volumes  
428 of the interpolated sediment thickness grids. These volumes were decompacted according to  
429 a sandstone decompaction factor, estimated as the ratio of compacted sandstone porosity  
430 (0.1-0.25) to original (depositional) sandstone porosity (0.4-0.5) (Fisher *et al.*, 1999; Kim &  
431 Lee, 2018), and a denudational weathering rate due to carbonate dissolution between 0 and  
432 20% (Schoonejans *et al.*, 2016; Ott *et al.*, 2025; see Table S4 in the Supplementary Materials  
433 for a list of uncertainty bounds used in analysis).

### 434 **3.2 Water and sediment fluxes and intermittency factors**

#### 435 *Bankfull transport capacities*

436 Our methodological approach for reconstructing bankfull water and sediment transport  
437 capacities in ancient rivers using palaeohydrology follows a workflow which has been tested  
438 in various geological settings (e.g., Ganti *et al.*, 2019; Lyster *et al.*, 2020; Wood *et al.*, 2022;  
439 McLeod *et al.*, 2025). To characterise river transport patterns in the Tremp-Graus Basin, we  
440 leverage the study of McLeod *et al.* (2025), which reconstructed the bankfull water and  
441 sediment transport capacities for the Montllobat and Castissent formations. Their dataset  
442 included a total of 1686 measurements of dune cross-set height, 221 barform accretion  
443 heights, 147 grain-size measurements, 856 measurements of palaeocurrent direction, 703  
444 measurements of barform accretion orientation and 46 measurements of accretion length  
445 across 42 outcrops in the Spanish Pyrenees (19 in the Montllobat Formation and 23 in the  
446 Castissent Formation). These primary field observations were combined with previous facies  
447 analyses and stratigraphic correlations constrained by extensive outcrop mapping across the  
448 Tremp-Graus Basin (e.g., Marzo *et al.*, 1988; Nijman, 1998; Chanvry *et al.*, 2018; Honegger

449 *et al.*, 2020) to obtain sequence-scale (member-scale) estimates of evolving river morphology  
450 and style, and landscape-scale water and sediment transport rates in the Ypresian.

451 Since the Jaca Basin was also supplied from the Àger Basin, we supplemented  
452 palaeohydrological analyses of the Castissent and Montllobat formations with new estimates  
453 for the Corçà Formation, the major river system active in the Àger Basin during the Ypresian.  
454 For this, we used field observations to estimate channel geometry and slope, and used an  
455 analytical workflow based on a suite of theoretical-numerical models, experimental relations  
456 and field observations (c.f. McLeod *et al.*, 2025) to reconstruct the bankfull transport capacities  
457 of water and sediment through the Corçà river system. This approach is briefly described  
458 below; further details are available in the Supplementary Materials (Section S1).

459 Cross-sets (Fig. 5B, E, H), the preserved remnants of river dunes, generally scale in size with  
460 river flow depth (Bradley & Venditti, 2017), thus presenting an indicator of palaeo-flow depth.  
461 To estimate mean cross-set thickness,  $h_{xs}$ , from fluvial deposits in the Corçà Formation, we  
462 obtained full thickness distributions by measuring thickness along the major axis of a cross-  
463 set at 10-15 regular intervals. Original dune height,  $h_d$ , was estimated using the relation of  
464 Leclair & Bridge (2001) where mean cross-set thickness is, on average, around 1/3 of the  
465 original dune height:

$$466 \quad h_d = Ch_{xs}, \quad (3)$$

467 and  $C$  is a bedform preservation ratio with a value of  $2.9 \pm 0.7$ , derived from observational  
468 river datasets and flume experiments. The relation of Bradley & Venditti (2017) permits  
469 estimates of median formative flow depth,  $H$ , from  $h_d$ :

$$470 \quad H = xh_d, \quad (4)$$

471 where  $x$  is a scalar based on compiled observational flow and dune dimension data, with an  
472 interquartile range between 4.4 and 10.1, and a median value of 6.7 (Bradley & Venditti, 2017).

473 The results of this approach were independently compared with the thickness of barform  
474 accretion sets (Fig. 5A, D, G), which represent minimum constraints on formative flow depth.

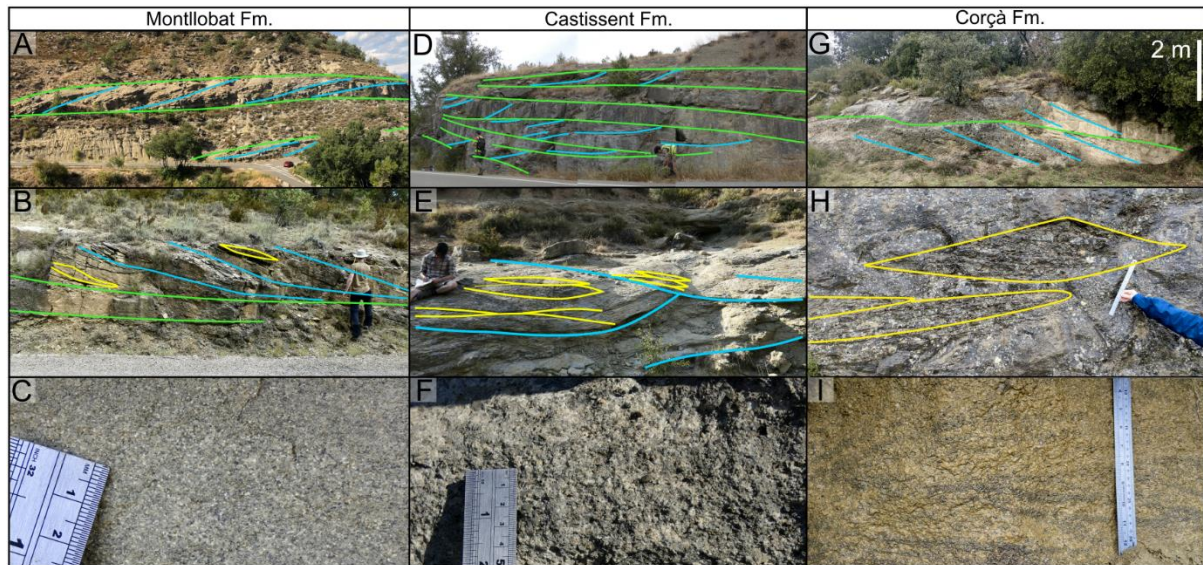
475 In each observed cross-set, we measured median grain-size ( $D_{50}$ ) (Fig. 5C, F, I) and lee face  
476 orientation. Where grains were <2 mm in diameter,  $D_{50}$  was estimated using the scheme of  
477 Wentworth (1922), and in conglomeratic bodies with  $D_{50} \geq 2$  mm, grain size distributions were  
478 measured according to the point-count method of Wolman (1954) with at least 100  
479 observations, allowing reconstruction of maximum formative flow conditions according to  
480 average bedload material grade.

481 Estimates of  $D_{50}$  and  $H$  were used to reconstruct palaeo-channel gradient or slope,  $S$ , using  
482 the approach of Trampus *et al.* (2014). This method is based on empirical data rooted in  
483 hydrological theory and is appropriate for the range of grain-sizes observed in the Montllobat,  
484 Castissent and Corça formations, including applications to suspended, mixed and bedload  
485 rivers.  $S$  (in units of m/m) is given by:

$$486 \quad \log S = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \log D_{50} + \alpha_2 \log H, \quad (5)$$

487 where  $\alpha_0$ ,  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are constants given as  $-2.08 \pm 0.036$ ,  $0.254 \pm 0.016$  and  $-1.09 \pm 0.044$   
488 respectively.

489 We estimated water flow velocity using the formula established by Manning *et al.* (1890), from  
490 which we used  $H$  estimates to reconstruct the per-unit-width water discharge,  $q_w$ . To  
491 reconstruct per-unit-width bankfull sediment transport capacity  $q_s$ , we used the total load  
492 predictor of Engelund & Hansen (1967) for sand-dominated deposits, and the bedload  
493 predictor of Meyer-Peter & Müller (1948) for gravel-dominated deposits (see Supplementary  
494 Material S1 for further details). To upscale  $q_s$  and  $q_w$  estimates to the bankfull transport  
495 capacity of ancient river channels, we estimate river width using scaling relations for low-  
496 sinuosity rivers (Long, 2021). This provides estimates of individual channel width (i.e. a single  
497 thread) based on values of  $H$ , and uncertainty is modelled using a rectangular distribution  
498 within the interquartile range of  $H$ . Rates of bankfull water and sediment discharge per



**Figure 5.** Exposures of the fluvial Montllobat, Castissent and Corça formations at (A, D, G) channel scale; (B, E, H) bedform-scale; and (C, F, I) grain-scale. Coloured outlines highlight interpreted alluvial architectural features where green represents barform-bounding surfaces, blue represents barform-accretion surfaces and yellow represents dune-scale cross-set bounding surfaces. See Supplementary Material (Fig. S1) for an unannotated version.

499 channel,  $Q_w$ , (with units  $m^3/s$ ) can be estimated according to  $Q_w = q_w W$ , where  $q_w$  is the  
 500 discharge per unit width.

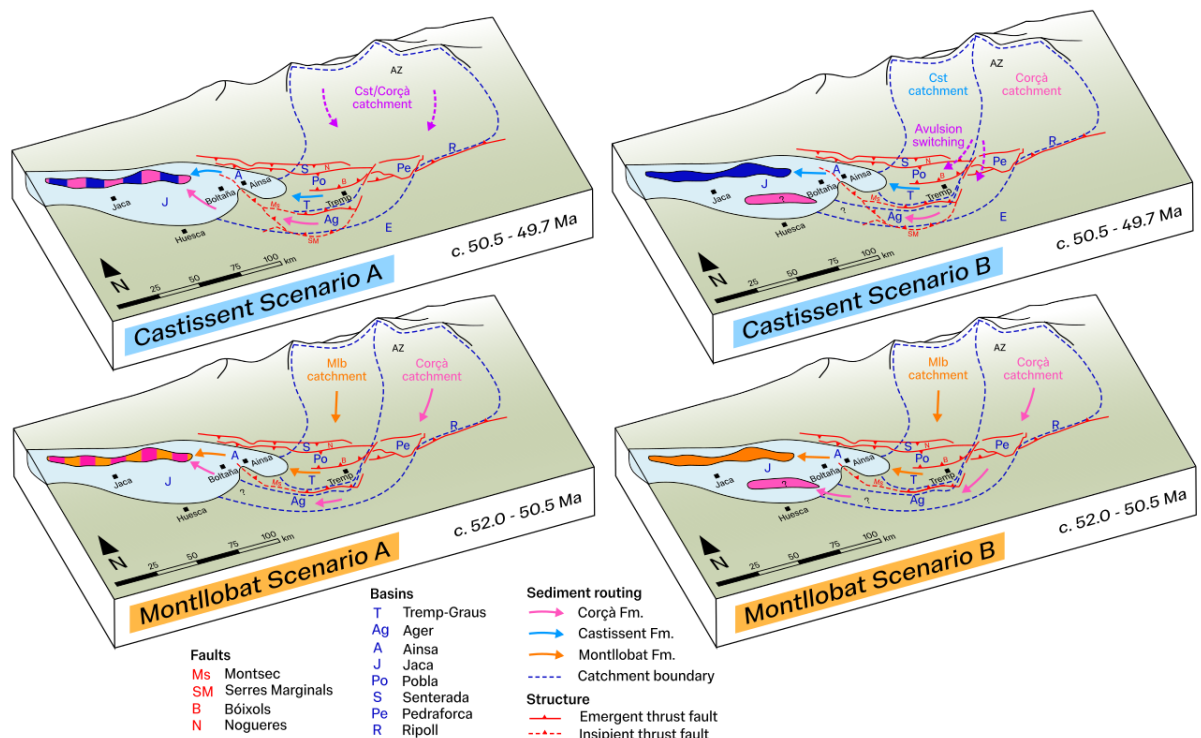
501 Finally, to obtain the total water and sediment discharge rates for a full river system,  $Q_{s,w(\text{total})}$ ,  
 502 the number of threads in an ancient system must be estimated according to  $Q_{\text{total}} = N_t Q$ ,  
 503 where  $N_t$  is the average number of active river threads or channels. We used two approaches  
 504 described in detail by McLeod *et al.* (2025) to determine the likely channel count, sinuosity  
 505 and planform classification of the Montanyana rivers, and subsequently the total channel-  
 506 forming water and sediment discharge in the Corça rivers. This palaeohydrological workflow,  
 507 using primary field observations and an analytical toolkit based on empirical relations  
 508 grounded in hydrological theory and observations, provides a robust and tangible method of  
 509 understanding landscape-scale water and sediment transport capacities through river  
 510 channels.

