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Increased landslide activity on forested hillslopes following two recent volcanic eruptions in Chile

Oliver Korup  1,2*, Jan Seidemann  ¹ and Christian H. Mohr ¹

lInstitute of Environmental Science and Geography, University of Potsdam, Potsdam, Germany. ²Institute of Geosciences, University of Potsdam, Potsdam, Germany. *e-mail: oliver.korup@geo.uni-potsdam.de

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Oliver Korup^{1,2*}, Jan Seidemann¹, Christian H. Mohr¹

¹Institute of Environmental Science and Geography, University of Potsdam, **Germany** ²Institute of Geoscience, University of Potsdam, Germany *Corresponding author (oliver.korup@geo.uni-potsdam.de)

Supplementary Information

Rainfall data. The conditions for rainfall-triggered landslides can be approximated by critical values of rainfall intensity, duration, and totals at which slope failure occurred^{S1,S2}. To check whether the landslides that we mapped were linked to spells or periods of high rainfall instead of tephra deposition, we compiled and analysed freely accessible daily rainfall data from ten climate stations^{S3} within a 100-km radius of Chaitén and Puyehue volcanoes (Figure S1). Some close-by candidate rain gauges had many missing records, so that we used the most complete 15-year periods roughly centred on the eruption dates (Figures S2, S3).

Figure S1. Map of ten rain gauges (http://www.cr2.cl/datos-de-precipitacion/) within 100 km of Chaitén and Puyehue volcanoes, southern Chile. Shaded topography taken from SRTM digital elevation data (https://www2.jpl.nasa.gov/srtm/).

Figure S2. Differences in daily rainfall (medium blue bars) as a proxy of rainfall intensity at Puerto Cárdenas, SSE of Chaitén volcano. Dark blue jagged line is 28 day centred running mean and highlights seasonal cycles. Horizontal dashed line is 95th percentile, and blue circles mark values above this threshold. Vertical red dashed line marks eruption date of Chaitén volcano, and black thick line is estimated cumulative landslide area mapped from satellite images. Note the two major data gaps, the first around the time of the eruption.

Figure S3. Differences in daily rainfall (medium blue bars) as a proxy of rainfall intensity at Futacuhuin, WSW of Puyehue volcano. Dark blue jagged line is 28-day centred running mean and highlights seasonal cycles. Horizontal dashed line is 95th percentile, and blue circles mark values above this threshold. Vertical red dashed line marks eruption date of Puyehue volcano, and black thick line is estimated cumulative landslide area mapped from satellite images.

Apart from using the raw daily rainfall data [mm], we also computed the differences in daily rainfall [mm] and their 95th percentiles to capture high-intensity storms; rainfall totals [mm] separated by at least one day without rain; and the number of consecutive days with and without rain. We used a Bayesian robust linear regression with $\eta = 10$ degrees of freedom (see Methods) to estimate trends in daily rainfall; the 95th percentile of differences in daily rainfall; rainfall totals separated by at least one dry day; and the consecutive number of days with and without rain for each station between 2002 and 2017.

We find that all stations reveal either no credible trends (in the Bayesian sense, and analogous to 'statistically significant' in frequentist statistics) or weak, though credible, negative trends in these rainfall characteristics; the only exception is that most stations show a credible positive trend in the number of consecutive days without rain (Tables S1, S2).

Table S1. Trends of rainfall data at gauges near Chaitén and Puyehue volcanoes, southern Chile, between 2002 and 2017. We estimated the trends from a Bayesian robust linear regression with $\eta = 10$ degrees of freedom of (a) daily rainfall [mm], and (b) the number of consecutive days without rain, as a function of time. We summarise the posterior distributions of the slopes from this robust regression using their 95% highest density intervals. Grey shades mark posterior trends that are indistinguishable from zero with 95% probability.

*Rainfall records terminated with the 2008 eruption of Chaitén volcano.

Table S2. Trends of rainfall data at gauges near Chaitén and Puyehue volcanoes, southern Chile, between 2002 and 2017 (see Table S1). We estimated the trends from a Bayesian robust linear regression with $\eta = 10$ degrees of freedom of (a) the 95th percentile of daily differences in rainfall [mm]; (b) the rainfall totals [mm] per event, defined here as the number of consecutive rainy days separated by at least one day without rain; and the number of consecutive days with rain (c), all as a function of time. We summarise the posterior distributions of the slopes from this robust regression using their 95% highest density intervals. Grey shades mark posterior trends that are indistinguishable from zero with 95% probability.

*Rainfall records terminated with the 2008 eruption of Chaitén volcano.

