

West African lateritic pediments: Landform-regolith evolution processes and mineral exploration pitfalls

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Review of the geomorphology, regolith and age of the West African pediment systems
- Duricrusted and loose transported sediments are dominant on pediments
- Specific geomorphological exploration guides are required for lateritic pediment terrains
- Pediments typify slow (<10 m/Ma) denudation regimes and their stepping patterns are not
gauges of regional uplift

33 Abstract

This paper is a contribution to the understanding of surface dynamics of tropical shields over geological timescales. Emphasis is put on the fundamental and applied implications of regolith production and dispersion processes through the formation, dissection and preservation of landforms. It is based on the case study of sub Saharan West Africa, which recorded Neogene stepwise dissection of its topography through the emplacement of three lateritic pediment systems, which still occupy most of its surface. Pediments are erosional / transportation slopes having been weathered and duricrusted. Pediment-regolith associations therefore depend on the parent rock, transport dynamics and preservation of the material having transited on their surface as well as on the intensity of their weathering / duricrusting. Iron oxy-hydroxide-cemented clastic sediments (detrital ferricretes) and unconsolidated clastic sediments are the dominant outcropping material, and as such represent a challenge for mineral exploration that relies on surface geochemical sampling to detect metal concentration in the bedrock. Landform-regolith mapping beyond the scale of modern interfluves combined with paleolandscape reconstitution are relevant to provide exploration guides for (i) interpreting geochemical anomalies on pediments, (ii) tracing their potential source when they have been "transported" on pediments and (iii) targeting suspected ore bodies concealed beneath pediment(s). Past and present latitudinal climatic

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123	51	zonation of pedimentation and weathering patterns suggests a gradation of pedimentation
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125	52	process across the intertropical zone and explains why pediments may have been
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128	53	overlooked in equatorial environments, with implications for mineral exploration.
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130	54	Successive pediment systems adapted to uneven, knickzone bearing river networks,
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132	55	producing a spatially consistent and reduced (<80 m) stepping pattern of pediments
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134	56	independent from elevation or position in the drainage. Pediments / pediplains are therefore
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137	57	not proxies of uplift and their preservation over geological timescales typines regions
138	58	submitted to loss than 10 m/My prosion rates. The identification and study of lateritic
139	50	submitted to less than 10 m/my erosion rates. The identification and study of latentic
140	59	pediments bear important implications on shield sediment routing systems and a better
141	0,	
142	60	access to the bedrock and its resources, which may still be underestimated in the tropics.
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147	62	keywords: Pediment; Regolith; Landform evolution processes; Mineral exploration; Mega-
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149	63	geomorphology
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153	65	1 Introduction
154	05	
155	66	Tropical shields of Africa. South America. India and Australia are mantled over large
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157	67	areas by regolith derived from rock weathering. Regolith is a weathered, unconsolidated or
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160	68	secondarily indurated cover that overlies fresh coherent bedrock (Scott and Pain, 2008). If
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162	69	preserved on its parental bedrock, regolith constitutes a weathering profile (Fig. 1), which
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164	70	acts as a filter for the chemical composition of the geological substrate. In this case,
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160	/1	weathering concentrates some metals (Fe, Ai, Ni, Cu, Au, Mn) in the regolith compared to the
168	72	bedrock which can result lateritic ore denosits (Nahon et al. 1992: Valeton, 1994: Freussinet
169	12	bedrock, which can result latentic of e deposits (Nanon et al., 1992, Valeton, 1994, Preyssinet
170	73	et al., 2005). Once transported by slope or alluvial processes, regolith may act as a mask for
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172	74	the underlying bedrock. As displaced regolith may undergo weathering after transport (Ollier
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175	75	and Pain, 1996), deciphering regolith production / dispersion scenarios through landscapes
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is key for mineral exploration, which mostly relies on soil geochemical surveys (Butt et al., 2000; Porto, 2016). Throughout the Cenozoic, shield surfaces outside the influence of glaciers have primarily evolved by landscape dissection, the process by which paleolandscapes become isolated as relics overlooking younger active landforms as a result of slow and unevenly distributed erosion. Thereby, the relief of shields increases through geological time (Thomas, 1989; Twidale, 1991), while landscape dissection is instrumental in exhuming regolith available to re-weathering and transportation. Therefore, the study of regolith distribution patterns over shield landscapes should not only provide exploration guides to better access bedrock geology and resources, but also constrain landform evolution processes and sediment delivery of very large cratonic river systems (Beauvais and Chardon, 2013; Grimaud et al., 2015, 2018). Pediments are common landforms that typically form during, and contribute to, the process of landscape dissection, especially over vast non-orogenic regions of the world (e.g., Dohrenwend and Parsons, 2009). In the broadest sense of the term, pediments may be considered as gently inclined slopes of transportation and/or erosion that truncate bedrock and/or regolith and connect eroding slopes or scarps to areas of sediment deposition or alluvial transportation at lower levels (definition adapted from Oberlander, 1997). Pedimentation involves the physic-chemical processes that concur to form pediments. As transportation slopes feeding rivers with clastic sediments, pediments are a regulating element of the sediment routing system. As transit landsurfaces, pediments also carry transported regolith that masks the geological substrate. They are therefore an obstacle to mineral exploration (Payne, 1969; Pease, 2015) but have not been recognized as such in lateritic environments by exploration geologists and geochemists. Through the work of King (1948, 1967), the pediment concept also contributed to landscape evolution theories (Summerfield, 1991, pp. 457-467). However, no general agreement exists on the recognition

criteria, regional correlation and the geomorphic meaning of paleo-pediments. Remaining questions are (i) whether and how pediplains (i.e., regional surfaces of coalescent pediments) can form and be preserved over geological time-scales (10⁶-10⁷ yr) and (ii) whether they may be gauges of continental deformation or whether they have another geological signification (e.g., Tricart in Twidale, 1983; Summerfield, 1985, 1996; Thomas and Summerfield, 1987; Twidale and Bourne, 2013; Dauteuil et al., 2015; Guillocheau et al., 2015, 2017). Relationships amongst pediment development and preservation and regolith production and remobilization are exceptionally exemplified over sub Saharan West Africa. Pediment systems formed by stepwise dissection of the region West of 10°E and South of 20°N (Fig. 2) since the earliest Miocene (ca. 24 Ma) and still occupy an overwhelming part of its surface. They exclusively expose lateritic regolith and are commonly capped by ferricrete (a generic term used here for iron duricrust). The region hosts the southern West African craton, which is an important metallogenic province (Milési et al., 1992; Markwitz et al., 2016) and more specifically the largest Paleoproterozoic gold-producing region (Goldfarb et al., 2017). The ubiquitous lateritic pediments of the region therefore pose an amazing exploration challenge (e.g., Bamba, 2009). Building on decades of geomorphological investigations throughout the sub region, recent progress made at dating, mapping and regionally correlating lateritic pediments and earlier paleolandscape elements left by relief dissection (Beauvais and Chardon, 2013) offered a new perspective for deciphering denudation chronologies and landscape evolution processes on a sub-continental scale. The present contribution is a review of the West African lateritic pediment systems from the landscape to the sub continental scale. It addresses pediment landform-regolith evolution processes to (i) evaluate the factors controlling the production and preservation of pediments over geological timescales and their geological meaning, (ii) call attention to

geochemical exploration pitfalls in lateritic pediment dominated environments and provide adapted geomorphological exploration guides or strategies. The ubiquity of pediment-dominated terrains in West Africa suggests that pediments occupy vast regions of the tropical belt and calls for geomorphic reassessment of shield surfaces from both a fundamental and applied perspective. 2. West African landscape-regolith evolution models for mineral exploration and the recognition/study of pediments The "landscape geochemistry" approach to tropical geomorphology has prevailed

for decades in the exploration and surface geochemistry communities (Butt, 2016).

Following Zeegers and Leprun (1979), such an approach led to pedogenetic geochemical dispersion models elaborated for West African base metal deposits and various bedrock lithologies that consider ferricretes as forming the upper residuum of weathering profiles preserved on their parental bedrock (Butt and Zeegers, 1989; Zeegers and Lecomte, 1992; Lecomte and Zeegers, 1992; Freyssinet, 1993; Bowell et al., 1996; Tardy, 1997; Fig 1). Accordingly, ferricretes are inferred to display various degrees of geochemical dependency on the underlying bedrock via the successive horizons of the weathering profile i.e., from bottom to top: saprolite, mottled clays and carapace (Fig. 1). Within such a paradigm, variations in concentration and mode of occurrence of base metals or other elements from the bedrock to the ferricrete result from solute loss, vertical mass transfers and compaction of the residuum as a sole consequence of lateritic weathering, leading to the formation of

- geochemical dispersion halos (Roquin et al., 1990; Colin and Vieillard, 1991; Freyssinet, 1993;
- 50 148 Freyssinet et al., 2005; Fig. 3). West African exploration models consider cases where
- ⁵² 149 weathering profiles were truncated by erosion and weathering horizons deeper than the
 - 150 ferricrete are exposed or cases where such truncated profiles are overlain by unconsolidated

colluviums (e.g., Bowell et al., 1996). But ferricretes are considered as formed from in-situ regolith. A consequence of such popular landscape evolution models is that both the role of pedimentation-driven relief dissection in redistributing regolith in the landscapes and potential detrital origin of ferricretes have been overlooked for decades of mineral exploration and geochemical investigations. However, among exploration geologists, Bolster (1999) suggested that some West African ferricretes were detrital. More recently, former advocates of the in-situ paradigm such as Butt and Bristow (2013) claimed that ferricretes were "Fe oxydes-cemented sediments" and that "relief inversion [was] a very widespread and important phenomenon" in West Africa (relief inversion being a case of relief dissection that leads the lower part of an ancient landscape to become the highest part of the new landscape; see Summerfield, 1991). Those findings were actually made 60 years ago and documentation on those topics has accumulated since then from investigations by geologists, soil scientists and geomorphologists. Early geomorphological studies have shown that ferricretes occupying large surfaces of the sub region contained gravels and cobbles of Al-Fe crusts, quartz and bedrock that had no genetic relationships with their underlying saprolite or bedrock (Dresch, 1952a; Lamotte and Rougerie, 1953, 1962; Pélissier and Rougerie, 1953; Daveau et al., 1962). In the meantime, following reconnaissance by Pélissier and Rougerie (1953), Brammer (1955, 1956), Tricart et al. (1957), Michel (1959) and Vogt (1959a) showed that these detrital ferricretes capped generations of glacis - a French term for pediment(s). In his comprehensive geomorphic investigation of the Senegambia drainage basin, Michel (1959, 1973, 1974) deciphered and mapped the sequence of lateritic pediments over Central and Northern Guinea, Southwestern Mali and Senegal, (Fig. 2). More recently, glacis of Eastern Senegal and their regolith were investigated through combined petrological and near-surface geophysical investigations (electrical resistivity tomography and ground penetrating radar: Beauvais et

After Brückner (1955) and especially Hilton (1963) in Ghana (former Gold Coast), De Swardt (1964) led the way for detailed investigations of the extensive lateritic pediment systems of Nigeria that are correlated with the glacis sequence established in Guinea and Senegal (Fölster, 1969a, 1969b; Rohdenburg, 1969; Burke and Durotoye, 1971; Fölster et al., 1971; Fig. 2). Geomorphic description, petrological characterization and mapping of glacis generations were undertaken over Burkina Faso (former Haute-Volta; Fig. 2) by Boulet (1970), Eschenbrenner and Grandin (1970), Grandin (1976), Bamba (1996), Bamba et al. (2002) and Grandin and Joly (2008). Works on glacis were also extended to the neighboring area of the Republic of Niger by Mensching (1966) and Gavaud (1977). More recently, the mapping of the glacis systems in Southwestern Burkina Faso by combinations of field surveys, airborne geophysics and remote sensing was undertaken by Grimaud et al. (2015) and Metelka et al. (2018).