### 511 *Palaeo-routing scenarios*

512 Despite well-constrained bankfull water and sediment transport capacities in the Montllobat  
 513 and Castissent formations in the Tremp-Graus basin, there are uncertainties as to the source

514 regions of these river systems, their catchment areas in relation to those of the coeval Corçà  
515 Formation in the Àger basin, and the size of their depositional sinks. Current palaeogeographic  
516 and palaeohydrological reconstructions are not able to determine the relative transport  
517 capacities and depositional contributions of palaeo-rivers in the Tremp-Graus basin versus the  
518 Àger basin.

519 Based on palaeogeographic reconstructions (Martinius, 2012; Garcés *et al.*, 2020; Juvany *et*  
520 *al.*, 2024), petrological analyses (Nijman, 1998; Clark *et al.*, 2017; Roigé *et al.*, 2026) and  
521 palaeohydrological reconstructions (McLeod *et al.*, 2025), we identify two potential end-  
522 member scenarios for the sediment routing systems of the Eocene foreland in the Ypresian,  
523 considering uncertainties in the final depositional sink of the Corçà Formation and the  
524 catchments of the Corçà, Montllobat and Castissent formations. We outline these scenarios  
525 in Figure 6. In one scenario (Montllobat Scenario A), the petrographic differences between the  
526 Corçà and Montllobat formations are used to infer that the two river systems had mostly  
527 distinct, separate catchments, both feeding into the same turbiditic sediment volume in the  
528 Jaca basin by an unknown route over the Boltaña Anticline. We may conversely treat the  
529 Castissent and Corçà rivers as one system, to account for the petrographic similarities  
530 between the two formations (Castissent Scenario A). This Castissent/Corçà axial system,  
531 incorporating Àger and Tremp headwaters, might then have split either side of the Montsec  
532 thrust before merging and feeding into the same Jaca Basin clastic sink (c.f. Martinus, 2012).



**Figure 6.** Palaeo-sediment routing scenarios for the Montllobat and Castissent intervals, highlighting two alternative scenarios for the source-to-sink palaeogeography of the Montllobat and Corçà rivers (Montllobat Scenarios A and B) and for the Castissent and Corçà rivers (Castissent Scenarios A and B) in the early Eocene south central unit of the Pyrenean foreland.

533 Another potential scenario (Montllobat Scenario B), arising from uncertainty as to the precise  
 534 sources of the Hecho turbidite systems, is that the Montllobat and Corçà rivers contributed to  
 535 two separate depositional sinks. Turbidite deposits associated with the Corçà rivers in the LM  
 536 interval may have been located elsewhere in the Jaca Basin, for example more proximal to  
 537 the Guara carbonates to the south of the basin, and/or these distal deposits are simply not  
 538 exposed today. Likewise, the same may have been true of the depositional sinks in the  
 539 Castissent interval (Castissent Scenario B). It is possible that, despite being two essentially  
 540 separate river systems, there was increased fluvial connectivity between the Castissent and  
 541 Corçà rivers across the Montsec thrust (Nijman, 1998), but ultimately the marine depositional  
 542 sinks did not merge in the Jaca Basin. Equally, the Tremp-Graus (Castissent) and Àger  
 543 (Corçà) branches of the rivers may not have been active at the same time: one possibility to  
 544 explain the petrological and palaeogeographical features of the Montllobat, Castissent and  
 545 Corçà routing systems is river switching by large-scale avulsion, with alternating phases of  
 546 fluvial routing and deposition through the Àger Basin and the Tremp Basin. The Corçà river

547 system, which could have been mostly confined to the Àger Basin at c. 52-50.5 Ma could have  
548 intermittently avulsed into the Tremp-Graus basin from c. 50.5-49.7 Ma, producing the  
549 Castissent Formation. This would mean that the total transport capacity of the system would  
550 be no greater than that of the river branches in each individual sub-basin.

551 To account explicitly for these uncertainties in sediment routing during the Ypresian, we  
552 generated two intermittency scenarios for each time interval according to our Scenarios A and  
553 B outlined above (Fig. 4). For Montllobat Scenario A, we combined the bankfull sediment  
554 transport capacity of the Tremp-Graus Basin with that of the Àger Basin, acquired from the  
555 Corçà Formation. Likewise, for Castissent Scenario A, we combine the transport capacities of  
556 the Tremp-Graus and Àger basins, but we treat the catchment area for the Corçà and  
557 Castissent rivers as the same, meaning that the Castissent Scenario A catchment area is  
558 double that of Montllobat Scenario A. In Montllobat and Castissent Scenario B, we assume  
559 the depositional volume of the Montllobat sink can be directly compared with the bankfull  
560 sediment transport capacity of the Tremp-Graus Basin, disregarding input from the Àger Basin.  
561 The results we present, therefore, are represented in these two end-member scenarios.

562 These palaeo-sediment routing scenarios bound the palaeogeographical unknowns in the  
563 lower Eocene. We combine these estimates of landscape-scale water and sediment transport  
564 capacities with long-term discharge rates, below, to calculate evolving intermittency factors for  
565 the Eocene Pyrenean foreland.

#### 566 *Mean sediment flux*

567 To estimate long-term sediment flux from a decompacted depositional sandstone volume,  
568 estimates of the duration of deposition must be incorporated into analysis. Based on a  
569 compilation of age-date estimates (Bentham & Burbank, 1996; Nijman, 1998; Mochales *et al.*,  
570 2012; Scotchman *et al.*, 2015; Westerhold *et al.*, 2017; Chanvry *et al.*, 2018), we determined  
571 that the duration of the Montllobat Fm is  $1.3 \pm 0.1$  Myr, and the duration of the Castissent  
572 Formation is  $0.9 \pm 0.1$  Myr. For higher-resolution analysis of evolving sediment transport

573 patterns, we also estimated the duration of the members of the two formations. Castissent A  
574 (Cs-1) had a duration of  $0.30 \pm 0.03$  Myr, and Castissent B&C (Cs-2) lasted  $0.6 \pm 0.03$  Myr  
575 (Nijman, 1998; Mochales *et al.*, 2012; Westerhold *et al.*, 2017; Chanvry *et al.*, 2018).  
576 Montillobat A had a duration between 0.6 and 1.0 Myr (Chanvry *et al.*, 2018) with a preferred  
577 estimate of 0.9 Myr (Bentham & Burbank, 1996), and Montillobat B had a duration between  
578 0.3 and 0.6 Myr (Nijman, 1998) with a preferred estimate of 0.4 Myr (Westerhold *et al.*, 2017).  
579 Sand-grade depositional volumes were divided by these durations to obtain rates of deposition  
580 for the intervals of focus. See Table S2 for the bounds used in Monte Carlo simulations to  
581 address the uncertainties in duration.

582 In addition to our uncertainty analysis, we used two approaches to validate the results from  
583 this methodology. Firstly, we divided estimated catchment areas (see Section 3.3 below) by  
584 depositional volumes to estimate catchment averaged erosion rates for each time interval.  
585 This revealed erosion rates which were aligned with estimates of exhumation rates based on  
586 detrital zircon thermochronological data (Whitchurch *et al.*, 2011). Secondly, we compared our  
587 downstream approach to reconstructing long-term depositional fluxes with an upstream  
588 approach based on the BQART model, a global multiregression empirical model which  
589 estimates suspended sediment load (Syvitski & Milliman, 2007). For this, Yan *et al.* (2025)  
590 presented BQART-derived estimates of long-term bedload flux in the southern Pyrenees  
591 based on similar catchments reconstructed from palaeo-digital elevation models (pDEMs) for  
592 the slightly later Bartonian stage. These provide a useful, if not necessarily direct, comparison  
593 for our stratigraphic volume-derived depositional flux estimates.

#### 594 *Mean water flux*

595 We calculated long-term average water discharge rates based on estimates of catchment area  
596 and precipitation rates. The climate was semi-arid to sub-humid, and estimates of precipitation  
597 rates from geochemical analyses of palaeosols (Honegger *et al.*, 2020) reveal mean annual  
598 precipitation (MAP) rates of 376 mm/yr, increasing to as high as 754 mm/yr during carbon  
599 isotopic excursions (CIEs) associated with hyperthermal events. Since sedimentary palaeo-

600 precipitation estimates are sparse in Montllobat-aged strata, we use the estimates of  
601 Honegger *et al.* (2020) from the Castissent Formation for both intervals investigated in this  
602 study. Environmental interpretations (Boyrice *et al.*, 2025) of Montllobat-aged strata in the  
603 northern Pyrenees confirm that the climate and palaeo-precipitation were likely not  
604 significantly different from those of the Castissent interval.

605 These estimates of average precipitation rates were used to reconstruct mean runoff rates  
606 within the palaeo-catchments of the Castissent and Montllobat rivers. Catchment areas were  
607 primarily estimated based on Ypresian palaeogeographic constraints on sediment routing  
608 (Juvany *et al.*, 2024). We estimate catchment areas averaging 10,000 km<sup>2</sup> for Montllobat  
609 Scenarios A and B and Castissent Scenario B, and 20,000 km<sup>2</sup> for Castissent Scenario A (Fig.  
610 4). Palaeo-Digital Elevation Models (pDEMs) for the later Bartonian Pyrenees (Yan *et al.*,  
611 2025) confirm these estimates are reasonable for the Ypresian to within a factor of c. 2: the  
612 primary fluvial catchment from that study supplying the Jaca Basin in the Bartonian (41.2–37.7  
613 Ma), which corresponds roughly to the Bartonian counterpart of the Ypresian Montllobat and  
614 Castissent catchments, had an estimated area of >7000 km<sup>2</sup>. We propagated all uncertainties  
615 in catchment areas and precipitation rates through the remaining analyses.

