#### AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

<u>Nicholas T. Legg</u> for the degree of <u>Master of Science</u> in <u>Geology</u> presented on <u>March 15, 2013</u> Title: <u>Debris Flows in Glaciated Catchments: A Case Study on Mount Rainier, Washington</u> Abstract approved:

#### Andrew J. Meigs

Debris flows, which occur in mountain settings worldwide, have been particularly damaging in the glaciated basins flanking the stratovolcanoes in the Cascade Range of the northwestern United States. This thesis contains two manuscripts that respectively investigate the (1) initiation processes of debris flows in these glaciated catchments, and (2) debris flow occurrence and its effect on valley bottoms over the last thousand years.

In a 2006 storm, seven debris flows initiated from proglacial gullies of separate basins on the flanks of Mount Rainier. Gully heads at glacier termini and distributed collapse of gully walls imply that clear water was transformed to debris flow through progressive addition of sediment along gully lengths. In the first study, we analyze gully changes, reconstruct runoff conditions, and assess spatial distributions of debris flows to infer the processes and conditions necessary for debris flow initiation in glaciated catchments. Gully measurements suggest that sediment bulking requires steep gradients, abundant unstable material, and sufficient gully length. Reconstruction of runoff generated during the storm suggests that glaciers are important for generating the runoff necessary for debris flow initiation, particularly because infiltration capacities on glacial till covered surfaces well exceed measured rainfall rates. Runoff generation from glaciers and abundant loose debris at their termini explain why all debris flows in the storm initiated from proglacial areas. Proglacial areas that produced debris flows have steeper drainage networks with significantly higher elevations and lower drainage areas, suggesting that debris flows are associated with high elevation glaciers with relatively steep proglacial areas. This correlation reflects positive slope-elevation trends for the Mount Rainier volcano. An indirect effect of glacier change is thus the change in the distribution of ice-free slopes, which

influence a basin's debris flow potential. These findings have implications for projections of debris flow activity in basins experiencing glacier change.

The second study uses a variety of dating techniques to reconstruct a chronology of debris flows in the Kautz Creek valley on the southwest flank of Mount Rainier (Washington). Dendrochronologic dating of growth disturbances combined with lichenometric techniques constrained five debris flow ages from 1712 to 1915 AD. We also estimated ages of three debris flows ranging in age from ca. 970 to 1661. Run-out distances served as a proxy for debris flow magnitude, and indicate that at least 11, 2, and 1 debris flow(s) have traveled at least 1, 3, and 5 km from the valley head, respectively since ca. 1650. Valley form reflects the frequencymagnitude relationship indicated by the chronology. In the upper, relatively steep valley, discrete debris flow snouts and secondary channels are abundant, suggesting a process of debris flow conveyance, channel plugging, and channel avulsion. The lower valley is characterized by relatively smooth surfaces, an absence of bouldery debris flow snouts, few secondary channels, and relatively old surface ages inferred from the presence of tephra layers. We infer that the lower valley is deposited on by relatively infrequent, large magnitude, low-yield strength debris flows like an event in 1947, which deposited wide, tabular lobes of debris outside of the main channel. Debris flows during the Little Ice Age (LIA) predominantly traveled no further than the upper valley. Stratigraphic evidence suggests that the main Kautz Creek channel was filled during the LIA, enhancing debris flow deposition on the valley surface and perhaps reducing runout lengths. Diminished areas and gradients in front of glaciers during the LIA also likely contributed to decreased run-out lengths. These findings suggest that changes in debris flow source and depositional zones resulting from temperature and glacier cycles influence the magnitude and run-out distances of debris flows, and the dynamics of deposition in valley bottoms.

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# Debris Flows in Glaciated Catchments: A Case Study on Mount Rainier, Washington

by Nicholas T. Legg

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I understand that my thesis will become part of the permanent collection of Oregon State University libraries. My signature below authorizes release of my thesis to any reader upon request.

Nicholas T. Legg, Author

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First Manuscript: Dr. Andrew Meigs contributed ideas and support relating to project design, logistics, and funding procurement. He also reviewed the manuscript. Dr. Gordon Grant helped conceptualize the project and reviewed the manuscript. Paul Kennard provided "on-the-ground" knowledge of Mount Rainier geomorphology, and logistical and field support through this study.

Second Manuscript: Dr. Andrew Meigs contributed ideas and support relating to project conceptualization, design, logistics, and procurement of funding. He also assisted with data collection in the field, and reviewed the second manuscript. Dr. Gordon Grant helped conceptualize the project, provided logistical support, assisted with funding procurement, and reviewed the manuscript. Paul Kennard provided scientific, logistical, and field support through the entire project.

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### 1 Introduction

Debris flows are a slurry of sediment and water that initiate on steep slopes and run-out to distances that can impact communities, cause loss of life, and damage infrastructure (Iverson, 1997). Debris flows occur in environments ranging from tectonically-active mountain ranges, basins recently burned by wildfire, and glaciated alpine settings (Stock and Dietrich, 2003; Wells, 1987; Moore et al., 2009). A devastating precipitation-induced debris flow in 1999 initiated from a tectonically-active mountain range, inundated the city of Vargas, Venezuela, and sadly killed more than 15,000 people (Larsen et al., 2001). In 2003, recently burned watersheds of the San Gabriel Mountains rimming Los Angeles, California unleashed numerous debris flows that killed 16 people (Cannon and Gartner, 2005). In the Pacific Northwest, a 2006 storm induced debris flows from glaciated catchments on multiple volcanic peaks, causing infrastructure damages in the millions of dollars (Lancaster et al., 2012). These examples of debris flow impacts demand that we understand the processes controlling their occurrence.

Steep slopes and incompetent bedrock combine to make stratovolcanoes some of the most erodible landforms on Earth. In the Cascade Range of the northwestern United States, andesitic volcanoes have large glaciers, causing rapid erosion and enormous sediment loads in rivers draining their slopes (Czuba et al., 2011; Czuba et al., 2012). This sediment poses challenges to dam operators and river managers by filling reservoirs, aggrading channels, and decreasing the flood conveyance capacity of channels (Czuba et al., 2010). Sediment transport and mass movement processes on volcanic slopes therefore link volcano erosion with management of rivers downstream. Moreover, recent debris flows have caused concern that change in climate and related factors like increasing storm intensity, retreating glaciers, and reduced snow-packs may cause more debris flows in the future, yet these interactions remain poorly understood.

How might debris flow occurrence change in glaciated catchments as climate warms? Warming climate can change seasonal precipitation patterns, snow levels, storm intensities, or cause glaciers to retreat (Mote, 2003; Mote et al., 2003; Moore et al., 2009). At first inkling, some of these changes have seemingly obvious effects on debris flow occurrence; for instance, increases in storm frequency should have corresponding increases in debris flow activity. Yet, underlying geomorphic thresholds may confound these simple predictions (Schumm, 1979). What controls

a watershed's response and sensitivity to change? Bovis and Jakob (1999) showed that basins with abundant debris supply had debris flow frequencies closely coupled with storm frequencies, whereas basins with limited debris supply were insensitive to storm frequency (Figure 1-1). Their findings show that we must account for the geology and geomorphology of an area before attempting to predict responses of debris flow occurrence to climate change.

This study seeks to better constrain the geomorphic processes and conditions that lead to debris flow occurrence on Mount Rainier and on other volcanoes in the Cascade Range. Our driving questions are:

- What factors influence the occurrence of debris flows in glaciated basins? How do these factors respond to fluctuations in climate and glaciers?
- How has debris flow occurrence changed in response to climate and glacier fluctuations in the past? How do observed patterns inform projections of future debris flows?
- 3. How can concepts of debris flow processes on Mount Rainier be applied to other areas prone to debris flows?

Our ability to forecast debris flows in glaciated catchments on Mount Rainier and other volcanic peaks is limited by two major data gaps. First, the conditions and mechanisms of debris flow initiation in these catchments are poorly understood. Second, the set of recorded debris flow events is too short and incomplete to interpret debris flow occurrence with respect to climate and glacier fluctuations. The two manuscripts contained in this thesis thus address these two data gaps. In the first manuscript, we use recent debris flow initiation sites to infer processes and controls on debris flow initiation. The second study builds a debris flow chronology spanning approximately 1,000 years that is correlated with local climate and glacier records.

# 1.1 Figures



**Figure 1-1** Figure by Bovis and Jakob (1999) demonstrating thresholds of debris flow initiation in weathering-limited and transport-limited systems.

# 2 Debris flow initiation in proglacial gullies on Mount Rainier (Washington)

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### 2.1 Abstract

In a 2006 storm, seven debris flows initiated from proglacial gullies of separate basins on the flanks of Mount Rainier. Gully heads at glacier termini and distributed collapse of gully walls imply that clear water was transformed to debris flow along gully lengths through progressive addition of sediment. We analyze gully changes, reconstruct runoff conditions, and assess spatial distributions of debris flows to infer the processes and conditions necessary for this type of debris flow initiation in glaciated catchments. Gully measurements suggest that this sediment bulking process requires steep gradients, abundant unstable material, and sufficient gully length. Reconstruction of runoff generation suggests that glaciers are likely important for generating the runoff necessary for debris flow initiation, particularly because infiltration capacities on glacial till covered surfaces well exceed measured rainfall rates. Runoff generation from glaciers and abundant loose debris at their termini explain why all debris flows in the storm initiated from proglacial areas. Proglacial areas that produced debris flows have steeper drainage networks with significantly higher elevations and lower drainage areas, suggesting that debris flows are associated with high elevation glaciers with relatively steep proglacial areas. This correlation reflects positive slope-elevation trends for the Mount Rainier volcano and points to a glacier's ability to influence the slope distribution of a basin, and thus potential for debris flow generation. These findings have implications for projections of debris flow activity in basins experiencing glacier change.

### 2.2 Introduction

Steep slopes and incompetent bedrock combine to make stratovolcanoes some of the most erodible landforms on Earth. In the Cascade Range in the northwestern United States, andesitic volcanoes stand well above the current and Quaternary average equilibrium line altitudes (ELA) of glaciers, causing rapid glacial erosion and enormous sediment loads in rivers draining their slopes (Porter, 1989; Czuba et al., 2011; Czuba et al., 2012). This sediment poses challenges to dam operators and river managers downstream by filling reservoirs, aggrading channels, and reducing the flood conveyance capacity of channels (Czuba et al., 2010). Sediment transport and mass movement processes on volcanic slopes therefore link volcano erosion with management of rivers downstream. Their destructive nature and ability to rapidly carry large volumes of sediment have notable implications for downstream areas. Moreover, recent debris flows have caused concern that climate change and related factors like increasing storm intensity, retreating glaciers, and reduced snow-packs may cause more debris flows in the future, yet these interactions remain poorly understood.

Our limited understanding of debris flow initiation processes prevents us from assessing effects of change in climate and related factors on debris flow occurrence. Recent observations of debris flows on Mount Rainier (Washington) suggest that the initiation mechanisms on volcanic flanks are unique. As opposed to the most typical initiation style where an individual mass failure liquefies and mobilizes as a debris flow, recent Mount Rainier debris flows appear to begin as clear floodwaters that entrain large amounts of sediment until they become debris flows (Iverson, 1997; Lancaster et al., 2012). The gullies where these debris flows have initiated emerge from or very near glaciers, suggesting that flows near the gully heads must have had minimal sediment concentrations. These gullies typically pass through areas dominated by loose and steep glacial till, and show evidence of wall collapse and lateral expansion along their lengths. The material derived from gully expansion therefore may represent the source material for debris flows. Despite these observations, we are still unaware of the conditions necessary for this type of debris flow initiation.

The process which floodwaters transform to debris flow by entraining sediment – referred to as bulking – has been recognized in few settings (Wells, 1987; Meyer et al., 1995; Iverson et al.,

1997; Meyer and Wells, 1997; O'Connor et al., 2001). A majority of work on the bulking process focuses on catchments recently burned by wildfire (e.g. Wells, 1987; Meyer et al., 1995; Meyer and Wells, 1997; Cannon and Reneau, 2000; Gabet and Bookter, 2008). In burned areas, reduced vegetation cover and coverage of ash from burned vegetation reduce infiltration capacity, enhance runoff generation, and cause drainage networks to abruptly expand (Gabet and Bookter, 2008; Gabet and Sternberg, 2008). Burning of vegetation also releases sediment stored on hillslopes, which is delivered to existing channels by rill networks and dry ravel (Wells, 1987; Lamb et al., 2011). Floodwaters rapidly entrain material derived from rapid drainage network expansion and delivered to existing channels, and transform to debris flow. Whereas conditions leading to bulking in burned areas are well-constrained, it is unclear how these concepts can be applied to other environments where bulking occurs. Glaciated catchments represent one of these environments where debris flows generated from bulking have been documented, but the conditions and mechanisms leading to bulking remain poorly understood (O'Connor et al., 2001; Lancaster et al., 2012).

This study focuses on a November 2006 storm that initiated debris flows from proglacial areas of at least six separate catchments, causing \$36 million in infrastructure damage (National Park Service, 2007). The 2006 storm was unique for the number of debris flows that initiated from separate basins, with no historical events on Mount Rainier having so many debris flows observed (Figure 2-1). Observation of initiation zones following the storm revealed expanded proglacial gullies with no single mass failures responsible for debris flow initiation (Copeland, 2009).

We analyze initiation of the 2006 debris flows at variable scales according to a conceptual model of debris flow initiation that we have proposed (Figure 2-2). This conceptual model guides our objectives by connecting basin-scale landscape and meteorological factors to conditions controlling bulking potential within an individual gully. We therefore seek to (1) characterize the nature, setting, and change of 2006 debris flow gullies in detail, (2) constrain mechanisms of runoff generation that lead to debris flow initiation, and (3) analyze basin-scale attributes that set local conditions for debris flow initiation. High-resolution airborne laser swath mapping (ALSM) topography and aerial imagery permit us to measure the morphology and change of

debris flow gullies, and infer dynamics of debris flow bulking. We also reconstruct runoff conditions in a single gully for differing scenarios of runoff generation and compare flood discharges to an estimate of sediment volume in a debris flow. And finally, we compare debris flow producing basins (DFB) to non-debris flow producing basins (NDFB) in the 2006 storm to analyze basin-scale factors that set conditions for debris flow initiation. Studying debris flows within a single meteorological event with roughly similar meteorological and hydrologic conditions across basins allows us to focus on the geomorphic conditions that influence debris flow initiation.

# 2.3 Setting

Mount Rainier, a stratovolcano of andesite-dacite composition, is the highest peak (4,392 m asl) in the Cascade Range and supports the greatest volume of glacier ice in the lower United States (Driedger and Kennard, 1984; Hildreth, 2007). Present-day glacier extents are generally greater on the north and northeast than on the south (Figure 2-1). Mountain-wide glacier volume loss from 1970 to 2007/8 has been measured at approximately 14% (Sisson et al., 2011). With exception of a brief glacial advance in the 1960s and 1970s, these recent trends are a continuation of ice retreat that has occurred since the Little Ice Age maximum ca. 1850 (Table 2-1) (Sigafoos and Hendricks, 1972; Burbank, 1981; Heliker et al., 1984).

Both debris flows and volcanic lahars originate from Mount Rainier, but our focus here is exclusively debris flows, which can be distinguished from lahars (Scott et al., 1995; Vallance and Scott, 1997; Crandell, 1971a). Hydrologically-induced debris flows mobilize surficial debris with low clay content and corresponding low cohesiveness. Lahars are cohesive, high clay-content debris flows that often result from flank collapse of the volcanic edifice. The largest recognized lahar – the Osceola Mudflow of ~5,600 years BP – initiated from the northeastern flank of Mount Rainier and inundated portions of the Puget Sound Lowland approximately 100 km downstream (Vallance and Scott, 1997). Whereas lahars have return intervals of greater than 500 years, hydrologically-induced debris flows have been recorded numerous times in the previous century. Hydrologically-induced debris flows generally travel less than 10 km from the summit and are initiated when either runoff generated from precipitation or glacier outburst floods entrain sediment (Walder and Driedger, 1994b; Walder and Driedger, 1994a). This study focuses on precipitation-induced debris flows; however, some of the mechanisms that transform water floods to debris flows discussed here likely apply to glacier outburst floods.

#### 2.4 2006 Storm

On November 6 and 7, 2006, an Atmospheric River storm approaching from the southwest hit Mount Rainier and dropped approximately 45 cm of rain over a 36-hour period (Neiman et al., 2008, NPS). Atmospheric River storms bring warm and moist air from tropical latitudes and drop heavy rain at high elevations, which melt antecedent snow pack (if present) (Neiman et al., 2008). During the most intense period of the storm (approximately 42 hours), the National Resource Conservation Service (NRCS) Paradise Snowpack Telemetry (SNOTEL) station (7.6 km SSE of Mount Rainier summit; 1,560 masl; 46.78°, -121.75°) recorded average rainfall rates of approximately 0.9 cm/hr, with a maximum of 2.0 cm/hr (Figure 2-3). For the duration of the storm, snow-water equivalent was less than 1 cm, and temperatures were above freezing. During the same period at the Morse Lake SNOTEL station (22 km ENE of Mount Rainier summit; 1,645 masl; 46.91°, -121.48°), rainfall intensity averaged 0.4 cm/hr and had a maximum observed intensity of 0.8 cm/hr suggesting an orographic effect. The distance of Morse Lake SNOTEL station from the summit may also exaggerate the apparent orographic effect. Both the south-draining United States Geological Survey (USGS) Nisqually River gauging station at National (USGS ID: 12085000) and north-draining Carbon River gauging station at Fairfax (USGS ID: 12094000) recorded greater than 100-year discharges and floods of record. Whereas SNOTEL data suggest an orographic effect, gauging data suggest that flooding was of similar magnitude with respect to each basin's hydrographic record. Reconnaissance by National Park Service employees and Copeland (2009) following the storm recorded evidence of debris flows from six basins, including those containing the South Tahoma, Pyramid, Kautz, Van Trump, Inter, and Curtis Ridge glaciers (Figure 2-1).

### 2.5 Methods

This study (1) characterizes the nature and setting of 2006 debris flow gullies in detail, (2) constrains mechanisms of runoff generation that lead to debris flow initiation, and (3) analyzes basin-scale attributes that set local conditions for debris flow initiation. We approach the first objective by measuring change of an individual 2006 debris flow gully (the Pyramid gully), and

measuring slope and drainage area of all 2006 debris flow gullies to investigate whether debris flows initiate in portions of the drainage network within unique process domains. The change estimated in the Pyramid gully allowed us to approximate a sediment volume, which we compare to estimates of water discharge in the gully to constrain mechanisms of runoff generation (objective two). Finally, we used the characteristics of individual debris flow gullies to compare the characteristics of basins and explain the spatial distribution of debris flow generation in the 2006 storm.

Remotely sensed data provide a basis for much of our analysis. National Aerial Imagery Program (NAIP) aerial photography and ALSM topographic data allow us to measure gully change resulting from the 2006 storm and extract topographic and hydrologic characteristics of the landscape. One-meter spatial resolution NAIP images taken in 2006 and 2009 bracket the November 2006 storm. 2007 and 2008 images of the same resolution were not available for the study area. ALSM data were collected in September 2007 and in September and October 2008. In the sparsely vegetated areas above tree-lines where this work focuses, the ALSM survey obtained approximately 1.5-3.5 ground-classified points per square meter, data that were then processed into 1-m resolution gridded digital elevation models (DEMs).

Extraction of drainage networks from DEMs using algorithms developed by Tarboton et al. (2006) allowed us to measure drainage area at various points on the landscape. Prior to extracting drainage networks, we down-sampled the 1-m gridded ALSM DEMs to 4-m grids to lessen computing time. To minimize topographic smoothing effects introduced by grid cell assignments based on neighborhood values, grid cells within the down-sampled DEMs were assigned the mean elevation of the sixteen 1-m cells encompassed by each new cell. Extraction of drainage networks included filling pits in the DEM, creating flow direction and flow accumulation rasters, and then extracting shapes of the drainage network based on a channel head threshold of 10,000 m<sup>2</sup> drainage area. Our threshold choice was based on approximate rill, gully and channel head locations observed in sparsely vegetated areas. We observed appreciable scatter in drainage areas at rill, gully, and channel heads that relates to differences in local slopes and infiltration capacities of contributing areas, and chose a drainage area threshold of 10,000 m<sup>2</sup>, which includes the observed scatter (Montgomery and Dietrich, 1989).

Since our analysis depended on identifying all debris flow initiation gullies from the 2006 storm, we used our combined air photo and ALSM time-series to confirm that the original 2006 debris flow inventory was complete. We visually scanned all basins for gullies with measurable expansion between 2006 and 2008. In basins without documented debris flows where we identified expanded proglacial gullies, we also scanned downstream areas at channel gradients typical of debris flow deposition for indications of debris flow deposits. We traveled to the same depositional areas to confirm the nature of deposits observed in aerial imagery and classified their sedimentology (debris flow versus fluvial) according to sedimentologic and geomorphic criteria outlined by *Pierson* (2005) and *Costa* (1988). In basins where debris flow evidence was observed between 2006 and 2008, we assumed the debris flow occurred in the November 2006 storm, and reclassified NDFB as DFB.