In Côte d'Ivoire, intensive work was undertaken on glacis geomorphology and weathering in the 1970s (e.g., Bonvallot and Boulangé, 1970; Eschenbrenner and Grandin, 1970; Boulangé et al., 1973; Grandin, 1976; Pèltre, 1977; see also Teeuw, 2002), whereas the same glacis systems were reported in Sierra Leone (Fig. 2) by Grandin and Hayward (1975) and studied by Thomas (1980, 1994), Thomas and Thorp (1985), Bowden (1987, 1997) and Teeuw (1987), although the two later authors did not explicitly refer to pediments, but to "footslope laterites (duricrust)" (e.g., Bowden, 1987). Reconnaissance by Dresch (1952b) indicates that the ferricrete-capped pediments of Niger and Burkina Faso extend over Benin (as confirmed by our field observations) as well as in Togo (Fig. 2), where they have been described as such and studied by soil scientists (e.g., Le Cocq, 1986; Meyer, 1992).

Regional typologies and systematics of glacis were defined in the seminal monographs of Michel (1973) and Grandin (1976). Three successive glacis systems have been recognized, namely the High, Middle and Low glacis, stepwise landscape dissection being documented as the key process having allowed the preservation of relict bauxitic, Intermediate and pediment landforms of each generation (e.g., Grandin and Joly, 2008; see also Beaudet and Coque, 1994; Gunnell, 2003). Weathering patterns of the glacis sequence have been treated in the reviews of Tardy (1997) and Tardy and Roquin (1998). The pediment sequence was incorporated by Burke and Gunnell (2008) into their model of the African Surface, which encompasses the entire relief of the continent and would have been generated by deformation and correlative erosion of a initially flat and low lying continent-wide surface since the Cretaceous. Remnants of each West African glacis system have been correlated and mapped regionally by combining regional field surveys, photointerpretation and the available literature (e.g., Beauvais and Chardon, 2013; Grimaud et al., 2014, 2018). The present work stems from the experience gained in the course of those regional correlations and compilations as well as our own field experience in Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, Niger and Senegal (Fig. 2). By considering pediments and glacis in the broadest sense of the definition given above, the two terms are used here interchangeably. 3. Pediments in the West African morphoclimatic sequence The West African landscape is the end product of the stepwise dissection of an old, low relief topography called the African Surface (e.g., King, 1948; Boulangé and Millot, 1988; Chardon et al., 2016). This old landscape is mantled by bauxitic duricrusts resulting from a long period of intense weathering that culminated and ended in the Early and Middle Eocene (Millot, 1970; Valeton, 1991; Colin et al., 2005; Chardon et al., 2006; Beauvais et al., 2008;

Beauvais and Chardon, 2013). The African surface is now preserved mostly as bauxite-capped mesas dominating the current landscape. The High, Middle and Low glacis mark the last main dissection stages of the African Surface. Remnants of a massive, nodular or pisolitic ferricrete-capped landscape found below bauxite relics and above the glacis have been used to define an Intermediate Surface (Michel, 1959, 1973; Vogt, 1959a). Bauxitic duricrusts of the African Surface and the ferricretes of the Intermediate Surface top thick (> 80 m) weathering profiles that are preserved on their parental bedrock (Grandin, 1976; Boulangé, 1984, 1986; Boulangé and Millot, 1988; Valeton, 1991). Each glacis system in the West African sequence shows, in most cases, evidence for duricrusting (or induration), and lateritic weathering, after its formation. Pediments/glacis are the most conspicuous and common active landforms of dry or sub-humid regions of the world (e.g., Dohrenwend and Parsons, 2009). The successive shifts from pedimentation to lateritic weathering/duricrusting of the three glacis systems are indicative of repeated transitions from semi-arid to seasonally contrasted wet tropical climate over West Africa (Tricart et al., 1957; Michel, 1973; Grandin, 1976). Duricrusting took place during climate shifts toward dryer conditions at the ends of humid weathering periods, before abandonment and dissection of one glacis system and formation of a new one (Beauvais and Chardon, 2013). Systematic Ar-Ar geochronology of K-Mn oxides (cryptomelane) from the Mn-rich duricrust and weathering profile of each member of the West African landform-regolith sequence allowed constraining their weathering and abandonment ages (Beauvais et al., 2008; Beauvais and Chardon, 2013; Fig. 4). The African and Intermediate regolith-landform associations yielded 59-45 and 29-24 Ma age groups, respectively. The High, Middle and Low glacis weathered before abandonment at 18-11, 7-6 and around 3 Ma, respectively (Fig. 4). Those age groups would therefore restrain the main pedimentation periods to 24-18, 11-7 and 6-3 Ma for the High, Middle and Low glacis, respectively (Fig. 4). Ages obtained on

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602 603 604	251	alunite and jarosite (Vasconcelos et al., 1994), although indicative of lesser weathering
605 606	252	intensities than cryptomelane, are compatible with the period of bauxite formation,
607 608	253	weathering of the Intermediate landscape until the latest Oligocene (24 Ma) and the 18-11
609 610 611	254	Ma period of High glacis weathering (Fig. 4).
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614 615	256	4. Glacis landforms and landscape chronologies
616 617	257	4. 1. Type-landforms and their spatial arrangements
618 619	258	The three generations of West African glacis remnants are best distinguished on the
620 621	259	piedmonts of topographic massifs, which form up to hundreds of meters' high residual
622 623	260	reliefs that had not been leveled by pedimentation (Figs. 5 and 6a). Those massifs are
624 625	261	typically made of greenstone belt material (andesite, basalt, gabbro, volcano sedimentary
626 627	262	rocks) or early Mesozoic dolerite sills hosted by tabular sandstones and preserved from
629 630	263	erosion thanks to their capping bauxites and/or Intermediate duricrusts. Glacis are graded
631 632	264	upward-concave surfaces sloping away from the massifs (e.g., Grandin, 1976). The stepping
633 634	265	of successive glacis relics attests to the polycyclic nature of the landscapes due to renewed
635 636	266	periods of pedimentation (Fig. 6a). The uppermost portion of an early glacis (e.g., the High
637 638	267	glacis) is commonly eroded in such a way that a peripheral hollow separates the glacis
639 640	268	remnant from its upslope relict landscape (Fig. 6a and 7a; e.g., Beauvais et al., 1999). A later
641 642	269	glacis (e.g., the Middle glacis) may shape the inner slopes of the peripheral hollow so that it
643 644	270	can reach a higher elevation than the relics of the earlier glacis (Fig. 6a). Relative elevation
646 647	271	alone is therefore not a reliable criterion to decipher glacis generations given their slopes
648 649	272	and their dissection patterns. Careful investigation of the relative geomorphic position,
650 651	273	lateral extension and age of landscape elements should therefore be preferred to establish a
652 653 654 655 656	274	glacis landscape chronology.
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659		11

Massifs to which piedmont glacis are connected may be eroded by headward river erosion so that only an inselberg (i.e., a rocky topographic massif stripped from its regolith) remains as a relic of the former bauxitic / Intermediate topography. Such an inselberg may have a lower elevation than the piedmont glacis relicts (Fig. 7) and in many instances erosion may even totally erase the massif to which glacis were connected. Likewise, glacis relict surfaces carrying cobbles or boulders of bauxites are commonly preserved in areas where no bauxite massifs remain (Bamba, 1996; Fig 7). River valleys connected upstream to peripheral hollows generally have a lower slope gradient than the early (High) glacis (Fig. 7b). Later (Middle or Low) glacis settle on their valley sides (Fig. 7b) that dip at a high angle to the earlier glacis slope direction. This implies that slope direction – and therefore surface material transport direction on the pediment – not only varies spatially for a given glacis generation (for instance for the High glacis radiating around a residual topographic massif) -it varies also from one glacis generation to the next.

Over vast granitoid or tabular sandstone / siltstone terrains, the landsurface is a multi-convexo-concave plain that is occupied by undulating glacis encompassing the entire relief i.e., from the top of smooth convex interfluves to the lower part of their concave slopes (Fig. 6b). Following Rohdenburg (1969) in his review of Southern Nigerian pediment systems, the term of rolling pediplain is used here to describe such glacis landscape regions (see also Fölster, 1969a). They have 2 to 20 km wavelength and modest (< 30 m) amplitude and may preserve a relict - and often dismantled - ferricrete inherited from a former glacis surface on their interfluves (called, in this case, residual hills) (Fig. 6b). Rolling pediplains are by far the most common regional landform associations in today's West Africa and are locally studded with relict glacis plateaus of limited extent that were not reduced to residual hills. They are mostly inherited from past glacis landscape stages. Middle glacis pediplains (Fig. 6b) are the best preserved in today's landforms although the downslope portions of such

paleolandscapes are generally re-cut by the Low glacis (e.g., Fig. 6b). Regional correlations of
glacis systems chronology may be deciphered along 10-100 km long transects going from
piedmont contexts - where the pediment stepping pattern is well defined - to rolling
pediplain contexts. Field investigations restricted to the scale of an interfluve or a few
interfluves are indeed not sufficient to elaborate a landscape chronology given the lateral
variability of the paleolandforms preservation patterns (see section 6.2).

4. 2. Relief dissection patterns

Repeated relief dissection favored the stepping of successive glacis in piedmont contexts (Figs. 8a and 8b). The relative elevation between successive glacis does not systematically decrease downslope i.e. away from the residual massif (Fig. 8a) contrary to the common slope evolution models (e.g., Summerfield, 1991, pp. 457-467). It may increase downslope toward the main drainage axes (Grandin and Joly, 2008; Fig. 8b). The dissection of rolling pediplains leads to more complex stepping patterns owing to whether erosion focused on residual hills or valleys from one glacis landscape stage to the next (Figs. 8c to 8e). Inselbergs are locally preserved on granitoid terrains. They seem to have formed by a combination of geological factors among which rock structural control, the original relief of an old and thick weathering profile and the polycyclic denudation history are the most important (Thomas, 1978, 1994).