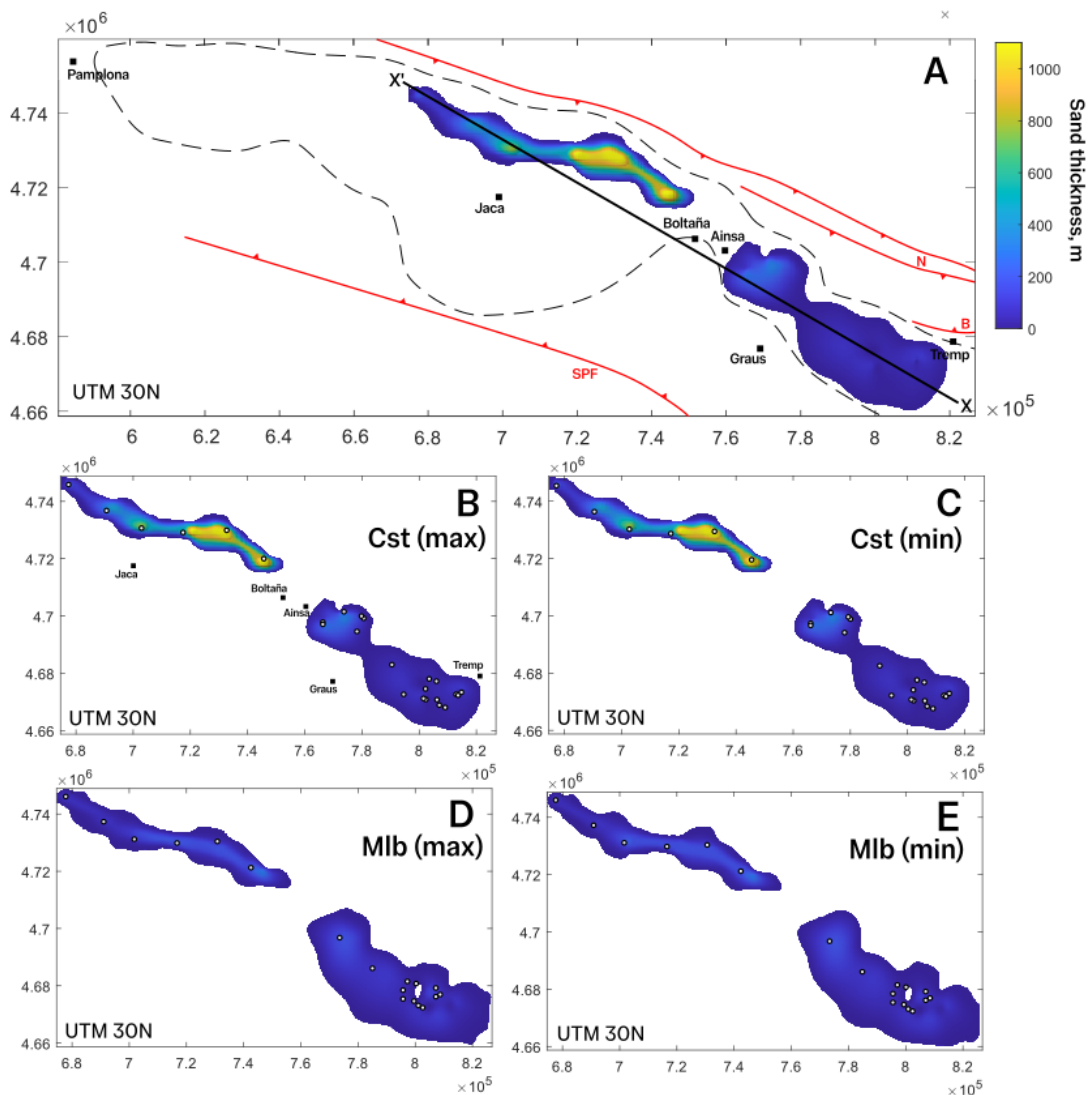
616 Using field-derived palaeohydrological estimates of bankfull water and sediment transport  
617 capacities, estimates of basin volumetrics, and reconstructions of precipitation volumes, we  
618 are able to estimate the intermittency factors of water and sediment transport in these ancient  
619 river systems by finding the ratio of  $Q_{s,w(avg)}$  to  $Q_{s,w(bf)}$  for each unit.

## 620 **4. RESULTS**

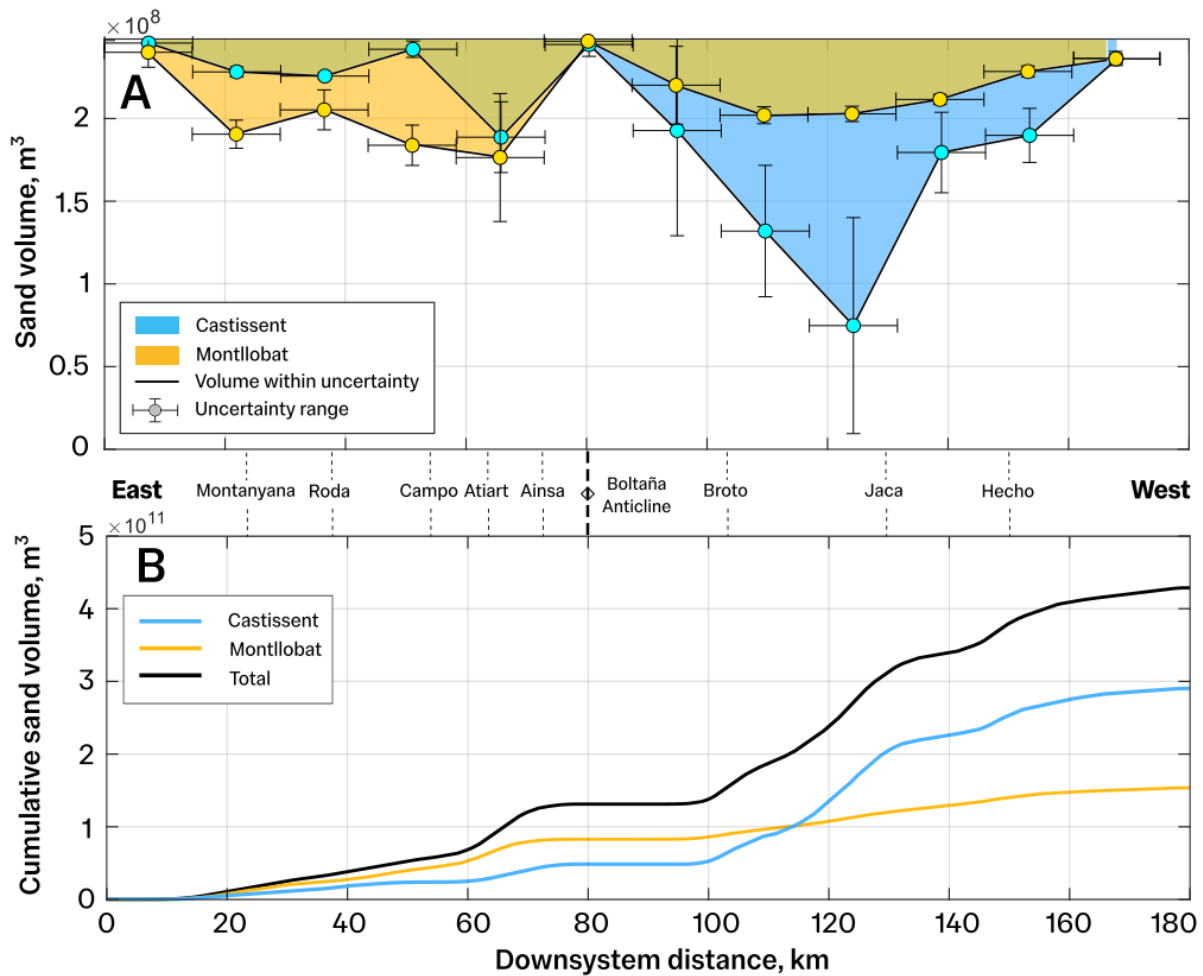
### 621 **4.1 Sediment volumetrics**

622 Using published measured sections and palaeogeographic reconstructions to inform sediment  
623 thickness maps, we reconstructed the depositional volumes of sand-grade sediment  
624 associated with the Montllobat and Castissent river systems (Fig. 7). The total volume of sand  
625 in strata correlated with the Montllobat Formation across the Tremp-Graus-Ainsa-Jaca basins

626 was  $1.28 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$ , or  $128 \pm 30 \text{ km}^3$ , where the stated uncertainty is derived from sediment  
 627 thickness grid interpolation end-members (Fig. 7D, E). The decompacted Montllobat sand  
 628 volume was  $1.92 \pm 0.11 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$ , or  $192 \pm 11 \text{ km}^3$ . The estimated sand volumes associated with  
 629 Montllobat members A and B were  $5.26 \pm 0.4 \times 10^{10} \text{ m}^3$  and  $5.36 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{10} \text{ m}^3$ , respectively;  
 630  $7.88 \pm 0.5 \times 10^{10} \text{ m}^3$  and  $8.04 \pm 0.5 \times 10^{10} \text{ m}^3$  once decompacted. These member-level sandstone  
 631 volume estimates were acquired independently using the grid interpolation method described  
 632 above, and within uncertainties they sum to the total unit volume.



**Figure 7.** Sand volume isochores. (A) The structural and palaeogeographic context of the depositional sand volumes in the southern Pyrenean foreland superimposed on the minimum sand volume for Castissent-age strata (Fig. 7C), where the black line represents the palaeogeographic extent of the Tremp-Graus-Ainsa-Jaca basin (modified after Remacha et al. (2005)) and the red lines represent major thrust faults (N = Noguères, B = Boixols, SPF = South Pyrenean Front). The volume is coloured according to total sand thickness. (B) The maximum and (C) minimum sand volumes for Castissent-age strata, where the white circles represent the thickness dataset. (D) The maximum and (E) minimum sand volume for the Montllobat-age strata. See Supplementary Materials (section S2) for sediment thickness data.



**Figure 8.** Downsystem sand-grade sediment volumetrics. (A) The sand volume along a downsystem transect (X-X' in Fig. 7A), where the Castissent-age volume is overlaid on the Montllobat volume. Uncertainty margins are based on the volume range within 15 km boxes along the transect, according to methodology for our topography approach (Methods). (B) The cumulative sand volume for each formation.

633 The total sand volume in Castissent-age strata was  $2.92 \pm 0.1 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$  (Fig. 7B, C), and  
 634  $4.38 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$  after decompaction. For Castissent Member A the depositional sand volume  
 635 was  $1.69 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$ , and for Castissent B&C it was  $1.24 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$ . After decompaction,  
 636 Castissent Member A and members B&C had sand volumes of  $2.53 \pm 0.1 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$  and  
 637  $1.86 \pm 0.1 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^3$ , respectively.

638 The down-system distribution of sand deposition is asymmetrical in both the Montllobat- and  
 639 Castissent-age strata (Fig. 8). In the continental deposits of the Tremp-Graus Basin, more  
 640 sand-grade deposition occurred in the Montllobat sediment routing system than in the  
 641 Castissent system (Fig. 8A). The Atiart canyon in the Ainsa Basin represents a significant  
 642 depositional sink of sand in Castissent-age strata, but in both units there is no sand volume

643 reconstructed over the Boltaña anticline, as discussed above. The Torla-Broto turbidite system  
644 in the Jaca Basin preserves a greater sandstone volume than the Castigaleu turbidite system,  
645 meaning that the cumulative Castissent-age sand volume is a factor of 2.3 greater than that  
646 for the Montllobat-age system (Fig. 8B).

#### 647 **4.2 Average water and sediment flux**

648 Employing estimates of the duration of each depositional interval derived from regional  
649 chronostratigraphy (Bentham & Burbank, 1996; Nijman, 1998; Mochales *et al.*, 2012; Chanvry  
650 *et al.*, 2018), we use these volumes to reconstruct sand deposition rates in the Eocene  
651 Pyrenean foreland basin. Based on decompacted sediment volumes, the sand-grade  
652 deposition rate in the Montllobat-age interval was  $147\pm 8$  km<sup>3</sup>/Myr, where the stated uncertainty  
653 represents the interquartile range in the acquired results after Monte Carlo uncertainty  
654 propagation. This represents the long-term mean sand flux in the Montllobat-age interval. In  
655 strata equivalent to the Montllobat A Member, the mean sediment accumulation rate was  
656 calculated as  $94\pm 9$  km<sup>3</sup>/Myr, and in strata equivalent to the Montllobat B Member, this rate  
657 was  $188\pm 22$  km<sup>3</sup>/Myr. For the Castissent-age interval, deposition of sand-grade sediment  
658 across the Tremp-Graus-Ainsa-Jaca basins averaged  $487\pm 30$  km<sup>3</sup>/Myr, three times greater  
659 than that for the Montllobat-age interval. Mean sedimentation rate peaked in strata equivalent  
660 to the Castissent A Member at  $846\pm 51$  km<sup>3</sup>/Myr. Strata equivalent to the Castissent B&C  
661 members had a reconstructed depositional flux averaging  $310\pm 19$  km<sup>3</sup>/Myr.