#### 2.5.1 Gully Characterization

# 2.5.1.1 Pyramid Gully Change

In order to characterize geometry changes and estimate volumes of sediment entrained by debris flows, we measured plan-view changes along one debris flow gully that initiated a debris flow in November 2006 in the Pyramid Glacier proglacial area (Figure 2-1). The approximately 1.2-km long gully begins at the existing Pyramid glacier terminus with an approximate longitudinal gradient of 24°, runs along a lateral moraine in an un-vegetated area covered by glacial till, and enters a bedrock channel at an approximate gradient of 10°. We chose the Pyramid debris flow gully for detailed change measurement because it had the least snow coverage at the dates of the aerial image capture, which allowed us to measure width change along the debris flow gully from 2006 to 2008 (NAIP to ALSM) and 2008 to 2009 (ALSM to NAIP) (Figure 2-4). With no ALSM survey conducted prior to the November 2006 storm, we were only able to measure change in the horizontal gully extent. In addition to width change in each gully segment, we measured longitudinal gradient and hillslope contributing area.

To analyze change in the gully with respect to gully and hillslope characteristics, we digitized outlines of the debris flow gully in 2006 and 2008 and subdivided each outline into 58, 20-m gully-wise segments (Figure 2-4). For each segment, we estimated average width change (segment area change in plan-view divided by segment length). A simple model of gully

geometry that required measurements of hillslope angle, gully wall angle, and gully depth then allowed us to convert width change to volume change for each segment (Figure 2-5). This model of volume change required that we assume that gully wall angles and bed elevations were unchanged by debris flow passage. Summing volume changed for all segments then yielded an estimate of total sediment volume change for the gully. Finally, we correlated changes in the gully with longitudinal slope and hillslope contributing area. Contributing area from hillslopes allowed us to analyze the effect of hillslope concavity on gully wall collapse. As opposed to measuring drainage area of the gully along its length to extract hillslope contributing area, we measured contributing area from the left hillslope only along a gully-parallel transect. This allowed us to eliminate drainage area inputs from the right hillslope where bedrock exposure prevented appreciable width change, thus isolating relationships between gully change and hillslope geometry on the left bank.

# 2.5.1.2 Slope and Drainage Area of Debris Flow Gullies

To characterize the energy availability in debris flow gullies, we measured slope and drainage area along their lengths. Slope and drainage area (proportional to stream discharge) relate to stream power, or the rate of energy expenditure along a channel. Slope and drainage area therefore allow us to examine the energy available for sediment transport within gullies (Whipple and Tucker, 1999; Yang, 1972). We chose each debris flow gully by identifying the gully with the greatest width change in a catchment, and assumed it to be the primary debris flow gully. We note that this differs from Lancaster et al. (2012), who identified 17 debris flow source gullies across six DFB, suggesting that multiple gullies could have contributed to an individual debris flow. Their analysis also included debris flows and associated gullies that occurred prior to 2006, which are beyond the scope of this study. We defined the endpoints of debris flow gullies by the upstream- and downstream-most points of width change and measured slope and drainage area at each point. In addition, we measured slope and drainage area at midpoints of all links between tributary junctions along the gully. Later, we refer to these three datasets as the upstream limits, downstream limits, and intermediate reaches.

# 2.5.2 Runoff Generation

To explore mechanisms of runoff generation, and whether total evacuated sediment volume (V<sub>s</sub>) estimated from gully walls of Pyramid gully was sufficient to transform floodwaters to debris flow, we performed a volume flux calculation relating water discharge to sediment discharge. We first estimated water discharge at the outlet of the debris flow gully based on rainfall intensity (R), infiltration capacity (I), and drainage area at the debris flow gully outlet  $(A_{out})$ . We measured infiltration capacity at 19 un-vegetated locations in four proglacial areas on Mount Rainier using a Mini Disk Infiltrometer manufactured by Decagon Devices. We calculated water discharges from the gully for two end-member scenarios: (1) where bare soils infiltrate at measured rates and glacier surfaces are considered to be impervious (requiring glacier area measurement), and (2) where all soil in the contributing area is impervious (i.e. frozen). The simplifying assumption of impervious glacier surfaces is based on one study suggesting that rainfall rapidly "pushed through" englacial water storage, creating an abrupt hydrographic response (Van de Griend and Arwert, 1983). In general, our assumption tries to capture the idea that glaciers generate runoff for downstream areas at greater rates than sediment-mantled surfaces, regardless of whether rainfall sheets from the glacier surface, or rapidly replaces and forces evacuation of englacial storage. Runoff generation from rapid snowmelt is not captured explicitly by the two end-members; however, we feel the second scenario with an entirely impervious catchment area probably overestimates basin-wide runoff generation. Thus, the end members likely capture an intermediate situation where runoff is generated by a combination of sources. In addition, SNOTEL data indicate snow water equivalent (SWE) was minimal (<1 cm H<sub>2</sub>O) during the 2006 storm, suggesting snowmelt contributed minor amounts of runoff (Figure 2-3). We calculated discharge  $(Q_w)$  using measured infiltration capacities (in cm/hr),  $A_{out}$ , and November 6-7 rainfall intensity measured at the Natural Resources Conservation Service's Paradise SNOTEL (Figure 2-3) located approximately 5 km east of the Pyramid Glacier; where  $Q_w$ is:

$$Q_w = A_{out} \cdot (R - I) \tag{1}$$

We assume that the point where floodwaters must have been converted to debris flow occurs at the downstream-most point where gully expansion was observed (where *A<sub>out</sub>* was measured).

With a water discharge estimate, we calculated an approximate period of time (*t*) required to evacuate the estimated sediment volume as a debris flow. Neither the time nor duration of the Pyramid debris flow was recorded due to site inaccessibility, so we were unable to associate rainfall intensity with the debris flow initiation. Consequently, we perform the above calculation over a range of rainfall intensity. Assuming a volumetric sediment concentration ( $C_s$ ) ranging from 0.6 to 0.8 m<sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup> (Pierson and Scott, 1985), we calculate a sediment discharge rate ( $Q_s$ ) using:

$$Q_S = \frac{Q_W \cdot C_S}{1 - C_S} \tag{2}$$

We assumed that entrained sediment was unconsolidated and poorly sorted with a porosity ( $\varphi$ ) of 0.20 m<sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup> (Fitts, 2002), that any sediment incorporated into the debris flow was completely disaggregated upon being incorporated into the flow, and that pore water volume had a negligible effect on discharge and debris flow sediment concentration. We calculated evacuation time (t) using:

$$t = \frac{V_{\mathcal{S}} \cdot (1 - \varphi)}{Q_{\mathcal{S}}} \tag{3}$$

We then compared sediment evacuation times to past debris flow durations observed on Mount Rainier, noting that our model estimate requires the assumption that all volume change between the 2006 image and 2008 ALSM DEM be evacuated as a debris flow.

#### 2.5.3 Basin Scale Factors Influencing Debris Flow Generation

Our conceptual model suggesting that debris flow initiation requires both sufficient energy and debris supply guides our initial assumptions and hypotheses for basin scale analysis. Because the 2006 debris flows all initiated in proglacial areas dominated by unconsolidated glacial till, it seems reasonable that proglacial areas satisfy debris supply requirements for debris flow initiation. Yet, debris flows did not occur in all proglacial areas, and differing proglacial area morphologies suggest that proglacial areas have differences in energy availability. Proglacial areas on Mount Rainier have morphologies that vary with the catchment elevation above the ELA and the resulting glacier type. Valley glaciers tend to occur in basins that extend to the summit with large areas above the ELA. Their glaciers thus extend to lower elevations with

gentler slopes. In smaller catchments that do not extend to high elevations and have correspondingly less area above equilibrium line altitudes, cirque glacier termini sit at higher elevations with greater slopes. These general groupings, however, do not explain all morphological differences in proglacial areas. Factors like aspect also influence glacier extent, the position of proglacial areas, and the characteristics of proglacial areas.

Instead of analyzing morphological differences by catchment type or glacier type, we analyzed basins grouped according to whether or not debris flows occurred in the 2006 storm, hypothesizing that the spatial patterns of 2006 debris flows reflected morphological differences in basins. As opposed to analyzing debris flow basins from a number of different storms, analysis of one storm with roughly similar meteorological (precipitation intensity, duration, and form) and hydrologic (antecedent snow) conditions allows isolation of geomorphic conditions leading to debris flow generation. According to this idea, we reason that geomorphic indices extracted from the two basin groups could explain the differences in debris flow generation. Alternatively, if morphological differences were not able to explain differences, the spatial distribution of debris flows may be a result of the stochastic nature of debris flow initiation, or from orographic gradients in precipitation that are indicated by SNOTEL data.

Because we hypothesized that geomorphic factors relating to potential energy would be best at explaining the spatial distribution of debris flows from supply-abundant proglacial areas, we extracted slope and drainage area of the drainage networks in proglacial areas as a measure of debris flow potential. Slope and drainage area (proportional to stream discharge) relate to stream power, or the rate of energy expenditure along a channel with uniform and steady flow, and thus capture energy availability in a gully or channel (Whipple and Tucker, 1999). Whereas assumptions for stream power may not hold true in steep gullies where flow may be unsteady and variable, these measurements allow us to systematically assess possible process domains of gullies (Istanbulluoglu et al., 2003) We therefore used slope-drainage area relationships observed in gullies as an rough indicator of debris flow potential in proglacial drainage networks.

In order to extract slope and drainage area in proglacial areas, we defined proglacial areas, clipped drainage networks to these outlines, and discretized the drainage network. We first defined outlines of proglacial areas in DFB and NDFB by outlining zones dominated by

unconsolidated debris with sparse vegetation cover (<10% coverage), that were bounded on the up-valley end by the terminus of existing mapped glacier outlines (NPS) Figure 2-6. We omitted large areas of bedrock exposure identifiable in aerial photography. In defining these proglacial areas, we attempted to delineate areas of abundant debris supply, thereby eliminating debris supply as a factor controlling debris flow initiation. We digitized proglacial areas for all glaciers (n=22) flanking the Mount Rainier edifice with exception of the Carbon and Winthrop glaciers due to a lack of un-vegetated areas that were not low-gradient (<10<sup>o</sup> (observed debris flow scour threshold by Benda and Cundy, 1990) channels. We then clipped the algorithm-derived drainage network (explained above) of the entire volcano to proglacial area shapes (Figure 2-6) (Tarboton et al., 2006). At tributary junctions, we divided the clipped drainage networks into links, and extracted longitudinal slope (elevation difference between endpoints divided by length) and drainage area (at midpoint) from each link (Figure 2-6).

In order to examine differences in slope-drainage area distributions in the two basin types, we analyzed distributions of slope-drainage area data with a series of partitions. Specifically, we aligned partitions with a power law regression of the slope and drainage area observed in debris flow gullies in order to most easily analyze slope-drainage area distributions with respect to observed values in gullies. Each partition was set parallel to the regression fit of the upstream limit of debris flow gullies in log-log space, meaning we varied the power law equation coefficient, but kept the exponent constant. For each partition, we analyzed only links of the proglacial drainage networks exceeding (greater slope and drainage area) that partition and calculated a series of simple metrics (defined below). We calculated metrics for individual proglacial areas and then averaged the two groups (DFB and NDFB). Group-averaged metrics across the set of partitions track differences between the two basin types in slope and drainage area space.

We defined two metrics that allow examination of slope and drainage area distributions in drainage networks in proglacial areas. The first metric was the sum of drainage *network length* (NL) exceeding a given partition (Figure 2-7). Across the series of partitions, the NL metric captures distributions of slope and drainage area in proglacial drainage networks. Proglacial areas more favorable for debris flow initiation would have a higher NL metrics (a greater length)

coincident with the slope-drainage area trend of observed debris flow gullies. The second metric - the length of the longest connected channel (LCC) - is designed to incorporate observations that debris flow initiation occurs as a distributed process along a single gully or channel (Figure 2-7). To extract this metric, we programmatically searched for and measured the length of the single longest set of connected links above a given slope-drainage area partition. Whereas the NL metric captures the overall distribution of slope and drainage area contained in the drainage network, this latter metric extracts the length of the longest channel with slope-drainage areas exceeding each partition. We hypothesized that proglacial areas with a relatively high favorability for debris flow initiation would have larger LCC values in the slope-drainage area space coinciding with observed values of debris flow gullies. We expected that the overall morphology of a proglacial area (as reflected by NL) sets the conditions for long channels (as reflected by LCC) of similar slope and drainage area, but expected that the longest channel or gully with favorable conditions for debris flow initiation would best reflect the propensity of basin's proglacial area to produce debris flows. We therefore hypothesized that the LCC would show greater statistical differences between the basin groups than the NL metric. These two metrics allow connection of geomorphic conditions on broader spatial scales with local gully conditions to test differences in basin types.

This focused analysis of only proglacial areas and their drainage networks oversimplifies debris flow initiation on Mount Rainier in two ways. First, debris flows may occur in periglacial areas along the sides of glaciers, areas that fall outside of the analysis window. The 2006 debris flows identified and studied here, however, all initiated in proglacial zones. This simplification therefore should have little impact on our spatial analysis of a single storm. Secondly, our assumption that all gullies and channels in proglacial drainage networks have unlimited supply available is probably not the case. For instance, some gullies may undercut large accumulations of glacial till, whereas others may extend through areas with relatively minor accumulations of material. While we acknowledge this simplification, we also expect that the effect of variable supply will be borne out by our results. If variable debris availability is actually a limiting factor, distinctions between basins with metrics of energy supply (slope and drainage area) should be insignificant.

# 2.6 Results

# 2.6.1 Gully Characterization

### 2.6.1.1 Pyramid Gully Change

Estimated change in the Pyramid Gully from 2006-2008, which we assumed to be a result of the 2006 debris flow, allowed us to elucidate influences on the input of sediment into a gully, and in turn infer mechanisms of debris flow initiation. We envision two scenarios of debris flow initiation in gullies, which are not mutually exclusive, but guide our interpretation of change in the Pyramid Gully. In the first scenario, pre-conditions of the gully, such as debris supply and slope along the gully, determine whether a flood is transformed to a debris flow. In a second scenario, properties of flow relating to sediment concentration and flow rheology influence the amount of sediment entrained from gully walls, therefore, as a flows travel down a gully, changes in flow properties that occur as a result of sediment entrainment induce greater rates of sediment entrainment. This latter scenario has been suggested by Santi et al. (2008) based on threshold increases in sediment yield along gullies. We use our observations of gully change to distinguish between these two scenarios, where possible.

The Pyramid debris flow gully expanded on average 2.6 m horizontally between 2006 and 2008 along the 1.2-km reach (Figure 2-4 and Figure 2-8A). Based on this widening, we estimated that ~47,000 m<sup>3</sup> of sediment was evacuated from this one gully (Figure 2-8B). Gully expansion occurred in a distributed manner as a series of wall collapses along the gully length, with horizontal width change ( $\Delta w_h$ ) exceeding zero in 51 of 57 (89%) 20-m gully segments. Minimal gully expansion occurred where bedrock exposures were visible, particularly on the right bank of the gully (Figure 2-4).

Hillslope concavities appear to influence locations of the largest gully wall collapses. Gully segments with the greatest gully expansion coincided with discrete landslide scars, which are spatially coincident with concavities in the adjacent hillslope. We used contributing area from the left hillslope as an indication of concavity (Figure 2-8C). Two un-channelized but concave locations (with contributing areas of greater than 25,000 m<sup>2</sup>) demonstrate the nature of hillslope influences on sediment input. The uppermost location coincides with a visible landslide

scar encompassing a set of 3 consecutive 20-m segments, which account for ~28% of the volume change in the Pyramid gully, whereas the second concavity has little associated gully volume change. Hillslope angles above the gully margin at these locations are 27<sup>o</sup> and 16<sup>o</sup> respectively, suggesting that both the presence of water (on concave hillslopes) and gradient on the hillslope influence failure of gully walls. These hillslope controls suggest that gullies must run through areas with sufficient quantities of debris that are poised for collapse in order for debris flows to initiate. Conditions that set instability in wall material include both undercutting within the gully and hillslope factors discussed here.

The volume change per unit gully length – commonly referred to as yield rate - varies across three distinct sub-reaches of the gully (labeled sub-reach 1, 2, and 3 moving downstream in Figure 2-8), which may relate to processes of sediment entrainment occurring in the gully (Hungr et al., 1984). We defined these sub-reaches by breaks in the volume changed per unit length. Volume change per unit length is modest in sub-reach 1, high in sub-reach 2 (~5 times that of sub-reach 1), and negligible in sub-reach 3. The disparity in sediment yield between subreaches 1 and 2 corresponds with 2.3x and 1.7x increases in average width change and gully wall height, respectively. Variation in width change induced by a flow along the gully may vary with the geometry with the gully, or with properties of the flow relate to its ability to undermine gully walls. Gully wall height relates to the thickness of glacial material adjacent to the gully. The increase in volume change per unit length (sub-reach 1 to 2) is also coincident with downstream reduction in longitudinal slope, suggesting that slope is not the main determinant of volume change per unit length. The downstream sequence of yield in the gully may suggest that feedbacks of sediment entrainment occur. Santi et al. (2008) studied a number of expanded gullies that initiated debris flows following a forest fire and consistently observed an apparent threshold increase in the volume entrained per unit length, similar to the one observed at the boundary between sub-reaches 1 and 2. They speculated that abrupt changes in yield related to transitions in flow behavior (water to hyperconcentrated flow or hyperconcentrated flow to debris flow) that made flows more erosive and thus able to entrain additional sediment at greater rates.

Regardless of whether debris flow initiation occurs as a result of pre-existing gully conditions, or as a result of changing flow properties, gully length appears to be a factor in determining whether a debris flow initiation can occur. In the former case (pre-existing gully conditions control bulking potential), the length over which material can be entrained helps determine the amount of debris available for entrainment. In the latter case, some gully length would be required for feedbacks of the bulking process to fully carry out. In either case, the portion of the gully over which length is measured is unclear, but a threshold length may relate to gully slope, flood water discharge, or debris availability along that length.

#### 2.6.1.2 Slope and Drainage Area of Debris Flow Gullies

Because our analysis of slope and drainage area requires an account of the debris flow gullies in the 2006 storm, we note here that we identified a debris flow gully in addition to the six originally identified. Using aerial imagery, we observed a gully that expanded between 2006 and 2008 in the proglacial area of the Ohanapecosh Glacier with a downstream deposit outside of the pre-existing channel of the same age (Figure 2-1). Field reconnaissance revealed that these deposits were poorly sorted, had damaged tree trunks, and had boulder snouts, suggesting that they were debris flow in nature (Pierson, 2005; Costa, 1988). The Ohanapecosh debris flow gully increases the number of gullies measured to seven.

Slope and drainage area relate to the energy available within a gully, and also allow comparison of Mount Rainier debris flow initiation sites with slope and drainage areas of debris flow zones in other environments. Debris flow gullies of the 2006 storm are shown by three datasets in slope-drainage area space: the upstream limit (plusses in Figure 2-9, measured at upstreammost point of observed width change from 2006-2008), intermediate reaches of debris flow gullies (diamonds in Figure 2-9, extracted from reaches defined at ends by tributary junctions), and downstream limits of debris flow gullies (squares in Figure 2-9, measured at downstreammost point of width change from 2006-2008). In a downstream sense, these three datasets show the range of slope and drainage area of debris flow gullies, in which flows incised or widened gullies and bulked to debris flow.

The upstream limit data show the most significant trend of the three datasets, plotting along a low concavity (-0.107) power law trend (n =7,  $R^2 = 0.477$ ). The upstream limit dataset also

coincides with an outer boundary of slope and drainage area observed in drainage networks of proglacial areas (small points in Figure 2-9), adding confidence that the observed trend is significant (Figure 2-9). In general, low concavity suggests that debris flow initiation requires steep slopes, and is relatively insensitive to drainage area. The low concavity trend is similar to low concavity trends observed in longitudinal profiles in tectonically-active coastal ranges of the California and Oregon; however, the different scopes of data extraction (across multiple gullies versus longitudinal extraction along individual channels) make further comparison impossible (Stock and Dietrich, 2003).

Slope-drainage area trends of intermediate reaches and downstream gully limits are more scattered. Data points representing intermediate reaches plot along a curved trend. At drainage areas less than approximately  $10^6 \text{ m}^2$  and above slopes of ~35 %, intermediate reaches plot along a similar trend to the upstream limit dataset. At drainage areas exceeding this break, intermediate reaches follow a higher concavity trend. Except for two outliers, downstream limits of gullies also plot along the trend of high concavity followed by intermediate reaches. The high concavity trend mimics that of equal stream power contours in slope and drainage area, suggesting that the debris flow gullies extend into portions of the drainage network that have developed longitudinal profiles from fluvial erosion controlled by stream power (Seidl and Dietrich, 1993). *Stock and Dietrich* [2003] attributed curved plots of slope and drainage area along valleys to a change in the dominant mode of erosion from debris flows (low concavities at small drainage areas) to fluvial erosion, and observed slope-area scaling breaks at drainage areas ranging from  $10^4$  to  $10^6$  m<sup>2</sup> and at slopes of ~0.10.

#### 2.6.2 Runoff Generation

We used estimates of debris flow duration in the Pyramid drainage to evaluate mechanisms of runoff generation. Estimates of sediment volume and water discharge produce sediment evacuation times of approximately 1 to 10 hours (Figure 2-10), depending on rainfall rates between 0.5 and 2.5 cm per hour and the scenario of runoff generation considered. The first runoff scenario (all contributing area is impervious (i.e. frozen)) produced high estimates of water discharge (~2-10 m<sup>3</sup>/s) and correspondingly low sediment evacuation times (~0.3-3.5 hr). Conversely, when glacier surfaces are impervious, and ice-free ground surfaces only generate

runoff when infiltration capacity is exceeded, water discharge is low (~ 0.6-3 m<sup>3</sup>/s) and evacuation times are correspondingly high (~1-10 hr). In the latter scenario, infiltration capacity values of 6.6 ± 5.1 cm/hr (1 $\sigma$ ) generally exceeded the maximum hourly rainfall rates of ~2 cm/hr recorded during the 2006 storm. In our simple model, the high infiltration capacity forced all runoff generation to occur on the contributing area covered by glacier ice (~26% of total area), which we assumed to be impermeable. More generally, the infiltration rates that exceed rainfall rate imply that runoff during debris flow producing storms might be attributed to impermeable frozen ground, heightened discharge from glaciers, snowmelt, or a combination of these sources. During the 2006 storm, SNOTEL data indicate that little snow was present, and that atmospheric freezing levels were elevated, implying that snowmelt and frozen ground generated relatively little runoff during the 2006 storm. Process of elimination and the proximity of the Pyramid and other gullies to glaciers suggest that glaciers play an important role in generating the runoff necessary for debris flow initiation.