We infer from these trend estimates that local and regional rainfall totals, duration, and daily changes remained comparable in the years before and after the eruptions of Chaitén and Puyehue volcanoes; if anything, conditions became slightly drier. The distribution of rainfall intensity that we estimated with the 95th percentile of daily differences in rainfall is similar before and after the eruptions (Figures S2, S3), revealing no obvious change in the pattern of high-intensity rainstorms.

We emphasise that this rainfall analysis is only broadly informative, as the exact timing of the landslides that we mapped from satellite images remain elusive. Most of the rain gauges are below 350 m a.s.l., and may not capture topographic effects on rainfall in the Patagonian fjords, or possible local thermal or chemical atmospheric disturbances during and after the volcanic eruptions. Yet we find it highly plausible that the landslides studied were triggered during or shortly after rainstorms, especially in the absence of any major earthquakes during our study period. Rain-on-snow or rapid snowmelt events could be other candidates for triggering the post-eruptive landslides, but the clustered distribution of slope failures in the wind shadows close to the volcanoes requires that this trigger be very localised. Higher heat flux near the volcanoes may have caused more winter precipitation to fall as rain. In any case, we recall that our study focuses on the causes (tephra deposition and tree dieback), instead of the triggers (most likely rainfall), of these post-eruptive landslides.

Landslide data. We used freely available LANDSAT and Sentinel-2 satellite imagery (https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/, https://sentinel.esa.int/) to map landslides before and after the eruptions of Chaitén and Puyehue volcanoes (see Methods, Table S3). Judging from time series of individual landslides, we found that fresh scars remained visible for at least ten years as bright patches in the otherwise dark green rainforest. We therefore assumed that the earliest landslides that we mapped from 2001 imagery date back into the 1990s at least.

Table S3. Satellite images used for landslide mapping around Chaitén and Puyehue volcanoes. We also used satellite images and high-resolution air photo from a digital globe (https://www.google.com/intl/de/earth/) for systematic crosschecks. Where cloud cover or image boundaries limited our mapping, we merged the results from images in close temporal succession, and used the mean date as the time stamp.

In the field we measured in detail the geometry of 15 post-eruptive landslides around Chaitén volcano from photogrammetric unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) surveys (see Methods). At six additional landslides close to roads or footpaths we used a measuring tape and an inclinometer to randomly check local landslide scar and deposit depths. At none of these sites did we find deposits thicker than about 2 m. From the UAV surveys, we obtained full-colour orthophoto mosaics that we sampled to a nominal pixel resolution of 0.125 m, and digital elevation models with a nominal pixel resolution of 0.25 m. We computed and superimposed 1-m contours to visually enhance the orthophotos that we draped over the hillshaded digital topography, and to aid landslide mapping at a maximum scale of 1:100 (Figure S4).

Figure S4. Orthophoto derived from an eBee RTK unmanned aerial vehicle of Rayas River on the NE slopes of Chaitén volcano, February 2018. Coordinates refer to UTM zone 18S; spacing of crosses is 1 km. We used a photogrammetric analysis (structure-from-motion) to generate a digital elevation raster with 0.25 m nominal resolution. Bright hairpin-shaped patches in the lower right of the image are shallow post-eruptive landslides.

We chose this scale to avoid mapping spurious details or noise arising from local pixel errors. We did not correct the elevation data for effects of forest vegetation that in the landslide scars especially enhanced or exaggerated the local surface changes due to slope failure. Hence, we refrained using any automatic cut-and-fill methods to estimate landslide volumes and manually mapped footprint planform areas first. In a next step we approximated the former ground surface in landslide scar and deposit areas by connecting with straight lines the intersection of contour lines with the landslide outline. This approach simplistically assumes a planar

ground surface prior to slope failure, but is the most objective and reproducible approach for estimating mean scar and deposit depth per contour (Figure S5).

Figure S5 a. Example of an orthophoto mosaic derived from an UAV survey of a shallow soil/debris landslide (bright) in dense rainforest (dark) ~8 km south of Chaitén volcano (Figure 5b). b. Contrast-adjusted orthophoto draped over a digital elevation model obtained via structure-from-motion photogrammetry using a dense point cloud interpolation. Contour spacing is 10 m for clarity, although we used 1-m contours for landslide mapping, based on a nominal 0.25-m raster resolution. The original pixel resolution of the orthophoto was 0.07 m. Total vertical drop height of the landslide is 480 m.

We estimated the total landslide volume by adding up these individual sliced estimates; where possible we measured both scars and deposits (Table S4). From independent repeat digital mapping we estimate a mean relative error in landslide

area of the order of $\frac{+}{-}$ 5%.