64319In case where a glacis is not strictly stepped into an older glacis, mostly as a65320consequence of limited base-level fall (i.e., river down-cutting) during its development, a66321composite (i.e., polygenic) landsurface forms. Slight oblique leveling of the early glacis up to69322a certain elevation by the younger glacis may lead to a more or less expressed change of70323slope in that landsurface (Fig. 6). Polygenic development is also mostly expressed in the74324downslope parts of two successive glacis that merge into a single graded (and often

functional) surface, whereas they are stepped higher up in the landscape (e.g., Fig. 6a). Polygenic High/Middle glacis are observed but the most common cases of polygenic developments are between the Middle and Low glacis, particularly in dry regions (Boulet, 1970; Eschenbrenner and Grandin, 1970). In the Sahelian zone (Fig. 2) where base-level fall has been limited between the Intermediate Surface and the High glacis approaching the Niger River (e.g. Grimaud et al., 2014), polygenic glacis development is common between these two landscape systems (see also Fig. 5). Relief dissection and denudation did not allow a good preservation of High glacis stage rolling pediplains of significant regional extent with the exception of specific areas of flat sandstones. Those rolling pediplains generally have longer (>10 km) wavelength than those of the Middle glacis. Low glacis pedimentation did not produce rolling pediplains. From the Soudanian zone southward (Fig. 2), Low glacis systems mostly contributed to re-cut or straighten downslope portions of Middle glacis landscapes (often producing a polygenic surface). Further north, the Low glacis system largely developed and is still functional (see below). 4. 3. Sequential landscape development The High glacis pedimentation period has produced a multi-concave pediplain over granite-greenstone terrains or dolerite sills provinces. The pediplain was studded with relictual reliefs inherited from the bauxitic and/or the Intermediate landscape stages (Grimaud et al., 2015; Figs. 7 and 9). In other geological provinces, the High glacis landscape consisted in a rolling pediplain of long (>10 km) wavelength (e.g., Fig. 8c). Middle and Low glacis pedimentation cycles generally formed narrower valleys than those of the High glacis landscape (e.g., Figs. 8d and 8e), especially within and south of the Soudanian zone (Fig. 2). Figure 10 summarizes the sequential development of a type West African landscape. Each of

the successive landscape stages incorporates relict landforms of various earlier generations. It is a composite landsurface comprising inselbergs (not shown on the Figure), relics of the bauxitic and/or Intermediate landscapes and former glacis (Fig. 10). The Middle and Low glacis landscape stages therefore integrate increasing complexity compared to earlier landscapes. This is explained by a decreasing pedimentation efficiency manifested by generally narrower glacis widths and would be consistent with the decreasing duration of pedimentation periods through time i.e., 6, 4 and 1 My for the High, Middle and Low glacis, respectively (Beauvais and Chardon, 2013). Relics of the entire West African paleolandscape sequence are not always preserved on a 10-100 km scale (Fig. 10). Besides an evolving drainage density, landscape stages succession implies slope direction changes or reversals (Fig. 10), with implication for material transit patterns on glacis slopes through time (section 7.2). Multi-concave pediplains are mostly restricted to granite-greenstone terrains or areas of mafic substrate owing to iron-rich lithologies, which are more alterable than felsic rocks. They tend therefore to produce thick and massive duricrusts, which have a protective effect once the landscape they cap is submitted to dissection. The development of piedmont glacis is favored below scarp-bounded relict paleolandscapes, the scarp being armored by the ferricrete. In such contexts, glacis are also prone to dissection because their capping ferricretes are mostly cemented debris of Al-Fe crusts inherited from the older, inverted landsurfaces and are therefore iron-rich and resistant even though they are not underlain by mafic rocks (see section 5). Over iron-poor lithologies and away from mafic sources, both the lower iron content and thickness of the duricrusts reduce their strength. Pedimentation is therefore more efficient at leveling interfluves to produce rolling pediplains and no strict relief inversion takes place.

 4. 4. Summary

Notwithstanding the regional spatial variability of the glacis stepping patterns described above, each glacis system has type-geomorphic characteristics that may be summarized as follows (Grandin and Joly, 2008). Relics of the High glacis are abandoned as plateaus or residual hills that rarely occupy more than 20 % of the current landsurface over 100 x 100 km areas. They can attain heights of more than 100 m above the local base level for the upslope portion of very large relics and not more than 30 m for their lowermost portions along the main drainage axes. Middle glacis are generally eroded downslope and are still connected to their upslope reliefs. They are preserved as low plateaus or relictual hills in dry regions (Fig. 2), where the Low glacis developed at their expense. Large Middle glacis remnants may still be functional i.e., currently subjected to runoff and sediment transport. Low glacis occupy a large part of the landsurface and are still functional in dry climatic zones, where they are connected to the local base level. Elsewhere, river alluviums usually mask the incision of Low glacis of a few meters. Excavation of the Bauxitic African Surface varies from ca. 500 m in central Côte

d'Ivoire to less than 30 m near the Niger River in Central Mali, with a mean value around 300 m (Beauvais and Chardon, 2013; Grimaud et al., 2014; Fig. 2). Incision of the High glacis is typically of 50-80 m, whereas the High glacis pedimentation period contributed to 40-130 m of incision of the Intermediate landscape (Grimaud et al., 2018). The three pedimentation cycles therefore contributed as much excavation of the African bauxitic Surface (90-210 m) as the Intermediate period of erosion (75-200 m; Grimaud et al., 2018) over comparable time spans of 22-24 My (Fig. 2), leading to a long-term denudation rate of 3-9 m/My. Pedimentation efficiency decreased over the Neogene in West Africa. Given the glacis widths and ages in the Guinean and Soudanian zones (Grimaud et al., 2015; Fig. 2), lateral growth rate ranges of glacis would typically be of 0.75-3 km/My and 0.15-1 km/My for the High and

Middle glacis system, respectively. Given its restricted development in the same climatic zones (e.g., Fig. 7), the Low glacis system grew at lower rates (0.03-0.75 km/My), which are those of the Plio-Quaternary Southwestern United States' pediments (0.03-0.36 km/My; Dohrenwend and Parsons, 2009). 5. Glacis regolith and weathering patterns Similarly to pedimentation efficiency, the intensity of weathering and duricrusting of the glacis decreases generally from the High to the Low glacis (Boulangé et al., 1973; Grandin, 1976; Tardy and Roquin, 1998). This decrease is consistent with long-term Neogene climate cooling and the progressively shorter duration of humid periods required for the weathering of the glacis material (Beauvais et al., 2008; Beauvais and Chardon, 2013; Fig. 4). The spatial and temporal variability in the nature of glacis surfaces and regolith (Fig. 11) is further controlled by the interplay of three main factors, which are (i) the nature of the substrate cut by pedimentation, (ii) the nature, transport dynamics and degree of preservation of clastic sedimentary material that has been transiting on the glacis and (iii) the nature and intensity of weathering and duricrusting undergone by the glacis after their formation. Figures 12 to 14 illustrate field examples of the main types of glacis regolith / ferricretes and Figure 15 represents various types of regolith associations on glacis. A synthetic model of the relations between pedimentation and weathering is provided in Figure 16. 5. 1. Conglomeratic regolith, ferricrete and slope processes Remarkable and common glacis ferricretes derive from cementation of conglomeratic material transiting on the glacis surface. The most spectacular ones are matrix- or block supported debris flows. Depending on the landscape having been stripped off and the pedimentation regime, conglomerates' elements range from gravel to boulder

and consist of bauxite, Intermediate ferricrete, earlier glacis ferricrete, iron oxy-hydroxide nodules and/or quartz debris (Figs. 12b to 12e). Conglomerates' matrixes comprise reworked weathering profile materials ranging from clays to sands (former saprolite) and gravels made of ferruginous nodules and quartz debris. Apart from quartz, the occurrence of fresh bedrock clasts in debris flows is extremely rare, indicating that mostly regolith was stripped-off and/or submitted to landsliding to produce debris flows. When present in glacis transported regolith, bedrock clasts are almost always highly ferruginized to the point of being a massive ferricrete preserving bedrock structures such as schistosity. Such ferricretes are typical of the Intermediate weathering profile (Fig. 12d). Lower-slope alluvial sedimentary facies are also common, especially in the downslope parts of glacis, even though ferruginization contributed to alter sedimentary structures in glacis alluviums such as parallel and oblique stratifications and cross beds. The occurrence of rounded quartz pebbles in the most distal parts of glacis near river drains indicates that glacis pass downslope to alluvial terraces (the "glacis-terrasse" concept of Michel (1959, 1973) and Vogt (1959a)). Erosional unconformities and disconformities at the base or within the glacis sedimentary cover are consistent features of truncation and deposition by channelized to sheet flow down the glacis slopes. The most obvious (and best preserved) alluvial features are channels identifiable along the basal erosional surface of the glacis sedimentary layer (Fig. 12f). Beddings are also observed as separating successive debris flows or within sedimentary units. Sedimentary patterns vary spatially from coarse flows to braided channels at the scale of single large glacis relics. This indicates space-time interplay of debris flows and sheet floods comparable to those observed on Quaternary or functional alluvial fans and pediments of arid or semi-arid regions of the world (Bull, 1977; Oberlander, 1997; Dohrenwend and Parsons, 2009). Besides, functional glacis in the Soudanian and Sahelian

zones (Fig. 2) provide an actualistic perspective onto the sedimentary patterns and alluvial/colluvial processes having operated on the past West African glacis before duricrusting (Grandin and Joly, 2008). Water and sediment transport modes on glacis precluded the maintenance of ramified river networks but instead favored dense and unstable channel networks that were active only during rainy episodes. Rivers maintained their courses only at the downslope junctions of converging glacis, where alluvial sedimentary facies can be found (e.g., Figs. 8, 9 and 10).

Glacis conglomeratic ferricretes are usually underlain by a carapace and/or a mottled clays horizon (Fig. 15a), implying that duricrusting is confined to the conglomeratic layer. In other cases, thick conglomeratic covers are duricrusted only superficially, meaning that part of their thickness became a carapace. Glacis conglomeratic overburdens are not necessarily cemented (Fig. 12a), allowing to access original sedimentary textures that have not been obscured by iron segregation and cementation. The conglomerates and their matrixes consist almost exclusively of reworked Al-Fe duricrusts, carapace, mottled clays and saprolite, which are all rich in iron oxy-hydroxides. Large quantities of iron are therefore available in the conglomerates. Remobilization of that iron should favor cementation of the glacis sedimentary overburden by oxy-hydroxides to form ferricretes. Such cementation scenarios are attested to by the common examples of glacis ferricretes directly overlying fresh bedrock. This shows that ferricretes do not result from the sole relative accumulation of iron in a horizon of the weathering profile having successively gone through bedrock, saprolite, mottled clays and carapace stages. In other words, lateritic weathering is not a necessary condition for duricrusting (Grandin, 2008).