Estimates of debris flow duration (sediment evacuation times) were reasonable, falling within range of a the duration of a 2005 precipitation-induced debris flow that lasted approximately 1 to 3 hours from the Van Trump Glacier (observed by author Kennard). Though a rough comparison, our range of estimates for duration of the Pyramid debris flow are within an order of magnitude of the observed debris flow. These findings suggest that sediment volume contributed from gully wall collapse alone may have been sufficient to bulk floodwaters to debris flow, and imply that debris flow initiation by progressive addition of sediment from gully wall collapse is plausible.

#### 2.6.3 Basin Scale Factors Influencing Debris Flow Generation

Comparison of debris flow and non-debris flow basins in the 2006 storm reveals that (1) spatial patterns of debris flow occurrence is reflected by the morphology (slope and drainage area) of drainage networks in proglacial areas, (2) the LCC metric, which incorporates gully length, has greater statistical significance in describing basin differences, and (3) proglacial areas, and thus glacier termini, have statistically higher elevations and lower drainage areas in debris flow basins. We used the NL and LCC metrics defined here, in addition to simple basin metrics to analyze difference in basin groups.

The NL and LCC metrics across the defined slope-drainage area partitions shown in Figure 2-11 indicate that DFB and NDFB have differing distributions of slope and drainage area in their drainage networks. On average, DFB have a greater length of their drainage network with slopes and drainage areas similar to those of measured debris flow gullies. NDFB generally have lower slopes and larger drainage areas. These patterns are shown in Figure 2-12 by divergence in the two basin groups in both NL and LCC metrics along partitions of approximately 1 and greater. We initially hypothesized that proglacial areas where debris flows initiate are supply-unlimited, meaning that slope-drainage area differences relating to energy availability would explain the contrasting occurrence of debris flows. Slope-drainage area distributions suggest that basins with energy-limited (low-gradient) proglacial areas tended not to produce debris flows, and proglacial areas with steeper slopes produced debris flows.

Statistical significance testing using p-values with assumed unequal variances indicate that the LCC metric explained differences between the two basin types better than the NL metric, supporting the idea that gully length helps determine if debris flows initiate (Figure 2-12). For the same partitions, LCC metrics consistently had greater statistical significance as indicated by lower p-values. These results align with our findings in the Pyramid Creek gully suggesting that gully length plays a role in debris flow initiation.

Simple metrics related to glacier extent show that debris flow basins tend to have smaller glaciers, and that debris flow occurrence appears unrelated to glacier retreat. Statistically significant differences (p < 0.05, two-tail assuming unequal variances) in mean and maximum elevation and maximum drainage area characterize proglacial areas of the two basin types, indicating that proglacial areas of DFB occur at higher elevations and smaller drainage areas than those of NDFB (Table 2-1). Because the down-valley extent of a glacier determines where a proglacial area sits, the drainage area and elevation metrics reflect glacier extent. Differences in glacier retreat between the two basins, however, are insignificant (Table 2-1). According to the paraglacial concept, glacier retreat exposes debris and increases the supply of sediment in a basin, therefore, glacier retreat can be considered a proxy for debris supply (Ballantyne, 2002). The statistically insignificant difference in glacier retreat is therefore consistent with our

previous finding that debris supply is unlimited, thereby limiting the effects of increased debris supply from glacier retreat on debris flow occurrence (Bovis and Jakob, 1999).

#### 2.7 Discussion

The 2006 storm on Mount Rainier initiated debris flows from proglacial gullies in seven basins. Material entrained from gully expansion appears to represent the sediment source for these debris flows. Gully heads at or near glacier termini suggest that clear water flows were converted to debris flow in a distributed manner over some length of each gully. This bulking process is relatively unique for glaciated catchments, yet estimates of sediment volume entrained relative to water discharge suggest that this process of debris flow initiation is plausible. Moreover, the coincidence between expanded gullies in source areas and observed debris flows in downstream areas in all DFB studied imply a linkage between the two.

Whereas we are not able to speak to the mechanics of debris flow bulking, our analysis provides insights into the necessary conditions for this type of debris flow initiation. In order for the transformation of floods to debris flows to occur, we find that gullies must be steep, sufficiently long, and have walls composed of loose, unstable and abundant material. These conditions are consistent with recently burned catchments that generate debris flows by bulking, where abrupt expansion of and sediment delivery to channel networks temporarily and abruptly increase the available debris for entrainment (Wells, 1987; Gabet and Bookter, 2008; Lamb et al., 2011). On the upper flanks of the Cascade Volcanoes, sediment supply is virtually unlimited, particularly in the fronts of glaciers. In addition, gullies and drainage networks are relatively young, having established since deglaciation of a particular area. These conditions create gullies with unstable walls of loose glacial till on steep slopes. Transformation of floodwaters to debris flow may therefore be expected in catchments dominated by loose, alluvium, or where some geomorphic disturbance abruptly makes alluvium available for entrainment.

Despite sparse monitoring data on the upper volcanic slopes, we have constrained possible mechanisms of runoff generation. Measured infiltration capacities that well exceed measured rainfall rates suggest that runoff is generated from some combination of impermeable frozen ground, heightened discharge from glaciers (either from glacier surfaces or englacial storage release), or snowmelt. SNOTEL data however suggest warm temperatures and minimal snow
depths characterized the 2006 storm, implying that glaciers were a major source of runoff. Glacier runoff sources, whether from the glacier surface or englacial storage, are consistent the observation that all seven 2006 debris flow gullies were located in proglacial areas, where glacier runoff logically is most focused. The mechanisms of runoff generation and routing from glaciers are still poorly understood. Glaciers on Mount Rainier have varying surface characters and abundances of crevasses, which may influence the infiltration of rainfall. In addition, the end-of-summer timing of the 2006 storm (and other debris flow producing storms on Mount Rainier) may suggest that englacial conduits were integrated, which would have facilitated through-flow of rain water that infiltrated glacier surfaces (Anderson, 2004). The identification of runoff sources, however, does not provide insight into the amount of runoff required for debris flow initiation. Slope and drainage area of 2006 debris flow gullies indicate that debris flow initiation was relatively insensitive to drainage area, and thus the rate of discharge. This insensitivity of drainage area and discharge actually makes debris flow generation more plausible on a landscape with a relatively limited ability to generate runoff (as indicated by infiltration capacities), and is compatible with glacial sources of runoff producing just enough water for debris flow initiation.

In addition to controlling where within a basin debris flows initiate through runoff generation, glaciers also appear to indirectly control which basins produce debris flows. Spatial distributions of debris flows and volcanic shape imply an influence of glacier extent on debris flow potential within a catchment. Drainage network steepness in proglacial areas reflects the distribution of 2006 debris flows. Elevations and maximum drainage areas indicate that proglacial areas, and therefore glacier termini, in DFB are located higher on the volcano. Proglacial areas thus tend to be steeper and more favorable for debris flow initiation at higher positions on the volcano. These patterns reflect increasing slope with elevation, and concave longitudinal valley profiles on the Mount Rainier edifice (Figure 2-13). Because glacier extent controls the location of proglacial areas, proglacial areas are the most favorable zones for debris flow initiation, and slope generally increases with elevation, glacier extent therefore must have an influence on the debris flow potential for a catchment. We propose a simple model that relates glacier extent to debris flow production shown in Figure 2-14. These findings are consistent with retreat rate, a proxy for debris supply, failing to explain differences between DFB and NDFB. Instead of

differences in supply, debris flow production is influenced by the slope distribution within a catchment, and in particular the slope distribution in proglacial areas where debris and water availability are greatest. Variable glacier sizes in space and time thus alter the slope distribution of sediment covered slopes in a basin, thereby changing debris flow potential. These findings differ from other studies that suggest that increased sediment availability from glacier retreat is a major driver of increased debris flow occurrence (Chiarle et al., 2007).

## 2.8 Conclusions

In this study, we analyzed the change, setting, and distribution of gullies on Mount Rainier where floods were transformed to debris flows during a large storm in 2006. Analysis of debris flow gullies from one storm has allowed us to infer the geomorphic processes of and conditions necessary for this unique style of debris flow initiation, in which floodwaters are transformed to debris flow by progressive entrainment of sediment. Seven debris flows initiated from proglacial areas of separate basins during the 2006 storm. Debris flows were observed with expanded gullies upstream, implying that gully expansion provides the source material for these debris flows. In addition, estimates of sediment volumes entrained relative to estimates of flood discharges suggest that bulking from gully walls is volumetrically plausible.

This manner of debris flow initiation by gully collapse requires both sufficient sediment and energy. Detailed analysis of gully change suggests that debris flow gullies must have abundant and unstable material along the gully length. A slope-drainage area trend produced from seven 2006 debris flow gullies indicates that debris flow initiation requires slopes over ~20° near the gully head, but has little dependence on drainage area. High measured infiltration rates, however, suggest that glaciers play a major role in generating the minimum runoff necessary for debris flow initiation. Availability of sediment and water thus make proglacial areas the most favorable zones for debris flow initiation.

Spatial patterns of recent debris flows suggest that initiation occurs near high-elevation glacier termini, with relatively high gradients. Relatively high gradients in DFB proglacial areas compared to NDFB are consistent with the high gradients measured in the seven 2006 debris flow gullies. Elevation differences of proglacial areas in the two basin types suggest that glaciers tend to be less extensive in DFB. These differences in proglacial area slope and elevation in

debris flow and non-debris flow basins reflects an overall positive slope-elevation trend on the volcanic edifice with concave flanks. These findings suggest that the slope distribution of ice-free areas (where debris flows initiate) changes with glacier size as large glaciers cover the steepest slopes, and small glaciers expose the steepest slopes. Variations in the available slope influenced by glaciers in space and time thus should correspond with variations in the activity of debris flows. This model suggests that temporal glacier change can influence debris flow occurrence, as threshold slopes are exposed by glacier retreat. This interpretation contrasts with interpretations invoking debris generation as the result of excess sediment exposed during periods of glacier retreat (Chiarle et al., 2007; Ballantyne, 2002). In the 2006 storm, additional sediment exposed by retreating glaciers appears to have had little influence on spatial patterns of debris flow occurrence, which may suggest that the apparently supply-unlimited basins of Mount Rainier are insensitive to increased amounts of debris supply. These findings have implications for debris flow hazards in basins experiencing glacial and climatic change.

## 2.9 Figures



**Figure 2-1** Location map of Mount Rainier and debris flow gullies from the 2006 storm. Panel A contains a hillshaded elevation map of Mount Rainier with the extents of insets shown. Panels B1 and B2 contain hillshaded DEMs produced from ALSM data with select debris flow gullies and associated glacier names shown. Panels C1 and C2 show 10-m elevation contours, glacier outlines, debris flow gullies overlain on 2009 NAIP aerial imagery.



**Figure 2-2** Schematic illustration of controls on the transformation of floodwaters to debris flows in glaciated catchments. Rectangular boxes indicate fundamental hydrologic and landscape factors that set conditions for bulking. Ellipses indicate direct (within grey box) and indirect (outside grey box) controls on bulking. Triangles are categories of direct controls that determine bulking potential (square box). Bulking potential can be sufficient (+) or insufficient (-) to generate debris flows.



**Figure 2-3** Figure showing snow water equivalent (SWE, with running average, A), precipitation (B), and temperature (C) collected at the Paradise SNOTEL station (NRCS, 1,560 masl; 46.78°, -121.75°) in a period spanning the November 2006 storm. Hourly SWE measurements (green) and running average (black) are shown in Panel A. Cumulative precipitation (red) and hourly precipitation rates (black) are shown in panel B. Freezing altitudes (Panel C, right vertical axis) are estimated based on a temperature lapse rate of 5.5 degrees Celsius per km altitude.



**Figure 2-4** Time-series of remote sensing data for the Pyramid gully with data sources shown. The ALSM-DEM in Panel B has a greyscale color corresponding to slope with low slopes in light and steep slopes dark. In panel D, 2006 and 2008 gully outlines are shown. Every tenth segment is labeled with distance downstream from the gully head and a segment number, which correspond to Figure 2-8 segments.



**Figure 2-5** Schematic diagram of gully geometry used to convert width change ( $\Delta w$ ) measured from aerial imagery to gully volume change. We assumed that gully bottom elevation and gully wall slope ( $\gamma$ , before debris flow,  $\alpha$  after debris flow) remained unchanged. Hillslope slope ( $\theta$ ), gully depth (d), and gully wall slope ( $\alpha$ ) were measured from 2008 ALSM data. We calculated the width change in the horizontal plane ( $\Delta w_h$ ) using  $\Delta w_h = \frac{\Delta w \cdot (tan\alpha - tan\theta) \cdot \sin(90 - \alpha)}{sin\alpha}$ , cross sectional area change ( $\Delta A$ ) using  $\Delta A = \Delta w \cdot sin\alpha \cdot (\frac{d}{sin\alpha} - \frac{\Delta w \cdot tan\theta}{2d})$ , and average volume change ( $\Delta V$ ) for each segment by multiplying  $\Delta A$  by segment length (20 m).



**Figure 2-6** Schematic of drainage network clipped proglacial area (A). Panel B shows the drainage networks divided into links at tributary junctions, each of which we extract slope and drainage area.



**Figure 2-7** Example calculations of metrics used to analyze slope and drainage area distributions in drainage networks. Bold links (endpoints defined by tributary junctions) indicate those with slope and drainage above a given partition. Dashed links (length, *l*) are below the partition.



**Figure 2-8** Plots of horizontal width change per distance (panel A), cumulative volume change (panel B), hillslope contributing area from the left bank of the Pyramid gully (panel C, proxy for hillslope concavity), and slope (stepped) and elevation (green) with downstream distance in the Pyramid debris flow gully (panel D) estimated for each segment. Sub-reaches are shown to delineate distinct trends in volume change per unit gully length. Each panel contains average metrics for each sub-reach. Note left bank contributing area (panel C) is extracted along a gully-parallel transect shifted approximately 20-m laterally from the gully bottom. Gully wall heights shown are estimates of pre-debris flow gully wall height figured trigonometrically (Figure 2-5). The landslide extent mentioned in the text is shown. In panels A and B, open circles are every tenth segment allowing for comparison with Figure 2-4.



**Figure 2-9** Slope-drainage area plot of the upstream limit (crosses), intermediate reaches (diamonds), and downstream limits (squares) of debris flow gullies. Small circles represent all extracted links of drainage networks in proglacial areas in DFB (red, n = 7 basins) and NDFB (blue, n = 15 basins). Large circles of the same colors indicated the length-weighted average of slope and drainage area for the two basin types. The solid line indicates a power regression of the upstream limit dataset. Contours of equal stream power ( $\Omega$ ) are shown [W/m] in grey and based on the stream power equation,  $\Omega = \rho_w$  gQS, where equation 1 from the text is substituted for water discharge and net runoff generation (rainfall intensity minus infiltration rate) is assumed to be 1 cm/m<sup>2</sup>. Other variables in the stream power equation include the density of water ( $\rho_w$ ), the acceleration due to gravity (g), and slope (S).



**Figure 2-10** Plot of estimated discharge at Pyramid debris flow gully outlet versus calculated debris flow duration. Relationships of discharge to duration are shown for three volumetric sediment concentrations (0.6-0.8). Dashed lines show discharge at rainfall intensities of 0.5 to 2.5 cm/hr (approx. observed range in 2006 storm) for the scenario where runoff is only generated on impervious glacier surfaces. Dotted lines show discharge estimates for the same rainfall intensities ( 0.5 to 2.5 cm/hr) for the scenario where runoff is generated from an entirely impervious (i.e. frozen) catchment area.



**Figure 2-11** Slope-drainage area graph showing partitions (black lines) used to analyze slope and drainage area of drainage networks in proglacial areas. Crosses, diamonds, and squares refer to upstream limits, intermediate reaches, and downstream limits of debris flow gullies (n = 7, see Figure 2-9). Partition values are shown in red adjacent to individual lines and represent the value of the steepness coefficient of slope drainage area partitions aligned parallel to the power law regression equation (S = 1.769 A <sup>-0.107</sup>) for the upstream limit dataset (Snyder et al., 2000). Partition (steepness) coefficients also correspond to horizontal axis values in Figure 2-12. The grey shaded zone approximately encompasses the observed low concavity trend in debris flow gullies (corresponds to grey box in Figure 2-12).



**Figure 2-12** Partition graphs for two defined metrics of Network Length (NL, panel A) and Longest Connected Channel (LCC, panel B), which are described in text and in Figure 2-7. Partition coefficients define partitions in slope-drainage area space shown in Figure 2-11. Metric values always represent a length of the drainage network with slope and drainage area above a partition. Red lines are debris flow basin data, blue lines are non-debris flow basin data, and purple lines are two-tail p-values (assuming unequal variances) for each partition. The p-value vertical axis is logarithmic to display differences between the two metrics. Black horizontal lines indicate a p-value of 0.05. Grey boxes indicate the zone of slope and drainage area observed in the low-concavity trend of debris flow gullies. Panel A contains a bar graph showing the difference in length within bins defined by adjacent partitions where positive values show a greater length in DFB, and negative values show a greater length in NDFB.



**Figure 2-13** Box plots of 200-m elevation bins of slope. Median slope (tick) and 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile slopes (box ends) are shown for each elevation bin. Elevations of glacier termini are shown. A: Slope-elevation data are extracted from a DEM of entire volcano. B: Slope-elevation data are extracted from only 1970 glacier extents, which effectively selects for valley bottoms where debris flows initiate.



**Figure 2-14** Conceptual diagram of spatial and temporal variation in glacier extent and its control on debris flow occurrence in a supply-unlimited basin. Equilibrium line altitudes (ELAs) and corresponding glacial extents are shown for the Little Ice Age (LIA, A), present day (B), and for a future scenario when ELAs are higher (C). In basins where the glacier terminus is above the critical slope angle for debris flow initiation (red line), debris flows occur (DFB). Glacial termini below the critical slope angle have proglacial areas dominated by fluvial transport.

# 2.10 Tables

Table 2-1	Characteristics o	of the proglacial	areas (PGAs) studied.

Glacier Name	PGA Area	Total Extracted	Drainage	PGA Elevation (masl)		(masl)	PGA Mean Slope	PGA Max	1970-2007/8 Glacier
	(km²)	Network Length (m)	Density (m/m <sup>2</sup> )	Min	Mean	Max	(m/m)	Drainage Area (km²	Retreat (m) *
NDFB									
Cowlitz	1.02	9,393	0.0092	1,491	1,640	1,905	0.40	15.564	475
Emmons	0.18	2,867	0.0158	1,469	1,498	1,579	0.26	8.803	-130
Flett	0.81	8,166	0.0101	1,954	2,081	2,255	0.45	0.659	115
Fryingpan (East)	0.44	4,866	0.0110	1,778	1,943	2,074	0.37	2.050	110
Fryingpan (West)	0.71	8,789	0.0123	1,773	1,918	2,156	0.38	2.737	110
Nisqually	0.59	3,966	0.0068	1,343	1,547	1,846	0.66	12.081	300
North Mowich	0.81	8,901	0.0110	1,480	1,683	2,209	0.63	8.613	230
Paradise	2.09	21,168	0.0101	1,774	1,979	2,253	0.35	2.502	75
Puyallup	0.12	2,669	0.0224	1,599	1,722	1,868	0.65	2.634	90
Russell	2.21	19,364	0.0088	1,744	2,053	2,400	0.38	1.546	120
South Mowich	0.24	2,935	0.0122	1,482	1,653	1,893	0.61	7.191	260
South Mowich (south terminus)	0.12	1,762	0.0145	1,378	1,499	1,729	0.64	2.357	260
Tahoma	0.35	3,495	0.0101	1,503	1,634	1,803	0.40	5.246	45
Tahoma (west terminus)	0.61	7,717	0.0126	1,485	1,656	1,841	0.47	9.793	45
Whitman	0.56	7,178	0.0129	1,972	2,243	2,454	0.56	3.305	60
Mean	0.72	7,549	0.0120	1,615	1,783	2,018	0.48	5.672	144
DFB									
Curtis Ridge **	0.43	4,547	0.0105	2,110	2,354	2,600	0.53	2.633	75
Inter	0.32	5,441	0.0171	1,964	2,109	2,322	0.49	1.218	210
Kautz	0.96	11,661	0.0121	1,501	1,951	2,417	0.69	4.868	70
Ohanapecosh	1.26	17,342	0.0137	1,687	2,031	2,531	0.56	3.584	140
Pyramid	0.84	9,661	0.0115	1,878	2,205	2,474	0.42	1.645	150
South Tahoma	0.77	8,802	0.0115	1,496	1,832	2,274	0.70	3.120	300
Van Trump	0.61	6,761	0.0111	1,820	2,116	2,450	0.48	1.731	135
Mean	0.74	9,174	0.0125	1,779	2,085	2,438	0.55	2.685	154
p-value	0.935	0.477	0.682	0.137	0.003	0.000	0.179	0.0304	0.8361

\* Data from Sisson et. al (2011); negative retreat values indicate advance

\*\* Unnamed glacier located on west-bounding ridge of the Winthrop Glacier

## 3 Debris flow occurrence and its influence on the Kautz Creek valley (Mount Rainier, Washington) during a 1,000 years of climate and glacier fluctuations

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### 3.1 Abstract

The second study uses a variety of dating techniques to reconstruct a chronology of debris flows in the Kautz Creek valley on the southwest flank of Mount Rainier (Washington). Dendrochronologic dating of growth disturbances combined with lichenometric techniques constrained five debris flow ages from 1712 to 1915 AD. We also estimated ages of three debris flows ranging in age from ca. 970 to 1661. Run-out distances served as a proxy for debris flow magnitude, and indicate that at least 11, 2, and 1 debris flow(s) have traveled at least 1, 3, and 5 km from the valley head, respectively since ca. 1650. Valley form reflects the frequencymagnitude relationship indicated by the chronology. In the upper, relatively steep valley, discrete debris flow snouts and secondary channels are abundant, suggesting a process of debris flow conveyance, channel plugging, and channel avulsion. The lower valley is characterized by relatively smooth surfaces, an absence of bouldery debris flow snouts, few secondary channels, and relatively old surface ages inferred from the presence of tephra layers. We infer that the lower valley is deposited on by relatively infrequent, large magnitude, low-yield strength debris flows like an event in 1947, which deposited wide, tabular lobes of debris outside of the main channel. Debris flows during the Little Ice Age (LIA) predominantly traveled no further than the upper valley. Stratigraphic evidence suggests that the main Kautz Creek channel was filled during the LIA, enhancing debris flow deposition on the valley surface and perhaps reducing runout lengths. Diminished areas and gradients in front of glaciers during the LIA also likely contributed to decreased run-out lengths. These findings suggest that changes in debris flow source and depositional zones resulting from temperature and glacier cycles influence the

magnitude and run-out distances of debris flows, and the dynamics of deposition in valley bottoms.

