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1 **Hidden paleosols on a high-elevation Alpine plateau (NW Italy):**
2 **evidence for Lateglacial Nunatak?**

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 Alpine soils can provide valuable paleo-environmental information, representing a powerful tool for
13 paleoclimate reconstruction. However, since Pleistocene glaciations and erosion-related processes
14 erased most of the pre-existing landforms and soils, reconstructing soil and landscape development
15 in high-mountain areas can be a difficult task. In particular, a relevant lack of information exists on
16 the transition between the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM ~21,000 yr BP) and the Holocene (~10,000
17 yr BP), with this climatic shift that plays a crucial role for environmental thresholds identification.
18 The present study aims at reconstructing the history and origin of hidden paleosols inside periglacial
19 blockstreams and blockfields on a high-elevation Alpine plateau (Stolenberg Plateau) above 3000 m
20 a.s.l., in the Northwestern Italian Alps. The results indicate that these soils recorded the main warming
21 climatic phases occurring from the end of the LGM until the beginning of Neoglacial (~4,000 yr BP).
22 Our reconstructions, together with the high carbon stocks of these paleosols, suggest that during
23 warming phases the environmental conditions on the Plateau were suitable for plant life and
24 pedogenesis, already since 22,000-21,000 yr BP. These paleosols reasonably evidence the existence
25 of a Lateglacial nunatak representing, to our knowledge, one of the first documented relict non-glacial

26 surfaces in the high-elevated European Alps. Thus, the Stolenberg Plateau provides important
27 information about past climate and surface processes, suggesting new perspectives on the long-term
28 landscape evolution of the high European Alps.

29

30 **Keywords:** ^{14}C dating, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, blockstream/blockfield, paleoclimate, Umbrisol, relict surface

31

32 **Introduction**

33 High-mountain areas can preserve traces of dramatic climatic variations, representing unique
34 geosites and “storytellers” about the past landscape dynamics (Favilli et al., 2008). However,
35 reconstructing soil and landscape evolution in such areas can be a difficult task because Pleistocene
36 glaciations and related processes erased most of the pre-existing landforms and soils, leading to the
37 formation of a complex mosaic of Quaternary sediments and soils of different ages (Sartori et al.,
38 2001). Nevertheless, on scattered stable surfaces preserved during Pleistocene glaciations, ancient
39 soils can be locally preserved for long periods (D’Amico et al., 2016). These soils, apparently in
40 contrast with Holocene soil forming conditions, represent paleosols (when buried) or relict soils
41 (Ruellan, 1971) that constitute excellent pedo-signatures of different specific past
42 climatic/environmental conditions.

43 Relict surfaces are recognizable as flat summits and plateaus perched high above the valley floors
44 at different elevations, in which erosion and deposition processes were very limited (D’Amico et al.,
45 2016), because of lateral migration of glacial masses (Carraro and Giardino, 2004). Those surfaces
46 that were not affected by the passage of glaciers experienced extreme cold conditions, which induced
47 strong frost-action processes (e.g., frost-shattering, frost sorting, frost heave, etc.) (Karte, 1983),
48 leading to the formation of periglacial features such as blockfields, blockstreams, and tors
49 (Goodfellow, 2007; Ballantyne, 2010). Because of their high stability on certain poorly weatherable
50 materials (D’Amico et al., 2019), these Pleistocene relict periglacial landforms are considered key

51 indicators of ancient non-glacial surfaces (Goodfellow, 2007). Therefore, they have been used in
52 paleoclimatic reconstructions, as their formation can be associated with specific past environmental
53 conditions (e.g., Karte, 1983; Wilson, 2013; D'Amico et al., 2019). In particular, blockfields, which
54 are usually associated with mountain summits and plateaus, have been used as paleo-indicators of
55 nunataks (e.g., Ballantyne and Harris, 1994; Ballantyne, 1998, 2010) or non-erosive ice covers such
56 as cold-based glaciers (e.g., Nesje et al., 1988; Kleman and Borgström, 1990; Hättestrand and
57 Stroeven, 2002).

58 Nunataks (Dahl, 1987) are isolated hills or mountain peaks that projected above the ice shields and
59 alpine-type icecap (Fairbridge, 1968). They have been proposed as possible biological refugia during
60 glacial periods (Schönswetter et al., 2005; Goodfellow, 2007; Birks and Willis, 2008), serving as
61 sources for the rapid reoccupation of the later deglaciated landscape (Fairbridge, 1968). While several
62 studies have been focused on nunataks especially at high latitudes (e.g., Birks, 1994; McCarroll et al.,
63 1995; Ballantyne et al., 1998), there is a paucity of works that have studied nunataks in the European
64 Alps (Schönswetter et al., 2005; Carcaillet and Blarquez, 2017; Carcaillet et al., 2018), likely due to
65 intrinsic difficulties in finding relict surfaces preserved from glaciations. Moreover, although many
66 studies proposed paleoclimatic reconstruction in Alpine environments, they were mostly localized at
67 elevation lower than 2200 m a.s.l. and in different climatic conditions (e.g., Kerschner and Ochs,
68 2008; Samartin et al., 2012a; Heiri et al., 2014). Furthermore, while the environmental conditions
69 from the Oldest Dryas to the Holocene are relatively well documented (e.g., Samartin et al., 2012b;
70 Cossart et al., 2012, Heiri et al., 2014), a substantial gap of paleoclimate data during the transition
71 between Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) and the Early Lateglacial still exists in the Alps, despite the
72 well reported beginning of deglaciation, which occurred no later than 22,000-18,000 yr BP (Ivy-Ochs
73 et al., 2006a; Ivy-Ochs, 2015; Monegato et al., 2017; Seguinot et al., 2018).