5. 2. Non-conglomeratic ferricretes, relationships with the underlying regolith

Some glacis ferricretes are composite, comprising an upper conglomeratic layer and a lower layer that results from iron aggradation/segregation and induration of the underlying carapace (Figs. 13 and 15b). In this case, duricrusting appears to have taken place beyond the base of the sedimentary overburden and the relative contributions of in-situ iron accumulation (from segregation within the carapace) and absolute iron input from the clastic sediments would be difficult to assess. Conglomeratic ferricretes are also seen to rest directly atop a saprolite or a saprock (i.e., basal core stone-bearing saprolite; e.g., Figs. 12b, 12f and 15c) or even the bedrock. This indicates that pedimentation truncated a weathering profile by removing its mottled clays, carapace or part or the entire thickness of its saprolite. Those truncations are currently seen in the field and have been also imaged by geophysics (e.g., Beauvais et al., 2003). The formation of iron nodules and/or iron segregation may be observed immediately under the conglomerate in the truncated weathering profile, indicating that ferruginization was not restrained to the transported sedimentary layer and that iron originated from the conglomeratic cover. Whether the weathering horizons underlying a conglomeratic ferricrete developed onto a preexisting saprolite or from pristine weathering of bedrock exhumed by pedimentation would be difficult to assess in the field. Glacis ferricretes developed from fine-grained material (clay, silt, sand or a mix of those) have vermicular to nodular structures (Fig. 14) typically resulting from the maturation of mottled clays by iron concretion/segregation (Tardy, 1997; Fig. 15d). Those ferricretes are preferentially found on the distal parts of wide glacis and are ubiquitous in rolling pediplain contexts i.e., on lower-gradient slopes than the debris flows, which are mostly restricted to piedmont contexts. In conglomeratic ferricretes, matrixes are vermicular, as is the duricrusted material underlying conglomeratic layers of composite ferricretes (e.g., Fig. 13). If a comprehensive succession of weathering horizons exists under the vermiform/nodular ferricrete down to the bedrock, the glacis surface could be considered as erosional, and the

ferricrete as genetically linked to the underlying bedrock (e.g., Fig. 15d). But weathering of a composite section made of bedrock and/or saprolite topped by a fine-grained glacis overburden would end up producing a comparable profile (Fig. 15e). Fine-grained overburdens being mostly reworked saprolite, it would be difficult to locate the boundary between the in-situ and transported portions of the section, which would have been further obscured by weathering after pedimentation, unless a major break in lithology or granulometry be identified (Fig. 15e). The very large areas of functional glacis exposing alluviums composed of clays, silts and sands suggest analog fine-grained overburdens for past glacis systems. Weathering/duricrusting of such overburdens should end up forming a typical vermicular / nodular ferricrete that may top weathering horizons mimicking those produced on bedrock (e.g., Fig. 13). Most weathering profiles of West African ferricrete-capped glacis weathering profiles may therefore be composed of fine-grained transported material instead of resulting from weathering of bedrock even though the ferricrete is not conglomeratic. There is commonly a spatial variability in the nature of the surface at the scale of a single glacis that comprises ferricrete-free surface areas and (erosional or detrital) ferricrete-capped surface areas (Fig. 11). In other words, the detrital layer does not systematically cover an entire glacis and duricrusting does not necessarily affect an entire glacis surface. Ferricrete-free glacis surfaces may be erosional and expose exhumed regolith developed from bedrock (Fig. 15f). However, the possibility that they actually expose transported (fine-

from bedrock (Fig. 15f). However, the possibility that they actually expose transported (fin
grained) saprolite that escaped duricrusting is not precluded (Fig. 15g). In this case, only a
detailed petro-geochemical investigation would allow distinguishing an in-situ saprolite
from an overlying transported layer.

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Contrary to the inselbergs and residual massifs they contributed to exhume, West12531254
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12555231255African glacis do not expose bedrock but regolith. This could suggest that weathering has

turned bedrock leveled by pedimentation into regolith. But observations along river cuts and in trenches indicate that glacis are essentially cut into a saprolite previously formed during an earlier weathering period (e.g., Figs. 11, 12b and 15). Observations of the steep stripped flanks of bauxite plateaus of dry regions show that the relief carved into the bauxitic surface by the glacis is entirely made of saprolite more than 40 m thick (e.g., Fig. 6a). With the exception of inselbergs, the lower flanks of residual massifs and low-lying outcrops exhumed after abandonment of the Low glacis, bedrock is mostly exposed in riverbeds. The ubiquity of glacis systems throughout West Africa is explained by the fact that they were easily cut through regolith instead of bedrock, as also shown for the pediments of Central Australia by Mabbutt (1966). Most of the regolith thickness available for stripping by pedimentation was likely produced by the Bauxitic (and Intermediate) periods(s) of intense lateritic weathering (Grimaud et al., 2015). The thin (< 20 m) weathering profiles genetically linked to each glacis would suggest that weathering phases following pedimentation periods produced a regolith layer available for stripping during the next pedimentation period (e.g., Millot, 1980). This hypothesis would apply to the lowermost parts of glacis cut into bedrock (e.g., cross-section, Fig. 15) and would be supported by the comparable heights of the weathering profile and the vertical separation between successive glacis. Notwithstanding the spatial variability in the nature of individual glacis surfaces and associated regolith, main type-characteristics of ferricretes and weathering patterns of each glacis system may be synthetized as follows (Grandin, 2008). The High glacis ferricrete can reach 10 m in thickness in piedmont contexts and the underlying weathering profile rarely exceeds 20 m. Middle glacis ferricretes do not exceed 5 m and are generally limited to 1 to 2 m. Their underlying weathering profile is reduced to a few meters and is not as kaolinite rich as that of the High glacis. Ferricretes of functional Middle glacis often show evidence for dissolution and end up acquiring vacuolar to cavernous textures (Leprun, 1979). The Low

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1323	549	glacis bear a thin (< 1 m) ferricrete or, more generally, at best a carapace. Carbonate
1325 1326 1327	550	concretions may develop under its erosional surface or in its sedimentary overburden and
1328 1329	551	neo-formed clays are mostly smectites.
1330 1331	552	
1332 1333	553	5. 3. Recently remobilized regolith and alluviums
1334 1335	554	Low glacis are commonly overlain by unconsolidated alluvial and aeolian sediments
1336 1337	555	(Fig. 15h), which are actively reworked by pedimentation during each rainy season
1338 1339	556	(especially in the Soudanian and Sahelian zones; Fig. 2). It is also the case for large functional
1340 1341	557	Middle glacis. Active alluvial fans also occupy upslope sections of functional glacis in
1342 1343	558	piedmont contexts, at least in the dry zones (e.g., Fig. 5). Streams that have incised the glacis
1345 1346	559	sedimentary overburden generally flow atop the ferricrete or the carapace and expose
1347 1348	560	sections that commonly exceed 2 m in thickness. Overburdens occupy huge areas and
1349 1350	561	develop soils that are exploited for agriculture. But those soils almost never derive from
1351 1352	562	weathering profiles connected to the underlying bedrock because they are transported and
1353 1354	563	almost always overly conglomeratic ferricretes (Fig. 15h).
1355 1356 1257	564	Post-Low glacis (i.e., Quaternary) river alluviums are preserved along the drainage
1358 1359	565	network and often correlate with the unconsolidated glacis cover (Fig. 11; Fig. 15, upper
1360 1361	566	cross-section). The oldest and most remarkable alluvial terrace of regional extent has been
1362 1363	567	reported and correlated from the main rivers of Northern Guinea, Senegal, Southwestern
1364 1365	568	Mali, Ivory Coast and Burkina Faso (Vogt, 1959a, 1959b; Michel, 1969, 1973; Eschenbrenner
1366 1367	569	and Grandin, 1970; Grandin, 1976). This terrace is floored by a cemented conglomerate (the
1368 1369	570	"graviers sous-berge") that occupies the riverbeds and has been incised of less than a few
1370 1371 1272	571	meters (Fig. 15). Aggradation/incision cycles younger than the conglomerate have been
1372 1373 1374 1375 1376 1377	572	recognized but no systematic regional patterns have been deciphered yet (Thomas and
1378 1379 1380		23

Thorpe, 1985; Hall et al., 1985; Thomas et al., 1985; Teeuw et al., 1991; Ouangrawa et al., 2000). 6. Extent and variability of the glacis record in West Africa 6. 1. Geomorphic provinces and areal extent of glacis The compilation of a regional landform-regolith map (Fig. 17) shows that the relics of the three glacis systems occupy an overwhelming areal proportion of the landsurface, with the exception of a few regions of specific geological substrate, topography or active sedimentation. Laterally continuous bauxite-capped landforms of the African Surface form mappable units restrained to some highly-elevated (> 500 m) areas of Pre-Cenozoic sandstones and/or high concentration of dolerite sills (Fig. 17). Paleolandscapes capped by the Intermediate ferricrete are well preserved on Cenozoic sedimentary basins and their margins, as well as on Pre-Cenozoic tabular sandstones flanked by rock escarpments (Fig. 17). The Archean and Paleoproterozoic granite-greenstone terrains, their adjoining mobile belts and the remaining tabular sediments of the sub-Saharan area are characterized by glacis composite landscapes (Fig. 17) such as those illustrated on Figures 5-8, 10 and 15. In those landscapes, the High glacis system always occurs as relict plateaus or hills. Distant relict massifs of the Bauxitic and/or Intermediate landscape and inselbergs remain (e.g., Fig. 6a). A large part of the composite glacis landscape geomorphic province is a Middle-Low glacis rolling pediplain locally preserving High glacis remnants as interfluves (e.g., Figs. 6b). The relative extent of the Low glacis system tends to grow northward going across the Soudanian zone to become maximal in the Sahelian zone where a Low glacis province is defined (Figs. 1 and 17b) as a vast and very flat pediplain with tens of kilometers-wide glacis that are functional. The efficiency of pedimentation is favored by both the Sahelian climate

1442144314441444144514451446599surface along the considered portion of the Niger River Valley (Grimaud et al., 2014; Chardon14471448600et al., 2016).

In the Saharan zone (Figs. 1 and 17b), low lands consist of active regs, dune fields (ergs) and fluvio-aeolian sandplains that mostly blanket the subdued Intermediate or Low glacis landscapes, whilst crystalline substrate generally crops out. South of the Sahelian zone, bedrock is exposed mostly on the steep dissected slopes of regional topographic massifs upon basement substrate (Figs. 1 and 17).

The bauxitic African Surface was an etchplain i.e., a low-relief continental scale landsurface underlain by a thick regolith resulting from a protracted period of intense weathering and correlatively subdued mechanical erosion. As a result of stepwise dissection of that landsurface by pedimentation, most of its regolith mantle has been removed so that sub Saharan West Africa has become a stripped etchplain, whose remnants are preserved only in a few patches of relict bauxitic landscapes (Fig. 17) and individual occurrences scattered over the sub region (Beauvais and Chardon, 2013; Chardon et al., 2016). The glacis composite landscape province (Fig. 17) constitutes the stripped African etchplain.

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14806156. 2. Climatic zonation of paleo-glacis systems and glacis degradation processes

1482616The preservation of each glacis system depends on (i) the efficiency of planation (i.e.,1483

1484 617 the capacity of pedimentation to form wide glacis), (ii) the intensity of duricrusting and (iii)

1486 618 the magnitude of glacis dismantling (Grandin, 1976). Those three factors are chiefly

1488 619 dependent on latitude (Fig. 18). Their spatial variations from one glacis system to the next

1490 620 could suggest an evolving latitudinal climatic zonation of West Africa over the last ca. 25 Ma

1492 621 notwithstanding the duration of each glacis cycle (Fig. 18).