#### 3.2 Introduction

Debris flows are a primary geomorphic process as well as a dangerous natural hazard in mountain terrains around the world (Iverson et al., 1997). Debris flows occur in many mountainous settings; in this paper we focus on debris flows that initiate high on the flanks of glaciated stratovolcanoes in the Cascade Range of the northwestern United States. Recent and unusually extensive debris flow events in this setting have raised questions as to whether changing climate is increasing the potential for debris flow initiation and run-out. Whether or not this is occurring, its potential causes and consequences are key issues facing managers of mountain environments in this region. But factors controlling debris flow occurrence remain poorly understood.

The lack of suitable debris flow records limits our ability to assess the frequency and magnitudes of debris flows, and put recent debris flows into context. On Mount Rainier in Washington State, the location of this study, existing archival debris flow records span few decades, are incomplete, and are compiled across basins with seemingly different debris flow potentials (Copeland, 2009). With exception of pioneering studies on Mount Shasta that used tree rings to reconstruct debris flow ages, no detailed efforts to construct debris flow (non-lahar) chronologies in valley bottoms of the Cascade volcanoes have been completed (Hupp, 1984; Hupp et al., 1987). In addition to simply understanding debris flow occurrence through time, these studies reveal depositional patterns that affect the short- and long-term evolution of the geomorphology and forest ecology of valley bottoms (Hack and Goodlett, 1960).

The natural setting on Cascade volcanoes is an ideal natural laboratory for studying coupling between erosional processes in upper catchments with evolution of depositional settings in valleys downstream. Large glaciers erode the weak upper flanks of these volcanoes at rapid rates, causing large quantities of sediment to be transported through valleys (Czuba et al., 2012; Mills, 1976). Debris flows and floods deliver sediment to valley bottoms on annual to decadal scales; valleys that are often wide and favorable for stratigraphic preservation (Driedger and Fountain, 1989; Scott et al., 1995; Copeland, 2009). In addition, old protected forests with relatively little influence from wildfire provide a record of disturbance through time (Stoffel and Bollschweiler, 2008; Dunwiddie, 1986). These environmental factors allow high-resolution coupling of valley bottom records of geomorphic processes with climate and glacier changes that may drive erosion and sediment production in the upper catchments, connections that are often studied over thousands of years as opposed to hundreds (e.g. Dühnforth et al., 2008; Ritter et al., 1995).

In this study, we use field evidence to develop a debris flow chronology in the Kautz Creek drainage basin on the southwest flank of Mount Rainier (Figure 3-1). At least six debris flows have occurred in Kautz Creek in the past century, including the largest of historical record on Mount Rainier. Of the valleys radiating from the volcano, the Kautz valley is relatively wide with a roughly trapezoidal cross-sectional shape, leading to high potential for preservation of debris flow deposits. We use a combination of radiocarbon dating, tephra layers deposited within in the stratigraphic succession, dendrochronology, and lichenometry to establish ages of debris flows. The resulting chronology is correlated with precipitation indexes, local temperature reconstructions and moraine stabilization ages dated here and in previous studies (Burbank, 1981; Burbank, 1982; Heliker et al., 1984; Sigafoos and Hendricks, 1972; O'Neal, 2005; Graumlich and Brubaker, 1986; Viau et al., 2012; MacDonald and Case, 2005). This combination of high-resolution climate and glacier reconstructions provides a unique opportunity to link high frequency oscillations in valley sedimentation processes with changes in erosional processes in upper catchments.

### 3.3 Background – Volcanic and Glacial History of Mount Rainier

Mount Rainier, a stratovolcano of andesite-dacite composition, is the highest peak (4,392 m asl) in the Cascade Range and supports the greatest volume of glacier ice in the lower United States (Driedger and Kennard, 1984; Hildreth, 2007). Rivers drain radially from glaciers that vary in extent with aspect and run through valleys of differing widths, gradients, and form. Varying valley morphologies may relate to the suite of processes that have shaped the volcanoe since its construction ca. 500 ka (Hildreth, 2007). The edifice was built on deeply dissected terrain, and some of the ridges radiating from the summit, including the east-bounding ridge of Kautz Creek Valley, were formed when lava flowed and solidified between early glaciers (Lescinsky and

Sisson, 1998). Ancestral topography, eruptive products, alluvial fill, glaciers, and constructional topography thus combine to shape valleys and provide a context for the variation in morphology of valleys radiating from Mount Rainier.

Mass movement processes on Mount Rainier include debris flows initiated by precipitation, debris flows initiated by glacier outburst flood, and lahars (Scott et al., 1995; Vallance and Scott, 1997; Crandell, 1971b). While definitions of lahars and debris flows lie on a continuum, lahars are typically unrelated to glacier, climate, and hydrological processes focused on here; therefore, we attempt to distinguish between lahar and debris flow deposits using sedimentology and volumes. Lahars tend to be cohesive, relatively high clay-content debris flows that typically result from flank collapse of the volcanic edifice. Conversely, debris flows on the Cascade volcanoes typically have low-clay content and cohesiveness because they mobilize surficial debris from which clay has been winnowed. Whereas lahars have return intervals of greater than 500 years and travel tens of kilometers from the summit, debris flows have been recorded numerous times in the previous century and typically travel less than ten kilometers from the summit (Scott et al., 1995). Hydrologically-induced debris flows initiate when runoff generated from precipitation or glacier outburst floods incorporate surficial sediment (Walder and Driedger, 1994b; Walder and Driedger, 1994a; Walder and Driedger, 1995; Vallance et al., 2003).

Eruptive products and lahars preserved in valley bottoms can complicate the record of landscape responses to glacial and climatic drivers studied here. Recent eruptive periods of Mount Rainier have been dated at, 2,200 to 2,600, 1,500, and 1,000 BP (Sisson and Vallance, 2009), yet eruptive products or lahars dating from these time periods have not been documented in the Kautz Creek valley. The Summerland (2,200 to 2,600 ybp) eruptive period is capped by the C tephra and probably induced the National lahar which traveled to the west from the summit (Mullineaux, 1974). The 1,500 ybp eruption is associated temporally with the Twin Creek lahars which initiated from the northeast flank of Mount Rainier and ran out to the Puget Sound (Sisson and Vallance, 2009). Finally, an ash deposit found near the White River (northeast flank) was dated at 1,040 ±410 cal year BP (Hoblitt et al., 1995). The closest associated lahar deposit in time is the Fryingpan lahar assemblage, which ran out to the north east and was dated at  $1,120 \pm 70$  cal year BP (Zehfuss et al., 2003). Lahars or tephras with similar ages have not been documented on the southwest side of the Mount Rainier.

Tephra layers sourced from Mount Saint Helens (~75 km to the south-southwest) are present in the study area as well, and serve as temporal markers in strata and on landforms. Notable ash layers for this study include layer W, which represents two closely spaced eruptions tree-ring dated at 531 and 533 BP (1480 to 1482 AD), and layer Y at 3,500 BP (Vallance and Scott, 1997; Yamaguchi, 1985).

A series of moraine studies around the mountain document Neoglacial glacier fluctuations on Mount Rainier(Burbank, 1982; Burbank, 1981; Sigafoos and Hendricks, 1972; O'Neal, 2005). Moraine ages predominantly date to the Little Ice Age (LIA) period extending from ca. 1600-1850, with terminus positions typically 1-2 km down valleys of current termini. Multiple moraines in valleys suggest that glaciers fluctuated throughout the LIA, while on average larger than present glaciers. Moraine ages are not known in the Kautz drainage. As discussed later, periods of moraine stabilization across the volcano, as indicated by clusters of moraine ages, coincide with warming trends in the temperature record (Graumlich and Brubaker, 1986). Since moraines stabilize when glaciers recede away from a previously stable terminus position, moraine ages should coincide with warming temperature trends. These correlations in moraine stabilization and temperature support temperature-sensitivity of glaciers and a robust temperature reconstruction (Meier, 1984). In the previous century, glaciers have generally retreated with exception of a period in the 1960s and 1970s, and have lost 14% of their volume from 1970-2007/8 (Heliker et al., 1984; Sisson et al., 2011).

#### 3.4 Methods

This study used a combination of geomorphic mapping, surface dating of landforms, and stratigraphic sequences to reconstruct the chronology of prehistoric debris flows, fluvial processes, and glacier terminus positions in the Kautz Creek basin. Geomorphic mapping on high-resolution topography derived from airborne laser swath mapping (ALSM) provides a basis for interpretation of valley form. We use a series of surficial and stratigraphic dating methods including dendrochronology, lichenometry, and radiocarbon dating techniques to establish temporal constraint on the natural archives in the Kautz Valley.

High-resolution ALSM data allow detailed landform mapping and measurement of vertical elevation change. The ALSM data used here were collected in October 2008 and August 2012 (both obtaining 7 points/m<sup>2</sup>) and subsequently processed into 1-m gridded digital elevation models (DEMs) of the bare earth and digital surface models (DSM) of the forest canopy. The repeat ALSM surveys allowed us to measure vertical elevation change between survey dates by generating DEM of difference (DOD) maps. We also used DSMs of the forest canopy to evaluate relative forest and landform ages where boundaries in forest age coincided with landform boundaries.

Spatial distributions of debris flow deposits and their characteristics allowed us to qualitatively evaluate the nature and frequency of debris flow deposition in the Kautz Valley. We utilized bare-earth DEMs with one-meter elevations contours and DSMs of tree canopies overlain at a 1:1,000 scale for field mapping. DSMs of tree canopies provided visual representation of relative forest ages and aided with landform identification in the field. In active channels, we mapped the distribution of major debris flow deposits from the most recent debris flow that occurred in 2006. Outside of active channels where forest cover had not degraded surface features, we mapped debris flow snouts and levees in the field and using ESRI ArcGIS. We defined levees as narrow and roughly linear features in map view that are composed of grains with no preferred orientation. We classified debris flow snouts as any deposit with no obvious orientation of grains or fluvial features (Whipple and Dunne, 1992). We primarily mapped these landforms in the field, but supplemented mapping with imagery and ALSM DEMs in the office. Finally, we used historical aerial imagery to map former channel positions and aid with geomorphic surface age determination.

Where trees appeared impacted or buried by debris flow deposits in the field, we employed dendrochronologic techniques to determine debris flow disturbance ages. We cored the impacted (typically uphill) and un-impacted sides of trees using a 24-inch increment borer, which allowed us to core to the pith in all but the largest trees. We marked sampled trees on DSMs of the forest canopy height, on which individual trees were identifiable. Debris flows can bury, scar, or tilt trees, and the associated growth disturbances record debris flow events (Figure 3-3) (Bollschweiler et al., 2007; Stoffel and Bollschweiler, 2008). Stem burial abruptly suppresses

annual growth; scarring results in creation of traumatic resin ducts; and tilting causes eccentric growth resulting in asymmetric ring-width patterns between the two opposite core samples. In conifers such as Douglas fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii), mountain hemlock (*Tsuga mertensiana*), western hemlock (*Tsuga heterophylla*), grand fir (*Abies grandis*), and silver fir (*Abies amabilis*) sampled here, compression wood grows on the underside of a tilted tree. Alternatively, debris flows clear swaths of a forest that leave adjacent uninjured trees with additional light and nutrients. Enhanced growing conditions release growth in these survivors and mark the timing of debris flows (Stoffel et al., 2005).

Laboratory processing of tree cores included sample preparation, sample screening, and cross dating. We prepared core samples using standard techniques and examined samples associated with a single debris flow deposit for growth disturbances of roughly common age (Speer, 2010). On samples with roughly contemporaneous disturbances, we measured ring widths using a scope and Velmex measuring stage with one micron precision. We then checked our sample measurements with the statistical cross-dating program COFECHA to identify approximate locations of missing or false rings, and corrected measurements accordingly (Grissino-Mayer, 2001; Holmes et al., 1986). Finally, we compared disturbances to existing master tree-ring chronologies to confirm that observed disturbances were not climatically induced (Earle et al., 1987; Peterson and Peterson, 2001). Where a common non-climatic disturbance was present in two or more samples associated with a single debris flow deposit, we assigned the associated deposit the age of common growth disturbance. Where only one tree was available for a single deposit, we compared disturbance ages with the associated lichen landform age (lichenometric techniques discussed below). Where a disturbance age was within error of the lichenometric age, we assigned the deposit the age of the tree growth disturbance. We assigned a lower certainty to deposits meeting the latter criteria. Even with statistical checks for cross-dating accuracy, debris flow dates have an approximate error of ±2 years due the possibility of false or missing rings, measurement error, and uncertainty in the exact year of disturbance onset.

Lichenometric dating also provided a method for estimating landform ages. A diametric growth curve for the abundant species *Rhizocarpon geographicum* at elevations between 1,000 and 1,760 masl was developed by Porter (1981), updated by O'Neal and Schoenenberger (2003) and

extended by O'Neal et al. (in review). Measurement of the largest lichen diameter on a landform permits age estimation of landforms to least 300 years in age with an approximate error of  $\pm 10$ years on surfaces younger than 150 years, and with increasing error on older surfaces. On many debris flow deposits, we suspect errors are greater than published error estimates due to competition with moss and shading from adjacent forests (we assume  $\pm 15$  and  $\pm 20$  years on surfaces of 0 to 150, and >150, respectively). We also measured lichen diameters on glacial moraines, and assume the published error ranges apply based on minimal moss coverage and shading at higher elevations.

Stratigraphic sequences exposed in banks and soil pits revealed change in valley sedimentation through time. We measured and described stratigraphy in vertical sections and used sedimentological descriptions, and infrequently sediment size analysis by sieving and pebble counts, to interpret the nature of stratigraphic layers (Costa, 1988; Pierson, 2005; Scott et al., 1995; Wolman, 1954). Sedimentological boundaries or buried organic soil horizons marked layer contacts, and tephra layers and radiocarbon dating constrained absolute horizon ages. Whenever possible, we collected radiocarbon samples from the outermost rings of buried tree stumps in growth position to estimate death dates and infer ages of overlying deposits. We also sampled organic material incorporated in layers representing individual fluvial or debris flow layers to estimate maximum ages. Radiocarbon samples were submitted for analysis using Atomic Mass Spectrometer (AMS) techniques and calibrated using the INTCAL09 curve (Reimer et al., 2009). When multiple age constraints were present within individual sections, we used stratigraphic modeling in the OxCal program to adjust raw age probabilities of radiocarbon results to reflect age constraints imposed by tephra layers and other radiocarbon samples in stratigraphic succession (Ramsey, 1995).

To obtain a snapshot of landform ages and infer geomorphic disturbance through time, we dug soil pits at randomly sampled locations to determine the presence or absence of the Mount Saint Helens Layer W (1480-1482 AD). We randomly selected 55 locations using ArcGIS10 from areas of unknown surface age (surfaces originating prior to the 1947 debris flow, discussed below), and dug to the first encounter of mineral soil. At each location, we dug a maximum of three pits within an approximate 10-meter radius to prevent false negatives that may have

resulted from spotty ash coverage. In pits where mineral soil was encountered above the ash layer, we classified the surface as younger than 1482, meaning deposition covered or erosion removed the layer. Where the Layer W was encountered, we classified the surface as older than 1480.

We integrated results from all dating methods to form a chronology of debris flows and sedimentation in the Kautz Valley and correlated with climate and glacier data. For temperature, we combined instrumental records (1914-2010; Western Regional Climate Center) of mean annual temperature with a tree-ring reconstructed mean annual temperature record (1590-1979) for Longmire (Graumlich and Brubaker, 1986). We performed a linear regression for the period of 1914 to 1979 and corrected the tree-ring reconstructed temperatures according to the linear regression equation.

#### 3.5 Landforms – Physical Characteristics and Distribution

The general form of the Kautz Valley varies with distance from its head at the Box Canyon (Figure 3-1). Longitudinal valley gradients range from approximately 7° at the valley head below the bedrock-walled (but alluviated) Box Canyon, to  $2^{\circ}$  at the confluence with the Nisgually River (Figure 3-2). Kautz Creek runs the length of the broad valley as a cobble and boulder-rich alluvial channel averaging about 50 meters in width (Figure 3-3). No major tributaries enter Kautz Creek until about river kilometer (RK) 4, where Pyramid Creek joins (Figure 3-1). Pyramid Creek enters the valley from river right near the valley head and runs down the right side of the valley until meeting Kautz Creek. Based on this configuration, most of the sediment in the main channel is derived from the headwaters with limited lateral contributions. A cross-sectional convexity characterizes the upper valley above RK 9, with the bed of the main Kautz Creek channel sitting as much as 15 meters above the valley sides. In the following discussion, we refer to the Kautz Creek channel as the main channel and to other channels (abandoned and active) that run across the valley floor as secondary channels. We also use the term valley floor for the valley bottom outside of the main channel. For ease of discussion, we also define the upper, middle, and lower valleys to extend from the Box Canyon to RK 8, RK 8 to RK 5, and RK 5 to the Nisgually confluence, respectively.

Active deposition occurs on the valley floor, despite some factors suggesting a disconnection from the main channel. The main channel bed sits on average 5.4 meters below the adjacent forested valley surface, suggesting minimal exchange of water and sediment between the main channel and adjacent valley surfaces. During field work, however, summer stream flows actively ran across the valley floor in a narrow channel that appeared to run through a faint former channel feature (Figure 3-1). DEM of difference maps reveal that this channel conveyed sediment into the forest between 2008 and 2012.

Debris flow landforms were commonly composed of open-framework boulders with little matrix at the surface (Figure 3-3). Debris flow lobes had surface gradients along their long axes ranging from 7° to 15° and generally exceeded the surrounding valley floor slope. Intermediate grain diameters averaged approximately 40 cm, with boulders greater than a meter in diameter common. Below the surficial layer of open framework boulders (usually 1-2 boulder diameters thick), boulders and cobbles were supported in a dense matrix of sand, silt, and clay (Figure 3-3). Due to little fine matrix at the surface, debris flow deposits often had minimal forest growth and were therefore easily identified using aerial photographs, DSMs of forest canopies, and in the field. Debris flow landform mapping may thus be biased toward un-forested open framework deposits.

Debris flow landforms vary in abundance and character longitudinally and transversely in the Kautz Valley (Figure 3-4). Mapped debris flow landforms were abundant downstream of the Box Canyon (RK 11) to approximately RK 8, where longitudinal valley and channel gradients range from 6° to 7° (Figure 3-2 and Figure 3-4). Debris flow lobes commonly appear to have spilled from secondary channels, many of which are now inactive and forested. In some cases, debris flow lobes appear "frozen" in place in secondary channels (Figure 3-4). Other secondary channels lose their expression where broad boulder fields are present. Secondary channels form a discontinuous, network sub-parallel to the valley trend, creating a rough surface appearance (Figure 3-4). Secondary channels range in morphology from incised into the valley surface to being perched on top of the valley surface with constructed channel banks (Figure 3-5). Below approximately RK 8, debris flow lobes and levees become markedly less abundant,

and the valley surface takes on a smooth surface character with fewer secondary channels. In this lower zone, secondary channel cross sections reveal subtle to non-existent levees.

#### 3.6 Historical Debris Flows in Kautz Creek

Historical debris flows have known times of deposition and provide examples of debris flow magnitudes, styles, and sedimentological characteristics.