74 Based on these considerations, the object of this work is the reconstruction of the history of a high-
75 elevation Alpine plateau (Stolenberg Plateau), covered by periglacial features, located in the
76 Northwestern Italian Alps at 3000 m a.s.l. More specifically, this work aims at investigating the age

and origin of soils discovered within blockstreams and blockfields (Pintaldi et al., 2021), through the application of I) plant remains investigation (carpological approach), II) plant fragments and soil ^{14}C dating, and III) soil $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analysis. Moreover, based on the interpretation of the obtained results and literature data, the work aims at IV) reconstructing the possible paleoenvironmental evolution of this high-elevated periglacial landscape since the end of the LGM.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Study Area

The Stolenberg Plateau (3030 m a.s.l.) is located at the foot of the southern slope of Monte Rosa (4634 m a.s.l.), along the border between Valle d'Aosta and Piemonte regions, NW Italian Alps (Long-Term Ecological Research-LTER site Istituto Mosso, $45^{\circ}52'42.87''\text{N}$, $7^{\circ}52'0.64''\text{E}$) (Fig. 1, Supplementary material 1). The Plateau has a south-east orientation and covers a surface of ca. 1.35 ha, with a slope angle between 0° and 13° . Meteorological parameters of the study area (air temperature and total liquid precipitation) were recorded by the Bocchetta delle Pisse Automatic Weather Station (AWS) (2401 m a.s.l., managed by ARPA Piemonte), located ca. 2.5 km east of the study area (on the same slope). The temperatures at the Plateau were obtained using the standard lapse rate of $6^{\circ}\text{C km}^{-1}$. The mean cumulative annual snowfall was recorded by the Col d'Olen AWS (2901 m a.s.l., managed by the Italian Army, Comando Truppe Alpine - Servizio Meteomont), located ca. 500 m south-east of the Plateau. The LTER area has a total annual precipitation of ca. 1300 ± 270 mm (1997-2019) at 2400 m a.s.l., with a winter minimum and a late spring-summer maximum. The Plateau has a mean annual air temperature of $-2.4 \pm 0.7^{\circ}\text{C}$ (1988-2019) and a mean summer (June, July, August) air temperature of $4.4 \pm 1.3^{\circ}\text{C}$; July is the warmest month, with a mean air temperature of $5.2 \pm 2.7^{\circ}\text{C}$. The mean annual liquid precipitation is ca. 358 ± 86 mm (1997-2019) while the mean cumulative annual snowfall is ca. 800 ± 143 cm, with a snow cover lasting for at least 8 months (2008-2019).

102 The Plateau is covered by a thick layer of stones of variable size (from decimetric to metric), well
103 organized in autochthonous blockfields, blockstreams/sorted stripes, gelifluction lobes, tilted stones,
104 and weakly developed sorted circles (Pintaldi et al., 2021). No glacial striations or roches moutonnées
105 have been detected on the few highly fractured rock outcrops. The parent material is composed of
106 gneiss and mica-schists (Monte Rosa nappe, Penninic basement), and metabasites (Zermatt-Saas unit)
107 (Tognetto et al., 2021). The vegetation cover, which is almost absent or confined to small patches,
108 reaching no more than 5% of the Plateau surface, is composed of alpine species such as *Silene acaulis*,
109 *Carex curvula*, *Salix herbacea* in the vegetated patches, while *Festuca halleri*, *Poa alpina*,
110 *Ranunculus glacialis*, *Leucanthemopsis alpina*, *Cerastium uniflorum*, *Oxyria digyna* and a few other
111 scattered species grow also in the stone-covered area. No relevant permafrost bodies have been
112 detected in the site, even though some permafrost patches cannot be excluded (Pintaldi et al., 2021).
113 The ground surface thermal regime monitoring (2019-2020) showed no significantly negative soil
114 temperatures under the blockstreams (Supplementary material 2, Fig. S1,2). However, during the
115 snow-free season, soil temperatures under these periglacial features were colder than in nearby
116 snowbed soils covered by vegetation (Supplementary material 2, Fig. S3, Tab. S1).

117

118 **2.2. Soil characteristics**

119 In 2017, during operational activities for constructing a new cableway station on the Plateau, three
120 soil trenches were opened in the construction area close to the protected geosite (soil profiles P1, P2,
121 and P3 in Fig. 1), revealing surprisingly well-developed soils under the stony cover. These soils were
122 characterized by dark and thick organic C-rich A horizons (Fig. 2,3,4), and were classified as Skeletic
123 Umbrisol (Arenic, Turbic), according to IUSS Working Group WRB (2015). Soil texture was
124 generally loamy sand or sandy loam, pH (measured in H₂O) values were extremely to moderately
125 acidic and carbonates were absent. Total Organic Carbon (TOC) content reached maximum values
126 of ca. 20 g kg⁻¹ in the A horizons of profiles P1 and P2 and over 10 g kg⁻¹ in profile P3; the soil C

127 stocks (up to $\sim 5 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$) were comparable to vegetated or even forest soils, despite the extremely
128 sparse vegetation cover (Pintaldi et al., 2021). Geophysical investigations indicated that these hidden
129 soils were widespread on the Plateau. The detailed description of the soil profiles, as well as their
130 physical and chemical properties, distribution and thickness, are reported in Pintaldi et al. (2021).

131

132 **2.3. Plant remains analysis**

133 The presence of few plant fragments mixed within the soil material was observed within soil
134 samples collected from the umbric A horizons in the soil profiles. In order to isolate and identify the
135 plant fragments within soil matrix, to reconstruct the possible past vegetation of the Plateau, a
136 carpological approach was adopted, starting from the assumption that plant material contained in
137 paleosols may preserve the main features of soil "seed banks" (Ter Heerdt et al., 1996). Furthermore,
138 the investigation was applied on two additional soil samples collected deep inside a soil-filled rock
139 wedge (a vertical fracture in the substrate filled with vertically stratified soil materials, likely formed
140 by freeze-thaw action), at 3 m depth (Fig. 5) along the southern border of the plateau (site "Wedge"
141 in Fig. 1). We used the standard method (Supplementary material 3) for extraction of seeds and fruits
142 from deep time sediments (e.g., Martinetto, 2009; Martinetto and Vassio, 2010), because recent
143 experiences (Bertolotto et al., 2012) on a few soils showed that this was effective.