Under dry climate, glacis tend to be preserved in such a way that duricrusting molded their pristine shape and pedimentation-driven landscape dissection leads to plateaus with sharp edges. On-going pedimentation can eventually turn the plateau into a residual hill (Fig. 19a) flanked by concave glacis slopes. Weathering is subdued during this process and mechanical dismantling of the ferricrete takes place while pedimentation disperses its erosional products downslope. Such a morphogenesis typically produces rolling pediplains (Fig. 6b). In zones of intense pedimentation, residual hills are ultimately erased to produce very low amplitude pediplains made of wide glacis. Under humid climates, and typically in the forest, weathering assists degradation of the plateau-flanking slopes that evolve by a combination of compaction of the residuum, creep and colluvial processes to acquire convex profiles, while the ferricrete is being dissolved and dismantled and collapses onto its underlying weathering profile that is reactivated (Fig. 19b). The combination of those processes produces a common type of stone line i.e., a layer of angular or sub-rounded quartz gravels and pebbles, which result from the dislocation of quartz veins by compaction. The resulting residual hills are "demi-oranges" (Thomas, 1994) that form multiconvex plains typical of today's shields' tropical rain forest (e.g., Rohdenburg, 1982; Lecomte, 1988; Bitom et al., 2004). Recent morphogenesis (i.e., having taken place after duricrusting of the Low glacis around 3 Ma ago) tends to degrade relict High and Middle glacis. Semi-arid climates of the Sahelian and southern Saharan zones favor the development of very flat pediplains, whereas the sub-equatorial humid climate of the Forest zone drives degradation of glacis to form multi-convex plains. A latitudinal gradient must exist between these two modes of modern morphogenesis across the Soudanian and especially the Guinean zones (Grandin, 1976; Figs. 1 and 17). A somewhat comparable latitudinal morphoclimatic gradient applied to each paleo-glacis system, although with potentially contrasted climatic zone widths (Fig. 18).

Such a gradient explains systematic limited planation and duricrusting in the South (Fig. 18), further enabling past and recent "humid" morphogenesis in today's Forest zone. Forest, savanna and semi-arid tropical environments have long been considered as contrasted morphoclimatic contexts (e.g., Büdel, 1982). The latitudinal climatic zonation of both past pediment systems and today's landform evolution processes over West Africa argues for a continuous spatial pattern of pedimentation - considered as the combination of all slope shaping processes – between an arid end-member and a humid Equatorial end-member across the inter-tropical zone (e.g., Holmes, 1955; Millot, 1980, 1983; Rohdenburg, 1969, 1982). 6. 3. Morphoclimatic specificity of West Africa, comparison with neighboring regions The remarkable preservation of the West African glacis systems is related to the sub region having remained for more than 100 Ma in the zone of optimal weathering conditions for the production of Fe and Al crusts (Tardy and Roquin, 1992, 1998; Fig. 2). Such a latitudinal stability is due to the pinning down of the African plate's rotation pole near the Coast of Guinea (Tardy and Roquin, 1998). Optimal duricrusting worked in two ways for the preservation of glacis. First, weathering/duricrusting produced a major original stock of iron during the bauxitic weathering period i.e., from the Late Cretaceous to the mid Eocene (with a peak between 55 and 45 Ma). This original iron stock was then recycled in the Intermediate landscape and by each glacis system (Grandin, 1976). Second, optimal conditions favored duricrusting of Al-Fe crust dispersed on glacis to form protective duricrusts that favored landscape dissection and paleo-glacis preservation. Regions located further to the East and encompassing the same current latitudinal band as sub Saharan West Africa have undergone a greater northward shift across the inter tropical zone (and beyond) since the Late Cretaceous that likely resulted in a contrasted

morphoclimatic record. Nevertheless, those regions preserve a record of stepped pediment systems that may correlate with those of West Africa (e.g., Fölster, 1964). A "High" glacis system has been reported regionally under what appears as the remnants of the Intermediate ferricrete-capped paleolandscape (De Swardt, 1964; McFarlane, 1976, and references therein) but no systematic correlation scheme has emerged yet. Further South in Central Africa, pediment systems occupy large regions around and within the Congo Basin (Ruhe, 1956; Guillocheau et al., 2015). The latter authors proposed a tentative correlation between their 9-planation surfaces model (among which the 5 latest are pediment systems) and the West African morphoclimatic sequence as synthetized by Beauvais and Chardon (2013). Degradation of glacis systems in Equatorial Africa under perhumid climates would be a challenge for regional morphoclimatic correlation across the intertropical belt. 7. Implications for mineral exploration The great extent and spatial variability of the West African glacis landform-regolith associations (Fig. 17) prompt caution when targeting suitable spots for surface sampling that would reflect bedrock geochemistry as accurately as possible. Glacis regolith profiles are indeed composite and polycyclic, resulting from uneven weathering and duricrusting of slopes cut into a pre-existing regolith and/or the bedrock and overlain by discontinuous detrital sedimentary layers. 7. 1. Accessibility to the geological substrate Glacis ferricretes all represent an obstacle to access bedrock geochemistry. There are three main reasons for this. First, they often represent sedimentary covers that are allochtonous (Figs. 15a-15c, 15e) and do not derive from their underlying regolith by weathering. Second, even if formed exclusively in-situ, and as the most evolved product of

weathering, ferricretes would have lost most of the geochemical characteristics of the bedrock (e.g., Tardy et al., 1988; Boeglin and Mazaltarim, 1989; Roquin et al., 1990). Third, solute elemental transfers through the regolith and sedimentary cover down the glacis slope can contribute to absolute elemental accumulation in the ferricrete, especially in iron (Maignien, 1958, 1966; Ollier and Galloway, 1990, Beauvais, 1999; Brown et al., 2003). Therefore, vertical geochemical mass balances through ferricrete-capped glacis weathering profiles are often misleading indicators of weathering-controlled dispersion of bedrock elemental concentrations. Ferricrete-free glacis surfaces pose another sizable exploration issue. Only erosional portions of such surfaces would provide direct access to a saprolite preserved on its parental bedrock (Fig. 15f), providing they are identified as such and not mistaken for transported saprolite (Fig. 15g). Loose sedimentary glacis overburdens (Fig. 15h) mask their substrate. They are commonly thick (> 2m), overly a detrital ferricrete and may be mistaken for soils. It is why even sampling at 50 cm depth - as often undertaken in such material - is not appropriate to attain the saprolite preserved on its parental bedrock. Only sampling of the bedrock or the in-situ preserved saprolite is reliable for characterizing the geological substrate's geochemistry (propitious locations would be edges of glacis plateaus that expose weathering horizons under the ferricrete). In all other situations, a surface geochemical anomaly on a glacis can have several meanings. In the best case, the surface is erosional and ferricrete-free, the anomaly signing an underlying bedrock concentration (e.g., Au, Pt, Zn, Cu). The present work however suggests that such configuration is rarely demonstrated. In all other - most common - cases, the anomaly would be ambiguous. It may have been "transported" with the sedimentary cover on the glacis by pedimentation (e.g., Sanfo et al., 1992) or may be the expression of a potentially complex and very wide dispersion halo having been elongated downslope. Such a halo could also at least partly result from geochemical dispersion of a bedrock anomaly through a transported

overburden by biological, gazeous or capillarity processes (Anand et al., 2014). Conversely, the absence of a surface anomaly would not preclude the occurrence of an anomaly in the underlying bedrock. In any case, landform-regolith mapping and establishment of a glacis landscape chronology are required around the sampling sites in order to (i) constrain the geomorphological context of the anomaly for locating its potential distant source or (ii) identify glacis covers that mask potential bedrock resource(s) (Bamba, 2009). 7. 2. Geomorphological exploration guides Gold anomalies in detrital glacis ferricretes overlying barren bedrock are common. Studies combining detailed landform-regolith mapping, trench studies, geochemistry and gold particles characterization allowed documenting km-scale downslope displacement of gold particles from their bedrock sources (Sanfo et al., 1992, 1993; Parisot et al., 1995;

1769 734 Ouangrawa et al., 1996; Bamba et al., 2002). For such investigations cannot be undertaken
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1771 735 systematically, the geomorphological approach may prove rewarding in constraining the
1772 736 potential bedrock source area of a transported anomaly based on the assumption that it has
1774 1775 737 been displaced down the slopes of a considered glacis.

In rolling pediplain contexts, tracing the potential upslope source of a transported anomaly should be straightforward, providing the glacis landscape has not been significantly dissected and preserved its original interfluve (e.g., Figs. 6b and 6c-6e). In such a case, the source of the transported particles cannot be located beyond the preserved glacis interfluve. In dissected rolling pediplains and particularly piedmont contexts, upslope portions of glacis are rarely preserved (e.g., Figs. 6a; 7; 10). Paleolandscape reconstruction at the time the sampled glacis was functional is necessary to evaluate the potential path followed by the glacis sedimentary cover during pedimentation. Instead of a cross-sectional approach, a three-dimensional landscape reconstruction (e.g., Fig. 7) is suitable to take into

account the entire upslope drainage area that could have supplied mineralized debris to the anomaly on a glacis. For instance, an anomaly documented in the lowermost portion of a relictual glacis i.e., close to or along a river active at the time of pedimentation, can be sourced from the erosion of all the glacis that were connected downslope to that drain upstream. For functional glacis, delimitation of the upslope area that contributed to a sampling site would be straightforward because this area is constrained by the present-day topography.

Maximal transportation distance on a glacis corresponds to the upslope distance between the considered sampling site and the drainage divide at the end of the activity of the glacis (i.e., before its abandonment and dissection). Reconstruction of the High glacis landscape suggests that paleo-glacis widths have exceeded 20 km (Grimaud et al., 2015; Fig. 10), prompting to undertake landform-regolith mapping and paleolandscape reconstruction on a larger scale than that of the immediate surrounding of the anomaly-bearing glacis relic. South of the Sahelian zone (Fig. 2), dissection of the High glacis pediplain has generally created narrower (1-10 km) Middle and Low glacis flanking subsequent valleys that are often perpendicular to the earlier main river drain delimitating High glacis (Fig. 7). Potential maximal transportation distances on those pediments are therefore reduced compared to those of the High glacis and the transport direction at a high angle to that of the preexisting glacis. The same reasoning as that exposed above applies to the tracking of the source of transported regolith upslope on the Middle and Low glacis, bearing in mind that the cover of these glacis can carry elements that may have previously been transported on an earlier glacis. Potential divide migration from one glacis landscape stage to the next should also be taken into account (e.g., Fig. 8). A given bedrock mineral concentration could indeed have been subjected to pedimentation by successive glacis of contrasting slope directions and therefore may not have always belonged to the same drainage sub-basin (Fig. 20).

Stream sediment surveys going up river would still be valid in glacis environments, providing that once propitious channel sections are selected, the upslope source tracing protocol described above for glacis environment is applied. The geomorphological exploration guides considered here do not only apply to resources transported as particles such as gold, platinum or diamond, but also to ore deposits such as copper or manganese, which can accumulate by downslope solute transfers through glacis cover (e.g., Sillitoe, 2005; Riquelme et al., 2018).