## 3.6.1 1947 Debris Flow

Kautz Creek was the site of the largest debris flow on Mount Rainier in recorded history. On October 1, 2, and 3, 1947, intense rain fell and induced flooding and debris flows in Kautz Creek. High water washed out the entrance bridge, which was followed by a series of debris flows. The first debris flow occurred between 10 and 11 PM; the first of a number of pulses that occurred through the night of October 2 to 3. The debris flows reportedly had the "consistency of wet concrete, carrying along vegetation and boulders as large as [4 meters] in diameter" (Crandell, 1971b). Grater (1947) observed a large canyon cut into glacial material upstream of the box canyon following the event, and hypothesized that debris flow pulses resulted from temporary damming behind the Box Canyon (Figure 3-1 and Figure 3-6). Grater (1947) estimated that the event mobilized greater than 40 million cubic meters of material. Czuba et al. (2012) estimated a sediment volume change of approximately 9 million m<sup>3</sup> between 1945 and 1956 in the Alder Reservoir located downstream on the Nisqually River.

The debris flows and floods of the 1947 storm profoundly changed the Kautz Valley. Reconnaissance following the storm found that a reach of the former channel was abandoned and left perched above a newly cut 10- to 25-m deep channel (Figure 3-1, Figure 3-3, and Figure 3-6). Today, the former channel sits approximately 6 m above the active channel. Though originally thought to have cut a completely new channel by Grater (1947), Crandell (1971) indicated that the valley topography suggested that flows had enlarged a pre-existing, unoccupied channel. Based on valley gradients, Crandell inferred that channel incision was accomplished by floodwaters as opposed to debris flows. Flooding also cut secondary channels through the forest (Figure 3-5). In the upper part of the valley, debris flow deposits remained mostly confined to the channel, with minor localized spill over. In the lower portion of the valley (below ~ RK 6), wide lobes of debris spilled from the channel, inundating large areas of the forest and forming a debris fan at the confluence with the Nisqually River (Figure 3-1 and Figure 3-6).

## 3.6.2 Other Debris Flows

In contrast with the 1947 event, subsequent debris flows in 1975, 1985, 1986, 2005, and 2006 were mostly confined to channels (Richardson, 1968; Driedger and Fountain, 1989; Copeland, 2009). The 1975 debris flow initiated near the Kautz Glacier, crossed the drainage divide, and traveled down the Van Trump drainage to the east. Detailed maps of the 1985 and 1986 deposits were not available, and their deposits were not identifiable in the field, suggesting their impact outside of the active channel was small. The 1975, 1985, and 1986 debris flows all occurred during warm periods in summer months, suggesting they were initiated from glacier outburst floods. The 2005 debris flow occurred during a storm in late fall after intense precipitation (Copeland, 2009)

On November 6 and 7, 2006, an atmospheric river storm approaching from the southwest hit Mount Rainier and dropped approximately 45 cm of rain over a 36-hour period (Neiman et al., 2008). We identified 2006 deposits in active channels and in localized areas where the debris flows spilled into and killed forests (Figure 3-1 and Figure 3-3). In places where the 2005 debris flow filled the main channel, the 2006 debris flowed into and killed forests. The 2006 debris flow traveled downstream in the main channel to approximately RK 3 and caused an avulsion in the active channel, rerouting normal stream flow following the storm to the east side of the 1947 debris fan (Figure 3-1). Whereas atmospheric river storms like that of 2006 storms have conditions favorable for debris flow initiation (Chapter 2), storms that are not classified as atmospheric rivers likely also create conditions favorable for debris flow initiation.

## 3.7 Little Ice Age Moraine Ages – Lichenometric Data

Lichenometric age estimates of previously undated moraines above the Box Canyon in Kautz Creek provided temporal constraint on glacier positions (Figure 3-7). Using an established growth curve, we estimate three moraine ages of 1637, 1768, and 1839 (maximum lichen diameters of 165 mm, 108 mm, and 77 mm respectively), which fall within periods of moraine stabilization found for other glaciers on Mount Rainier (Sigafoos and Hendricks, 1972; Burbank, 1981; O'Neal, 2005; O'Neal et al., in review). These moraine ages represent minimum ages, because relatively few lichens were present.

#### 3.8 Landforms – Relative and Absolute Ages

The distribution of forest properties, tephra layer W, and lichen measurements of debris flow landforms provide relative landform ages along the valley length. Forest structure varies longitudinally along the valley. In the upper valley, DEMs of the forest canopy and aerial photographs indicate mixed forest age classes and numerous forest clearings coincident with debris flow lobes. In the lower valley outside of young forests on the 1947 debris flow deposit, old-growth forests persist, suggesting limited geomorphic disturbance. The spatial distribution of Layer W was spotty in the upper valley, consistent with the patchwork of debris flow deposits mapped (Figure 3-1 and Figure 3-4). With exception of an area in the middle valley, all surfaces older than the 1947 deposit appear to have been stable since prior to 1480. We observed no other ash layers in soil pits. At all locations where we positively identified Layer W, we encountered it in the first pit dug. We dug three pits in sample locations where we encountered no Layer W at the boundary between organic and mineral soil. These observations gave us confidence that there were few to no false negatives. Lichenometric measurements on boulder deposits provide relative age constraints on the distribution of debris flow deposit ages in the upper valley. Figure 3-4 indicates the maximum lichen diameter measured on debris flow deposits. Spatially-scattered lichen diameters and corresponding age estimates suggest that secondary channels have conveyed debris flows away from the main channels (pre-1947 and current) through time. In the discussion below, we use lichenometric data in conjunction with tree-ring dating to constrain absolute deposit ages and spatial extents in the upper valley. Using surficial dating methods, we estimated absolute debris flow dates of 1915, 1868, 1782, and 1718. We established two (1915 and 1868) with high confidence and two with moderate confidence (1782 and 1718) (Table 3-1). Consistent growth disturbances in tree ring samples KD-036 and KD-195 constrained the 1915 deposit age (Appendix A). The associated debris flow snout was located approximately 100 meters west of the main channel at RK ~8.6 (Figure 3-4). The maximum lichen diameter (50 mm) yielded a date estimate of  $1901 \pm 15$  years. Contemporaneous growth disturbances in tree ring samples KD-033, KD-187, and KD-188

constrained the 1868 deposit age (Appendix A and Figure 3-4). The associated boulder snout was located approximately 100 meters west of the main channel at RK ~8.3, with castes of trees present (Figure 3-3), suggesting that enough time had passed since deposition for full decay (Figure 3-4). The maximum lichen diameter (68 mm) yielded a date estimate of  $1860 \pm 15$  years. A growth disturbance in sample KD-175 in 1782 was within error of a lichenometric age estimate of  $1789 \pm 20$  years (99 mm diameter) (Figure 3-8). A boulder "eddy" on the lee side of the sampled tree indicated that deposition of the associated boulder snout (25 m west of the main channel at RK 9.6) had impacted the tree (Figure 3-4). The tilting direction indicated by opposite tree cores in Figure 3-8 was consistent with the direction of inferred boulder transport. Nearby, a tree (sample KD-176) was abruptly tilted in 1718, within error of a lichenometric date of 1731  $\pm$  20 years (124 mm diameter) on an adjacent boulder levee (Figure 3-4; Figure 3-8). We observed similar boulder eddy consistent with impact by debris flow levee deposition.

Despite environmental factors associated with shading and moss affecting lichen growth, lichenometric age estimates of deposits with known ages are within reasonable error of the published lichenometric growth curve (Figure 3-9) (O'Neal and Schoenenberger, 2003; O'Neal et al., in review). Measurements of maximum lichen diameter at discrete locations along the 1947 debris flow deposit in the upper valley coupled with lichen sizes on four deposits with tree-ring age constraint show growth rates consistent with the published curve. The minor deviations that are present suggest that lichen growth rates may tend to be relatively rapid in the first hundred years of growth, and slower thereafter as demonstrated by lichens on the 1718 and 1782 deposits underestimating deposit age given by tree rings. The pattern of relatively early rapid growth followed by slower growth may relate to shading that causes lichens to grow relatively quickly until moss coverage increases to a point where it competes with and overgrows lichens. This interpretation is supported by our observation that moss coverage tended to be greater on older deposits. Appendix B details lichen measurements in this study.

Good fits of measured lichen diametric growth rates to published lichen growth rates allowed us to use lichen sizes to constrain the age of landforms without dendrochronologic age constraint. According to lichen age estimates, we assigned each debris flow landform an age of known debris flow ages (1915, 1868, 1782, or 1712) or an unknown age (Figure 3-10). We assigned a known age when a deposits lichenometric age estimate fell within error of the lichenometric age estimate on a tree-ring dated deposit. For lichenometic age estimates outside of error of all tree-ring dated deposits, we categorized deposits ages as unknown. We secondarily used the location of a deposit with respect to other deposits of the same age to decide age categories. Figure 3-10 reveals that we assigned ages to 20 of 29 debris flow landforms that originally had only lichenometric age constraint.

Depositional patterns of the four dated debris flows record run-out paths of each (Figure 3-4). The 1915 deposit appears to have predominantly traveled down the pre-1947 main channel. The 1868 deposit flowed along the pre-1947 channel, and a secondary channel that diverges from the pre-1947 main channel at ~RK 9.5. Deposits of the 1782 debris flow indicate that it traveled along the pre-1947 main channel as well. Deposits of the 1718 debris flow are limited in extent, but suggest that the debris flow may have traveled down a channel that pre-existed the current main channel that was reoccupied in 1947 (Crandell, 1971b). The seemingly realistic run-out paths where individual debris flows follow predominantly a single channel adds confidence to age assignments of sets of debris flow deposits.

Figure 8 shows two sets of unknown deposits ages that fell out of error range of the tree-ring dated deposits. One set of six deposits have individual lichenometric date estimates of 1821, 1821, 1828, 1828, 1837, and 1844 (lichen diameters of 85 mm, 85 mm, 82 mm, 82 mm, 78 mm, and 75 mm). Overlapping error bars make it impossible to determine how many events are actually represented by these deposits, but at least one debris flow is likely. For simplicity, we assume the set of deposits represent one event with an age of the mean of the six lichenometric estimates (1829). Spatially, five of deposits are located along the pre-1947 main channel and secondary channels that diverge from its upper reach (~ RK 9.5), suggesting a run-out path roughly consistent with routes of the predating 1782 and postdating 1868 debris flows. Another cluster of unconstrained deposits have lichenometric estimates of 1910, 1920, and 1922; however, they are young outliers relative to nearby deposits, and are scattered spatially relative to the 1915 deposit (temporally closest). Due to these uncertainties, we left their ages unassigned.

## 3.9 Physical Stratigraphy

Valley stratigraphy of debris flow and fluvial layers provided a means to evaluate temporal change in valley deposition (Figure 3-11). Stratigraphic column C, located along the right bank of the main channel at RK 7.6, revealed the greatest number of individual layers and provides a logical section to present sedimentological descriptions and facies definitions (Figure 3-4).

The uppermost layer of the section was composed of poorly sorted cobbles and boulders supported in a massive matrix ranging in size from gravel to clay. Course framework grains tended to be sub-angular to-sub rounded, whereas gravel, granule, and sand-sized particles were commonly angular. We observed no sedimentary structures such as cross- or planarbedding within the layer. We interpreted the uppermost layer as a debris flow based on descriptions of debris flows in the literature that include course clasts supported in matrix, massive bedding with no sedimentary structures, and changing roundness with clast size (Pierson, 2005; Costa, 1988). We defined a debris flow facies (DF) for further discussions of similar layers (Figure 3-11). Underlying the uppermost layer was an organic horizon with a buried stump in growth position, consistent with a buried forest layer. The growth position stump may also support abrupt burial by the layer above. Below was a sequence of four layers composed of sand and gravel with buried organic layers at their contacts. Clast-supported mixed sand, gravel and intermittent cobbles characterized the uppermost and lowermost layers in the sequence. Cross beds were present, and clasts were generally sub-angular to sub-round. Based on sedimentary structures and clast-support indicative of water-lain deposits, we interpreted these layers as fluvial deposits. Grain size coarseness suggests that these deposits were laid by relatively energetic flows either in or proximal to channels, causing us to define a second facies of channelized fluvial deposits (FC, Figure 3-11). The middle two layers in the sequence of layers were dominated by sand with cross beds and intermittent zones of massive bedding. We interpreted these layers as fluvial deposits that occurred adjacent to channels, likely from overbank floods, and defined a third facies of fluvial sand (FS). Below the sequence of sand and gravel was a layer of matrix-supported gravel and cobbles that we interpreted as DF facies. The layer's lower contact was defined as an abrupt sedimentologic boundary without buried organic material. The layer below was predominantly sand with few sedimentary structures that we classified as facies FS. A sharp sedimentologic boundary marked the contact with the layer

below, which was composed of matrix-supported boulders and cobbles that we classified as a debris flow. The debris flow deposit sat on a organic horizon with a layer of white pumice and grey sand consistent with descriptions of the Tephra Layer W that was erupted from Mount Saint Helens in cal. years 1480 and 1482 (Vallance and Scott, 1997; Yamaguchi, 1985). Below was a layer of matrix-supported cobbles and boulders that we interpreted as a debris flow. The debris flow layer's lower contact was marked by an organic horizon underlain by a clast-supported sand and gravel layer that we interpreted as facies FC. The layer's lower contact was marked by a sharp change to a sand layer with occasional sedimentary structures that we interpreted as facies FS. Below were two layers of matrix-supported boulders and cobbles interpreted as debris flows (Figure 3-11).

In addition to those identified in column C, we identified two facies in column E located in a cut bank of a head-cut secondary channel (~ RK 5.3) in the lower valley (Figure 3-1 and Figure 3-11). The type-layer for the first facies (2.7-3.1 m depth) was composed of sand with cross-bedding and occasional finely laminated silt layers. We interpreted the layer as fluvial in nature (FSSi). We defined a second facies based on a brown silt layer (3.1-3.4 m depth) with intermittent inter-beds of fine sand (FSiS). We interpreted that both facies originated from low-energy fluvial deposition, possibly by a secondary channel that ran across the valley floor.

In the lowermost layer in column E, we analyzed sediment size to evaluate the deposit layer's origin. The layer's extent down valley and a buried forest exposed in the main channel of similar elevation suggested a large volume debris flow and begged questions about whether the deposit recorded a high-clay lahar or debris flow. Simple settling tests of the sieved fine fraction (>4  $\Phi$ ) revealed that a majority of fine fraction was silt, with approximately 70% of sediment volume settling within 30 minutes. Hand texturing of the fine fraction also indicated minor plasticity and correspondingly minor clay content. Vallance and Scott (1997) found that lahars tend to exceed 0.05 in the fraction of clay to sand plus silt plus clay. Our measurements reveal this fraction to be less than 0.02, suggesting that event mobilized clay-poor sediments characteristic of surficial sediment sources.

## 3.10 Stratigraphic Evidence for Debris Flow Ages

Because individual layers were often poorly exposed, we were not able to physically trace and correlate their extents down valley. Absolute age data provided by radiocarbon analysis and tephra layers, however, allow temporal correlation. Tephra layer W was observed in all stratigraphic columns presented here, and thus serves as a common temporal marker. In young layers at the surface of stratigraphic sections where radiocarbon techniques are ineffective, we used aerial imagery and approximate forest characteristics as a proxy for surficial layer ages. Working down-section, we discuss absolute and relative age data to correlate and interpret the ages of layers.

Aerial imagery, DSMs of forest canopy height, and forest characteristics provided a relative age constraint on the surficial layer in stratigraphic sections (Figure 3-11). Aerial imagery captured in 1965 suggested that the surface of sections B and E were within deposits of the 1947 debris flow. The 1965 aerial imagery showed a relatively young forest at the surface of section C, but mature enough to suggest earlier surface disturbance than the 1947 debris flow. We thus interpreted the surface debris flow to represent the 1915 debris flow dated using tree-ring techniques. Mature forests growing at sections A and C indicated that surficial debris flows were at least in the hundreds of years in age.

Three radiocarbon ages, tephra layer W, and relative ages constrain the age of a debris flow that occurred in the late 1600s. Radiocarbon samples KRC-04C, KRC-05B, and KRC-06B (sections A, B, and C respectively) provided calibrated calendar age ranges (95%) of 1,466-1,636 cal. years; 1,490-1,603 (74.2%) 1,611-1,645 (21.2%) cal. years; and 1,642-1,681, 1,763-1,801, 1,938-1,955 cal. years, respectively (Table 3-2). Samples KRC-04C and KRC-05B were organic fragments incorporated into debris flow layers in sections A and B, and thus provide maximum debris flow ages. The latter sample from section C was collected from the outermost rings of a buried stump in growth position. Outer rings on the stump appeared normal in growth suggesting that the tree was abruptly buried and killed. In column C, the debris flow layer discussed here is overlain by a sequence of fluvial layers separated by organic horizons and further overlain by the 1915 debris flow, suggesting that the debris flow of interest is at least a few hundred years in age. Based on the apparent time represented above in section C, and the correlation with the layer

upstream, we interpret the debris flow age range to coincide with the first calendar range of 1,642-1,681 for sample KRC-06B. An absence of layer W on the valley floor surface with mature to old growth forests implies that the debris flow spilled from the main channel between RK 7.3 and 6.2 (Figure 3-1) and represents the surficial debris flow layer in column D (Figure 3-11).

Absolute age data in stratigraphic columns A, B, and C suggest that a debris flow occurred in the early 1400s (Figure 3-11). Tephra Layer W overlies the debris flow layer in all sections. In columns A and C, samples KRC-04A and KRC-06C collected from an organic horizon below the debris flow have consistent calibrated dates of 1,295-1,400 AD. Modeling the bounding radiocarbon and tephra ages yield a deposit date of 1,416 ± 61 AD (Ramsey, 1995).

Radiocarbon dates of the outer rings from growth position stumps constrain the age of a debris flow layer exposed in columns C, D, and E (Figure 3-11). Radiocarbon samples KRC-06E, 12-KS-04A, and 12-KS-09 (columns C, D, and E respectively) yield calibrated dates 895-1,018 AD, 906-1,033 AD, and 827-987 AD. Because these samples approximately represent death dates of the respective tree stumps, we interpret the layers age by the youngest radiocarbon result of the three samples (12-KS-04A) of 970±64 AD.

The debris flow with a calendar date of 970±64 AD (1,041±64 BP) coincides temporally with volcanic and tectonic events that confound its origin. The Mount Rainier eruption dated at 1,040 ±410 BP is within error of the debris flow (Hoblitt et al., 1995). Our sediment size data, however, indicate that the debris flow likely was not a lahar induced from flank collapse, which mobilize clay-rich sediment and can result from eruptions (Vallance and Scott, 1997). Rather, volcanic activity could have melted glaciers and induced a large debris flow of surficial debris. In addition, a roughly contemporaneous large magnitude earthquake dated at 1,000 to 1,100 cal. years BP on the Seattle Fault (Puget Sound, Washington, 60 km west-northwest) is connected with landslides and rock avalanches in the Puget Sound and the Olympic Mountains (Atwater and Moore, 1992; Jacoby et al., 1992; Schuster et al., 1992). As discussed later, the debris flow also corresponds with the Medieval Warming Period when temperatures were likely similar to the recent century (Viau et al., 2012). Regardless of its origin, the ca. 970 AD debris flow is consistent in timing with arrival of a sediment pulse at the Nisqually River delta into the Puget Sound (Barnhardt and Sherrod, 2006). The authors of that study were not able to unequivocally

constrain the sediment pulse's origin, but speculated that it was a result of a large debris flow or lahar originated from Mount Rainier.

#### 3.11 Interpretation of Valley Form and Process

Debris flow run-out lengths represent a spectrum in frequency and magnitude of debris flow deposition along the Kautz Valley. Rickenmann (1999) found a simple empirical relationship between debris flow volume and run-out length on fans, despite dependence of debris flow runout distance on other factors including peak discharge, velocity and channel cross-sectional area. Distance traveled down-valley thus served as a proxy for debris flow volume or magnitude. For historical debris flows, we measured this distance based on the furthest location downstream where the deposit would have been preserved outside of the main channel. This approach allows for integration of historical with prehistorical records and comparison of events on roughly the same relative length scale. We measured the run-out distance of reconstructed events at the furthest extent downstream. In cases where debris flows ran out beyond the valley, we assumed the debris flow stopped at the confluence with the Nisqually River. Run out lengths are detailed in Table 3-3Error! Reference source not found., but in general reveal 9, 2, and 2 debris flows that ran out 1-3 km, 3-5 km and 5-11 km, respectively from the Box Canyon. These data show a magnitude-frequency gradient with valley length despite the fact that the record of small magnitude events is likely incomplete before about 350 years BP due to the temporal limits on surficial dating of small magnitude debris flows (discussed in detail below). For just the last 350 years (removing the ca. 970 and ca. 1412, AD events), the record contains 9, 1, and 1 debris flows that ran out 1-3 km, 3-5 km, and 5-11 km, respectively.

We observed longitudinal variation in nature of deposits that indicates a downstream gradient in the nature and frequency of debris flow deposition, from frequent, patchy deposition in the upper valley to infrequent, large magnitude deposition in the lower valley. Key data and observations include downstream gradients in the nature and abundance of debris flow landforms, the morphology and quantity of channels, valley convexity in cross section, and surface roughness of the valley bottom as observed in Figure 3-1 and Figure 3-4. These measures vary downstream and correspond with a nearly monotonic decrease in valley gradient with downstream distance (Figure 3-2).
The coincidence of debris flow deposits and secondary channels in the upper valley suggest a process of debris flow conveyance, channel plugging, and channel avulsion. Abundant debris flow levees and lobes spill from and line secondary channels in the upper valley as observed by depositional patterns with respect to secondary channels in Figure 3-4. Debris flow deposits also coincide with abrupt channel ends, indicating that debris flows plug channels (Figure 3-4). Channel plugging drives avulsion and scouring of new channels, which explains the network of discontinuous channels on the valley bottom. The rough appearance of the upper valley thus reflects the mosaic of debris flow landforms and secondary channels. Valley convexity is consistent with near-channel deposition by debris flows, with the greatest rate of deposition occurring along the valley axis as the main channel emerges from and is fixed to the mouth of the Box Canyon at the head of the valley (Figure 3-4).