144

145 **2.4. Plant fragments and soil ^{14}C dating**

146 Radiocarbon dating (^{14}C) was performed on six plant fragment samples, accurately selected after
147 the carpological investigation: five samples, consisting of recognizable but fossil-resembling plant
148 fragments (dark coloured, mineral coatings), were obtained from soil samples collected in the umbric
149 A horizons (usually in the 0-10 cm layer); one sample, consisting of unrecognizable plant fragments
150 (strongly decomposed), derived from soil samples collected in the soil wedge at 3 m depth.
151 Furthermore, ^{14}C radiocarbon dating was performed on ten soil samples, nine of which selected from

152 soil profiles: two from profile P1 (1,2), four from P2 (7,8,9,9bis) and three from P3 (2,3,5) (Fig. 1);
153 one sample was collected in the only fully vegetated patch of the plateau (P4), at 10-20 cm depth (A
154 horizon) (Fig. 1). The radiocarbon dating was performed at CEDAD, the Centre for Applied Physics,
155 Dating and Diagnostics, Department of Mathematics and Physics “Ennio de Giorgi” - University of
156 Salento, Lecce, Italy, using radiocarbon accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) analysis (Calcagnile
157 et al., 2005) and the standard preparation methods (D’Elia et al., 2004). Radiocarbon dates of soil
158 samples were calibrated in calendar age by using the software OxCal Ver. 3.10 (Supplementary
159 material, Figs. S4-S14), based on atmospheric data (Reimer et al., 2013). Further methodological
160 details can be found in Supplementary material 4.

161

162 **2.5 Soil $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ stable isotope signature**

163 To verify the typical $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of present-day vegetated soils in the study area, which clearly
164 reflects the existing vegetation (Meyer et al., 2014), soil samples were collected from the A horizons
165 of five vegetated permanent study areas at slightly lower elevation in the LTER site (2750-2900 m
166 a.s.l., Supplementary material 5). Moreover, the analysis was performed on fourteen selected soil
167 samples (A horizons) from the Plateau (Supplementary material 5). Samples were air-dried, sieved to
168 2 mm and checked using stereomicroscope to eventually remove macro-contaminants. Then samples
169 were ground and sieved to 0.5 mm. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of total organic carbon (due to the absence of
170 carbonates) was directly determined using an Isoprime 100 continuous flow stable isotope mass
171 spectrometer coupled to a Vario Isotope Select elemental analyzer (EA-IRMS; Elementar
172 Analysensysteme GmbH, Hanau, Germany) and expressed in parts per thousand (‰) relative to the
173 international standard Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) (further methodological details in
174 Supplementary material 5). Significant differences (p -value < 0.05) in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values between present-
175 day vegetated soils and soils under periglacial features were evaluated through one-way analysis of

176 variance (ANOVA) combined with Tukey HSD test. Statistical analyses were performed using R
177 software, v. 3.6.0 (R Core Team, 2019).

178

179 **3. Results**

180 **3.1. Plant remains and ^{14}C dating**

181 The quantity of plant fragments found in the soils was very scarce, representing a negligible
182 fraction compared to the soil matrix. However, they were composed of remains with definite
183 morphologies, including cm-sized leaves (consisting mainly of well-preserved and recognizable
184 specimens of *Salix herbacea*, *Cerastium uniflorum* and *Poaceae* sp.) and mm-sized fruits and seeds,
185 which have been mostly identified as belonging to taxa growing today in surrounding snowbed areas
186 and in the small vegetated patch on the Plateau (Tab. 1, Fig. 1). Only in sample F, which was collected
187 inside the wedge (Fig. 5), the degree of decomposition was much higher, so that the morphology of
188 larger plant fragments was vague and not recognizable. Only a few tiny fruits and seeds still had
189 diagnostic morphologies and allowed the identification of some plant taxa (Tab. 1) Concerning
190 radiocarbon dating, the plant fragment samples were all modern (after 1950 AD, Tab. 2), except the
191 strongly decomposed sample F, which was dated back to 1,824-1,594 yr cal. BP.

192

193 **3.2. Soil Organic Matter ^{14}C dating and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature**

194 Unlike plant fragments, the results from AMS on soil samples revealed a wide range of ages,
195 covering several thousands of years and different well-distinct climatic periods, between ca. 22,000-
196 21,000 yr and 4,400-4,100 yr cal. BP (Tab. 2). All radiocarbon dates were rounded and here presented
197 as calibrated radiocarbon ages (yr cal. BP = years before 1950 A.D.). In P1 the age of soil samples
198 was related with depth, in fact the oldest samples P1-1, dated between 8,782 and 8,412 yr cal. BP,
199 was located close to the lower boundary of the umbric A horizon, while the youngest one (P1-2),
200 dated between 5,735 and 5,589 yr cal. BP, was located close to the surface stones-soil interface (Fig.

201 2). In P2 the age of the samples was not related to depth: the oldest sample P2-9, dated between
202 17,584-16,985 and 18,148-17,719 (P2-9bis) yr cal. BP (values obtained from two independent and
203 blind datings performed in different moments), was located close to the surface stones-soil interface,
204 while the stable organic C in C-rich cryoturbated patches (P2-7), located close to the lower boundary
205 of the umbric A horizon, was much younger (6,506-6,306 yr cal. BP) (Fig. 3); the central and rather
206 homogeneous part of the A horizon (P2-8) dates back to 8,561-8,300 yr cal BP. In P3 the age of the
207 samples was not related to depth as well: the oldest samples P3-2 and P3-3, dating back to 18,921-
208 18,518 and 22,145-21,427 yr cal. BP respectively, were taken from homogeneous materials in the
209 central part of the umbric horizon, while a younger radiocarbon age was obtained in the deeper part
210 of the A horizon, close to the lower boundary (sample P3-5), dating back to 13,306-13,076 yr cal. BP
211 (Fig. 4). The youngest soil sample, P4, taken from the A horizon in the currently fully vegetated
212 patch, was dated between 4,360 and 4,090 yr cal. BP (Tab. 2).