662 As a check, we compared these reconstructed long-term averaged depositional fluxes to the  
663 catchment areas estimated from palaeogeographic reconstructions, palaeo-DEMs and our  
664 Scenarios A and B (Fig. 4). This enables calculation of the hinterland erosion rates that would  
665 be required to supply the depositional sinks for each interval with sediment. In Scenario A for  
666 the Castissent/Corçà system, we estimated a catchment area of 20,000 km<sup>2</sup>, and in Scenario  
667 B for this system, the catchment area is 10,000 km<sup>2</sup>. We use a 10,000 km<sup>2</sup> estimated  
668 catchment area in both scenarios for the Montllobat system (see Supplementary Table S4 for  
669 full uncertainty ranges). Montllobat-age volumes imply sand-grade sediment was eroded from

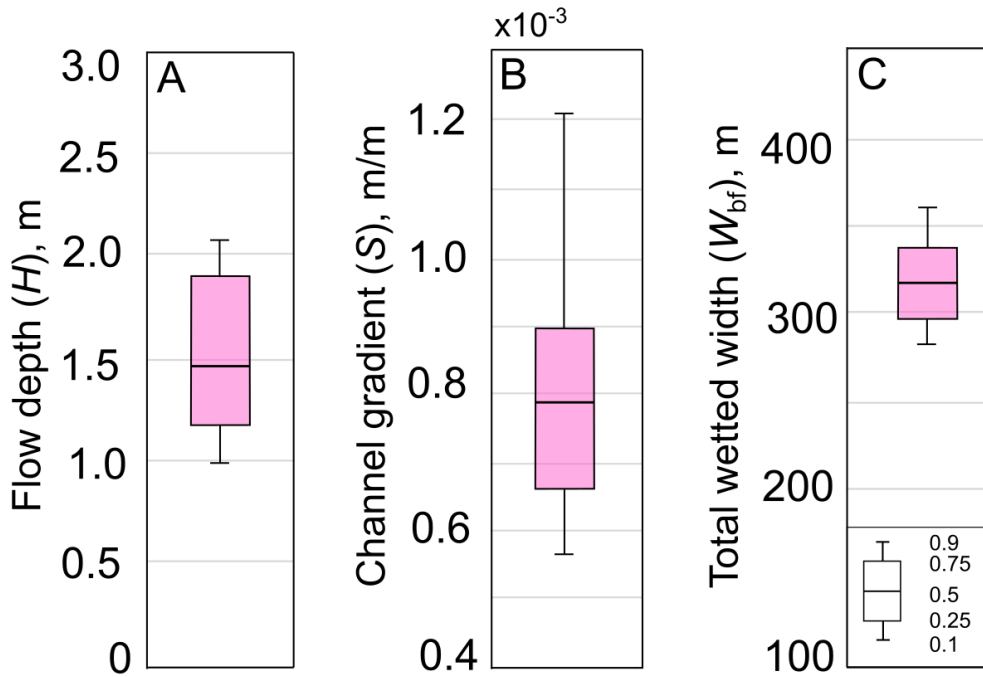
670 Pyrenean catchments at rates of  $1.1 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-2}$  mm/yr, and in the Castissent-age interval these  
671 rates increased to  $3.6 \pm 1.0 \times 10^{-2}$  mm/yr. These rates are reasonable considering rock uplift and  
672 exhumation rates reconstructed from thermochronological data (Whitchurch *et al.*, 2011; Curry  
673 *et al.*, 2021), (see section 5.2 for further details).

674 Average water discharges in the southern Pyrenean foreland were reconstructed based on  
675 published palaeo-precipitation rates (Honegger *et al.*, 2020) and estimated catchment areas.  
676 Average water discharge ( $Q_{w(\text{avg})}$ ) across the total catchment for both scenarios in the  
677 Montllobat-age interval was reconstructed as  $68 \pm 19$  m<sup>3</sup>/s, assuming a 20% evapotranspiration  
678 rate (Wang & Alimohammadi, 2012), where the stated uncertainty represents the interquartile  
679 range.  $Q_{w(\text{avg})}$  was also  $68 \pm 19$  m<sup>3</sup>/s in Castissent Scenario B, which used the same estimated  
680 values for precipitation rate and catchment area. However, in Castissent Scenario A, we  
681 assume a larger catchment area to incorporate Corçà headwaters. This yields an upper bound  
682 on average water discharge of  $123 \pm 42$  m<sup>3</sup>/s.

683 These long-term estimates of mean water and sediment flux permit a unique insight into the  
684 patterns of material transport through the Pyrenean foreland during the EECO. Using field-  
685 based observations of grain-, bedform- and channel-scale architecture, we compare these  
686 values to reconstructions of channel-forming (bankfull) conditions in these ancient river  
687 systems.

#### 688 **4.3 Bankfull water and sediment flux**

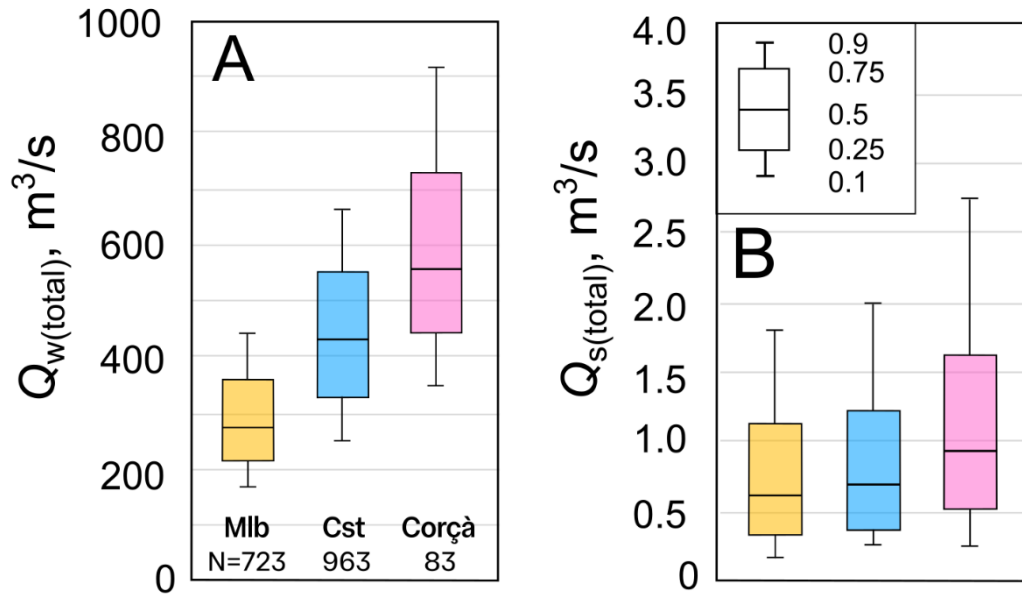
689 Based on 42 field sites in the Tresp-Graus Basin, McLeod *et al.* (2025) reconstructed evolving  
690 river morphology and bankfull water and sediment discharge rates in the Montllobat and  
691 Castissent formations. These results are essential to our analyses, but the key to unlocking  
692 fully transport dynamics in the early Eocene is understanding the role of the Corçà Formation  
693 of the Àger Basin. Hence, we present new palaeohydrological results from the Corçà  
694 Formation (Fig. 9), in addition to briefly reiterating the key palaeohydrological characteristics  
695 of the Montllobat and Castissent formations.



**Figure 9.** Corçà Formation palaeohydrology. (A) Bedform-derived palaeo-flow depth, (B) reconstructed palaeo-channel gradient, and (C) total flow width at bankfull.

696 The heights of bar accretion sets in the Corçà Formation averaged 1.48 m, providing a  
 697 minimum channel-architectural constraint on palaeo-flow depth. By comparison, median  
 698 barform-derived flow depths in the Montllobat and Castissent formations were both 1.40 m  
 699 (McLeod *et al.*, 2025). This represents a conservative lower bound on flow depth because  
 700 barforms are often not fully preserved in fluvial strata, and bars do not always accrete up to  
 701 the bankfull flow depth. To support this analysis we used dune cross-set height scaling  
 702 relations (Leclair & Bridge, 2001; Bradley & Venditti, 2017; Equations 3 and 4) to estimate the  
 703 formative flow depth. This approach yielded flow depths ( $H$ ) of  $1.47 \pm 0.3$  m, where the stated  
 704 uncertainty represents the interquartile range, demonstrating these two approaches can be  
 705 used to accurately predict palaeo-flow depth (Fig. 9A). Dune-derived palaeo-flow depths  
 706 averaged  $1.36 \pm 0.3$  m in the Montllobat Formation and  $1.26 \pm 0.3$  m in the Castissent Formation  
 707 (McLeod *et al.*, 2025).

708 Using our flow depth reconstructions and grain-size observations, we estimated channel  
 709 palaeo-gradient or slope,  $S$  (Trampusch *et al.*, 2014; Equation 5). Palaeoslopes in the Corçà  
 710 rivers averaged  $7.9 \pm 0.8 \times 10^{-4}$  (Fig. 9B), comparable with those of the Montllobat Formation  
 711 which had  $S$  values of  $8.0 \pm 1.5 \times 10^{-4}$ , but the Castissent rivers had steeper channel gradients,



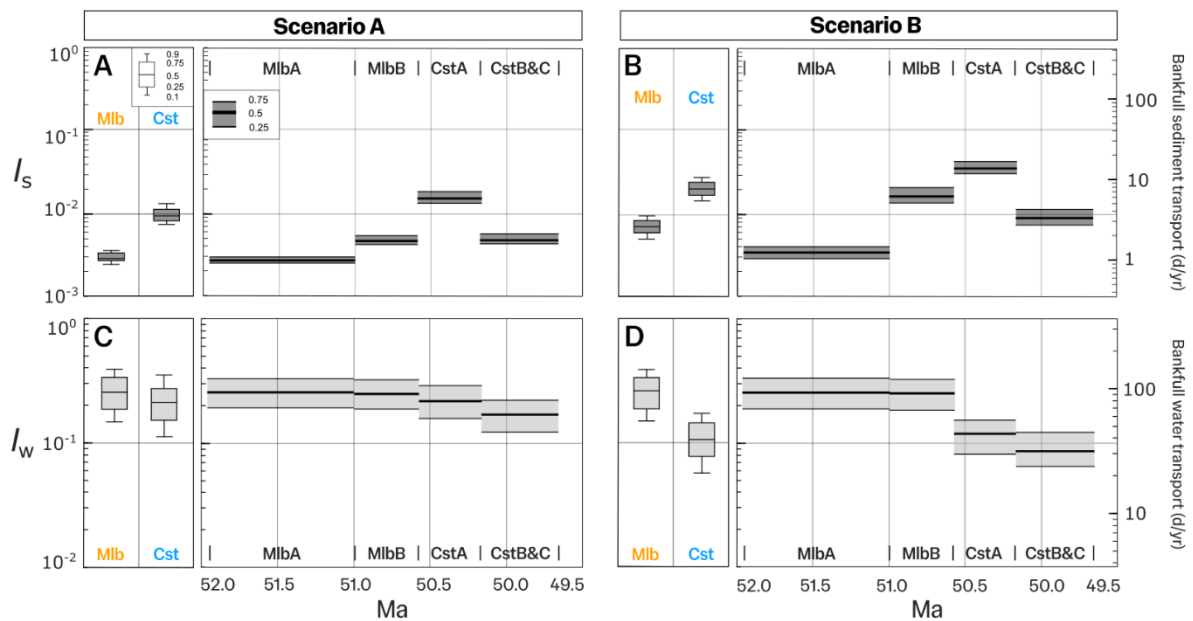
**Figure 10.** River discharge in the Tremp-Graus and Àger basins. (A) Total water discharge, and (B) total sediment discharge in the Montllobat (yellow), Castissent (blue) and Corça (pink) formations.

712 averaging  $1.2 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-3}$  (McLeod *et al.*, 2025). Based on depth-scaling relations (Long, 2021;  
 713 Equation S8) the average bankfull channel width was estimated as  $49 \pm 12$  m, and considering  
 714 palaeo-planform analyses (McLeod *et al.*, 2025), we reconstruct the total wetted width of the  
 715 Corça rivers as 318 m (Fig. 9C), compared to 225 m for the Castissent Rivers and 205 m for  
 716 the Montllobat rivers (McLeod *et al.*, 2025).

717 Combining estimates of slope, depth and river width, total bankfull water discharge across the  
 718 Corça river system was reconstructed as  $560 \pm 144$  m³/s (Fig. 10A), compared to  $420 \pm 115$  m³/s  
 719 in the Castissent rivers and  $280 \pm 75$  m³/s in the Montllobat rivers (McLeod *et al.*, 2025). Total  
 720 bankfull sediment flux was estimated to have been  $0.91 \pm 0.59$  m³/s in the Corça river system  
 721 (Fig. 10B),  $0.64 \pm 0.40$  m³/s in the Montllobat rivers and  $0.68 \pm 0.41$  m³/s in the Castissent rivers  
 722 (McLeod *et al.*, 2025).