Table S4. Estimated landslide footprint areas and volumes derived from photogrammetric UAV surveys in the vicinity of Chaitén volcano, February 2018. Areas were obtained by repeatedly digitizing the high-contrast outlines of highly reflective landslide scars and deposits that stood out from the surrounding dark vegetation in high-resolution orthophoto mosaics. Coordinates are for UTM zone 18S and approximately locate the landslide head scarps. Volume type refers to estimates of either the entire landslide scar and deposit ('Total') or only the scar area ('Scar'). We rounded all figures eventually to avoid spurious volumetric estimates.

*Estimate partly augmented by local field measurements.

Volcanoes and forest cover in Chilean Patagonia. To estimate to first order the regional long-term relevance of post-eruptive landslides in forests killed or damaged by tephra, we compiled published data on explosive eruptions in the Andean Southern Volcanic Zone (SVZ) of Chile^{S4}. Maps of reconstructed tephra thickness from Late Glacial to Holocene eruptions show that most of the land area in the Patagonian fjords between 41°S and 46°S had fallout of at least 0.1 m (Figure 11 in ref. S4). Most post-eruptive landslides around Chaitén and Puyehue volcanoes detached where tephra was 0.05-0.2 m thick, so that 0.1-m isopachs might roughly delineate focus areas of post-eruptive slope instability. At least eleven eruptions with an estimated Volcanic Explosivity Index (VEI) of 4.5 to 5.5 occurred in the past 10,500 years, covering more than 10,260 km^2 beneath >0.1 m of tephra (Tables 4, 5 in ref. S4). Based on 53 documented eruptions with $VEI > 3$ since Late Glacial times, we estimate a recurrence interval of <275 years (ref. 8). However, a local study^{S5} of 26 tephra layers preserved in a lake near Chaitén identified many more eruptions from this and nearby Minchinmávida volcano, and proposed a median recurrence interval of 310 years from both sources in the past 10,000 years; eruptions of Chaitén volcano alone had a median recurrence interval of 200 years in the past millennium.

To estimate the impacts of explosive eruptions on rainforests in the region, we estimated the percentage of tree and water cover around

- (a) 56 volcanoes that were active in the Holocene between 35 \textdegree S and 55 \textdegree S; and
- (b) 19 volcanoes between 41°S and 46°S (including Puyehue and Chaitén), which is a segment with a detailed eruption history $^{\textrm{S4}}$.

We used a 30-km radius around each volcano; this radius captured most of the post-eruptive landslide activity linked to forest dieback around Chaitén and Puyehue volcanoes, and also roughly approximates the average distance between most neighbouring volcanoes.

Figure S6. Area-weighted average tree and water cover [%] within 30 km of each of 56 Andean volcanoes that had been active in the Holocene. Tree cover (green bars) is averaged over all pixels in this circular area that had a normalised difference vegetation index (NDVI) indicative of forest¹⁸ in the year 2000; percentage of water cover (blue circles) is from the same study¹⁸. Distance scale is in coordinates of UTM zone 18S.

We find that, within 30 km of each of the 56 Andean volcanoes, mean areaweighted tree cover¹⁸ was 48 ⁺/₋4% (and 69 ⁺/₋4% between 41°S and 46°S) in the year 2000 (Figure S6; $⁺/₋$ refers to standard errors of the means). This tree cover</sup> estimate is corrected for the many fjords and lakes south of 39°S in particular. On average 9 $\frac{+}{-}$ 1% of the area within 30 km of each volcano is covered by water; between 41°S and 46°S this average water cover is 16 $^{\text{+}}$ / 3%, so that sediments and biomass mobilised after volcanic disturbance have short transport distances to fjords and lakes.

For estimating regional rates of organic carbon erosion following explosive eruptions, we consulted published data from temperate rainforests (Table S5). Undisturbed Andean forests at ~37°S have an above-ground biomass of 50-64 tC ha⁻¹, and 2.7 to 3.5 times more soil organic carbon (OC)^{S6}. Nothofagus antarctica forests have an average live biomass of about 84 tC ha⁻¹, and their soils can have up to twice as much OC^{ST} . Given the much higher carbon stock estimates for temperate rainforests between 41°S and 46°S, we conservatively assume a minimum average forest biomass of 100 tC ha⁻¹ (200 t C ha⁻¹) between 35°S and 55°S (41°S and 46°S).