213 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of present-day vegetated soils provided by EA-IRMS ranged between -23.3
214 (Site 1) and -25.7 ‰ (Site 3), with a mean value of -24.2 ‰ (± 1.1) (Tab. 3). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of soil samples
215 from the plateau showed very similar values, ranging between -23.5 (P3-3) and -24.7 ‰ (P1-1), with
216 a mean of -24.1 ‰ (± 0.4), while the soil sample collected from the vegetated patch (P4) had a
217 slightly greater value of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -22.7 ‰ (Tab. 3). No significant differences were detected between
218 present-day vegetated soils and soils under periglacial features (Supplementary material, Fig. S15).

219

220 **4. Discussion**

221 **4.1 Plant fragments ^{14}C dating**

222 The plant fragment samples were generally modern (Tab. 2), except sample F, which was dated
223 between 1,824 and 1,594 yr BP, corresponding therefore to the small warm phase occurred during
224 the Roman time (Mercalli, 2004). The strong difference in age between sample F and the other
225 samples was already reflected in the different degree of decomposition, as the larger plant fragments

226 in sample F were not recognizable. This sample, collected at ca. 3 m depth below the present-day
227 surface inside a rock wedge, evidenced strongly active periglacial processes, sufficient to activate the
228 rock wedge and thus its filling by surface soil material in the following centuries. This indicates that
229 cryoturbation processes acted across millennia, strongly mixing plant fragments within the soil
230 matrix, until they became unrecognizable. The presence of modern plant fragments within the soil
231 matrix, although very scarce, can be explained mainly by the aeolian transport from the surrounding
232 vegetated surfaces. The plant material could have been trapped by the stone layer and moved towards
233 the soil surface through the large spaces between the rocks. Alternatively, a small input from the
234 sporadically occurring vegetation growing within the stones may have contributed.

235

236 **4.2 Soil ^{14}C dating**

237 Radiocarbon dating of soils and sediments can be problematic due to the presence of pre-aged
238 carbon (e.g., Lowe and Walker, 2000; Pessenda et al., 2001; Thorn et al., 2009) or fresh/allochthonous
239 organic matter (Wang et al., 1996; Tonneijck et al., 2006). Therefore, terrestrial plant macrofossils
240 have been considered the most reliable material for ^{14}C dating (Lowe and Walker, 2000; Hatté et al.,
241 2001). However, the fossil record of the Alpine flora is generally scarce due to the lack of conditions
242 suitable for the accumulation of macro-remains at the highest elevations (Lang, 1994). If materials
243 such as charcoal, wood, or other plant macrofossils (Muhs et al., 2003) are lacking, dating of soils or
244 sediments is generally accepted (Wang et al., 2014), especially in specific sites and under certain
245 conditions (Lowe and Walker, 2000). Thus, the interpretation of ^{14}C dates must be adapted to the
246 specific soil ecosystem under study (Tonneijck et al., 2006).

247 Differently from plant samples, datings of the soil samples collected from the Plateau covered an
248 extended time interval, involving both Pleistocene and Holocene epochs. If some kind of very old-
249 aged material (i.e. from LGM or even older) was deposited on the Plateau surface, it should have
250 been deposited also on the nearby glacier surfaces. However, similar old-aged organic materials have

never been detected in the well-studied Monte Rosa glaciers (Jenk et al., 2009; Thevenon et al., 2009). Currently, the oldest date obtained from an ice core, collected at ~80 m depth on the nearby Colle Gnifetti, was around 15,000 yr (Jenk et al., 2009). In the European Alps, on glacier surfaces, the most important source for the deposition of already aged organic materials is soil dust (Hoffman, 2016), a large part of which is originated from Saharan dust storm (e.g., Wagenbach and Geis, 1989; Wagenbach et al., 1996; Hoffman, 2016). The age of organic matter in these atmospheric depositions range between 1,000 and 5,000 yr (Eglinton et al., 2002; Jenk et al., 2006), with a mean of ca. 2,500 (Hoffman, 2016). Finally, the contribution of anthropogenic emissions was also considered as a possible cause for the aging of samples (Jenk et al., 2006), the so-called Suess effect (Suess, 1955). However, this effect is generally negligible on the samples older than 2,000-5,000 yr BP (Graven et al., 2015; Köhler, 2016). Therefore, most of our samples, especially the oldest ones, were out of the range of influence of the Suess effect.

Based on the previous considerations, our soil samples cannot therefore be influenced by other than local organic carbon sources (i.e. vegetation grown during warming phases). Furthermore, the soil texture of the paleosols at the Stolenberg Plateau was loamy sand or sandy loam and no differences were found among profiles and between surface and deep samples (Pintaldi et al., 2021), thus rejecting also the hypothesis of a Loess deposition, which is otherwise mainly composed of silt-sized material dominated by quartz (Smalley et al., 2006), but could also include organic matter.

These soils could have experienced several different climatic conditions, retaining information about past climates, ranging from the end of the LGM (Ivy-Ochs, 2015) to the beginning of the Neoglacial (Orombelli et al., 2005). All the detected ages matched exactly and exclusively with the main warming phases/interstadials occurring from the LGM until the transition between the Holocene Climatic Optimum (HCO) and the Neoglacial (Deline and Orombelli, 2005; Ivy-Ochs et al., 2009), whereas no soil samples from cold phases/stadials were detected (further details in chapter 5).