#### 723 4.4 Intermittency factors

724 We have reconstructed both average and bankfull water and sediment transport conditions in  
 725 the river systems of the Àger and Tremp-Graus basins in the early Eocene, including  
 726 formation- and member-level constraints on water and sediment discharge in the Montllobat  
 727 and Castissent formations. The ratio of average to bankfull conditions describes the river



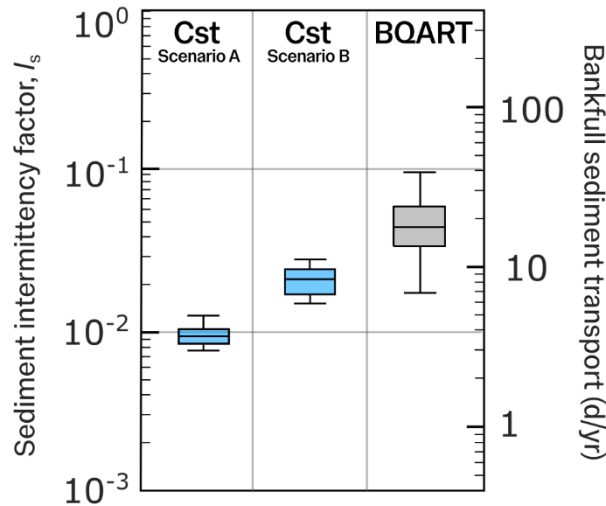
**Figure 11.** Evolving intermittency factors through time. (A) Sediment intermittency factors reconstructed using palaeo-routing Scenario A (Fig. 4), where boxplots represent average intermittency factors in the Montllobat and Castissent formations, and the evolution chart illustrates the changing  $I_s$  through time between members of the Montllobat and Castissent formations (x-axis). (B) Corresponding sediment intermittency factors reconstructed using palaeo-routing Scenario B (Fig. 4). (C, D) Water intermittency factors reconstructed using (C) palaeo-routing Scenario A and (D) palaeo-routing Scenario B (Fig. 4).

728 intermittency ( $I$ ), or the fraction of time a river would require to transport its long-term water or  
 729 sediment load if maximum transport conditions were sustained. We have investigated the  
 730 uncertainties associated with depositional volume, catchment area and sediment routing  
 731 pathways, and account for these uncertainties with two end-member scenarios A and B for the  
 732 Montllobat-age and Castissent-age intervals (Fig. 4) which encompass the possible results  
 733 (Fig. 11).

734 Water intermittency factors ( $I_w$ ) in Montllobat-age rivers averaged  $0.25 \pm 0.13$  in scenarios A  
 735 and B (Fig. 11C, D). In other words, considering the long-term water hydrograph of the river  
 736 system, the average water discharge was 25% of the water discharge that carried out the  
 737 majority of channel-forming work, likely representing bankfull conditions. This requires  
 738 conditions in which around 3 months of sustained bankfull conditions would theoretically be  
 739 required to complete the annual water budget. Castissent-age rivers had lower  $I_w$  values of  
 740  $0.21 \pm 0.11$  in scenario A (Fig. 11C) and  $0.10 \pm 0.05$  in scenario B (Fig. 11D), meaning average  
 741 water discharges were 10-21% of potential bankfull rates. This means annual water budgets  
 742 would be completed in 5-10 weeks if bankfull flow was to be sustained. Two-tailed KS tests

743 demonstrate that there is a statistically significant difference between  $I_w$  distributions in the  
744 Montllobat Formation and the Castissent Formation ( $p < 10^{-3}$ ).

745 Sediment intermittency factors ( $I_s$ ) in all cases are lower than  $I_w$  values, reflecting the  
746 thresholded nature of sediment transport in rivers. The Montllobat rivers had  $I_s$  values  
747 averaging  $3.7 \pm 1.9 \times 10^{-3}$  in scenario A (Fig. 11A): the average sediment flux was 0.37% of the  
748 maximum transport capacity at bankfull conditions. This means that, if the Montllobat river  
749 system sustained bankfull conditions, the annual sediment load could be completed in as little  
750 as 1 day. In scenario B,  $I_s$  was slightly higher at  $6.7 \pm 1.2 \times 10^{-3}$ , corresponding to 2.5 days of  
751 bankfull conditions required to complete the annual sediment load (Fig. 11B). These  
752 intermittency values suggest significant sediment transported occurred infrequently,  
753 potentially during extreme events which surpassed sediment transport thresholds. Yet in both  
754 scenarios,  $I_s$  was greater in Castissent-age rivers than Montllobat rivers, despite the fact that  
755 the Castissent system had lower  $I_w$  value:  $I_s$  is  $7.0 \pm 0.6 \times 10^{-3}$  in scenario A (Fig. 11A), and  
756  $2.0 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-2}$  in scenario B (Fig. 11B), meaning average sediment transport fluxes were 0.7-  
757 2.0% of bankfull rates, corresponding to around 3-8 days of bankfull transport. Significant  
758 sediment transport occurred more often in the Castissent-age interval than the previous  
759 Montllobat-age interval. Member-specific  $I_s$  estimates show intermittency factors reached  
760 maximum values in Castissent A rivers. Two-tailed KS tests demonstrate that there is a



**Figure 12.** Comparison between sediment intermittency factors estimated for Castissent rivers using our approach outlined, and estimates from a BQART-derived equivalent.

761 statistically significant difference between the distributions of  $I_s$  in the Montllobat Formation  
 762 and the Castissent Formation ( $p < 10^{-3}$ ) for both scenarios.

763 We checked these sediment intermittency results from our downstream approach against an  
 764 alternative upstream approach. We used BQART-derived estimates of long-term bedload  
 765 sediment flux in the Bartonian, at c. 40 Ma (Yan *et al.*, 2025), and our estimates of  $Q_{s(bf)}$  for the  
 766 Castissent-age interval as an illustrative example (Fig. 12). This provides an independent  
 767 estimate of  $I_s$  based on palaeo-catchment and climate characteristics, albeit for a later time  
 768 time interval than our Castissent-age data. Nonetheless, this test yielded  $I_s$  values of  
 769  $4.4 \pm 1.3 \times 10^{-2}$ , which within uncertainty is of a similar magnitude to the estimate we derive from  
 770 our downstream approach, suggesting our field-based analyses produce reasonable results.

## 771 5 DISCUSSION

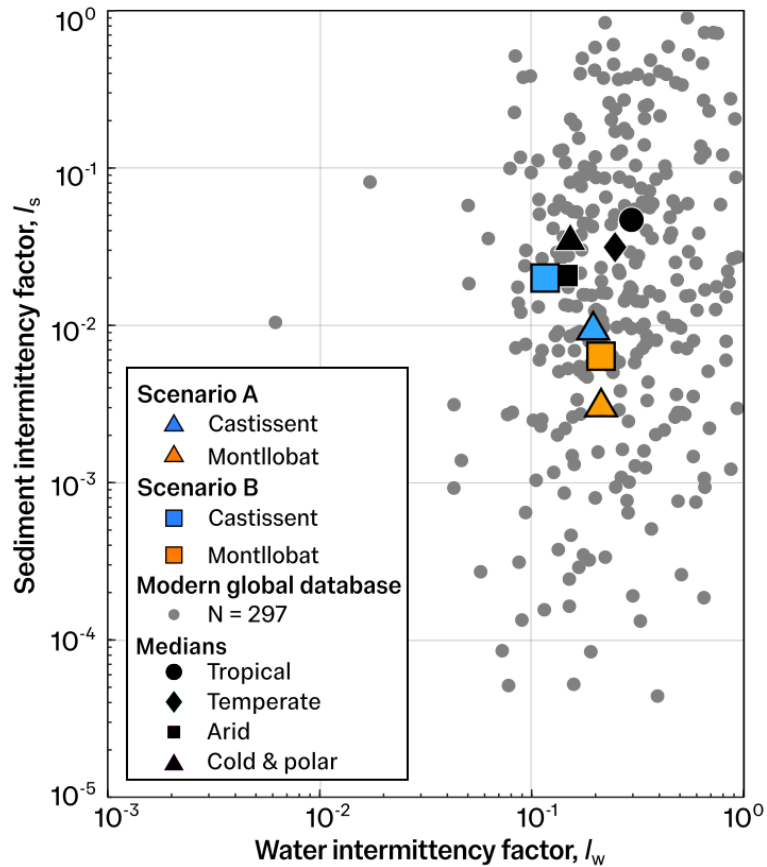
### 772 5.1 Comparison with modern systems

773 We reconstructed water intermittency factors ( $I_w$ ) in the Montllobat Formation of 0.25, and  
 774 0.15-0.21 in the overlying Castissent Formation, meaning that annual water budgets could  
 775 have been completed in 2-3 months (15% - 25% of the year) if bankfull conditions were  
 776 sustained for that period. Practically, rivers with  $I_w > 1$  are considered to be non-intermittent,  
 777 (Hedman & Osterkamp, 1982) containing water year-round. Sediment intermittency factors of

778  $3\text{-}7 \times 10^{-3}$  in the Montllobat Formation increased 3-fold to  $1\text{-}2 \times 10^{-2}$  in the Castissent Formation.  
779 This means the Montanayana river systems theoretically would have required as little as 1 day  
780 to transport their annual sediment load from 52.0-50.5 Ma, but the Castissent river systems  
781 required at least 3-8 days to achieve this result from 50.5-49.7 Ma. These reconstructed  
782 intermittency factors provide quantitative constraints on water and sediment transport patterns  
783 in the ancient river systems of the Eocene Pyrenean foreland for the first time. However,  
784 interpretations of environmental conditions in the lower Eocene are limited without comparison  
785 to intermittency factors in modern systems. Recent data describing present-day water and  
786 sediment intermittency on a global scale (McLeod *et al.*, 2026) make it possible to  
787 contextualise Montllobat and Castissent river activity with modern systems.

788 We compared our intermittency results from the Montllobat and Castissent formations to 297  
789 modern river reaches with both  $I_w$  and  $I_s$  values across all continents, climate zones, and river  
790 planforms (Fig. 13) taken from McLeod *et al.* (2026). It is known that there is significant  
791 variability in intermittency factors worldwide, especially for sediment transport (Hayden *et al.*,  
792 2021; McLeod *et al.*, 2026). For example, river reaches with the same  $I_w$  could display a 4  
793 order-of-magnitude variation in  $I_s$  (Fig. 13). The water and sediment intermittency factors of  
794 the Montanyana Group rivers all plot within the range of these modern bounds, however,  
795 suggesting that water and sediment transport patterns in these ancient systems can be  
796 compared with modern analogues, with  $I_w$  and  $I_s$  values largely most similar to today's arid  
797 systems (Fig. 13).

798 We can illustrate this clearly on a cumulative curve of intermittency factors (Fig. 14A). Water  
799 intermittency factors averaging 0.25 in the Montllobat river system broadly lie at the median  
800 value (approximately 0.5 on the cumulative probability function) in comparison to the global  
801 dataset (McLeod *et al.*, 2026) across all river planform types, from braided to meandering. To  
802 provide examples of rivers with comparable water discharge patterns, the Montllobat river  
803 system had  $I_w$  values similar to the Kabul River in Afghanistan and the Zambezi River in  
804 Mozambique, both characterised by seasonal water discharge regimes. The Castissent river



**Figure 13.** Comparison of intermittency factors for Montllobat and Castissent rivers with those for a global dataset of modern rivers (McLeod *et al.*, 2026).

805 system had somewhat lower  $I_w$ , plotting in the more ephemeral half of river reaches today,  
 806 indicative of more intermittent (less perennial) water discharge conditions. Sediment  
 807 intermittency factors were lower than average in the Montllobat and Castissent rivers  
 808 compared to modern analogues: they transported sediment more often than the 15% most  
 809 ephemeral systems but less often than the 55% most perennial rivers (Fig. 14A).