We interpret that secondary channels in the upper valley generally originate from fluvial erosion, but are influenced by debris flows. Longitudinal slopes in the upper valley are approximately 6° to 7°, which are slopes which are slopes where debris flows have been found to deposit (Pierson, 1980; Benda and Cundy, 1990). An absence of observed erosion from recent debris flows, debris flow lobes in channels (Figure 3-4), and the numerous debris flow layers on top of organic layers in stratigraphy (Figure 3-11) confirm that un-channelized and channelized debris flows generally deposit material in the upper valley. By process of elimination, channels are likely water-scoured. Channels often have sharp-crested, narrow, boulder-rich levees, suggesting debris flow passage (Figure 3-5). In extreme cases, channels beds and banks sit above the surrounding valley surface, suggesting that successive debris flows occasionally construct channels as they travel between their own levees across the valley surface (Figure 3-5) (Sharp, 1942; Whipple and Dunne, 1992).

Variation in the form of debris flow lobes along the valley surface may suggest deposition of debris flows with a range of flow rheology and yield strength. Whereas the control of yield strength on debris flow depositional form is disputed, Whipple and Dunne (1992) attributed a variation in debris flow deposits to variations in yield strength (Iverson, 2003). In the upper valley, debris flow lobes range from distinct and steep-snouted (Figure 3-4) to non-distinct boulder fields with a surface slopes equaling that of the surrounding valley surface. Steep,

distinct lobes that freeze in channels or spill a short distance from channels suggest high yield strength debris flows that are only mobile at high gradients (Whipple and Dunne, 1992). On the other hand, the observed non-distinct, low-gradient snouts suggest low-yield strength debris flows with greater mobility.

As compared to the upper valley, the lower valley is dominated by infrequent deposition of large volume debris flows with a different surface character. The 1947 debris flow deposit and a geomorphic surface lder than Layer W generally comprise the lower valley surface, suggesting infrequent resurfacing by debris flows (Figure 3-1). Figure 3-6 shows an image of the smooth 1947 deposit shortly after the event. A smooth surface appearance with few debris flow snouts like the upper valley suggests that only deposition of low yield strength debris flows occurs. These apparent low yield strength debris flows are mobile to lower gradients (2°-3° in this case), and spill from channels as wide, tabular, lobate deposits as indicated by the depositional pattern of the 1947 deposit (Figure 3-1) (Whipple and Dunne, 1992).

The spatial variation in geomorphic surface expression of the 1947 deposit suggests that debris flow pulses within the event had varying flow properties that dictated their distance traveled down valley. The main 1947 debris flow deposit in the lower valley is consistent with a low yield strength debris flow, with its wide, tabular deposits (Figure 3-1), but not incompatible with high yield strength pulses during the event. Steep, boulder lobes deposited adjacent to the main channel in the upper valley suggest that high yield strength pulses also occurred (Figure 3-4). The suggested range in yield strengths along the valley may relate to a range of volumetric sediment concentration (sediment to sediment and water) debris flows, which is conceivable considering that flooding and debris flows were observed during the 1947 storm. Others have document pulses of varying sediment concentration or downstream dilution in debris flows elsewhere (e.g. Pierson, 1986; Pierson and Scott, 1985).

The nature and distribution of landforms suggest that the Kautz valley has evolved in a manner consistent with arid debris flow fans, where frequent deposition occurs via a network of channels on upper fans, and mobile, low yield strength debris flows travel to the lower fan and spill from channels creating smooth surfaces (i.e. Whipple and Dunne, 1992; Hooke, 1967). While this type of valley seems unique for humid valleys in the Pacific Northwest, the similarity

with a fan at a fault-bounded mountain front seems to be the fixed point source of sediment and water at the valley head with limited tributary inputs below. The Kautz valley thus provides an example of evolution of a relatively steep mountain valley where lateral influences from tributaries and mass movement processes have little influence (cf. Grant and Swanson, 1995).

## 3.12 Interpretation of Debris Flow Occurrence with Respect to Glacier and Climate Fluctuations

The chronology of debris flows reconstructed here spans the LIA, permitting examination of debris flow occurrence across a period of changing climate and glacier extent. The LIA was generally a cool period when glaciers were extensive relative to present day (Figure 3-1, Figure 3-2, and Figure 3-12), but oscillated in their extent. In the Kautz drainage, LIA moraines cluster spatially just upstream of the Box Canyon, providing a set of snapshots in time of terminus positions. In periods between moraine ages, however, temperature oscillations suggest that glaciers also waxed and waned. Because maritime glaciers like those of Mount Rainier are sensitive to temperature, as indicated by moraine stabilization times coinciding with warming trends across Mount Rainier, temperature serves as a proxy for relative glacier extent between moraine ages (Meier, 1984; Oerlemans, 2005). Thus, relatively warm periods in the LIA likely caused the Kautz glacier terminus to recede to positions up-valley of the set of LIA moraines. In the warmest periods within the LIA, like the 1600s, similar temperatures to the 20<sup>th</sup> century suggest glaciers receded back to positions comparable to the 20<sup>th</sup> century. With changes in glacier extent along a concave valley profile (Figure 3-2), the sources and production rates of sediment likely would have changed.

Whereas average metrics of debris flow occurrence suggest that temperature and inferred glacier extent throughout the LIA had little influence on debris flow occurrence, the timing and magnitudes of individual events may suggest differently. We compare 1650-1900, generally corresponding with the LIA, to the period from 1900 to present day. The chronology contains 5 and 7 debris flows in the two periods, respectively, with corresponding average frequencies of 2 and 3.4 debris flows per century. In run-out length, the average magnitudes for the two time periods are 2.4 and 3 km from the Box Canyon. These simple statistics suggest that average climate and glacier extent have equivocal effects on debris flow occurrence across the two

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periods, particularly when considering that the record of smallest events is likely biased toward the present day. Thus, average metrics of debris flow frequency seem inadequate to assess changes in debris flow occurrence through time. Conversely, the timing and run-out lengths of individual debris flows may correspond systematically to the temperature record. The debris flow record presented in Figure 3-12 shows an apparent co-occurrence of individual debris flows and warm periods. Three warm periods with dated moraines in the drainage have corresponding debris flows (ca. 1661 AD, ca. 1782 AD, and ca. 1829 AD). In addition, other debris flows (ca. 1712 AD, ca. 1868 AD) occur during short-lived warming periods that have no associated moraines. Two effects of warmer climate may explain the correspondence between debris flows and warm periods: (1) retreat of the Kautz Glacier exposed debris at increased gradients and led to debris flows, or (2) elevated snow-lines during warm periods exposed material for debris flow initiation. The first effect depends on the temperature sensitivity of the Kautz Glacier, which is suggested to be high by moraine ages and work by others on maritime glaciers (Meier, 1984; Oerlemans, 2005). If the Kautz Glacier receded up-valley during these short-lived warm periods, expanded periglacial areas with abundant debris at increased gradients may have driven debris flow production. Elevated perennial snow-lines also may have had similar effects in enlarging debris flow source areas, as has been suggested by Stoffel and Beniston (2006). Whereas debris flows seem to correlate with the temperature record, individual debris flows occur across a range of indices for Pacific Decadal Oscillation Index, which correspond to multi-decadal hydro-climatological oscillations in the Pacific Northwest (MacDonald and Case, 2005). The seeming lack of systematic correspondence of debris flows with hydroclimate contrasts with some studies of debris flow occurrence in the European Alps where they are apparently linked (cf. Schneuwly-Bollschweiler and Stoffel, 2012).

Debris flow magnitudes also appear to correspond roughly with the magnitude of temperature change from the LIA minimum. Because of suggested temperature sensitivity of Mount Rainier glaciers, the total temperature change from the LIA minimum temperature can serve as a rough proxy for the up-valley distance to a glacier terminus. The timing of the largest debris flow events coincide with the warmest periods. The 1947 AD event occurred when the Kautz Glacier had down-wasted and receded up-valley to positions near present day (Grater, 1947). The ca. 1661 AD event falls within the warmest period in the LIA (Figure 3-12). The large magnitude ca.

970 AD event falls within the Medieval Warming Period, when local pollen reconstructions suggest temperatures were similar to the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Viau et al., 2012). In comparison, debris flow run-out lengths are consistently shorter in the brief, relatively warm periods in the LIA. In these periods, a relatively large Kautz Glacier would have limited the size and average slopes of ice-and snow-free source areas for debris flows. Figure 3-13 shows a correlation of temperature and run-out distance.

Depositional records imply LIA channel conditions in the Kautz valley that inhibited debris flow run-out during the LIA. In stratigraphic section C, a sequence of relatively thin fluvial layers overlie the 1661 debris flow layer, and underlie the 1915 debris flow layer, constraining the sequence's age to the LIA (Figure 3-14). The sequence of fluvial layers, which we interpret as a set of flood layers, is anomalous for the stratigraphic record observed in Kautz valley (Figure 3-11). Two possible interpretations of the flood sequence are (1) that the LIA was wetter, with more frequent or larger floods, or (2) that increased glacial sediment yield (or dryer climates) caused filling of channels to create smaller cross-sectional areas, which promoted overbank deposition more frequently. PDO indexes oscillated during the LIA, but were not on average different than the 20<sup>th</sup> century (MacDonald and Case, 2005). Regional tree-ring and lake sediment reconstructions of precipitation suggest that the LIA on average was similar to or relatively drier than the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Steinman et al., 2012; Graumlich, 1987). In addition, cooler temperatures suggest that rain-on-snow-induced flooding may have been reduced, causing LIA hydrographs to be less flashy (Harr, 1981). These records suggest that increased flood magnitudes are an unlikely explanation of the set of flood layers. Larger glaciers during cool periods tend to erode at greater rates, yielding greater amounts of sediment relative to warmer periods with smaller glaciers (e.g. Hallet et al., 1996). This increased total sediment production often causes aggradation downstream (Dühnforth et al., 2008; Ritter et al., 1995). Aggraded channels with lower cross-sectional areas thus can promote deposition on fan or valley surfaces. The latter scenario of infilled channels promoting flooding therefore seems more plausible. Debris flow depositional patterns also support our interpretation of aggraded channels and enhanced deposition on the valley floor. Of the five debris flows (1661, 1712, 1782, 1829, and 1868) in the LIA, only the 1661 debris flow, which occurred during the warmest period in the LIA, traveled to stratigraphic section C (Figure 3-11). The other debris flows deposited on the

upper valley surface, often along secondary channels (Figure 3-4). Taken together, these two lines of evidence suggest strongly that debris flows did occur during the LIA, but that their runout lengths were limited.

In the Kautz Valley, glacier extent appears to influence both debris flow source areas and channel conditions in depositional areas, which in turn have effects on debris flow run-out lengths and depositional patterns. Whether these two effects cooperate or compete depends on the response times associated with each. The coincidence of debris flows with short-lived warm periods within the LIA suggests that debris flows occurred as a rapid response to expanded and steeper source areas resulting from glacier retreat of the Kautz glacier and from elevated snowlines. Based on the pronounced concavity of the Kautz basin above the Box Canyon, enlarged debris flow source areas would have had increased average slopes. Rickenmann (1999) found that debris flows travel distances related positively to the product of material volume of a debris flow times the vertical elevation difference between the source and depositional area. Steeper slopes and increased volumes of sediment that were exposed in the warmest periods imply that debris flows should have run out relatively further, an inference supported by relatively long run-out lengths in the ca. 970, 1661, and 1947 AD debris flows (Figure 3-12 and Figure 3-13). As discussed previously, large glaciers produce relatively large amounts of sediment transported by fluvial processes, which can aggrade rivers and promote overbank deposition. Overbank deposition of material from a debris flow as it travels downstream may also reduce the material volume available to be conveyed downstream, potentially reducing debris flow run-out distances (Dühnforth et al., 2007). The response time of channels to glacier change, however, appears longer than the response of debris flow occurrence. Deposition of the 1915 debris flow on the valley surface may suggest that the main channel was relatively filled until at least that time (Figure 3-4). Large scale incision of approximately 10 meters during 1947 flooding may represent the point in time when channels evacuated fill from the LIA. Subsequent deposition on the valley surface outside of main channels has been relatively minimal (see 2006 deposit in Figure 3-1). That much of the incision that occurred in 1947 remains likely reflects reduced sediment production from the relatively smaller Kautz Glacier of the post-LIA climate.

These effects of glaciers on debris flow source areas and downstream channels interpreted here can cooperate or compete in conveying debris flows to downstream areas. In the LIA, short term warm periods saw debris flows while the channels were adjusted to the prevailing glacial climate, causing small volume debris flows to be conveyed a relatively short distance downstream as debris flows spilled from channels. Current conditions with large sediment-mantled areas in front of glaciers perched at relatively high elevations and steep slopes above the deposition setting, making large run-out distances more likely (Rickenmann, 1999). In addition, entrenched channels convey debris flows downstream, further enhancing debris flow run-out distances. This may suggest that recent debris flows like the one in 2006 have been conveyed further downstream with respect to its volume than debris flows in the LIA.

### 3.13 Completeness of the Reconstructed Debris Flow Record

We have reconstructed an approximately 1,100-year chronology of debris flows using a combination absolute and relative age data on surficial deposits and in stratigraphic sections. Using the surficial dating, we estimated ages of five debris flows (1718, 1782, 1829, 1868, and 1915 AD) of generally shorter run-out lengths. Absolute age data in stratigraphic sections constrained ages of three deposits (970, 1412, and 1661 AD) that ran-out further. The contrast in ages and apparent magnitudes extracted from surficial and stratigraphic methods suggests that the recent record within the age of living trees is more complete. Although we cannot rule out the possibility that our chronology missed events, the distribution of lichen age estimates of deposits on the upper valley suggest that few were missed from the upper valley surface in the last approximately 300 years (Figure 3-10). The smallest events which did not overtop channels were likely missed by our efforts. The record in strata, though incomplete for smaller magnitude events, likely has few missing events of larger magnitude. The distribution of Tephra W on the valley surface suggests that the lower channel below about RK 8 has been stable in planform since earlier than 1480. Because deposition in the lower valley has relatively little dependence on a network of secondary channels, strata exposed in existing cut banks should preserve a relatively complete record of debris flows sourced from the main channel and primary depositional locus. As discussed above, channel conditions may also influence the record completeness, as noted by others (Dühnforth et al., 2007). Filled channels, however, seem to

have improved the record completeness through the LIA because the deposits are distributed across the surface and have not been buried.

## 3.14 Conclusions

This study builds a chronology of 14 debris flows extending 1,100 years BP in a relatively steep valley on the flanks of Mount Rainer. We have demonstrated that debris flow records are best reconstructed using a variety of surficial and stratigraphic techniques. Due to temporal limitations of the surficial dating techniques used, the chronology is most complete for the past 300 to 350 years. Since 1650 AD, at least 12 debris flows have occurred from the upper Kautz basin, 11 of which traveled to the Kautz Valley below the Box Canyon. Run-out distances served as a proxy for debris flow magnitude, and indicate that at least 11, 2, and 1 debris flow(s) have traveled at least 1, 3, and 5 km from the valley head, respectively since ca. 1650, indicating a frequency-magnitude relationship. The largest of these events was the 1947 event, which was estimated at 40 million m<sup>3</sup> volume (Crandell, 1971a). The only other event of similar magnitude to the 1947 was one dated at ca. 970 AD that had a contemporaneous sediment pulse downstream at the Puget Sound (Barnhardt and Sherrod, 2006). We compare 1650-1900, generally corresponding with the LIA, to the period from 1900 to present day. Five and seven debris flows occurred in the two periods, respectively, with corresponding average frequencies of 2 and 3.4 debris flows per century. In run-out length, the average magnitudes for the two time periods are 2.4 and 3 km from the Box Canyon. Considering unavoidable biases toward the present in any reconstructed chronology, debris flow activity differences indicated by these averages are equivocal.

The geomorphic form and process of Kautz Valley is unique for the Pacific Northwest region, despite commonality with debris flow fans in arid environments. The Kautz Valley has limited lateral inputs from tributaries, creating a longitudinal gradient in geomorphic process dominated by debris flow deposition that varies in frequency and magnitude, as observed in the chronology. Debris flows deposit relatively often and in limited spatial extent in the upper valley, where secondary channels control debris flow depositional patterns. Depositional tracks of individual dated debris flows demonstrate the control of secondary channels on debris flow deposition. Variable form of deposits suggests that debris flows with variable rheology deposit on the relatively steep slopes of the upper valley. The lower valley, however, is dominated by relatively infrequent but widespread deposition by seemingly mobile debris flows that overwhelm the main channel and produce a smooth valley surface character.

The Kautz Creek chronology suggests relationships between the timing and run-out distance of individual debris flows with temperature and inferred glacier extent. Individual debris flows coincide temporally with relatively warm periods and inferred smaller glaciers. Kautz Creek's concave longitudinal profile requires that gradients in ice-free areas become steeper with decreased glacier sizes and elevated snow-lines. In the LIA, small magnitude debris flows occur during relatively warm periods either when glaciers retreated up-valley or snow coverage was less, exposing steeper gradients in ice-free areas. LIA debris flows, however ran-out relatively short distances compared to warmer periods before and after the LIA. Shorter run-out lengths appear to result from a combination of (1) relatively small areas and slopes of zones in the fronts of glaciers relative to warm periods like the MWP and the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and (2) from enhanced deposition of debris flows outside of the main channel as a result of filled channels during glacial times. Stratigraphic records and debris flow depositional patterns support filled channels during the LIA. Whereas we cannot fully deconvolve source area and depositional controls on the observed run-out distances, these results suggest that the hazards to debris flow prone areas change with temperature and glacier oscillations in steep catchments.

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# 3.15 Figures



**Figure 3-1** ALSM-generated hillshade map of the Kautz Creek drainage basin with select debris flow deposit extents shown. Scale and orientation are identical for the left and right panes.



**Figure 3-2** Longitudinal profile (black line) and gradient (black boxes, estimated from 200-m segments) of Kautz Creek with key locations marked as grey vertical bars.



**Figure 3-3** Photographs taken (2011) of select landforms and deposits in the Kautz Valley. A: Area inundated by 2006 deposit with 1-m diameter damaged tree in foreground (image location: Figure 5). B: A western hemlock tree impacted by debris flow boulders. C: A tree cast (60-cm diameter) in a debris flow snout. Note matrix-supported cobbles below the open-framework surface. D: Kautz Creek flows below the Box Canyon (in distance). E: A debris flow layer overlying the Tephra Layer W (1480-1482) in outcrop. F: A debris flow snout composed of open-framework boulders.



**Figure 3-4** Geomorphic map of the upper Kautz Valley with insets of geomorphic and landform dating details. Panel A shows dated and undated debris flow deposits with the maximum measured lichen diameter (mm). Tephra W was found on deposits labeled. Cross section transects of Figure 3-5 are shown. Panel B shows detailed landforms, lichen measurements, and key tree ring samples for the ca. 1718 and 1782 debris flows (Figure 3-8 shows tree ring width data). Panel C shows an example of a channel-plugging debris flow lobe with the plugged and avulsed channels shown. Panel D shows key tree ring samples used for establishing two debris flow ages (ca. 1868 and 1915).



**Figure 3-5** Selected channel cross sections extracted from ALSM DEMs (locations shown on Figure 3-4) that demonstrate variability of secondary channel form on the upper valley, with a channel bed above the surrounding surface (A), a channel with pronounced levees (B), and a channel entrenched into the valley surface. Panel C shows a channel incised by 1947 flooding, with approximate forest ages suggesting no disturbance since the event. The channel thus represents a young channel with little debris flow passage. Forest age indicates channels in Panels A and B are relatively old.



**Figure 3-6** Recent (A) and historical photographs (NPS Archives) of 1947 debris flow landforms. A: Looking down the former Kautz Creek channel. Note coverage of open-framework boulders. B: Looking upstream at incision from 1947 storm just below the Box Canyon visible in background (Potts, 1947). C: Oblique aerial photograph of Kautz Valley (unknown photographer, 1957). D: 1947 debris flow deposit in the lower Kautz Valley (unknown photographer, 1947).



**Figure 3-7** Map of LIA moraine crests (thin black lines) above the Box Canyon. The largest lichens measured are indicated in mm and correspond with moraine stabilization calendar dates of 1637 AD (165 mm), 1768 AD (108 mm) and 1839 AD (77 mm) based on the linear growth curve of (O'Neal et al., in review; O'Neal and Schoenenberger, 2003)



**Figure 3-8** Measured annual growth of increment cores from trees KD-175 (A) and KD-176 (B) with lichenometric age estimates (black dots with error bars) of debris flow deposits that impacted each tree. Growth for the impacted (solid lines) and un-impacted (dashed) are shown. Divergence in annual growth in cores of opposite orientation indicates tilting.



**Figure 3-9** Lichen diameter versus time plot showing measured lichen sizes on deposits of known age (dots) with the published growth curve (black line) for the Pacific Northwest (O'Neal et al., in review; O'Neal and Schoenenberger, 2003).



**Figure 3-10** Plot showing the four tree ring-dated deposit ages, the four corresponding estimates of age using published growth curves, and lichenometric age estimates of all other boulder deposits with lichen measurements. The latter group is classified according to the four deposit ages or as unknown age in the lowest row. This plot allowed us to interpret ages of boulder deposits systematically.