1881 780 7. 3. Targeting concealed resource

Glacis being mostly screens over the bedrock and given their extension, the biggest West African exploration challenge is to detect the resources they potentially mask. A way to contribute to targeting such resources is to identify glacis units potentially masking mineralized bedrock lithologies, structures or dikes that were first identified and mapped independently from scattered outcrops or boreholes. By combining the geological map and a landform-regolith map, one obtains by a GIS overlay operation the intersection between polygons representing glacis ferricrete units, on the one hand, and polylines or polygones representing mineralized faults, dykes or rock units, on the other hand. As an illustration of such a GIS request, Figure 21 shows gold, copper and manganese indices over Southwestern Burkina Faso as well as the High glacis ferricrete relics overlying (i.e., intersecting) bedrock lithological units bearing those indices. This representation allows (i) targeting High glacis ferricrete relics potentially masking deposits and (ii) adapting a sampling or drilling strategy accordingly. Those targeted glacis ferricrete units should then be studied in details and eventually be drilled across to attain the projected trace of the mineralized structure under the glacis cover. Such a protocol would typically reveal lateral extensions of ore bodies and

may be applied from a regional (10-100 km) (Fig. 21) to a prospect scale (0.1-1 km) if landform-regolith maps of appropriate resolution are produced.

7. 4. Other geomorphic exploration pitfalls and overlooked resources

The pervasive occurrence and preservation of convexo-concave rolling pediplains south of the Sahelian zone and the degradation of glacis into concave residual hills under equatorial environments explain why glacis may have been overlooked, especially by workers who did not investigate landforms outside the Forest zone, contrary to Grandin (1976), who worked across an entire regional latitudinal corridor. Exploration geologists have indeed implicitly interpreted residual hills as "demi-oranges" (e.g., Freyssinet, 1993; Freyssinet et al., 2005) although they may result from pedimentation in the case of rolling pediplains or from the degradation of older glacis into convex hills. A consequence of such restrictive interpretation is that ferricretes / lateritic residua are considered as formed and preserved essentially in-situ, whereas they could host material transported prior to weathering/duricrusting. A residual hill can result from the dismantling of a wide glacis on which material has been transported over several kilometers if not tens of kilometers i.e., on a much larger scale than the size of the residual hill. However, detailed exploration geochemical investigations or models are restricted to the slope of a single residual hill (e.g., Zeegers and Lecomte, 1992; Freyssinet, 1993; Butt, 2016). In glacis landscapes such as those of West Africa, landform-regolith mapping and the establishment of a landscape chronology should therefore be undertaken on a larger scale (1-20 km) than that of the considered anomaly-bearing relief (0,1-1 km). Given the alluvial nature of glacis overburdens, placers must be common on

pediments. Detailed work by Thomas and Thorp (1985) or Teuuw (1987, 2002) suggests that

alluvial diamonds are hosted by paleo-glacis systems' residual hills. Recent unconsolidated

1982		
1983 1984	821	glacis overburden is commonly mined for gold placers. Those artisanal mines are valuable
1985 1986	822	proxies of upslope bedrock mineralizations by using the geomorphological guides provided
1987 1988	823	above. Downslope parts of Low glacis and alluvial terraces host gold and diamond placers
1989 1990	824	(e.g., Hall et al., 1985; Teeuw et al., 1991; Ouangrawa et al., 1996). But older glacis ferricretes
1991 1992 1993	825	should also bear numerous unsuspected alluvial placers. Although weathering of the High
1994 1995	826	glacis has contributed locally to elluvial gold concentrations, it is mostly the thick and
1996 1997	827	mature weathering profiles of the Bauxitic and Intermediate paleolandsurfaces that have a
1998 1999	828	high - and still largely overlooked - potential of hosting supergene ore concentrations others
2000 2001	829	that those that are known and actively mined for (Al, Mn and Au).
2002 2003	830	
2004 2005	831	8. Pediments, pediplains and the topographic evolution of shields
2006	832	8. 1. Implications for pedimentation in lateritic landscapes
2008 2009 2010	833	Thanks to the protective effect of the ferricretes and limited regional denudation,
2010 2011 2012	834	there is a significant spatial and temporal variability in the glacis record from the scale of a
2013 2014	835	single pediment to that of the African sub region. As composite landform-regolith
2015 2016	836	associations, pediments erode, collect, transport, sort, transform and store regolith through
2017 2018	837	space and time. An overwhelming part the of the West African pediments are cut exclusively
2019 2020	838	in a thick (>20 m) preexisting regolith mantle and a single pediment may be both cut through
2021 2022	839	preexisting regolith upslope and through bedrock downslope. The very common occurrence
2023 2024 2025	840	of rolling pediplains also shows that pediments encompass the entire regional relief and
2023 2026 2027	841	therefore cap interfluves. The West African case study therefore suggests that lateritic
2028	842	pediments may not be appropriately distinguished by morphogenic classifications based on
2030 2031	843	(i) the shape or position of pediments in the lansdcape (Cook and Mason, 1973), (ii) the
2032 2033	844	relations between regolith and the bedrock as criteria of the pedimentation process
2034 2035 2036	845	(Twidale, 1983), (iii) the nature of the material being cut (Dresch, 1957; Tricart, 1972;
2037 2038 2039 2040		34

Oberlander, 1989) or (iv) the thickness of the transported overburden (Applegarth, 2004) (see Dohrenwend and Parsons, 2009 for review). Likewise, a comprehensive definition of the physical and chemical processes involved in pedimentation would be therefore, to our view, vain. Pre-Neogene weathering was instrumental at preparing the thick regolith mantle made available to stepwise pedimentation. But evaluation of the role of weathering during the formation of glacis would not be straightforward given the imprint of the post pedimentation weathering and duricrusting of the pediments. At best, an increasing activation / influence of the pedogenetic processes is expected in pedimentation across the latitudinal gradient towards the Equator (e.g., Millot, 1980, 1983; Rohdenburg, 1969, 1982). 8. 2. Relations to epeirogeny Pediment systems carved the African surface while it was being submitted to long wavelength (10³ km) deformation that contributed to the growth of the basin-and-swell topography of the continent after 40 Ma (Burke and Gunnell, 2008; Chardon et al., 2016). The most prominent element of that physiography in West Africa is the Hoggar swell; but more subtle uplift is also suggested along the marginal upward that constituted the eastern extension of the Guinean rise up to the Jos Plateau (Grimaud et al., 2014, 2018; Chardon et al., 2016; Fig. 2). The stepping patterns of pediment systems may not be used as a proxy of that deformation because glacis have a roughly spatially consistent and reduced (< 80 m) elevation range above local base level, which itself varies with river networks from sea level to above 1300 m for the highest regional topographic massifs excluding the Hoggar (Grimaud et al., 2014; Fig. 2). In details, the stepping pattern of successive glacis has been compartmentalized amongst sub drainage areas due to spatially variable incision of river segments bounded by stationary knickzones, which were already part of the West African landscape before settlement of the High glacis pediplain for most of them (Grimaud et al.,
2014). Furthermore, glacis systems did not level out regional rock escarpments, which were already imprinted in the Paleogene Bauxitic and (mostly) Intermediate landscapes and remained almost stationary since then (De Swardt, 1964; Grandin and Delvigne, 1969; Burke and Gunnell, 2008; Grandin and Joly, 2008; Grimaud et al., 2014, 2015; Fig. 17). Glacis systems therefore adapted their slopes to differentiated and uneven river levels and contributed in this way to distributed landscape dissection and dismantling down to the scale of lowermost-order drains a few kilometers long (e.g., Figs. 8, 9, 10). In other words, outside the provinces of relict African and Intermediate landscapes (Fig. 17), virtually no 20 x 20 km area of the West African topography escaped settlement of new glacis during the main pedimentation periods, with the exception of Low glacis pedimentation at lowermost latitudes (Fig. 18). Thorough documentation of stepwise Cenozoic dissection of the West African sub region therefore precludes the stepping of successively younger pediplains bounded upstream by escarpments, which would produce continental-scale staircase patterns of pediplains from the crest of swells down to sea level or the base level of intracratonic basins. Such a model is suggested by Burke and Gunnell (2008, their Figure 16A) on the crest and slopes of the Guinean Rise (Fig. 2). Staircase pediplains models derive from that of King (1948, 1967) in which continent-wide and flat pediplains graded to sea level form by escarpment/knickzone retreat far inland. For King, a pediplain is abandoned as a consequence of uplift by the formation of a subsequent pediplain below a new retreating escarpment, which will ultimately bound and protect the relic of the early pediplain in the continental interior. King's paradigm is also explicit in the procedure that would allow retrieving long-term continental uplift histories from the inversion of current river longitudinal profiles (Paul et al., 2014). This procedure is indeed based on a quantitative model that explicitly requires inlandward retreat of river knickzones in response to uplift and

is therefore invalidated by the well-documented West African case study (Grimaud et al., 2014). A staircase model of pediplains has also been proposed by Guillocheau et al. (2015, 2017) for the Congo basin and its surrounding swells and by Dauteuil et al. (2015) for Namibia. The definition of a pediment system by these authors as a flat pediplain connected upslope to pediments (pediment valleys) and higher up to rivers incising the older upstanding landsurface across escarpments (e.g., Guillocheau et al., 2015) therefore contrasts with that implied by the West African case study. The difference between the two models is not only conceptual. Regional correlations of West African glacis systems are based on well-preserved regolith-landform associations and geomorphic criteria, whereas those of Central and Southwestern Africa have to rely mostly on topographic correlations and escarpment identification in contexts of advanced degradation of the regolith-landform associations or in absence of type-regolith-landform associations in arid Southwestern Africa. The topographic approach would intrinsically favor a Kingian model and vice-versa. The West African case study indicates that pediments achieved local planation and formed from the development of the drainage network instead of by dominant range retreat. The difficulty to relate the regional stepping patterns of pediment systems to an inferred pattern of uplift over West Africa suggests that shield landscape dissection schemes would primarily be driven by long-term climatic oscillations driving pedimentation / weathering periods along low-abrasion capacity river networks (e.g., Tricart 1959; Beauvais and Chardon, 2013). 8. 3. Pediment landscape evolution processes and the sediment routing system Surface process models suggest that non-orogenic continental surfaces such as that of Africa develop non-steady state (transient) landscapes with a Davisian behavior of long-term decreasing slope angle (Davis, 1899; Bishop, 2007). African landscapes saw their relief

increasing throughout the Cenozoic and should then be considered as transient over the very long term. But the punctuated pedimentation scheme they developed does not match that of the Davisian cycle of erosion. The main specificity of the West African landscape dissection patterns by pedimentation is a progressively reduced area submitted to abrasion through time, leaving increasingly wider relict surfaces of limited or no denudation as a result of landscape dissection (Fig. 10). The stepping patterns of pediment systems have no clear dependency on sea level variations and/or epeirogeny and contribute to limited (3-9 m/My) and distributed denudation. In contexts of enhanced uplift and correlatively higher denudation such as the upper slope of the Hoggar swell (surface uplift and denudation > 30 m/My since ca. 35 Ma; Chardon et al., 2016; Grimaud et al., 2018), pediplains could not form or be preserved on geological time scales. Once duricrusted and/or abandoned as a result of dissection, pediments preserve

the underlying regolith from erosion. Regional-scale pediment systems (pediplains) form and maintain over geological timescales in environments submitted to low river incision or erosion rates (<10 m/Ma) and limited epeirogenic uplift. Under that condition, the maintenance of very slowly evolving pediment landscapes poses the chicken-and-egg issue of knowing whether the low erosional efficiency of pedimentation dictates the limited transport and incision capacity of the river network or vice-versa. In any case, pediments are buffer landsurfaces between the regolith mantles they contribute to exhume and the rivers they feed with reworked regolith (Grimaud et al., 2015). Pedimentation is transport-limited given the large amount of (old) regolith still being stored in West African landscapes, which generates subdued and nearly constant erosion fluxes over the long-term (< 0.01 km³/km²/My). Above a 10 m/My incision/erosion rate threshold, rupture of the pedimentation regime is expected, paleo-landforms being erased. It is only above several tens of meters per million years of long-term erosion that denudation would potentially

become measurable by low-temperature thermochronology (Beauvais et al., 2016). The regional preservation of pediments / pediplains indicative of very slow denudation should then prevent retrieval of denudation scenarios from low-temperature thermochronology for periods encompassing pediments timespan of formation and over periods following their abandonment. Dated relict pediments should be used instead as strict constraints on the late temperature-time exhumation path provided by low-temperature thermochronology.