The surface position of the oldest samples and the general inversion of the typical age-depth relationship can be explained by the strong cryoturbation processes occurring on the Plateau,

277 especially during the cold climatic phases. Indeed, cryoturbation processes mix and displace soil
278 horizons (Bockheim and Tarnocai, 1998; Pintaldi et al., 2016), redistributing organic matter (e.g., van
279 Vliet-Lanoë et al., 1998; Hormes et al., 2004; Bockheim, 2007). Furthermore, other works reported
280 inverted soil age-depth relationship (e.g., Carcaillet et al., 2001; Favilli et al., 2008; Egli et al., 2009;
281 Serra et al., 2020), as the young and contemporary carbon can be transported by soil turbation
282 processes, such as cryoturbation and bioturbation, thus contributing to the rejuvenation of the subsoil
283 (Scharpenseel and Becker-Heidmann, 1992; Rumpel et al., 2002; Favilli et al., 2008). Besides the
284 well-developed periglacial features, cryoturbation processes were also evidenced by the internal soil
285 morphology, which showed inclusions of surface A-horizon materials at depth, as well as strong
286 convolutions and block displacement above wedges (Pintaldi et al., 2021).

287 Remarkably, ages similar to the ones of our oldest samples have never been detected in soils at
288 such high-elevated ecosystems in the European Alps. For instance, Baroni and Orombelli (1996)
289 found a Cambisol with buried A horizons at Tisa Pass (3200 m a.s.l.), but with a radiocarbon age of
290 around 6,400-6300 yr BP , while Orombelli (1998) obtained an age up to ca. 9,000 yr BP (2500 m
291 a.s.l.) for the Rutor Peat Bog. As reported by Ivy-Ochs et al. (2008), the oldest date yet obtained for
292 an ice-free Swiss foreland is 17,000-18,000 yr, although it is a minimum age, because pinpoint the
293 timing during this period, using radiocarbon age, remains difficult due to the lack of organic material
294 (Kerschner and Ivy-Ochs, 2008), which is rare and often reworked (Ivy-Ochs et al., 2008). Glacier
295 basal sediments at the Jamtalferner and Stubai glaciers (Austria) had ages around 17,000 and 22,000
296 yr BP, respectively (Hoffman, 2016). Furthermore, although at lower elevation (2100 m a.s.l.), Favilli
297 et al. (2008, 2009) obtained comparable ages (17,000-18,000 yr BP) for an Entic Podzol, in the alpine
298 belt in NE Italy. Other comparable radiocarbon ages (~21,000 yr BP) were reported by Carcaillet and
299 Blarquez (2017) for a tree refugium at ~2200 m a.s.l., in the Western Alps.

300

301 **4.3 Soil $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature**

The soil $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures are frequently used to reconstruct plant community history and the sources of soil organic carbon (Bai et al., 2012). As plant residues enter the soils, their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values may be modified slightly from their original values by isotope fractionation associated to preferential C mineralization (Bai et al., 2012). The overall $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of present-day vegetated soils obtained by the stable isotope analysis, was comparable to those reported for soils and alpine vegetation in high-elevation ecosystems (Bird et al., 1994; Körner et al., 1991, 2016; Körner, 2003). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures of soils under periglacial features corresponded very well with those of present-day vegetated soil (Tab. 3), thus indicating that the soil organic carbon probably originated from alpine plants with the same isotopic signature of present-day vegetation. Furthermore, studies conducted by Colombo et al. (2020) on a nearby rock glacier at ~2700 m a.s.l., indicated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of surrounding vegetated soils (-24.5 ‰) very similar to those of the Plateau, while the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of the active rock glacier soil, characterized by cold ground thermal regimes, coarse debris cover, and extremely reduced plant cover, increased considerably (ca. -18 ‰). Thus, the overall correspondence of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures between present-day vegetated soils and paleosols under periglacial features suggested a common origin of the soil organic carbon from very similar alpine flora.

5. Historical and paleoenvironmental setting

In Fig. 6 we propose a conceptual model reporting a tentative paleoenvironmental reconstruction of the Stolenberg Plateau. Despite uncertainties, we believe that it may facilitate the interpretation of our data and also the generation (and testing) of the different hypotheses, as it includes and coordinates the different evidences we collected.

The LGM (Fig. 6A1-B1) ended around 22,000-19,000 yr BP (Ivy-Ochs et al., 2006a; Gianotti et al., 2015; Ivy-Ochs, 2015; Monegato et al. 2017), during which transection glaciers, flowing into valley systems, characterized the Western European Alps (Kelly et al., 2004). The mean air temperature was ~12 °C lower than present day in the European Alps (Peyron et al., 1998; Becker et

327 al., 2016) and the mean July air temperature was likely around -4/5 °C on the Plateau (cf. Renssen et
328 al., 2009; Samartin et al., 2012a,b; Heiri et al., 2015). Considering the lack of soil samples older than
329 ca. 22,000 yr and the inferred cold conditions during LGM, together with the strongly weathered,
330 autochthonous soil and stone materials, we can hypothesize the presence of a barren cryoturbated
331 surface or of a small cold-based “ice cap” covering the Plateau (Fig. 6A1-B1).