810 Planform reconstructions of the ancient Montanyana river systems, however, permit more  
 811 detailed analysis of river sediment transport dynamics. Considering palaeohydrological and  
 812 facies analyses, which demonstrate that the Castissent rivers were most likely braided (Marzo  
 813 *et al.*, 1988; Nijman, 1998; McLeod *et al.*, 2025), we compare Castissent intermittency factors  
 814 to modern braided rivers (Fig. 14B). This analysis reveals that sediment intermittency factors  
 815 were relatively high in the Castissent rivers compared to a dataset of braided rivers across all  
 816 climates today. Water intermittency factors, on the other hand, were in the lower 50% of the  
 817 cumulative probability function, more ephemeral on average than the braided Kabul River.

818 This shows that the Castissent system transported sediment more perennially than most  
819 modern braided rivers, yet had a more intermittent water discharge regime than typical braided  
820 rivers today.

821 Montllobat rivers had meandering and multi-threaded reaches, and are interpreted to have  
822 had a wandering planform (McLeod *et al.*, 2025). Therefore, we also compared intermittency  
823 factors in modern wandering rivers to those reconstructed for the Montllobat system (Fig.  
824 14C). Similarly to the Castissent rivers and their modern braided analogue (Fig. 14B), the  
825 Montllobat system had  $l_w$  comparable to the median of modern wandering river reaches across  
826 all climate zones, but higher than average  $l_s$ , meaning sediment export occurred more  
827 frequently than in most rivers with a similar planform today.

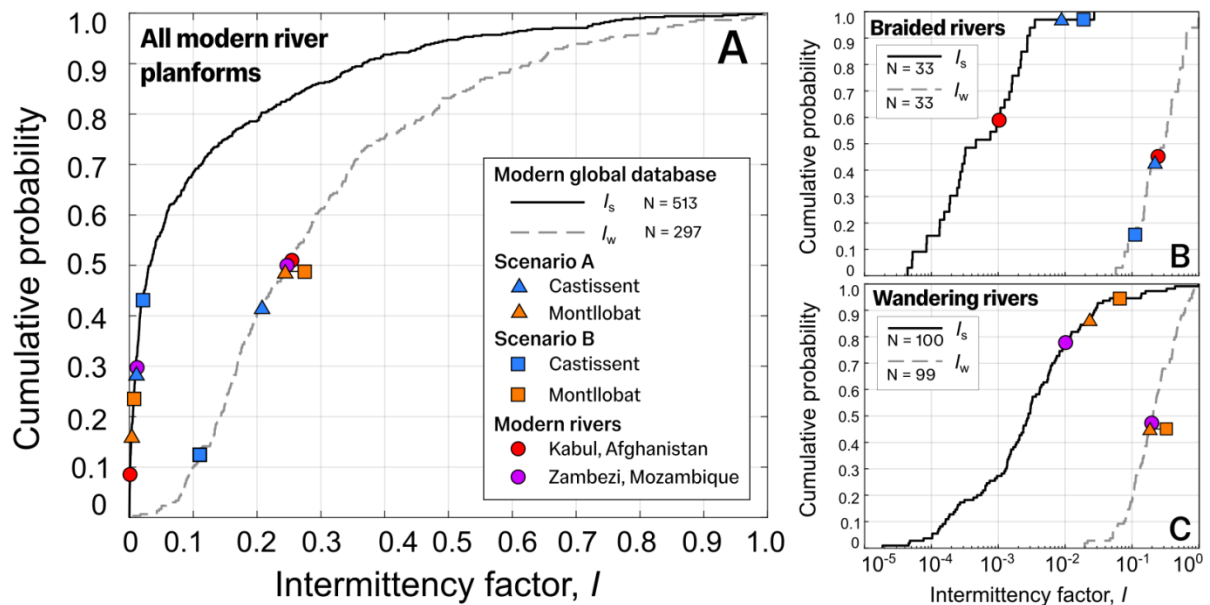
828 The Montanyana rivers also therefore differed with respect to most modern rivers: they  
829 transported sediment with higher  $l_s$  than the majority of modern systems with similar planform,  
830 size and aridity. Temperatures and precipitation rates can impose important bounding  
831 conditions on river activity, and potentially determine sediment export timescales and transport  
832 efficiency. The EECO represents a hothouse climate state that does not exist on Earth today,  
833 with MATs 8-15°C higher than today in what would be considered semi-arid conditions in  
834 modern climates. In order to explore the potential role of climate drivers and sediment supply  
835 in determining the unique transport patterns of both the Montllobat and Castissent rivers  
836 (Section 5.4), we first discuss the uncertainties in our analysis (Section 5.2) and then the  
837 implications of stratigraphic preservation (Section 5.3).

## 838 **5.2 Impact of uncertainties**

839 We have conducted a rigorous palaeohydrological analysis based on sediment volumetrics  
840 and field observations, and have accounted for uncertainty in our results using Monte Carlo  
841 simulations, as outlined in the Methods section. We now outline the impact of uncertainties on  
842 our key results. We used a stratigraphic framework based on a compilation of correlations  
843 (Remacha & Fernández, 2003; Payros *et al.*, 2009; Caja *et al.*, 2010; Scotchman *et al.*, 2015;

844 Chanvry *et al.*, 2018), selected for simplicity and consistency (Fig. 3). Alternatively, some  
845 schemes correlate the Castissent Formation to the Torla-Fosado units in the Ainsa-Jaca Basin,  
846 and the Montllobat Formation to Pre-Torla TS, and we present this scheme in the  
847 Supplementary Materials (Fig. S2).

848 We assess the impact of using an alternative stratigraphic framework on our intermittency  
849 results (see Supplementary Material section S4 for an extended explanation). If we assume  
850 the Ainsa-Jaca depositional volumes represent the total sand sink and the sand proportion in  
851 the Torla turbidite system is comparable to that of the Broto turbidite system, a competing  
852 stratigraphic framework (e.g., Mutti, 1985c; Labaume *et al.*, 1987; Gupta & Pickering, 2008;  
853 Garcés *et al.*, 2020; Muñoz *et al.*, 2025) would reduce decompacted sedimentation rate in the  
854 Castissent-age units by 50%, and consequently reconstructed  $I_s$  in the Castissent rivers would  
855 halve, from 0.009-0.020 to 0.005-0.010. The decompacted sandstone volume of the  
856 Montllobat Formation could be interpreted to correlate to the total volume of the clastic  
857 sediment beneath the Torla TS. The reconstructed  $I_s$  for the Montllobat Formation using this  
858 alternative correlation framework and subsequent estimates would increase from 0.0029-  
859 0.0067 to 0.0033-0.0076, an increase of up to 13%. Consequently, we conclude that our  
860 intermittency factors are robust in terms of order-of-magnitude trends.



**Figure 14.** Cumulative probability functions of intermittency factors for a global compilation of modern rivers (McLeod *et al.*, 2026). (A) The cumulative probability functions of  $I_w$  and  $I_s$  for modern rivers of all planform types, with intermittency factor values for the Eocene Montllobat and Castissent rivers superimposed. (B) The cumulative probability function for modern braided rivers, with intermittency factors for Castissent rivers shown for comparison. (C) The cumulative probability function for modern wandering rivers, with intermittency factors for Montllobat rivers superimposed.

861 We interpreted a 3-fold increase in  $I_s$  at the onset of Castissent sedimentation. Using an  
 862 alternative correlation framework which could yield greater Montllobat-age depositional  
 863 volumes and smaller Castissent-age depositional volumes, this would be modified to a  
 864 minimum 1.5-fold increase in  $I_s$  at the onset of Castissent sedimentation. Whilst there is a  
 865 degree of uncertainty associated with stratigraphic correlations in this setting, this uncertainty  
 866 would only change the  $I_s$  results by a factor of up to 2. Therefore, we suggest that sediment  
 867 transport patterns likely changed at 50.5 Ma regardless of specific stratigraphic correlations in  
 868 the Jaca Basin.

869 To provide additional corroboration of our original intermittency results beyond our Monte Carlo  
 870 uncertainty analysis and considerations of stratigraphic correlation, we conducted further  
 871 upstream-focused analyses to complement our primarily downstream-focused approach.

872 We estimated long-term sediment fluxes in the southern Pyrenean Foreland by calculating  
 873 sand-grade depositional volumes along the sediment-routing fairway. As outlined in the  
 874 Results, we compared the long-term sediment fluxes acquired from this volumetric approach

875 to sediment fluxes acquired from BQART-derived reconstructions of mean bedload sediment  
876 flux (Fig. 12; Yan *et al.*, 2025). The volumetrics derived from the BQART analysis correlate  
877 with those from our depositional approach, but reconstruct  $I_s$  values that are marginally higher  
878 than those reconstructed for the Castissent Formation (Fig. 11), suggest that reconstructed  
879 basin volumes may be slightly underestimated. On the other hand, we also corroborated our  
880 volumetric calculations by estimating catchment-averaged palaeo-erosion rates. By  
881 distributing the compacted sandstone volumes across our reconstructed catchment areas, we  
882 were able to estimate a lower-bound on erosion rates of  $1.1 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{-2}$  mm/yr in the Montllobat-  
883 age interval and  $2.0 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-2}$  mm/yr in the Castissent-age interval. Accounting for average  
884 ratios of bedload to suspended load in the depositional sink of c. 0.1, based on our compilation  
885 of published stratigraphic sections (Supplementary Material section S2), these erosion rate  
886 estimates, to a first-order, align with rock uplift and exhumation rates reconstructed from  
887 thermochronological data of c. 0.2-0.8 mm/yr (Curry *et al.*, 2021), including a reconstructed  
888 increase in exhumation rate at c. 50 Ma. This alignment implies that we have estimated  
889 reasonable values of sand volume deposited in the southern Pyrenean foreland.

890 Our field-based approach and analytical workflow reconstruct ancient intermittency factors to  
891 a reasonable degree of accuracy, as corroborated by comparison with independent, upstream-  
892 and downstream-focused methods. Having established sediment intermittency factors in this  
893 ancient setting, we now discuss the implications of our results for the preservation of  
894 geological time.

### 895 **5.3 Intermittency and stratigraphic preservation**

896 Our recovered sediment intermittency factors, between  $3 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $2 \times 10^{-2}$ , show the  
897 Montanyana rivers had an average sediment flux that was between 0.3% and 2% of potential  
898 instantaneous bankfull rates. It also suggests that the rivers were not actively moving sediment  
899 all the time. Considering the long-term hydrograph implied by these intermittency factors, one  
900 theoretical end-member for a low  $I_s$  could involve significant bankfull-capacity sediment  
901 transport occurring infrequently, only during extreme discharge events that surpass sediment

902 transport thresholds, with negligible sediment transport in-between those events. However,  
903 the stratigraphic record in the Montanyana Group and globally is not dominated by extreme  
904 events: most fluvial stratigraphy is not dominated by supercritical bedforms and other  
905 indicators of extreme activity. Rather, fluvial stratigraphy mostly preserves signatures of  
906 “ordinary” sediment transport (Sambrook Smith *et al.*, 2010; Paola *et al.*, 2018). Another  
907 theoretical end-member would involve the long-term sediment hydrograph distributed such  
908 that low sediment transport rates occur most of the time (e.g., Fig. 1B), which could support  
909 the observation of dominantly sub-critical or ordinary river sedimentation. Modern geomorphic  
910 observations suggest the more likely state of the long-term sediment hydrograph is  
911 somewhere between these two end-members, since geomorphic theory shows channel  
912 morphologies are self-organised such that sand-transporting conditions are surpassed close  
913 to bankfull water discharge rates, rather than only in extreme floods or in small amounts year-  
914 round (Phillips & Jerolmack, 2019). Significant sediment transport occurs during bankfull  
915 discharge events and floods, but these events do not have to be extreme.

916 The logical extension of this notion is that the Montllobat and Castissent formations preserve  
917 mostly ordinary time when sediment transport thresholds were surpassed, allowing dunes to  
918 migrate downstream when local aggradation and progradation cause local stratigraphic  
919 preservation. However, the direct implication of our reconstructed intermittency factors is that  
920 rivers were moving sediment a small proportion of the total time interval represented in  
921 stratigraphy, potentially as low as 0.3-2%, totalling only 7.5-50 kyr of the 2.5 Myr studied  
922 interval.