Location	OC stock	Description	Ref.
	[tC ha ⁻¹]		
Southern Patagonia, Chile	40-153	Live tree biomass of Nothofagus antarctica stands, partly	S7
		model-based	
E Twin Creek, B.C., Canada	388	Total forest stock, uncut old growth inland temperate	S8
		rainforest	
Lunate Creek, B.C., Canada	574	Total forest stock, uncut old growth inland temperate	S8
		rainforest	
Minnow Creek, B.C., Canada	402	Total forest stock, uncut old growth inland temperate	S8
		rainforest	
Chiloé, Chile	58-76	Large woody debris, selectively logged old growth	S9
		temperate rainforest	
Chiloé, Chile	180-381	Large woody debris, gap-phase dynamics in old growth	S9
		temperate rainforest	
New Zealand (averaged over plots)	132	Total forest ecosystem stock of 25-year old Nothofagus	S ₁₀
		solandri var. cliffortioides	
New Zealand (averaged over plots)	230	Total forest ecosystem stock of 125-year old Nothofagus	S ₁₀
		solandri var. cliffortioides	
Craigieburn Range, New Zealand	152-219	Total forest stock of 125- to >150-year old, partly	S ₁₁
		disturbed, Nothofaqus solandri var. cliffortioides	
Craigieburn Range, New Zealand	114	Total forest stock of 25-year old sapling stands of	S ₁₁
		Nothofagus solandri var. cliffortioides	

Table S5. Reported average organic carbon (OC) stocks in temperate rainforests estimated from field-based (plot-scale) studies.

In total, we estimate that at least 0.44 Gt C of forest biomass is within 30 km of the 56 volcanoes. Multiplying the assumed minimum forest biomass of 100 tC ha⁻¹ $(200 \text{ tC} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ by the local average tree cover, we estimate to first order that forests within 30 km of a given volcano store 12.1 $^+$ / \sim 7.7 Mt C on average ($^+$ / \sim 1 σ) in the greater region; between 41°S and 46°S, this estimate is 32.4 $^+$ /₋ 8.9 Mt C. We double these estimates to account for soil OC, which we assume to be at least as much as that in the living biomass.

Assuming, for the sake of argument, that the average percentage tree cover has remained constant during the past millennia, we can estimate to first order the mean annual OC yields from post-eruptive landslides within 30 km of a given volcano, and for a specified recurrence interval. Following the eruptions of Chaitén and Puyehue, landslides mobilised roughly 1-5% of the estimated forest biomass in a 30-km radius around the volcanoes, so that we consider a range of 1-10% for estimating the local average OC yields (Table S6).

Table S6. First-order estimates of local average annual organic carbon (OC) yields from landslides following explosive eruptions in the Southern Volcanic Zone, assuming that each eruption (VEI >3) with specified recurrence interval causes forest dieback after tephra fall, and that landslides erode the specified fraction of thus killed forest. The term 'local' refers to a circle of 30-km radius around a given volcano, corrected for fjord and lake areas. See text for estimates of mean OC stocks; factor two accounts for soil organic carbon (error bars are $^+$ /₋₁ o). Note that estimated OC yields refer to mass mobilised by landslides only, and reveal nothing about storage or eventual burial or oxidation.

We conservatively estimate that post-eruptive landslides may erode between 0.4 and 10 tC km^{-2} yr⁻¹ on average from disturbed forests within 30 km of a given volcano in the SVZ over several millennia. We stress that OC yields were much higher in the first decade following the eruption, especially at the scale of single catchments. Landslides in the Rio Blanco catchment (77 km²), which drains most of the southern flanks of Chaitén volcano, had eroded 265 $^{\text{+}}$ / -- 22 tC km⁻² yr⁻¹ in the first eight years after the 2008 eruption. This estimate is based on a specific landslide erosion of 4,240 $^{\circ}$ / -- 423 t km⁻² yr⁻¹, and a mean OC content of 4.6% in deposits with a bulk density of 0.9 t m^{-3} . The resulting OC yield exceeds decadal yields from rainfall-induced landslides in temperate rainforest in the Southern Alps, New Zealand³⁰, and tropical cloud and rainforest in the Peruvian Andes³¹. Even if conservatively assuming a minimum soil OC content of 0.8% around Chaitén⁸, we obtain a post-eruptive landslide erosion rate of 103 $^{\circ}$ / $_$ 3 tC km⁻² yr⁻¹, which is still among the highest reported. Post-eruptive landslide activity similarly peaked in the first four years following the 1980 eruption of Mount St. Helens^{S14}, but the associated OC yields remain unknown. Given recurrence intervals of 200-300 years for explosive volcanic eruptions near Chaitén^{S5}, and landslide erosion similar to that following the 2008 eruption, the long-term average OC yield by post-eruptive landslides could be as high as 50-80 tC km^{-2} yr^{-1} in the Rio Blanco catchment, and thus an order of magnitude higher than our regional estimates. These estimates cannot reveal the eventual fate of the organic carbon mobilised, which may be partly stored in low-order catchments, floodplains, or river deltas, or gradually broken down and oxidised during intermittent transport. In this context, sedimentary archives in nearby fiords or lakes S15 may be amenable for reconstructing carbon</sup> sequestration and for further constraining these rates.

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