332 Our oldest ¹⁴C datings (P3-2, P3-3, P2-9, and P2-9bis) span from 22,000 to 17,000 yr BP, falling
333 exactly during a period of massive downwasting of transection glaciers (Early Lateglacial Ice Decay-
334 ELID) (e.g., Ravazzi, 2005; Ivy-Ochs et al., 2006a, 2008; Monegato et al., 2007; Reitner, 2007;
335 Wirsig et al., 2016). Glacial shrinking also occurred at high elevations (Dielfolder and Hetzel, 2014),
336 with some mountain peaks, around 2300-2600 m a.s.l., protruding out of the ice surface (Wirsig et
337 al., 2016). The ELID occurred on both sides of the Alps due to significant rise in air temperatures
338 (e.g., Huber et al., 2010; Schmidt et al., 2012; Samartin et al., 2012a,b). Assuming a pronounced
339 climate continentality (Jost-Stauffer et al., 2001; Ivy-Ochs et al., 2009), summer air temperatures
340 were likely similar to the ones inferred for the Bølling-Allerød interstadial (e.g., Huber et al., 2010;
341 Samartin et al., 2012a,b; Schmidt et al., 1998, 2012). In addition, soil surface temperatures in alpine
342 environments during summer are generally 2-4 °C above the air temperatures (Scherrer and Körner,
343 2010), indicating that life conditions of alpine organisms growing on the soil surface can be strongly
344 decoupled from conditions in the free atmosphere, particularly on south oriented surfaces like the
345 Plateau (e.g., Scherrer and Körner, 2010). Our ancillary measurements confirmed that the mean 10
346 cm depth soil temperature during summer was ~3 °C warmer than air temperature on the Plateau
347 (vegetated patch GST2), while at slightly lower elevation soil temperatures was 1-3 °C warmer
348 (Supplementary material 2, Tab. S2). Therefore, the Stolenberg Plateau was likely ice-free since
349 ~22,000-21,000 yr BP, i.e. the (micro)climatic conditions were probably suitable for pedogenesis and
350 growth of some vegetation (Fig. 6A2,3-B2,3).

351 No radiocarbon ages were detected in our soils between ~17,000 yr BP and ~14,700 yr BP, which
352 was a period (Gschnitz stadial or Oldest Dryas; Walker et al., 1999; Ivy-Ochs et al., 2006b, 2008)

353 characterized by a decrease of both temperatures and precipitations, with values 8.5-10 °C and 25-50
354 % lower than the respective modern values (Ivy-Ochs et al., 2006a,b; Kerschner and Ivy-Ochs, 2008;
355 Ivy-Ochs, 2015). These cold climatic conditions allowed a readvance of mountain glaciers (Kerschner
356 et al., 2002; Ivy-Ochs et al., 2006a,b, 2008). Thus, it is probable that the environmental conditions on
357 the Plateau were not suitable to sustain plant life and pedogenesis, while they favored strong frost-
358 action processes which led to the activation of periglacial features (Goodfellow, 2007; Ballantyne,
359 2010) (Fig. 6A4-B4).

360 The age of the P3-5 sample, dated between 13,306 and 13,076 yr cal. BP, matched perfectly with
361 a warm period occurred between ~14,700 and 12,900 yr BP, corresponding to the Bølling-Allerød
362 interstadial (Rasmussen et al., 2006; Ivy-Ochs et al., 2008; Dielfolder and Hetzel, 2014). A strong
363 rise in the mean annual air temperatures was inferred (ca. 3 °C), with respect to the Oldest Dryas,
364 causing the melting of valley glaciers (e.g., Ravazzi, 2005; Vescovi et al., 2007; Dielfolder and
365 Hetzel, 2014). Other studies indicated even greater rises in temperature, ~3-4 °C (Larocque-Tobler et
366 al., 2010) and ~5 °C (Renssen and Isarin, 2001). The mean July temperature at the Plateau, during
367 this period, may have been higher than 3 °C (cf., Heiri and Millet, 2005; Samartin et al., 2012a,b;
368 Dielfolder and Hetzel, 2014). Thus, the summer climate could have been suitable again for
369 pedogenesis and plant life (Fig. 6A5-B5).

370 After the Bølling-Allerød, a general worsening of climate conditions occurred, leading to another
371 cold phase, the Younger Dryas, also called Egesen Stadial (Ivy-Ochs et al., 2006b, 2008), which
372 lasted until 11,700 yr BP. The summer temperatures were 3.5-4 °C lower, while precipitation was
373 reduced by 10 to 30% compared to modern values (Kerschner et al., 2000, Kerschner and Ivy-Ochs,
374 2008). Again, on the Plateau, no soil radiocarbon ages were detected from this cold period, as the
375 environmental conditions likely favored frost-action processes rather than pedogenesis, probably
376 leading to a new expansion of periglacial features (Fig 6A6-B6).

377 The ages of four soil samples (P1-1, P1-2, P2-7, and P2-8) span from 8,700 to 5,700 yr BP,
378 corresponding to the warm Holocene Climatic Optimum (HCO), occurred between 10,000 and 5,000

379 yr BP (Mercalli, 2004; Orombelli, 2011). In this period a ~3-4 °C temperature increase was estimated
380 with respect to the Younger Dryas (e.g., Tinner and Kaltenrieder, 2005; Ilyashuk et al., 2009;
381 Larocque-Tobler et al., 2010; Samartin et al., 2012b). Glaciers were probably smaller than present
382 day during the height of the HCO (e.g., Ivy-Ochs et al., 2009; Orombelli, 2011; Grämiger et al., 2018;
383 Bohleber et al., 2020). Mean air temperature was up to 1-2 °C warmer with respect to the present-day
384 values in the European Alps (e.g., Grove, 1988; Nesje and Dahl, 1993; Antonioli et al., 2000; Ivy-
385 Ochs et al., 2009) and the inferred July temperature at the Plateau may have reached values around
386 6-7 °C (or even more) (cf. Ilyashuk et al., 2009; Samartin et al., 2012b), therefore above present-day
387 values (cf., Birks and Willis, 2008; Ilyashuk et al., 2009; Samartin et al., 2012b). This likely led to
388 conditions suitable for plant life (Fig. 5A7-B7).

389 The age of our youngest sample (P4), dated 4,360-4,090 yr BP, corresponded with a period of
390 climate stability or slight cooling encompassed between 5,000 and 4,000 yr BP, after which a strong
391 decrease in temperature was estimated (Heiri et al., 2015), which led to Alpine glacier expansion
392 from 3,300 yr BP (Ivy-Ochs et al., 2009); this period has been called Neoglacial (Deline and
393 Orombelli, 2005; Orombelli, 2005). After 3,300 yr BP, colder climatic conditions caused prolonged
394 and frequent glacier advances, leading finally to the Little Ice Age (LIA, 1300-1850 A.D.) (Ivy-Ochs
395 et al., 2009). During this last and prolonged cold phase, no soil radiocarbon ages were detected at the
396 Plateau, apart from highly weathered plant fragments collected deep inside the rock wedge. The frost
397 action likely prevailed, causing the final expansion of the periglacial features and the complete
398 covering of the Plateau (Fig. 5A8-B8), while few plants could thrive without being able to leave
399 measurable amounts of organic matter in the soil horizons.