8. Conclusions

Throughout its surface, Sub Saharan West Africa preserves three Neogene (24-3 Ma) lateritic pediment systems as well as functional pediments along the southern fringe of the Sahara. A review of the landform-regolith associations, landscape chronologies, ages and stepping patterns of the pediments as well as their spatial distribution and active degradation modes bears implications for the long-term landscape evolution processes of shields and mineral exploration strategies in the tropical belt. Those implications may be summarized as follows.

1 – Pediments occupy an overwhelming surface of the sub region and contributed to removal of a thick lateritic regolith mantle resulting from intense pre-Neogene weathering. Each pediment system formed by the process of relief dissection and incorporated landforms inherited from earlier landscapes. Depending on the nature of the geological substrate, pediment paleolandscape stages comprised regions of multiconcave pediplains and regions of multi-convexo-concave pediplains (called rolling pediplains). 2 - A great spatial diversity exists in the pediments regolith associations owing to the nature of the substrate pediments have leveled, the origin, transport dynamics and preservation of the materials that have been transiting on their surface and the intensity of weathering and

- duricrusting their have undergone. However, detrital ferricretes and loose clastic sediments

2341		
2343 2344	971	constitute by far the most common type of pediment surface. Fe-duricrusting and ferricretes
2345 2346	972	constitute a necessary condition for glacis dissection and preservation of relictual
2347 2348	973	landscapes.
2349 2350 2351	974	3 – Lateritic pediment surfaces are not suitable for geochemical sampling aiming at
2352 2353	975	obtaining reliable information about the composition of the bedrock or an elemental
2354 2355	976	concentration anomaly. The two main reasons for this are (i) the transported nature of the
2356 2357	977	material exposed at the surface and (ii) the lost of the geochemical characteristics of the
2358 2359	978	bedrock through the weathering processes.
2360 2361	979	4 - Landform-regolith mapping beyond the scale of modern interfluves followed by
2362 2363	980	reconstitution of past pediment landscape stages provides geomorphological exploration
2365 2366	981	guides for interpreting surface geochemical anomalies on pediments and tracing their
2367 2368	982	potential sources in case they have been "transported" on pediments. Mapping of landform-
2369 2370	983	regolith associations may also be used to target pediments masking suspected
2371 2372	984	mineralizations.
2373 2374	985	5 - Past and present latitudinal climatic zonation of pedimentation and weathering at the
2375 2376	986	scale of the sub region suggests a gradient of pedimentation processes from an arid to a
2377 2378	987	perhumid end-member across the intertropical zone. They also explain why pediments may
2379 2380 2281	988	have been overlooked in humid equatorial environments, with important implications for
2382	989	mineral exploration.
2384 2385	990	6 – Successive pediment systems have affected progressively reduced area over time,
2386 2387	991	preserving increasingly wider relictual landsurfaces. Climatic oscillations dictated
2388 2389	992	pedimentation-driven, local planation that adapted slopes to very large, spatially
2390 2391	993	differentiated, knickzone bearing river networks. The spatially consistent and limited (< 80
2392 2393	994	m) stepping pattern of pediments is independent from elevation or distance to base level.
2394 2395 2396 2397 2398	995	Hence, pediments and pediplains may not be used as gauges of uplift except near coastlines.
2399		40

2401		
2402		
2403 2404	996	Pediments form and are preserved regionally over geological timescales only for < 10 m/My
2405 2406	997	erosion regimes and are therefore indicators of very slow shield denudation.
2407 2408	998	7 – Lateritic pediments have been overlooked in the tropical belt because lateritic
2409 2410 2411	999	duricrusted landscapes refer exclusively to in-situ weathering of bedrock for most geologists
2411 2412 2413	1000	and geochemists. Further investigations will hopefully help deciphering pediment landform-
2414 2415	1001	regolith associations for a better access to the geological substrate of tropical shields and its
2416 2417	1002	resources that may still be underestimated. Investigating pediments as markers of past
2418 2419	1003	morphogenesis is a powerful tool for understanding surface dynamics of shields and their
2420 2421	1004	sediment routing system, which contribute to a significant proportion of the Earth
2422 2423	1005	sedimentary budget and global biogeochemical cycles.
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3350 3351 3352 3353 3354 3355 3356 3356 3357	1379	
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3363	1380	Figure captions
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3367	1000	
3368	1382	Figure 1. Definition of the main elements of a lateritic weathering profile.
3369	1383	
3371	1000	
3372	1384	Figure 2. Topography, drainage, climatic zonation and political borders of Sub-Saharan
3374	1385	West Africa. Climatic zones are adapted from Aubréville (1949). Savannas typically
3375 3376	1206	an any and the Cuincer and Courdenian Janes. For convenience, the Scheren, Schelien and
3377	1300	encompass the Gumean and Soudaman zones. For convenience, the Sanaran, Sanetian and
3378 3379	1387	Soudanian zones are grouped in the present work as "dry regions". Al: Algeria; Be: Benin; BF:
3380 3381	1388	Burkina Faso; C: Cameroon; G: Gambia; GB: Guinea Bissau; Gu: Guinea; IC: Ivory Coast; L:
3382	1200	
3383 3384	1389	Liberia; Ma: Mali; Mau: Mauritania; Mo: Morocco; Na: Nigeria; Ni: Niger; Se: Senegal; SL: Sierra
3385	1390	Leone; T: Togo.
3386	1201	
3387	1391	
3388	1392	Figure 3. Gold dispersion model through the regolith for ferricrete-capped West African
3390	1072	
3391	1393	landscapes (adapted from Freyssinet et al., 2005). The model is mostly based on the
3392		
3393 3394	1394	examples of the Syama mine (e.g., Fig. 2) and Banankoro prospect (Mali).
3395	1305	
3396	1575	
3397	1396	Figure 4. Synthetic representation (a) and Ar-Ar chronology (b) of the West African landform-
3388		
3400	1397	regolith sequence (modified after Beauvais and Chardon, 2013 and Grimaud et al., 2015). Ar-
3401	1200	
3402	1398	Ar dates (solid circles) are from Beauvais et al. (2008) for cryptomelane samples from
3403	1399	Tambao locality (Fig. 2) Ar-Ar dates from Syama (Southern Mali) are from Vasconcelos et al
3405	1077	
3406	1400	(1994) (Fig. 2). Colored vertical stripes correspond to the weathering periods of each
3407		
3408	1401	generation of landform-regolith association as deduced from Ar-Ar dating in Tambao.
3409 3410	1402	
3411	1402	
3412	1403	Figure 5. Remnants of the West African morphoclimatic sequence as exposed in the Goren
3413		9 ,
3414 3415	1404	greenstone belt near Kaya, Central Burkina Faso. Above: east-looking GoogleEarth view;
3416		
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V 16V		

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3423	1405	below: interpretation based on field survey and photointerpretation (vertical exaggeration:
3425 3426	1406	x3). Areas in white are steep post-High glacis incision slopes exposing saprolite. Position of
3427 3428	1407	the 501 m height spot is 13.040825°N / 1.211588°E.
3429 3430	1408	
3431 3432	1409	Figure 6. Sketch cross-sections of the two main glacis landscapes in West Africa. (a)
3433 3434 3435	1410	Piedmont of a bauxite-capped mesa in greenstone belt terrain (inspired from field surveys in
3436 3437	1411	the Kongoussi area, Northern Burkina Faso). Dashed lines represent the maximum original
3438 3439	1412	extent of each glacis surfaces. (b) Rolling pediplain of the Middle glacis over granitoid or
3440 3441	1413	sandstone terrains. Bedrock is shown in grey and saprolite in yellow. Note the different
3442 3443	1414	scales in (a) and (b).
3444 3445 3446	1415	
3447 3448	1416	Figure 7. Three successive glacis landscape stages of West African granite-greenstone
3449 3450	1417	terrains (modified after Eschenbrenner and Grandin, 1970). (a) High glacis stage. (b) Early
3451 3452	1418	settlement of the Middle glacis (yellow). (c) Installation of the Low glacis (light blue). The
3453 3454	1419	model is based on regional field surveys in Northern Ivory Coast and Southwestern Burkina
3455 3456 3457	1420	Faso across the Guinean and Soudanian zones (Fig. 2).
3457 3458 3459	1421	
3460 3461	1422	Figure 8. Dissection patterns of West African glacis systems (modified after Grandin and Joly,
3462 3463	1423	2008). (a) Piedmont configuration of downslope-decreasing incision through time. (b)
3464 3465	1424	Piedmont configuration of downslope-increasing incision through time. Patterns (b) are
3466 3467	1425	favored along main river segments of enhanced/accelerated down cutting (i.e., base-level
3468 3469 3470	1426	lowering), as opposed to patterns in (a) that are produced along main river segments of
3470 3471 3472	1427	mitigated/reduced down cutting (see Grimaud et al., 2014). (c)-(e) dissection scenarios of a
3473 3474	1420	Touing pediplain. A High glacis rouing pediplain (c) may be degraded in two main types of
3475 3476 3477	1429	tanuscapes depending on where dissection focuses. Landscape (d) results if erosion
3478 3479 3480		58