923 This is a common observation in sedimentary successions (e.g., Sadler, 1981; Paola *et al.*,  
924 2018; McLeod *et al.*, 2023), and Paola *et al.* (2018) summarised this with the axiomatic notion  
925 that the overall low completeness of stratigraphy is caused by spatial and temporal  
926 intermittency of sediment transport and interaction. Spatial variability in alluvial settings  
927 causing local stratigraphic incompleteness can be viewed as variability in the spatial location  
928 of the river within the basin. Locally, the stratigraphic record may be incomplete as one

929 relatively brief phase of deposition is represented at outcrop, but the river will subsequently  
930 have migrated elsewhere and caused deposition in a different part of the basin. Over  
931 geological timescales it is to be assumed that every part of the basin will be visited by the river  
932 such that overall aggradation meets accommodation.

933 The other driver of stratigraphic incompleteness, temporal intermittency, can manifest at a  
934 range of timescales and could arise due to autogenic or allogenic processes. Autogenic or  
935 internal causes of temporal intermittency, and therefore local stratigraphic incompleteness,  
936 include enhanced bedform preservation as a consequence of morphodynamic hierarchy  
937 (Miall, 2015; Paola, 2016), and planform morphology which has been shown to change  
938 sediment transport thresholds (McLeod *et al.*, 2026). Allogenic or external causes include  
939 climate and tectonic forcing, which can affect stasis periods, subsidence rates, and sediment  
940 generation and mobilisation (Paola *et al.*, 2018). Paola *et al.* (2018) suggest that at sub-basin  
941 spatial scales (smaller than the sediment routing system of interest), allogenic forcings are  
942 unlikely to explain most signals of stratigraphic completeness, and that autogenic factors are  
943 the best way to frame investigations into the preservation of geological time (Muto *et al.*, 2007).

944 Our analysis, on the other hand, has reconstructed sediment volumetrics and dynamics at the  
945 basin scale: we measured the stratigraphic volume of two units from the most proximal to the  
946 most distal occurrence of sand-grade sediment in the basin. Erosion and lack of exposure  
947 means that this may not represent the full sand fraction within the lower Eocene Foreland  
948 Basin of the Southern Pyrenees, but as we have shown above through checks that use  
949 upstream- and downstream-focused approaches, it is a reasonable approximation. This  
950 means we are able to consider sand-transporting conditions from source to sink, at the scale  
951 of a full sedimentary basin. One significant benefit of this approach is that, by measuring  
952 deposition across an entire basin, our observations contain all spatial variability in aggradation  
953 and therefore can be considered to fully account for spatial intermittency, as discussed by  
954 Paola *et al.* (2018).

955 Despite a spatially complete record of sand grade sedimentation, our low reconstructed  $I_s$   
956 values show clearly that geological time is not preserved completely in the alluvial part of this  
957 basin. Therefore, we must turn to temporal incompleteness and the final remaining cause of  
958 low stratigraphic completeness: temporal intermittency. Because we are dealing with broadly  
959 full spatial preservation, our sediment intermittency factors should map closely onto the  
960 proportion of time preserved in stratigraphy, and temporal intermittency must in this case be  
961 due to allogenic forcing. For example, the reconstructed increase in  $I_s$  at the base of the  
962 Castissent interval must indicate an increase in stratigraphic completeness, and be attributed  
963 to an allogenic driver. We note that in our approach,  $I_s$  is measured over the geologically short  
964 timescales represented by dune- and barform-scale cross-strata in channel-fill deposits, and  
965 it is measured and compared consistently on these deposits (and their implied durations).  
966 Consequently, our analysis is not biased by the 'Sadler effect' arising from interpretation of  
967 sedimentation rates across varying temporal scales (Sadler, 1981).

968 Paola *et al.* (2018) suggest variable external forcing is not necessarily important for regulating  
969 time completeness at sub-basin scales. We are suggesting that, given the spatial scale and  
970 temporal consistency of our study, we are able to assert that external forcing due to climate  
971 and tectonics is the most likely cause for a change in stratigraphic completeness that we infer  
972 at 50.5 Ma. Having established this, we are able to make important interpretations of the  
973 climate and tectonic state of the lower Eocene, and specific allogenic drivers that occurred at  
974 50.5 Ma.

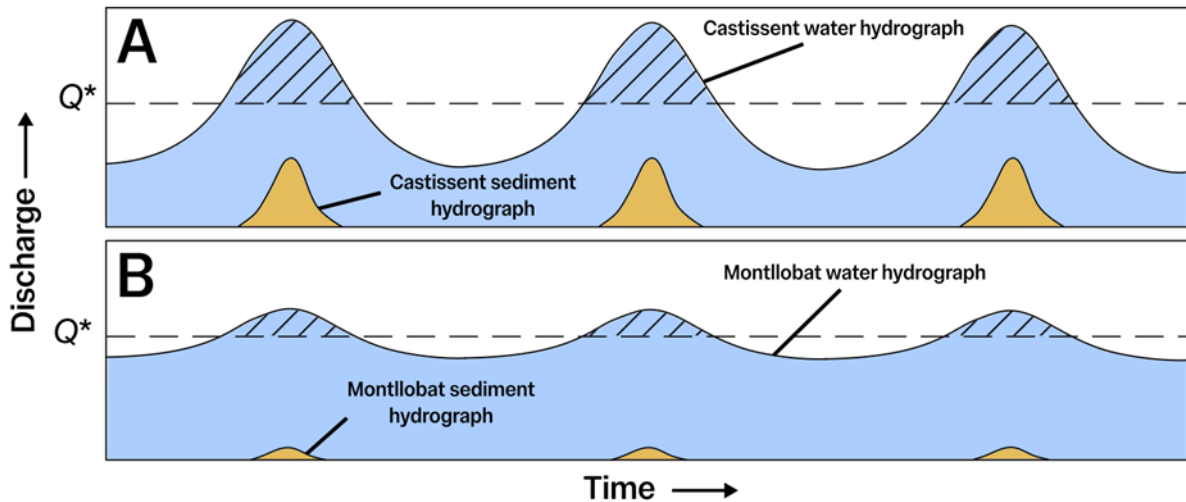
#### 975 **5.4 Eocene climate change in the Pyrenees**

976 Our reconstructed intermittency factors in the Montllobat and Castissent formations permit  
977 interpretations of allogenic forcings in the lower Eocene.  $I_s$  increased markedly at the base of  
978 the Castissent interval at 50 Ma, by a factor of 3. This significant increase in sediment  
979 intermittency factor suggests sediment transport occurred more frequently and more efficiently  
980 in the Castissent Formation. The variation in water intermittency factors across the Montllobat  
981 and Castissent intervals was more modest, with a 15-60% reduction of  $I_w$  into the Castissent

982 interval. Considering a theoretical long-term hydrograph (Fig. 15), these results show the  
983 integrated area of the sediment hydrograph was greater in the Castissent interval than the  
984 previous Montllobat interval for a similar water intermittency.

985 Intermittency factors make no assumptions on hydrograph shape, only reflecting the  
986 integrated area of water or sediment transport beneath the hydrograph curve. However, this  
987 shift in  $I_s$  permits detailed interpretations of changing hydrological regimes. The observed  
988 signal of changing intermittency could be achieved with an enhanced hydrological seasonality  
989 that would distribute the same integrated water discharge (similar  $I_w$ ) such that a greater  
990 proportion of the annual water budget in the Castissent rivers was above the threshold for  
991 sediment transport (greater  $I_s$ ) (Fig. 14). The same overall water budget could be maintained  
992 whilst the extremes were enhanced, meaning sediment transport could occur in greater  
993 volumes, resulting in higher  $I_s$ . The changing maximum water and sediment discharge rates  
994 that are implied by this inferred change in hydrograph shape, as illustrated in Figure 14, would  
995 also be consistent with the palaeohydrological reconstructions of McLeod *et al.* (2025) which  
996 showed that  $Q_{w(bf)}$  and  $Q_{s(bf)}$  increased at the base of the Castissent Formation.

997 This interpreted change in hydrograph shape is supported by geochemical data acquired from  
998 Castissent floodplain deposits which show humidity patterns were strongly seasonal  
999 (Honegger *et al.*, 2020). Palaeobotanical proxies also suggest that throughout the early-mid  
1000 Eocene, Earth's climate was controlled by a global monsoon cycle, driving seasonal  
1001 precipitation patterns (Greenwood & Huber, 2011). The most likely cause for the observed shift  
1002 in seasonality and  $I_s$ , therefore, is a change in climate. It is well-documented that hyperthermal  
1003 events caused intense warming for short periods of time in the lower Eocene. There were 39  
1004 of these hyperthermals in the early Eocene (Lourens *et al.*, 2005; Kirtland Turner *et al.*, 2014;  
1005 Westerhold *et al.*, 2018), and it has been hypothesised that at least one of these impacted  
1006 sedimentation in the Tremp-Graus Basin, causing the observed geochemical and hydrological  
1007 changes in the Castissent Formation on a timescale of 150-800 kyrs (Honegger *et al.*, 2020;  
1008 McLeod *et al.*, 2025). These hyperthermal events had widespread effects beyond fluvial



**Figure 15.** Schematic diagram illustrating theoretical water and sediment hydrographs during (A) the Castissent interval and (B) the Montllobat interval. The blue shaded region indicates the water hydrograph, and the stippled regions represent the integrated area of the water hydrograph above the threshold for sediment transport ( $Q^*$ , the dashed line). The yellow shaded region indicates the area of the sediment hydrograph. Two different water hydrograph shapes with the same  $I_w$  can result in different  $I_s$ .

1009 dynamics, including significant disruption to the carbon cycle and increased terrigenous input  
 1010 to marine basins (Honegger *et al.*, 2020).

1011 Global warming is well-documented to cause reductions in mean annual precipitation and  
 1012 enhanced precipitation extremes in the present-day, especially in arid and semi-arid regions  
 1013 (Goubanova & Li, 2007; Miranda *et al.*, 2011; Quintana-Seguí *et al.*, 2011; Westra *et al.*, 2014;  
 1014 Trambly & Somot, 2018; He *et al.*, 2022), in addition to enhancing monsoon cycles (Loo *et*  
 1015 *al.*, 2015). This is observed and projected to cause dramatic increases in sediment loads in  
 1016 semi-arid regions on decadal timescales (McLeod *et al.*, 2024). Whilst mean annual  
 1017 temperatures were gradually decreasing during the Montanyana Group towards the end of the  
 1018 EECO, hyperthermal events could have increased temperatures by 1-3°C on  $10^3$  yr timescales  
 1019 (Stap *et al.*, 2010; Honegger *et al.*, 2020) resulting in long-term ( $<10^6$  yr) changes to the  
 1020 hydrological cycle, resolvable in the alluvial stratigraphic record.

1021 We hypothesize that increasing  $I_s$  into the Castissent interval may be indicative of a significant  
 1022 increase in monsoon seasonality, driven by climate change. Our  $I_s$  reconstructions imply  
 1023 sediment could have been in motion as river bedload for at least one week per year: we  
 1024 hypothesise sediment flux was sustained over longer periods in the Castissent interval during

1025 prolonged monsoon discharge above sediment transport thresholds, increasing  $I_s$  values.  
1026 Whilst fossil woody debris are observed in the erosional bases of channel scours (Marzo *et*  
1027 *al.*, 1988), there is not abundant evidence of strongly seasonal discharge regimes and  
1028 seasonally dry river channels such as *in-situ* roots and plant fossils within river channels  
1029 (Fielding *et al.*, 2009; Plink-Bjorklund, 2015). However, the relatively high  $I_w$  of the Montllobat  
1030 and Castissent formations indicates that channels were most likely not seasonally dry: instead  
1031 sediment transport thresholds were surpassed only infrequently, meaning sand-transporting  
1032 conditions may have occurred on a seasonal basis.