**Figure 3-11** Fence diagram of stratigraphic columns shown on Figure 3-1. Interpreted debris flow calendar ages corresponding with those shown in Table 1 are shown. Sedimentological units include debris flow (massive, poorly sorted, matrix-supported; DF), fluvial channel deposit (clast-supported gravel, cobbles and boulders with stratification, FC), fluvial sand (sand with stratification, FS), fluvial sand with silt (FSSi), and fluvial silt with sand (FSiS). Radiocarbon ages calibrated with stratigraphic modeling are shown. Where sample depths are adjacent to buried stumps, samples were collected from the outermost annual growth rings.



**Figure 3-12** Summary diagram of climate, glacier positions, and debris flows for the last 1,100 calendar years. Panel A shows a tree ring reconstructed index for Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) where positive values indicate decreased winter precipitation and snowpack and negative values indicate the reverse conditions (MacDonald and Case, 2005). Debris flow ages are also shown. Panel B shows a running average (15-year trailing) of annual temperature (Graumlich and Brubaker, 1986)reconstructed from tree rings. The 15-year choice is based on glacier response time estimated for Mount Rainier glaciers according to empirical relationships (Oerlemans, 2005; Oerlemans, 2001). Vertical grey areas define selected warming trends according to tree ring temperature reconstruction. Periods of warm (Medieval Warming Period (MWP)) and cold temperature anomalies derived from a pollen temperature reconstruction in the coastal region are also shown (Viau et al., 2012). Panel C shows moraine stabilization ages as determined from lichenometry (Burbank, 1981; O'Neal, 2005) and the oldest tree growing on moraines (Sigafoos and

Hendricks, 1972; Burbank, 1981). Bolded vertical lines denote lichenometric moraine ages for the Kautz basin (this study). Panel D shows reconstructed and recorded debris flows and periods of flood sedimentation. Broken lines indicate moderate confidence debris flows, solid lines show high confidence ages. Error bars (95%) shown. We use debris flow run-out distance as a proxy for debris flow volume. Note that the 1975 debris flow is not shown in Panel D (like it is in Panel A) because it ran-out along Van Trump Creek to the east of Kautz Valley.



**Figure 3-13** Plot of temperature difference (from the date of the debris flow to the minimum temperature during the LIA) versus run-out length from the valley head. The 1416 event is not included due to poor temperature constraint. The temperature for the ca. 970 event during the Medieval Warming Period was estimated using the average of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Temperature is a proxy for glacier extent.



**Figure 3-14** Time versus depth plot of stratigraphic column C (patterns defined in Figure 3-11, O means an organic horizon was observed). Lower plots show a combined instrumental and tree-ring reconstruction of mean annual temperature (MAT) and inferred channel cross sectional area which relates to the capacity of channels to convey floods and debris flows. We interpret the cross-sectional area based on the incidence of flooding recorded in debris flows, and from inferred sediment production as a result based on temperature and glacier records (Figure 3-11). We interpret a period of frequent flood deposition coinciding with the LIA to be a result of filled channels as a result of increased stream transported sediment flux produce from large glaciers.

## 3.16 Tables

Calendar Year		Certainty that a	
(AD)	Age Error	debris flow	Age Constraint(s)***
2006	0	High	А
2005	0	High	А
1986*	0	High	А
1985*	0	High	А
1975*	0	High	А
1947	0	High	А
1915	2	High	D
1868	2	High	D
1829	15	Medium	L
1782	2	Medium	D/L
1718	2	Medium	D/L
1661	20	High	S
1416	61	High	S
970	64	High	S

## Table 3-1 Reconstructed Debris Flow Ages and Age Constraints

\* Occurred during hot and dry weather, suggesting the debris flow was induced by glacier outburst flood.

\*\* The 1975 debris flow crossed the drainage basin divide and traveled down the Van Trump drainage (Driedger and Fountain, 1989).

\*\*\* Age constraints included, archives (A), dendrochronologic distrubance (D), lichenometric age estimates (L), and stratigraphic section (S).

Sample ID	Material	Stratigraphic Section	Sample Depth (m)*	Uncalibrated 14C Age (14C YBP)	Calibrated Date Range (calAD, 95% Conf.)	Stratigraphically Modeled Age (calAD, 95% Conf.)	Sample Position***
KRC-04A	Wood	A	2.95	615±30	1295-1400	1295-1400	OH
KRC-04C	Wood	А	1	345±25	1466-1636	1498-1531 (11.6%); 1537-1641 (83.8%)	OF
KRC-05B	Charcoal	В	2.5	315±25	1490-1603 (74.2%); 1611-1645 (21.2%)	1516-1647	OF
KRC-05C	Wood	В	2.5	375±25	1447-1524 (62.6%); 1559-1564 (1.1%); 1571-1631 (31.7%)	**	OF
KRC-06A	Wood	C	5.3	965±30	1018-1155	1021-1156	BTGP
KRC-06B	Wood	С	4	225±25	1642-1681 (44.2%); 1763-1801 (39.2%); 1938-1955 (12.0%)	1642-1681 (55.6%) 1763-1803 (39.8%)	BTGP
KRC-06C	Wood	С	4.6	615±25	1295-1400	1295-1400	ОН
KRC-06D	Wood	С	7.1	1110±25	887-990	**	BTGP
KRC-06E	Wood	с	7.1	1080±25	895-925 (26.3%); 936-1018 (69.1%)	896-927 (21.9%; 936-1018 (73.5%)	BTGP
12-KS-04A	Wood	D	1	1030±25	906-912 (1.1%); 972-1033 (94.3%)	906-912 (1.1%); 972-1033 (94.3%)	BTGP
12-KS-09	Wood	E	4.5	1130±25	827-840 (1.6%); 865-987 (93.8%)	827-840 (1.6%); 865-987 (93.8%)	BTGP

#### Table 3-2 Summary of Radiocarbon Samples

\* Sample depth from top of stratigraphic column

\*\* Sample not stratigraphically modeled because another sample provided younger maximum age. \*\*\* Denotes sample position which determines the type of age provided by the sample. Samples are collected from buried organic horizons (OH), organic

fragments (OF) incorporated into debris flow layers, and the outer rings of buried trees in growth position (BTGP).

Table 3-3	Table of Debris F	-low Run-Out	Distances
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Year (AD)	Maximum Distance Downstream (RK)	Runout Distance (from Box Canyon, km)
2006	9.2	1.6
2005	9.2	1.6
1986*	9.5	1
1985*	9.5	1
1947	0	10.8
1915	8.7	2.1
1868	8.3	2.5
1829	9.1	1.7
1782	9.2	1.6
1718	9.4	1.4
1661	6	4.8
1416	7.6	3.2
970**	0	10.8

\* Assumed small distance

\*\* Traveled at least to valley mouth based on Barnhardt and Sherrod, 2006

## 4 Conclusions

This work details an effort to constrain the initiation mechanisms of recent debris flows and contextualize their occurrence by reconstructing a debris flow chronology on Mount Rainier. Our approach spans different spatial and temporal scales to provide insights into to (1) debris flow initiation mechanisms, (2) debris flow activity over the last 1,000 years and its implications valley bottom evolution, and (3) influences of climate and glacier extent on debris flow occurrence and run-out. We discuss our conclusions accordingly, below.

We analyzed the change, setting, and distribution of gullies on Mount Rainier where floods were transformed to debris flows during a large storm in 2006. Analysis of debris flow gullies from one storm has allowed us to infer the geomorphic processes of and conditions necessary for this unique style of debris flow initiation, in which floodwaters are transformed to debris flow by progressive entrainment of sediment. Seven debris flows initiated from proglacial areas of separate basins during the 2006 storm. Gully expansion provides the source material for these debris flows. In addition, estimates of sediment volumes entrained relative to estimates of flood discharges suggest that material from gully walls is volumetrically sufficient. This manner of debris flow initiation requires both sufficient sediment and energy. Detailed analysis of gully change suggests that debris flow gullies must have abundant and unstable material along the gully length. A slope-drainage area trend produced from seven 2006 debris flow gullies indicates that debris flow initiation requires slopes over  $\sim 20^{\circ}$  near the gully head, but has little dependence on drainage area. High measured infiltration rates, however, suggest that glaciers play a major role in generating the minimum runoff necessary for debris flow initiation. Availability of sediment and water thus make proglacial areas favorable zones for debris flow initiation in the catchments of Mount Rainier.

This study builds a chronology of 14 debris flows extending 1,100 years BP in a relatively steep valley on the flanks of Mount Rainer. We have demonstrated that debris flow records are best reconstructed using a variety of surficial and stratigraphic techniques. Due to temporal limitations of the surficial dating techniques used, the chronology is most complete for the past 300 to 350 years. Since 1650 AD, at least 12 debris flows have occurred from the upper Kautz

basin, 11 of which traveled to the Kautz Valley below the Box Canyon. Run-out distances served as a proxy for debris flow magnitude, and indicate that at least 11, 2, and 1 debris flow(s) have traveled at least 1, 3, and 5 km from the valley head, respectively since ca. 1650, indicating a frequency-magnitude relationship. The largest of these events was the 1947 event, which was estimated at 40 million m<sup>3</sup> volume (Crandell, 1971a). The only other event of similar magnitude to the 1947 was one dated at ca. 970 AD that had a contemporaneous sediment pulse downstream at the Puget Sound (Barnhardt and Sherrod, 2006). We compare 1650-1900, generally corresponding with the LIA, to the period from 1900 to present day. Five and seven debris flows occurred in the two periods, respectively, with corresponding average frequencies of 2 and 3.4 debris flows per century. In run-out length, the average magnitudes for the two time periods are 2.4 and 3 km from the Box Canyon. Considering unavoidable biases toward the present in any reconstructed chronology, debris flow activity differences indicated by these averages are equivocal.

The geomorphic form and process of Kautz Valley reflects the frequency and magnitude relationships observed in the chronology of dated events. Debris flows deposit relatively often and in limited spatial extent in the upper valley, where secondary channels control debris flow depositional patterns. Depositional tracks of individual dated debris flows demonstrate the control of secondary channels on debris flow deposition. Variable form of deposits suggests that debris flows with variable rheology deposit on the relatively steep slopes of the upper valley. The lower valley, however, is dominated by relatively infrequent but widespread deposition by mobile debris flows that overwhelm the main channel, producing a smooth valley surface character.

The first study revealed spatial patterns of recent debris flows that suggest initiation occurs near high-elevation glacier termini, with relatively high gradients. Relatively high gradients in DFB proglacial areas compared to NDFB are consistent with the high gradients measured in the seven 2006 debris flow gullies. Elevation differences of proglacial areas in the two basin types suggest that glaciers tend to be less extensive in DFB. These differences in proglacial area slope and elevation in debris flow and non-debris flow basins reflects an overall positive slope-elevation trend on the volcanic edifice with concave flanks. These findings suggest that the slope

distribution of ice-free areas (where debris flows initiate) changes with glacier size as large glaciers cover the steepest slopes, and small glaciers expose the steepest slopes. Variations in the available slope influenced by glaciers in space and time thus influence the activity of debris flows. This model suggests that temporal glacier change can influence debris flow occurrence, as threshold slopes are exposed by glacier retreat. This interpretation contrasts with interpretations invoking debris flow occurrence generation as the result of excess sediment exposed during periods of glacier retreat (Chiarle et al., 2007). In the 2006 storm, additional sediment exposed by retreating glaciers appears to have had little influence on spatial patterns of debris flow occurrence, which may suggest that the apparently supply-unlimited basins of Mount Rainier are insensitive to increased amounts of debris supply. These findings provide context for our debris flow chronology constructed in Kautz Creek, which spans periods of variable glacier extent.

The Kautz Creek chronology suggests relationships between the timing and run-out distance of individual debris flows with temperature and inferred glacier extent. Individual debris flows coincide temporally with relatively warm periods and inferred smaller glaciers. Kautz Creek's concave longitudinal profile requires that gradients in ice-free areas become steeper with decreased glacier sizes and elevated snow-lines. In the LIA, small magnitude debris flows occur during relatively warm periods either when glaciers retreated up-valley or snow coverage was less, exposing steeper gradients in ice-free areas. LIA debris flows, however ran-out relatively short distances compared to warmer periods before and after the LIA. Shorter run-out lengths appear to result from a combination of (1) relatively small areas and slopes of zones in the fronts of glaciers relative to warm periods like the MWP and the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and (2) from enhanced deposition of debris flows outside of the main channel as a result of filled channels during glacial times. Stratigraphic records and debris flow depositional patterns support filled channels during the LIA. Whereas we cannot fully deconvolve source area and depositional controls on the observed run-out distances, these results suggest that the hazards to debris flow prone areas change with temperature and glacier oscillations in steep catchments.

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Locations of samples shown in graphs below can be found in Figure 3-4.

Tree Samples Constraining Age of the 1915 Deposit



Tree Samples Constraining Age of the 1868 Deposit







## Details of Tree Samples (Locations, Sample Details, Tree Species) (Ring Width measurements are listed in the following pages. Ring width measurements were made with Velmex system with 1 micron precision)

		Í Í	ĺ	Í Í		Í Í	Tree
					and the test of an and the	Core	Diamater
	S				Height of Core Above	Orientation	At Core
Sample_ID	Y (UTM Zone 10N)	X (UTM Zone 10N)	Core ID	Tree Species*	Ground (in)	(deg.)	(in)
KD-008	5182239.462	591729.465	А	WH	69	357	27.5
			В	WH	50	194	28
KD-009	5182230.087	591728.6966	A	Ced	22	245	13.5
			В	Ced	17	310	11
KD-010	5182189.72	591786.3357	A	WH	15	39	16
			В	WH	47.5	224	17.5
KD-011	5182185.622	591795.0785	A	WH	48	336	19
			В	WH	38.5	145	18.5
KD-024	5181074.915	591065.3482	A	WH	33.5	82	27
			В	WH	25	257	29
KD-026	5181088.917	591072.2809	A	WH	41	106	26
			В	WH	44	284	26
KD-029	5181127.44	591086.6245	A	WH	26	340	13
			В	WH	47	89	13
10 000		504070 0470	C	WH	44	246	13
KD-033	5181129.899	5910/9.24/8	A	WH	38	50	22
			В	WH	39	219	23
	5101007 610	504447 7544	C	WH	46	321	22
KD-036	5181287.648	591147.7514	В	WH	47	235	22
KD 004	5101070 012	501604 6004	D	WH	38	165	31
KD-084	5181970.913	591684.6094	A	WH	42	25	18
	F181072 0F1	501000 7010	в	WH Cod	42.5	188	18
KD-065	5161972.051	591000.7010	A	Ced	20.5	100	11
KD 086	5191074 12	501690 5749	ь А	V/L	20.5	102	20
KD-080	5161574.12	551065.5746	R	WH	27.5	177	25
KD-087	5181979 602	591697 7128	D	WH	30	290	11 5
10 00/	5101575.002	551007.7120	B	WH	35	110	11.5
KD-089	5181989 74	591705 9193	Δ	WH	23	0	21
	5101505.74	551765.5155	B	WH	32	178	22
KD-090	5182001 636	591698 3677	A	WH	27	30	22
			В	WH	34	229	22
KD-097	5182190.398	591770,7434	A	WH	17	66	12
			В	WH	15	230	13
KD-146	5182482.151	591622.0365	A	SilFir	33	62	20
			В	SilFir	34	236	20
KD-147	5182485.812	591620.7051	А	WН	27	88	29
			В	WH	38	246	33
			С	WH	39	176	33
KD-148	5182487.643	591624.0336	А	WH	21	108	25
			В	WH	30	284	26
KD-149	5182500.791	591626.6964	А	WH	26	120	22
			В	WH	34	310	22
KD-150	5182558.707	591604.0626	А	WH	16.5	84	15
			В	WH	23	74	18
KD-151	5182557.042	591602.5648	А	WH	28	40	26
			В	WH	42	240	28
KD-153	5182488.309	591555.9657	В	SilFir	29	164	11

### Details of Tree Samples (Locations, Sample Details, Tree Species) (Ring Width measurements are listed in the following pages. Ring width measurements were made with Velmex system with 1 micron precision)

Sample_ID	Y (UTM Zone 10N)	X (UTM Zone 10N)	Core ID	Tree Species*	Height of Core Above Ground (in)	Core Orientation (deg.)	Tree Diamater At Core (in)
KD-154	5182469.336	591553.6357	A	Fir	22	340	13
			В	Fir	29.5	131	29.5
KD-155	5182458.685	591547.6444	А	WH	14	309	17
			В	WH	42.5	124	17
KD-156	5182037.82	591723.6822	А	Dfir	43	4	33
			В	Dfir	44.5	180	35
KD-157	5182030.325	591729.9941	А	WH	38	288	16
			В	WH	45	118	16
KD-158	5182029.931	591721.3153	А	WH	36	308	18
			В	WH	41	115	18
KD-175	5182146.104	591599.3312	А	Dfir	37	74	78
			В	Dfir	53	261	78
KD-176	5182142.936	591582.9834	А	DFIr	42	40	60
			В	Dfir	37	180	60
KD-187	5181126.531	591075.2311	А	Dfir	29	36	40
			В	Dfir	39.5	217	40
KD-188	5181107.981	591055.7251	А	Dfir	25	NNE	27
			В	Dfir	36	SW	27
KD-195	5181280.754	591150.3475	А	Dfir	42	NNE	54
			В	Dfir	43	SSW	54

\* Tree Species: Dfir = Douglas Fir, WH = Western Hemlock, SilFir = Silver Fir, Fir = Grand Fir, Ced = Western Red Cedar)

Locations are in UTM Zone 10N coordinates. Locations were precisely located (within 2 meters) using LiDAR generated Digital Canopy Models All Samples were collected in August and September of 2011 Ring width measurements (in microns) in "Tucson Format" for all samples measured. Samples are not fully cross-dated.