3481		
3482		
3483 3484	1430	predominates along the main river drains of the initial rolling plain. Landscape (e) results if
3485 3486	1431	erosion predominates in crestal regions of the initial rolling plain (black arrows point to the
3487 3488 3480	1432	main river drain i.e., the local base level). In (d), the main slope portions of former glacis are
3490 3491	1433	preferentially preserved. In (e), mostly valley bottoms of the former rolling pediplain are
3492 3493	1434	preserved. In this case, the relief inversion concept strictly applies, as lower parts of the
3494 3495	1435	ancient landscape become the highest parts of the new landscape.
3496 3497	1436	
3498 3499	1437	Figure 9. (a) High glacis ferricrete relicts over southwestern Burkina Faso. (b) Corresponding
3500 3501	1438	geomorphic map reconstitution of the High glacis pediplain (modified after Grimaud et al.,
3502 3503 3504	1439	2015).
3505 3506	1440	
3507 3508	1441	Figure 10. Idealized cross-sections of the successive landscape stages in West Africa. Black
3509 3510	1442	arrows locate the main river drains and white arrows the drainage divides. Such a landscape
3511 3512	1443	evolution model would typify the Soudanian or Sahelian zones (Fig. 2), where the original
3513 3514	1444	shapes of High and Middle glacis inverted landforms are preferentially preserved as plateaus
3515 3516 3517	1445	(see Fig. 19).
3518 3519	1446	
3520 3521	1447	Figure 11. Detailed cross-section of a Middle glacis near Bania, ca. 100 km south of the Ivory
3522 3523	1448	Coast – Burkina Faso border (modified from Eschenbrenner and Grandin, 1970). Upslope
3524 3525	1449	part of the Middle glacis is an erosional, ferricrete-free surface exposing exhumed (old)
3526 3527	1450	saprolite that was turned into mottled clays at the surface. Downslope part of the glacis is
3528 3529 3530	1451	erosional in the sense that it stripped-off the saprolite, but is depositional in the sense that it
3531 3532	1452	carries a detrital colluvial layer that passes downslope to river alluviums. The ferricrete
3533 3534	1433	developed by duricrusting of most of the transported material. A thin weathering layer
3535 3536 3537	1434	developed into the bedrock under the downslope portion of the glacis.
3538 3539 3540		59

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3543 3544	1455	
3545 3546	1456	Figure 12. Field illustrations of glacis conglomeratic overburdens. (a) Block-supported
3547 3548 3540	1457	debris flow (High glacis near Timbou, Guinea). The cobble is a bauxite. (b) Heterogeneous
3550 3551	1458	debris-flow facies underlain by dolerite core stones (High glacis near Kokoro, Burkina Faso).
3552 3553	1459	Cobbles are made of bauxite. The fine-grained saprolite and mottled clay horizons are
3554 3555	1460	missing from this weathering profile, suggesting its truncation by the debris flow. (c) Debris-
3556 3557	1461	flow with bauxite (light colored) and Intermediate ferricrete clasts in a matrix made of iron
3558 3559	1462	oxy-hydroxide nodules and pebbles (High glacis, near Basnéré, Burkina Faso). (d)
3560 3561	1463	Conglomerate comprising exclusively Intermediate ferricrete clasts (Middle glacis, near Kaya,
3562 3563 3564	1464	Burkina Faso). (e) Matrix-supported debris flow with Intermediate ferricrete cobbles
3565 3566	1465	(carapace of the Low glacis, near Matam, Senegal). (f) Basal alluvial channel carved in a
3567 3568	1466	sandstone saprolite (High glacis, south of Bobo Dioulasso, Burkina Faso). Channel material
3569 3570	1467	consists of quartz pebbles and iron nodules in a kaolinite-rich silty clay matrix. Cementation
3571 3572	1468	increases upward in the channel. Only cases (b) to (d) are ferricretes.
3573 3574	1469	
3575 3576 3577	1470	Figure 13. Photograph (left) and interpretation (right) of a composite glacis ferricrete
3578 3579	1471	composed of a conglomeratic layer overlying a vermiform facies developed from the
3580 3581	1472	underlying mottle clays (High glacis, near Tikaré, Burkina Faso). The fine-grained material is
3582 3583	1473	likely preserved on its parental bedrock from which it derived by weathering. However, a
3584 3585	1474	transported origin cannot be precluded (see text for further explanation).
3586 3587	1475	
3588 3589	1476	Figure 14. Glacis ferricretes derived from fine-grained material. (a) and (b) are exposed
3590 3591 3592	1477	weathered surfaces and (c) and (d) are fresh cuts. (a) Fine-grained nodular ferricrete (Middle
3592 3593 3594	1478	glacis, near Kedougou, Eastern Senegal). (b) Nodular ferricrete (High glacis, Niokolo Koba
3595 3596 3597	1479	national park, Eastern Senegal). (c) Vermiform ferricrete (High glacis, near Kongoussi,
3598 3599 3600		60

Central Burkina Faso). (d) Proto-nodular ferricrete (High glacis, near Tambakounda, Eastern Senegal). The iron oxy-hydroxides nodules are in dark grey / black. Nodular and vermiform ferricretes, and especially those exposed on weathered surfaces, should not be mistaken for conglomeratic ferricretes. Nodules generally have amoeboid / knucklebone shapes that distinguish them from gravels or cobbles. Figure 15. Type-logs of West African glacis. Bottom cross-sections illustrate potential geomorphic contexts of the logs. In (a), the ferricrete is confined to the cover conglomerate and underlain by a weathering profile derived from bedrock. (b) Same as (a) but with the ferricrete extending beyond the base of the conglomerate (the conglomerate may also occupy part, or the entire thickness of, the carapace). (c) The ferricrete is restrained to the cover conglomerate that rests upon a truncated weathering profile. (d) Weathering profile developed from exhumed bedrock. (e) The glacis weathering profile affects both a fine-grained transported cover and the underlying bedrock. (f) Erosional surface exposing a truncated weathering profile (mottled clays formed at the surface). (g) Fine-grained cover overlying a truncated weathering profile. (h) Detrital sediments overlying a conglomeratic ferricrete. Question marks indicate contacts that may not be readily detected between comparable saprolites of contrasted origins (in-situ and transported). Emoticons refer to the suitability of the surface sampling medium for bedrock exploration geochemistry. The problem in (d) is that the ferricrete may not be distinguished from that in (e) (see text for further explanation). On the bottom cross-section, the residuum (mostly ferricrete and carapace) is shown by a single reddish color. Cover material and weathering horizons distribution patterns may be more uneven than shown on the cross-sections and further complexity may arise from later dissection / denudation.

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3663 3664	1505	Figure 16. Denudation / weathering scenario for the establishment of a typical West African
3665 3666	1506	lateritic glacis system. (a) Cross-section of a common landform-regolith association. The old
3667	1507	surface is preserved as a mesa capped by a duricrust topping in-situ formed weathering
3670 3671	1508	profile I (i.e., for instance, the Bauxitic or Intermediate landsfurface). The younger surface is
3672 3673	1509	a glacis whose development led to relief dissection of the upper/older surface. (b) Sequential
3674 3675	1510	development of the regolith profile for a given column located in (a). Stage 1 results from
3676 3677	1511	older weathering (and therefore dominant "chemical" denudation) leading to the
3678 3679	1512	establishment of landscape I and its underlying weathering profile (I). Stage 2 shows the
3680 3681	1513	configuration after shaping of the glacis by pedimentation, which has stripped off
3682 3683	1514	weathering profile I and eroded part of the underlying bedrock. Stage 3 shows the
3684 3685 3686	1515	configuration after the weathering (II) and ultimate duricrusting of the glacis surface
3687 3688	1516	(ferricrete is restricted here to the transported overburden; e.g., case of Figs. 15a-15c) as a
3689 3690	1517	consequence of climate change. Columns in (a) and (b) are not to scale. Paleolandscape I
3691 3692	1518	could as well be a preexisting glacis. In this case, weathering profile I could already be
3693 3694	1519	composite (with an in-situ and a transported part).
3695 3696	1520	
3697 3698	1521	Figure 17. Simplified geology (a) and regolith-landform map (b) of West Africa. Landform-
3699 3700	1522	regolith provinces are distinguished on the basis of the generation of landform-regolith
3701 3702	1523	association best preserved in the present-day landscape. (a) is adapted from Ye et al. (2017);
3703 3704 3705	1524	(b) is from the present work. See Figure 2 for comparison with topography and climatic
3706 3707	1525	zonation. The sedimentary cover is overwhelmingly silico-clastic and mainly consists of
3708 3709	1526	sandstones and siltstones. The main rivers are shown both in (a) and in (b).
3710 3711	1527	
3712 3713	1528	Figure 18. Paleo-zonation of the development and preservation patterns of the West African
3714 3715	1529	glacis systems (modified after Grandin, 1976).
3716 3717		
3718 3719		62
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3723	1530	
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3726	1531	Figure 19. Comparative scenarios of glacis ferricrete plateau degradation leading to a
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3728	1532	residual hill. (a) Under arid or semi-arid climate. (b) Under humid climate typical of rainforest
3729		
3730	1533	environments (modified after Grandin, 1976).
3731	1524	
3732	1534	
3734	1535	Figure 20 Cross-section illustrating transport of mineralized material on successive glacis to
3735	1555	Figure 20. closs section indistrating transport of initeralized material of successive glacis to
3736	1536	form "transported" geochemical anomalies. The black star represents a surface geochemical
3737		
3738	1537	anomaly expressed through a weathering profile and the white stars represent anomalies
3739		
3740	1538	mechanically transported on glacis. Large grey arrows show material transport paths on
3742	1 = 0 0	
3743	1539	glacis. Mineralization B first produced a dispersion halo and a surface anomaly through the
3744	1540	old weathering profile. This mineralized weathering profile was then stripped off by
3745	1340	old weathening prome. This mineralized weathening prome was then scripped on by
3746	1541	pedimentation to form glacis 1, eventually leading to a transported anomaly on the new
3748	1011	
3749	1542	glacis surface. Formation of glacis 2 later led to reworking of the same mineralization that
3750		
3751	1543	was still preserved under glacis 1. But this time, because of the creation of a new drainage
3752		
3754	1544	divide, mineralized elements were transported in an opposite direction down the glacis 2
3755	1545	clone. Redrock mineralization R is currently concealed under glacis 2
3756	1343	slope. Dedrock mineralization bis currently conceated under glacis 2.
3757	1546	
3758	1010	
3759	1547	Figure 21. Gold and copper occurrences and High glacis ferricrete remnants overlying
3761		
3762	1548	mineralized bedrock map units, Southwestern Burkina Faso (same map area as Fig. 9).
3763		
3764	1549	Sources are Baratoux et al. (2011) and Metelka et al. (2012) for bedrock geology and Castaing
3765	1550	at al. (2002) and the 1/200,000 scale geological mans for mineral accurrences (artisanal and
3767	1550	et al. (2003) and the 1/200,000 scale geological maps for mineral occurrences (artisanal and
3768	1551	industrial mining sites, prospects and soil geochemical anomalies). Specific mineralized
3769	1001	
3770	1552	bedrock map units such as detrital sediments and ultramafic rocks are too small to be
3771		
3772	1553	represented at this scale (4 and 0.4 km ² for the entire map area, respectively).
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3775	1554	
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Chardon et al., Figure 13



Chardon et al., Figure 14







Chardon et al., Figure 17