400

401 **6. Nunataks: yes or no?**

402 The nunatak theory hypothesizes that unglaciated reliefs in glacial and periglacial areas acted as a
403 refugium for isolated colonies of microorganisms, plants, and animals which survived the rigorous

condition of the last glacial times for a few thousand years (Fairbridge, 1968; Dahl, 1987). These nunataks could have served as center for the recolonization of the later deglaciated landscape (Fairbridge, 1968). However, clear evidence for in situ survival of alpine floras on nunataks in the Alps during the last ice age are rather limited (e.g., Stehlik, 2002; Schönswetter et al., 2005; Carcaillet and Blarquez, 2017; Carcaillet et al., 2018) and subjected to a heated debate (e.g., Gugerli and Holderegger, 2001; Carcaillet and Blarquez, 2019; Finsinger et al., 2019). The existence and identification of such refugia during glacial or interglacial stages has been a topic of active research for decades (Hampe et al., 2013). The recolonization of the Alps would have started not only from peripheral refugia, but also from areas within the ice sheet (Schönswetter et al., 2005), where isolated nunataks could have been sources and targets as well of species immigration and establishment (Paus et al., 2006). Indeed, barren substrate or saprolite (Goodfellow, 2007), exposed just after glacier retreat (Fig. 6A2-B2), could become targets of autotrophic organisms (e.g., algae, mosses, lichens, higher plants), starting the process of primary succession (Bardgett et al., 2007). Thus, nunataks may have been indeed inhabited for several thousand years during the last glaciation (Gugerli and Holderegger, 2001), before the surrounding lowlands became deglaciated and invaded by organisms in the early Holocene. Remarkably, the Plateau location matched exactly with an area assumed to be a potential refugia for the survival of high-elevation plants on ice-free mountain tops within the strongly glaciated central parts of the Alps, particularly among the north of the Aosta Valley (NW-Italy) and south Valais, and within the mountain ranges of Monte Rosa (Stehlik, 2002; Schönswetter et al., 2005; Kosiński et al., 2019).

Based on the results reported here and the presence of strong geomorphological evidences (i.e. periglacial features such as blockstreams/blockfields), as well as the overall specific morphology, aspect and position, the Stolenberg Plateau is thought to represent a Lateglacial Alpine Nunatak, on which specific pedoclimatic conditions could have been suitable for alpine plant life already since 22,000-21,000 yr BP. As sometimes observed at high elevation at present day (e.g. *Saxifraga oppositifolia* growing at 4500 m a.s.l. near the summit of Dom in Switzerland, Körner, 2011),

soil/substrate temperatures can be increased by solar surface warming in specific protected sites. This is particularly true where adiabatic winds, topography, local rock warming effect (Carturan et al., 2013), long-wave radiation from nearby rocky walls (i.e., the Mt. Stolenberg rock wall), and mass elevation effect (e.g. Monte Rosa Massif) (Samartin et al., 2012a), favor specific and stable microclimate features (e.g., Stewart and Lister, 2001), allowing the formation of the nunatak conditions.

6. Conclusion

In the severe periglacial environment of the Stolenberg Plateau, at 3030 m a.s.l., thick and well-developed Umbrisol were detected inside periglacial features (blockstreams/blockfields). As previously reported in Pintaldi et al (2021), these soils, despite the large stony cover and the scattered vegetation, showed carbon stocks comparable to alpine tundra or even forest soils. Radiocarbon dating and soil $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures indicated that these hidden soils were paleosols that recorded exclusively the main warming phases occurring since the end of LGM until the beginning of Neoglacial. This finding suggests that the environmental conditions on the Plateau were suitable for alpine plant life and pedogenesis, already since the end of LGM. Our results, coupled with the inferred paleoclimate reconstruction, indicate that the Stolenberg Plateau can be considered a direct evidence of a Lateglacial Alpine Nunatak, representing therefore a valuable natural and historical archive for unravelling the post-LGM history of the high-elevation landscape of the European Alps.

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811 **Figure 1.** (a) Location of the study area in the NW Italian Alps (www.pcn.minambiente.it) and overview of the
812 study area (orthoimage Piemonte Region, year 2010) (coordinate system WGS 84 / UTM zone 32N); green forms
813 indicate the location of the three soil profiles (P1, P2, P3) and the vegetated patch (P4); yellow polygon indicates

814 the location of the soil-filled wedge. (b) View of the Plateau from the base of the Mt. Stolenberg (photo by M.
815 D'Amico). (c) View of the Plateau (photo by M. D'Amico).

Figure 2. Soil profile P1, with the corresponding scheme (below) reporting sampling points (number), the horizon limits (lines therein), and the age of soil samples (ka cal. BP). P1-1 and P1-2 were analyzed for ^{14}C (Tab. 2) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Tab. 3).

Figure 3. Soil profile P2, with the corresponding scheme (below) reporting sampling points (number), the horizon limits (lines therein), and the age of soil samples (cal. ka BP). P2-7, P2-8, and P2-9 (and P2-9bis, not shown in the figure) were analyzed for ^{14}C (Tab. 2); P2-7, P2-8, P2-9 (and P2-9bis), P2-13, and P2-15 were analyzed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Tab. 3).

Figure 4. Soil profile P3, with the corresponding scheme (below) reporting sampling points (number), the horizon limits (lines therein), and the age of soil samples (ka cal. BP). P3-2, P3-3, and P3-5 were analyzed for ^{14}C (Tab. 2); P3-1, P3-2, P3-3, P3-4, and P3-5 were analyzed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Tab. 3).