1033 Another factor potentially contributing to the observed increase in  $I_s$  is a tectonically-driven  
1034 increase in sediment supply, related to the orogenic evolution of the Pyrenees. In a climate  
1035 which potentially grew more arid over time, as evidenced by the 15-60% reduction in  $I_w$  values  
1036 (Fig. 11C, D), a change in seasonality could only result in higher  $I_s$  on 100 kyr timescales if the  
1037 system was not supply-limited. McLeod *et al.* (2025) reconstructed greater palaeochannel  
1038 gradients and bedload grain-sizes in the Castissent Formation, consistent with strong  
1039 progradation of fluvial facies at c. 50 Ma. An increase in hinterland uplift rates (Curry *et al.*,  
1040 2021) likely stimulated increased sediment generation and availability, facilitating more  
1041 frequent sediment transport in the Castissent rivers.

1042 Our member-level intermittency analyses permit further interpretation of ancient climate  
1043 change at c. 0.5 Myr resolution (Fig. 11). In each palaeo-routing scenario we observed  
1044 sediment intermittency starting to increase in the upper Montllobat Formation, peaking in the  
1045 Castissent A Member at c. 50.5-50.2 Ma before decreasing in the Castissent B and C  
1046 members. This pattern suggests a discrete change in sediment transport patterns with a  
1047 duration of 0.8-1.0 Ma before fluvial facies, petrology and inferred hydrological conditions  
1048 returned to the pre-Castissent baseline (Nijman, 1998). Thus, hyperthermal events, with  
1049 comparable timescales and magnitudes to current global warming, were the likely cause of a  
1050 significant change to monsoon seasonality which drove marked fluvial progradation, a marked

1051 increase in sediment transport efficiency, and a reduction of sediment export timescales which  
1052 lasted up to 1 million years.

1053 It is projected that by 2100 CE river systems in semi-arid regions could experience a doubling  
1054 of their sediment load as a result of increasing weather extremes (McLeod *et al.*, 2024).  
1055 Present-day global warming is coupled with major land-use change, a combination that is  
1056 already dramatically altering the global water and carbon cycle, presenting significant flood  
1057 and drought hazards to over 3 billion people living on large river corridors (Best, 2019). The  
1058 lower Eocene represents an example of the long-term consequences of short-term climatic  
1059 change comparable to current global warming. The ancient river systems of the Montllobat  
1060 and Castissent formations saw marked changes in water and sediment discharge, morphology  
1061 and planform, and sediment intermittency, which resulted in heightened sediment transport  
1062 efficiency and a 20 km downsystem progradation of alluvial facies. Climate change, as  
1063 evidenced by this ancient example, can cause major geomorphic upheaval from source to  
1064 sink. Further fluvial geomorphic change in the modern day, on the scales quantified for here  
1065 for the first time in the Montanyana Group and observed throughout geological history, would  
1066 have long-lasting consequences for landscapes and communities.

## 1067 **CONCLUSIONS**

1068 We reconstructed sediment and water transport patterns in Eocene river systems in an active  
1069 tectonic setting, the South Pyrenean foreland, which comprised the Tremp-Graus, Ager, Ainsa  
1070 and Jaca basins, during the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO), an ancient greenhouse  
1071 climate punctuated by hyperthermal warming events. In order to estimate river intermittency  
1072 factors, we calculated long-term sediment fluxes by measuring the total sand-grade  
1073 depositional volumes of two units in the Montanyana Group of the Tremp-Graus Basin, the  
1074 Montllobat and Castissent formations, and their down-system equivalents in the Ainsa and  
1075 Jaca basins. We also reconstructed palaeohydraulics in the rivers of the Corçà Formation to  
1076 determine channel-forming water and sediment discharge rates through the Àger Basin in  
1077 addition to the Tremp-Graus Basin. Palaeohydrology of river channel deposits and basin-scale

1078 volumetric reconstructions reveal the rivers of the Montanyana Group had water intermittency  
1079 factors ( $I_w$ ) of 0.15-0.25, whereas sediment intermittency factors ( $I_s$ ) averaging  $3 \times 10^{-3} - 7 \times 10^{-3}$   
1080 <sup>3</sup> in the Montllobat Formation increased 3-fold in the overlying, strongly progradational,  
1081 Castissent Formation. This suggests that whilst rivers were likely perennial, sand-grade  
1082 sediment was transported significantly more often in the Castissent rivers, and our data enable  
1083 us to constrain temporal incompleteness in the geological record. By comparing intermittency  
1084 results to a global database of modern rivers, we also demonstrate that rivers during the EECO  
1085 were able to transport sediment more efficiently than most modern rivers of similar types and  
1086 climate zones today. We hypothesise that short-duration Eocene hyperthermal warming  
1087 enhanced monsoon seasonality in the Pyrenean foreland, causing significant changes in river  
1088 behaviour, morphology and style lasting up to 1 million years. Coeval tectonic uplift of the  
1089 Pyrenean hinterland is also required to increase the supply of available sand. This ancient  
1090 example shows the long-lasting geomorphic consequences of climatic change with a similar  
1091 magnitude to present day global warming, impacting timescales of sediment export and  
1092 landscape dynamics at the mountain-belt scale.

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#### 1446 **Figure/Table captions**

1447 **Figure 1.** Diagrams outlining intermittency factors. A) Conceptual illustration highlighting the  
1448 intermittency factor formula and its inputs where source — or upstream — approaches are used to  
1449 estimate precipitation and erosion rates, sink — or downstream — approaches are used to estimate  
1450 deposition rate, and palaeohydrology of alluvial deposits are used to estimate bankfull water and  
1451 sediment transport capacity. B) Schematic hydrograph illustrating the potential hydrograph shapes for  
1452 a low intermittency factor of  $I=0.1$ , where  $t_1-t_0$  is an arbitrary time-step containing variability, for  
1453 example 1 year; the blue area represents the water hydrograph and the beige area represents the  
1454 sediment hydrograph. As long as the integrated area of the hydrograph is maintained, a given  
1455 intermittency factor could indicate an infinite number of hydrograph shapes. C) Schematic hydrograph  
1456 illustrating the potential hydrograph shapes for a high intermittency factor of  $I=0.7$ . (D-E) Photographs  
1457 of ephemeral rivers in Greece at bankfull discharge (D) and during low or no flow stages (E) (McLeod  
1458 *et al.*, 2024)

1459 **Figure 2.** Study area geological and location maps in the southern Pyrenees. A) Geological sketch map  
1460 highlighting the key sedimentary units of the Ypresian. B) Digital elevation model of the present-day  
1461 Pyrenees. C) Geographical location map.

1462 **Figure 3.** Stratigraphic framework for the lower Eocene units of the southern Pyrenean foreland in the  
1463 Jaca, Ainsa, Tremp-Graus and Àger basins (modified after Mutti, 1985a; Labaume *et al.*, 1987; Gupta  
1464 & Pickering, 2008; Caja *et al.*, 2010; Scotchman *et al.*, 2015; Garcés *et al.*, 2020). Variations on this  
1465 framework could arise from different age-date interpretations and unit correlations. An alternative  
1466 correlative scheme is provided in the Supplementary Material and discussed in Section 5.2.

1467 **Figure 4.** Sand thickness dataset locations for the (A) Castissent Formation and correlative strata (Fig.  
1468 3), and (B) Montllobat Formation and correlative strata (Fig. 3). Data points are coloured according to  
1469 total sand deposit thickness. See Supplementary Material (section S2) for the full thickness dataset.

1470 **Figure 5.** Exposures of the fluvial Montllobat, Castissent and Corçà formations at (A, D, G) channel  
1471 scale; (B, E, H) bedform-scale; and (C, F, I) grain-scale. Coloured outlines highlight interpreted alluvial  
1472 architectural features where green represents barform-bounding surfaces, blue represents barform-  
1473 accretion surfaces and yellow represents dune-scale cross-set bounding surfaces. See Supplementary  
1474 Material (Fig. S1) for an unannotated version.

1475 **Figure 6.** Palaeo-sediment routing scenarios for the Montllobat and Castissent intervals, highlighting  
1476 two alternative scenarios for the source-to-sink palaeogeography of the Montllobat and Corçà rivers  
1477 (Montllobat Scenarios A and B) and for the Castissent and Corçà rivers (Castissent Scenarios A and B)  
1478 in the early Eocene south central unit of the Pyrenean foreland.

1479 **Figure 7.** Sand volume isochores. (A) The structural and palaeogeographic context of the depositional  
1480 sand volumes in the southern Pyrenean foreland superimposed on the minimum sand volume for  
1481 Castissent-age strata (Fig. 7C), where the black line represents the palaeogeographic extent of the  
1482 Tremp-Graus-Ainsa-Jaca basin (modified after Remacha *et al.* (2005)) and the red lines represent major  
1483 thrust faults (N = Nogueres, B = Boixols, SPF = South Pyrenean Front). The volume is coloured  
1484 according to total sand thickness. (B) The maximum and (C) minimum sand volumes for Castissent-  
1485 age strata, where the white circles represent the thickness dataset. (D) The maximum and (E) minimum  
1486 sand volume for the Montllobat-age strata. See Supplementary Materials (section S2) for sediment  
1487 thickness data.

1488 **Figure 8.** Downsystem sand-grade sediment volumetrics. (A) The sand volume along a downsystem  
1489 transect (X-X' in Fig. 7A), where the Castissent-age volume is overlaid on the Montllobat volume.  
1490 Uncertainty margins are based on the volume range within 15 km boxes along the transect, according  
1491 to methodology for our topography approach (Methods). (B) The cumulative sand volume for each  
1492 formation.

1493 **Figure 9.** Corçà Formation palaeohydrology. (A) Bedform-derived palaeo-flow depth, (B) reconstructed  
1494 palaeo-channel gradient, and (C) total flow width at bankfull.

1495 **Figure 10.** River discharge in the Tremp-Graus and Àger basins. (A) Total water discharge, and (B)  
1496 total sediment discharge in the Montllobat (yellow), Castissent (blue) and Corçà (pink) formations.

1497 **Figure 11.** Evolving intermittency factors through time. (A) Sediment intermittency factors reconstructed  
1498 using palaeo-routing Scenario A (Fig. 4), where boxplots represent average intermittency factors in the  
1499 Montllobat and Castissent formations, and the evolution chart illustrates the changing  $I_s$  through time  
1500 between members of the Montllobat and Castissent formations (x-axis). (B) Corresponding sediment  
1501 intermittency factors reconstructed using palaeo-routing Scenario B (Fig. 4). (C, D) Water intermittency  
1502 factors reconstructed using (C) palaeo-routing Scenario A and (D) palaeo-routing Scenario B (Fig. 4).

1503 **Figure 12.** Comparison between sediment intermittency factors estimated for Castissent rivers using  
1504 our approach outlined, and estimates from a BQART-derived equivalent.

1505 **Figure 13.** Comparison of intermittency factors for Montllobat and Castissent rivers with those for a  
1506 global dataset of modern rivers (McLeod *et al.*, 2026).

1507 **Figure 14.** Cumulative probability functions of intermittency factors for a global compilation of modern  
1508 rivers (McLeod *et al.*, 2026). (A) The cumulative probability functions of  $I_w$  and  $I_s$  for modern rivers of all  
1509 planform types, with intermittency factor values for the Eocene Montillobat and Castissent rivers  
1510 superimposed. (B) The cumulative probability function for modern braided rivers, with intermittency  
1511 factors for Castissent rivers shown for comparison. (C) The cumulative probability function for modern  
1512 wandering rivers, with intermittency factors for Montillobat rivers superimposed.

1513 **Figure 15.** Schematic diagram illustrating theoretical water and sediment hydrographs during (A) the  
1514 Castissent interval and (B) the Montillobat interval. The blue shaded region indicates the water  
1515 hydrograph, and the stippled regions represent the integrated area of the water hydrograph above the  
1516 threshold for sediment transport ( $Q^*$ , the dashed line). The yellow shaded region indicates the area of  
1517 the sediment hydrograph. Two different water hydrograph shapes with the same  $I_w$  can result in different  
1518  $I_s$ .