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Figure 5. The soil-filled rock wedge along the southern border of the Plateau and detail of the sampling site.

Figure 6. Tentative paleoenvironmental reconstruction of the Stolenberg Plateau based on the findings in this paper and on literature reported in the text. (1) Reference timeline from LGM to present day: blue colors indicate cooling phases, orange ones warming phases, the light blue segment (on the right) indicates a period of progressive cooling occurred at the beginning of Neoglacial phase; red segments indicate the age of soil samples reported in table 2. (2) Corresponding visual of the Plateau during the different phases: letters A (A1, A2, etc.) are the frontal views, B ones are the planimetric views. Details in the text.

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Tables

Profile samples		
Family/Genus/Species	N° (seeds/fruits/leaves)	Frequency (%)
Asteraceae indet.	1	0.3
Brassicaceae indet.	1	0.3
<i>Carex parviflora</i>	1	0.3
<i>Carex myosuroides</i>	7	1.9
<i>Cerastium</i> sp.	16	4.4
<i>Cerastium uniflorum</i>	90	24.6
<i>Cirsium</i> sp.	1	0.3
<i>Crepis</i> sp.	1	0.3
<i>Draba</i> sp.	1	0.3
<i>Gentiana</i> gr. <i>verna</i>	1	0.3
<i>Juncus</i> sp.	1	0.3
<i>Leucanthemopsis alpina</i>	1	0.3
<i>Minuartia</i> sp.	23	6.3
<i>Oxyria digyna</i>	1	0.3
Poaceae sp.	75	20.5
<i>Potentilla</i> sp.	1	0.3
<i>Salix</i> cf. <i>herbacea</i>	103	28.1
<i>Saxifraga oppositifolia</i>	10	2.7
<i>Sibbaldia procumbens</i>	1	0.3
<i>Silene acaulis</i>	27	7.4
<i>Taraxacum</i> cf. <i>alpinum</i>	2	0.5
cf. <i>Vaccinium uliginosum</i>	1	0.3
TOT	366	100.0
Wedge sample (F)		
Family/Genus/Species	N° (seeds/fruits/leaves)	Frequency (%)
cf. <i>Artemisia</i>	1	5.9
<i>Carex myosuroides</i>	1	5.9
<i>Cerastium</i> sp.	1	5.9
<i>Juncus</i> sp.	1	5.9
Poaceae indet.	8	47.1
Primulaceae	1	5.9
<i>Selaginella selaginoides</i>	1	5.9
<i>Silene acaulis</i>	1	5.9
<i>Taraxacum</i> cf. <i>alpinum</i>	1	5.9
cf. <i>Vaccinium uliginosum</i>	1	5.9
TOT	17	100.0

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Table 1. Results of the carpology investigation: identified plant taxa within soil samples collected from the Umbric horizons in the soil profiles and from the soil-filled rock wedge.

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Lab. Code	Sample ID	TOC (g/kg)*	Type	Radiocarbon Age (yr BP)	Cal. Radiocarbon Age (yrs cal. BP) (confidence level 2σ)	Phase
LTL19173A	P1-1	19.0	Soil	7798 ± 75	8782-8412 (92.1%)	HCO
LTL19174A	P1-2	10.8	Soil	4918 ± 45	5735-5589 (95.4%)	HCO
LTL19175A	P2-7	20.5	Soil	5639 ± 45	6506-6306 (95.4%)	HCO
LTL19172A	P2-8	11.0	Soil	7608 ± 75	8561-8300 (92.1%)	HCO
LTL19176A	P2-9	11.3	Soil	14203 ± 100	17584-16985 (95.4%)	ELID
LTL19542A	P2-9bis	12.5	Soil	14745 ± 70	18148-17719 (95.4%)	ELID
LTL19169A	P3-2	8.7	Soil	15463 ± 100	18921-18518 (95.4%)	ELID
LTL19543A	P3-3	10.6	Soil	17978 ± 120	22145-21427 (95.4%)	LGM/ELID
LTL19170A	P3-5	11.8	Soil	11345 ± 65	13306-13076 (95.4%)	BA
LTL19871A	P4	13.8	Soil	3820 ± 45	4360-4090 (88.5%)	HCO-NG
LTL19865A	A	-	Plant	-	After 1950 AD	M
LTL19866A	B	-	Plant	-	After 1950 AD	M
LTL19867A	C	-	Plant	-	After 1950 AD	M
LTL19868A	D	-	Plant	-	After 1950 AD	M
LTL19869A	E	-	Plant	-	After 1950 AD	M
LTL19870A	F	-	Plant	1789 ± 45	1824-1594 (94.0%)	RWP

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Table 2. Radiocarbon ¹⁴C dating results of soil samples and plant fragments. HCO: Holocene Climatic Optimum; ELID: Early Lateglacial Ice Decay; BA: Bølling-Allerød; NG: Neoglacial; M: Modern; RWP: Roman Warm Period. *Total Organic Carbon (TOC) values derived from Pintaldi et al. (2021).

Site	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	Cover type	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
S1	2840	Vegetation	-23.3
S2	2800	Vegetation	-25.1
S3	2770	Vegetation	-25.7
S6	2854	Vegetation	-23.4
S8	2749	Vegetation	-23.4
P4	3030	Vegetation	-22.7
P1-1	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-24.7
P1-2	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-23.9
P2-7	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-24.2
P2-8	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-23.9
P2-9	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-24.5
P2-9bis	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-24.5
P2-13	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-24.0
P2-15	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-24.3
P3-1	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-24.6
P3-2	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-23.8
P3-3	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-23.5
P3-4	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-24.0
P3-5	3030	Blockstream/Blockfield	-23.6

Table 3. IRMS $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ results of present-day vegetated soils in the study area and soils from the Plateau under blockstream/blockfield.