KD008A	1790	707	755	760	744	660	690	651	654	560	593
KD008A	1800	613	516	556	537	521	522	398	477	702	834
KD008A	1810	870	918	962	973	935	923	852	795	628	739
KD008A	1820	471	403	389	389	720	623	547	567	627	634
KD008A	1830	430	409	345	542	547	491	547	636	547	607
KD008A	1840	455	454	681	507	448	576	688	641	436	481
KD008A	1850	557	517	397	615	568	827	606	318	289	312
KD008A	1860	247	386	382	381	371	454	599	658	647	526
KD008A	1870	619	653	582	583	519	412	322	324	391	416
KD008A	1880	420	392	541	543	310	306	343	399	390	351
KD008A	1890	439	309	306	480	471	369	328	261	266	245
KD008A	1900	511	623	701	579	360	419	660	485	564	648
KD008A	1910	393	368	474	403	526	364	369	367	403	373
KD008A	1920	313	485	491	341	383	591	391	421	427	348
KD008A	1930	359	382	338	347	243	255	255	326	253	361
KD008A	1940	392	416	221	361	315	293	461	419	334	424
KD008A	1950	477	396	370	315	414	381	101	176	209	182
KD008A	1960	111	117	163	126	76	141	87	35	66	53
KD008A	1970	31	59	80	105	104	67	79	100	95	104
KD008A	1980	68	86	121	96	112	77	38	145	247	212
KD008A	1990	441	421	209	184	372	411	525	453	575	439
KD008A	2000	335	466	564	260	434	760	666	493	367	388
KD008A	2010	528 -	9999								
KD008B	1805	579	641	675	600	688					
KD008B	1810	934	885	979	835	1220	732	1062	111	3 110	1 1095
KD008B	1820	859	846	564	455	544	553	1037	704	518	479
KD008B	1830	835	785	562	412	679	568	639	631	702	908
KD008B	1840	956									
KD008B		020	669	705	459	321	405	545	584	536	434
	1850	541	669 423	705 338	459 488	321 233	405 302	545 378	584 326	536 406	434 469
KD008B	1850 1860	541 622	669 423 588	705 338 732	459 488 698	321 233 762	405 302 1037	545 378 851	584 326 617	536 406 718	434 469 547
KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870	541 622 530	669 423 588 462	705 338 732 495	459 488 698 509	321 233 762 389	405 302 1037 396	545 378 851 373	584 326 617 380	536 406 718 391	434 469 547 540
KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880	541 622 530 619	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> </ul>	705 338 732 495 437	459 488 698 509 420	321 233 762 389 527	405 302 1037 396 288	545 378 851 373 265	584 326 617 380 398	536 406 718 391 306	434 469 547 540 332
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1890	541 622 530 619 434	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> </ul>	705 338 732 495 437 405	459 488 698 509 420 273	321 233 762 389 527 328	405 302 1037 396 288 283	545 378 851 373 265 409	584 326 617 380 398 619	536 406 718 391 306 656	434 469 547 540 332 618
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1890 1900	541 622 530 619 434 603	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> </ul>	705 338 732 495 437 405 343	459 488 698 509 420 273 596	321 233 762 389 527 328 515	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501	545 378 851 373 265 409 381	584 326 617 380 398 619 309	536 406 718 391 306 656 370	434 469 547 540 332 618 377
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1890 1900 1910	541 622 530 619 434 603 241	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> <li>412</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>705</li> <li>338</li> <li>732</li> <li>495</li> <li>437</li> <li>405</li> <li>343</li> <li>250</li> </ul>	459 488 698 509 420 273 596 251	<ul> <li>321</li> <li>233</li> <li>762</li> <li>389</li> <li>527</li> <li>328</li> <li>515</li> <li>186</li> </ul>	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501 190	545 378 851 373 265 409 381 268	584 326 617 380 398 619 309 227	536 406 718 391 306 656 370 217	434 469 547 540 332 618 377 226
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1890 1900 1910 1920	<ul> <li>530</li> <li>541</li> <li>622</li> <li>530</li> <li>619</li> <li>434</li> <li>603</li> <li>241</li> <li>209</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> <li>412</li> <li>205</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>705</li> <li>338</li> <li>732</li> <li>495</li> <li>437</li> <li>405</li> <li>343</li> <li>250</li> <li>301</li> </ul>	459 488 698 509 420 273 596 251 224	<ul> <li>321</li> <li>233</li> <li>762</li> <li>389</li> <li>527</li> <li>328</li> <li>515</li> <li>186</li> <li>307</li> </ul>	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501 190 387	545 378 851 373 265 409 381 268 293	584 326 617 380 398 619 309 227 352	536 406 718 391 306 656 370 217 363	434 469 547 540 332 618 377 226 297
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1890 1900 1910 1920 1930	<ul> <li>530</li> <li>541</li> <li>622</li> <li>530</li> <li>619</li> <li>434</li> <li>603</li> <li>241</li> <li>209</li> <li>297</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> <li>412</li> <li>205</li> <li>188</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>705</li> <li>338</li> <li>732</li> <li>495</li> <li>437</li> <li>405</li> <li>343</li> <li>250</li> <li>301</li> <li>224</li> </ul>	459 488 698 509 420 273 596 251 224 298	<ul> <li>321</li> <li>233</li> <li>762</li> <li>389</li> <li>527</li> <li>328</li> <li>515</li> <li>186</li> <li>307</li> <li>280</li> </ul>	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501 190 387 274	545 378 851 373 265 409 381 268 293 305	584 326 617 380 398 619 309 227 352 319	536 406 718 391 306 656 370 217 363 408	434 469 547 540 332 618 377 226 297 296
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1900 1910 1920 1930 1940	<ul> <li>530</li> <li>541</li> <li>622</li> <li>530</li> <li>619</li> <li>434</li> <li>603</li> <li>241</li> <li>209</li> <li>297</li> <li>326</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> <li>412</li> <li>205</li> <li>188</li> <li>199</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>705</li> <li>338</li> <li>732</li> <li>495</li> <li>437</li> <li>405</li> <li>343</li> <li>250</li> <li>301</li> <li>224</li> <li>241</li> </ul>	459 488 698 509 420 273 596 251 224 298 331	<ul> <li>321</li> <li>233</li> <li>762</li> <li>389</li> <li>527</li> <li>328</li> <li>515</li> <li>186</li> <li>307</li> <li>280</li> <li>250</li> </ul>	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501 190 387 274 164	545 378 851 373 265 409 381 268 293 305 162	584 326 617 380 398 619 309 227 352 319 296	536 406 718 391 306 656 370 217 363 408 279	434 469 547 540 332 618 377 226 297 296 372
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1900 1910 1920 1930 1940 1950	<ul> <li>530</li> <li>541</li> <li>622</li> <li>530</li> <li>619</li> <li>434</li> <li>603</li> <li>241</li> <li>209</li> <li>297</li> <li>326</li> <li>292</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> <li>412</li> <li>205</li> <li>188</li> <li>199</li> <li>784</li> </ul>	705 338 732 495 437 405 343 250 301 224 241 1030	459 488 698 509 420 273 596 251 224 298 331 797	321 233 762 389 527 328 515 186 307 280 250 492	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501 190 387 274 164 339	545 378 851 373 265 409 381 268 293 305 162 360	584 326 617 380 398 619 309 227 352 319 296 216	536 406 718 391 306 656 370 217 363 408 279 186	434 469 547 540 332 618 377 226 297 296 372 233
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1900 1910 1920 1930 1940 1950 1960	<ul> <li>530</li> <li>541</li> <li>622</li> <li>530</li> <li>619</li> <li>434</li> <li>603</li> <li>241</li> <li>209</li> <li>297</li> <li>326</li> <li>292</li> <li>161</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> <li>412</li> <li>205</li> <li>188</li> <li>199</li> <li>784</li> <li>148</li> </ul>	705 338 732 495 437 405 343 250 301 224 241 1030 88	459 488 698 509 420 273 596 251 224 298 331 797 106	321 233 762 389 527 328 515 186 307 280 250 492 82 1	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501 190 387 274 164 339	545 378 851 373 265 409 381 268 293 305 162 360 .33 1	584 326 617 380 398 619 309 227 352 319 296 216 22 1	536 406 718 391 306 656 370 217 363 408 279 186 .53 1	434 469 547 540 332 618 377 226 297 296 372 233 69
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1900 1910 1920 1930 1940 1950 1960 1970	<ul> <li>530</li> <li>541</li> <li>622</li> <li>530</li> <li>619</li> <li>434</li> <li>603</li> <li>241</li> <li>209</li> <li>297</li> <li>326</li> <li>292</li> <li>161</li> <li>265</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> <li>412</li> <li>205</li> <li>188</li> <li>199</li> <li>784</li> <li>148</li> <li>175</li> </ul>	705 338 732 495 437 405 343 250 301 224 241 1030 88 204	459 488 698 509 420 273 596 251 224 298 331 797 106 163	321 233 762 389 527 328 515 186 307 280 250 492 82 1 213	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501 190 387 274 164 339 04 1 224	545 378 851 373 265 409 381 268 293 305 162 360 .33 1 256	584 326 617 380 398 619 309 227 352 319 296 216 22 1 201	536 406 718 391 306 656 370 217 363 408 279 186 53 1 207	434 469 547 540 332 618 377 226 297 296 372 233 .69 307
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1900 1910 1920 1930 1940 1950 1950 1950 1970 1980	<ul> <li>530</li> <li>541</li> <li>622</li> <li>530</li> <li>619</li> <li>434</li> <li>603</li> <li>241</li> <li>209</li> <li>297</li> <li>326</li> <li>292</li> <li>161</li> <li>265</li> <li>249</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> <li>412</li> <li>205</li> <li>188</li> <li>199</li> <li>784</li> <li>148</li> <li>175</li> <li>255</li> </ul>	705 338 732 495 437 405 343 250 301 224 241 1030 88 204 255	459 488 698 509 420 273 596 251 224 298 331 797 106 163 339	321 233 762 389 527 328 515 186 307 280 250 492 82 1 213 566	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501 190 387 274 164 339 04 1 224 457	545 378 851 373 265 409 381 268 293 305 162 360 .33 1 256 549	584 326 617 380 398 619 309 227 352 319 296 216 221 201 527	536 406 718 391 306 656 370 217 363 408 279 186 53 1 207 740	434 469 547 540 332 618 377 226 297 296 372 233 69 307 734
KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B KD008B	1850 1860 1870 1880 1900 1910 1920 1930 1940 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990	<ul> <li>530</li> <li>541</li> <li>622</li> <li>530</li> <li>619</li> <li>434</li> <li>603</li> <li>241</li> <li>209</li> <li>297</li> <li>326</li> <li>292</li> <li>161</li> <li>265</li> <li>249</li> <li>1288</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>669</li> <li>423</li> <li>588</li> <li>462</li> <li>341</li> <li>454</li> <li>400</li> <li>412</li> <li>205</li> <li>188</li> <li>199</li> <li>784</li> <li>148</li> <li>175</li> <li>255</li> <li>837</li> </ul>	705 338 732 495 437 405 343 250 301 224 241 1030 88 204 255 981	459 488 698 509 420 273 596 251 224 298 331 797 106 163 339 1567	321 233 762 389 527 328 515 186 307 280 250 492 82 1 213 566 186	405 302 1037 396 288 283 501 190 387 274 164 339 104 1 224 457 7 187	545 378 851 373 265 409 381 268 293 305 162 360 .33 1 256 549 2 162	584 326 617 380 398 619 309 227 352 319 296 216 221 201 527 82 12	536 406 718 391 306 656 370 217 363 408 279 186 53 1 207 740 740	434 469 547 540 332 618 377 226 297 296 372 233 69 307 734 529 1858

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### KD008B 2010 795 -9999

KD009B 1746 596 692 858 988 KD009B 1750 893 562 433 314 295 294 647 520 467 1015 KD009B 1760 627 700 983 693 670 543 183 131 146 594 KD009B 1770 822 817 930 996 928 536 436 203 209 260 KD009B 1780 195 133 216 495 462 415 249 314 230 352 KD009B 1790 513 487 425 477 686 684 720 599 454 535 KD009B 1800 211 245 161 151 251 283 336 451 418 526 KD009B 1810 384 562 672 764 618 631 709 992 894 565 KD009B 1820 566 697 793 291 464 679 732 1276 1215 1396 KD009B 1830 1273 1188 1046 780 562 764 571 703 707 710 KD009B 1840 569 650 852 613 455 561 554 602 457 506 KD009B 1850 410 355 167 79 95 87 39 44 47 41 KD009B 1860 73 40 23 66 176 94 22 65 59 56 KD009B 1870 88 126 50 123 94 76 60 118 91 100 KD009B 1880 94 110 131 117 133 229 266 260 153 190 KD009B 1890 115 93 78 44 68 28 64 49 75 39 KD009B 1900 153 160 169 157 233 470 532 475 404 372 KD009B 1910 470 514 427 418 611 508 204 233 410 435 KD009B 1920 522 253 376 367 373 228 216 164 142 121 KD009B 1930 193 258 241 232 328 348 271 385 462 365 KD009B 1940 284 308 266 169 269 260 285 416 481 780

KD009B195085012311303975773685420338329293KD009B1960369275258195208270205227290358KD009B1970379519467323120135178311334370KD009B19805248298461099631483308507664890KD009B19901244208220521312146614871557137725121806KD009B2000198413221577998900888765121912001520KD009B2010321-9999

# KD010A 1727 709 955 1238

KD010B171156451356958716481386187415261877KD010B172011261067125612571281129178399015911148KD010B173011727907941023112413341252939990644KD010B174068582610921218586836502334417440KD010B1750450474379404293347947646540531KD010B1760326288250342323375372403464394KD010B1770388367371385534453411552586609KD010B1780587612441618621527467616532538KD010B1790521490605583503665673620598760KD010B1800772781524585623592610414552463KD010B1810696313348278297204410406467306

KD010B 1820 312 466 440 251 204 223 168 196 197 175 KD010B 1830 232 210 198 216 242 247 292 267 437 363 KD010B 1840 319 324 351 485 408 440 437 485 639 309 KD010B 1850 382 512 401 586 515 473 282 375 459 360 KD010B 1860 572 489 519 756 680 601 459 452 441 270 KD010B 1870 228 185 247 240 418 389 487 456 518 398 KD010B 1880 209 723 508 701 469 511 449 452 664 678 KD010B 1890 317 415 446 536 730 829 666 776 824 375 KD010B 1900 918 751 690 729 713 845 716 409 429 400 KD010B 1910 674 648 556 608 664 692 383 342 392 424 KD010B 1920 380 337 348 470 461 452 323 282 256 158 KD010B 1930 158 207 179 221 220 280 369 406 467 359 KD010B 1940 254 317 442 428 589 553 788 898 1013 1275 KD010B 1950 1169 1064 786 531 366 294 529 662 512 525 KD010B 1960 408 396 382 456 326 357 429 708 750 786 KD010B 1970 788 922 1081 1490 642 880 912 865 1155 1264 KD010B 1980 1409 1317 1037 1662 1610 1342 1029 877 987 1148 KD010B 1990 1384 1090 1310 1220 1521 1305 1384 1199 1167 1110 KD010B 2000 1463 1759 1269 1212 1400 1400 1014 972 944 1155 KD010B 2010 1189 -9999

KD011A1970166354379358390337691674982502KD011A1980336323237311243194145156226137KD011A1990931161472041111041801107231KD011A2000100304794172236118166238138KD011A201095-9999

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KD-187B 1364 986 1017 746 730 440 330 KD-187B 1370 263 245 209 216 248 329 322 327 190 130 KD-187B 1380 210 124 114 143 144 167 225 551 450 346 KD-187B 1390 402 442 292 408 429 406 492 432 513 494 KD-187B 1400 499 570 537 571 785 588 566 489 628 639 KD-187B 1410 684 531 1059 893 818 644 544 774 795 539 KD-187B 1420 780 788 806 863 879 829 980 738 791 704 KD-187B 1430 1009 863 1005 1099 1015 1147 982 1019 963 960 KD-187B 1440 901 944 1327 1106 810 861 1124 1273 864 697 KD-187B 1450 697 595 647 589 535 607 700 696 562 405 KD-187B 1460 558 530 413 435 541 445 503 439 543 565 KD-187B 1470 393 337 325 273 372 567 556 541 663 419 KD-187B 1480 285 355 502 480 486 726 556 432 412 662 KD-187B 1490 631 675 660 773 472 542 637 631 299 580 KD-187B 1500 587 473 472 655 719 773 989 989 963 800 KD-187B 1510 994 750 665 716 789 707 669 705 656 840

## KD195A 1448 1079 1065 KD195A 1450 977 1135 1325 1636 1

KD188A 1867 756 1575 1031

KD188A1870832549454288265235236215226139KD188A1880173487525251311426341326299377KD188A1890293404126226493338383365535564KD188A1900646531421338688454610400645618KD188A19105156187408111159102991610469451081KD188A19201128120412931551127111981359139622091765KD188A19302095310730082526228923372557213222041994KD188A19401724154014751406188016621576138913851176KD188A19601546145213821375107611681249103913651807KD188A19601938214616101583155619321633155215571787KD188A19702105241825652491178514151624207317511372KD188A19801428201116901771128991193410451034861KD188A1990144794310151033

KD195A 1450 977 1135 1325 1636 1702 1368 1313 1158 1259 1353 KD195A 1460 1427 1091 1255 1063 1147 1117 1275 1659 1728 1599 KD195A 1470 1336 1233 1022 1256 878 729 970 719 821 797 KD195A 1480 744 829 712 589 579 680 603 488 574 730 140

KD195A 1990 2181 1276 1987 2071 2107 1411 1507 1562 1911 1911 KD195A 2000 2083 1831 2017 1649 1769 2079 1846 2089 1870 1820 KD195A 2010 2020 -9999

KD-195B 1890
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KD-195B 1900
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383
350

KD-195B 1910
324
323
322
388
453
547
393
278
205
149

KD-195B 1920
127
134
125
73
70
62
85
94
116
152

KD-195B 1930
100
114
100
145
189
276
222
249
281
191

KD-195B 1940
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KD-195B 1950
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KD-195B 1960
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KD-195B 1970
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## **APPENDIX B: Lichenometric Data**

				Estimated			
	Y (UTM	X (UTM	Estimated Landform	Landform Year	Maximum Lichen		
Waypoint ID	Zone 10N)	Zone 10N)	Age (years)	(AD)	Diameter (mm)		
KCL-2	5182259.03	591486.55	114	1897	52		
KCL-3	5182184.48	591423.02	206	1805	92		
KCL-4/KL-45B	5182117.52	591390.60	195	1816	87		
KCL-5	5181837.12	591246.22	142	1869	64		
KCL-5C	5181789.70	591220.55	190	1821	85		
KCL-6	5181570.36	591231.27	160	1851	72		
KCL-7	5181341.95	591106.23	117	1894	53		
KCL-9	5182262.35	591631.39	190	1821	85		
KCL-10/KL-11B	5182225.73	591584.70	126	1885	57		
KCL-11	5182159.03	591569.00	119	1892	54		
KCL-12	5182113.92	591614.04	149	1862	67		
KCL-13	5182076.06	591580.03	215	1796	96		
KCL-13B	5182070.05	591579.59	222	1789	99		
KCL-14	5181990.74	591538.96	263	1748	117		
KCL-16	5182269.48	591719.92	87	1924	40		
KCL-17	5182046.81	591673.78	167	1844	75		
KCL-18B	5181500.47	591480.32	59	1952	28		
KCL-19A	5181266.65	591183.35	62	1949	29		
KCL-19B	5181279.27	591164.64	110	1901	50		
KCL-22	5182095.35	591475.15	66	1945	31		
KCL-22B	5182019.24	591447.60	82	1929	38		
KCL-23	5181847.01	591421.44	78	1933	36		
KCL-24	5181678.78	591365.98	62	1949	29		
KCL-25	5181495.40	591308.22	57	1954	27		
KCL-26	5181404.28	591273.11	55	1956	26		
KCL-27	5181777.46	591371.73	208	1803	93		
KCL-28	5182172.94	591526.72	147	1864	66		
KCL-29	5182230.09	591505.92	103	1908	47		
KCL-30	5182439.88	591655.02	91	1920	42		
KCL-31	5181539.83	591495.83	108	1903	49		
KCL-32	5181946.68	591652.78	277	1734	123		
KL-33	5181981.41	591655.92	222	1789	99		
KL-34	5182158.91	591604.80	222	1789	99		
KL-35	5182168.66	591590.29	280	1731	124		
KL-37	5182189.83	591628.00	110	1901	50		
KL-37B	5182189.83	591628.00	105	1906	48		
KL-37C	5182189.83	591628.00	117	1894	53		
KL-42	5181365.65	590932.00	73	1938	34		
KL-43	5181448.78	591161.27	144	1867	65		
KL-44	5181510.73	591159.68	144	1867	65		

Landform Lichen Measurement Locations, Ages, and Maximum Diameters

Waypoint ID	Y (UTM Zone 10N)	X (UTM Zone 10N)	Estimated Landform Age (years)	Estimated Landform Year (AD)	Maximum Lichen Diameter (mm)
KL-44C	5181736.65	591239.35	89	1922	41
KL-45A	5182071.50	591375.57	183	1828	82
KL-45B	5182095.70	591388.72	195	1816	87
KL-46	5182123.86	591263.13	101	1910	46
KL-47	5182118.70	591519.66	169	1842	76
KL-50	5181142.23	591063.30	151	1860	68
KL-51	5181175.67	591157.25	149	1862	67
KL-52	5182852.26	591772.99	89	1922	41
KL-52B	5182640.89	591760.96	59	1952	28
KL-53	5182640.89	591760.96	78	1933	36
KL-53B	5183415.00	592229.99	82	1929	38
KL-54	5183415.00	592229.99	96	1915	44
KL-56	5181647.02	591455.49	59	1952	28
KL-57	5181690.77	591409.01	144	1867	65
KL-58	5182014.30	591488.06	128	1883	58
KL-59	5182070.33	591517.75	174	1837	78
KL-60	5182327.77	591635.97	114	1897	52
KL-61	5182294.09	591613.58	183	1828	82
KL-62	5182227.76	591637.50	121	1890	55

Landform Lichen Measurement Locations, Ages, and Maximum Diameters

Locations are in UTM Zone 10N NAD 1983

Age Estimates are calculated using growth curve equation of O'Neal and Schoenenberger, 2003 Dates are calculated by subtracting the age estimate from the measurement year (2011)

Waypoint ID	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
KCL-2	52	50	46	44	43	42	42	42	42	41
KCL-3	92	58	49	49	44	40	39	39	39	38
KCL-4/KL-45B	87	67	53	47	44	44	-	-	-	( <b>L</b> )
KCL-5	64	51	49	48	47	43	40	40	40	37
KCL-5C	85	62	57	39	-	-	-	-	2	-
KCL-6	72	70	60	50	46	44	43	35	-	-
KCL-7	53	45	42	39	39	38	37	37	33	31
KCI-9	74	72	58	54	52	49	48	47	40	
KCI -10/KI -11B	57	56	54	54	52	50	50	44	41	-
KCI -11	54	53	52	50	47	41	40	38	38	33
KCL-12	67	63	60	57	56	51	50	49	45	35
KCL-13	96	73	57	57	55	47	-	-	-	-
KCL-13B	99	85	75	66	60	50	44	-	-	-
KCL-14	117	102	101	98	94	94	92	85	83	83
KCL-16	40	40	39	37	37	34	34	34	32	32
KCL-17	75	57	56	54	51	49	41	-	-	-
KCL-18B	28	28	27	26	26	25	25	22	20	19
KCL-19A	29	28	26	24	23	23	-	-	-	-
KCL-19R	50	45	41	40	36	35	35	34	33	33
KCI -22	31	31	31	28	28	28	24	22	22	22
KCL-22B	38	34	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
KCI -23	36	28	28	27	27	27	26	24	24	23
KCL-24	29	26	23	20	20	19	18	16	16	12
KCL-25	27	25	23	23	23	22	22	-	-	-
KCL-26	26	26	25	23	23	20	-		-	_
KCL-27	93	55	55	54	42	42	42	37	35	35
KCL-28	66	63	61	54	50	42	42	12	/1	36
KCL-29	47	43	43	35	34	34	30	29	28	25
KCL-30	47	33	33	33	33	24	24	-	-	-
KCL-31	42	47	42	41	41	37	37	36	33	29
KCL-32	123	114	75	60	-	57	-	-	-	-
KL-33	75	73	70	65	63	60	58	-	-	_
KL -34	99	85	45	-	-	-			-	_
KL -35	150	124	113	85	55			_	_	_
KL -37	50	46	45	45	38	38	33	27	27	26
KI - 37B	48	47	47	34	32	30	28	22	-	-
KL-37C	53	50	48	35	-	-	-	-		-
KL -42	34	24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
KI -43	65	52	50	49	48	46	40	36	36	34
KI -44	41	39	38	38	36	34	33	32	29	28
KI -44C	41	39	38	38	36	34	33	32	29	28
KI -45A	82	66	57	55	54	50	46	44	41	35
KL-45B	87	67	53	47	44	44	-	-	-	-
KI -46	46	45	43	27	25	24				_
KL -47	76	71	69	62	62	59	55	-		
KL-50	68	56	53	53	50	49	49	43	40	39
KL-51	67	63	52	37	34	32	28	-	-	-
KL-52	41	38	31		-			_	_	_
KL-52R	28	27	27	_	_		_	_		_
KL-53	36	29	28	27	27	26	24	24	19	16
KL-53R	38	37	35	35	34	30	28	-	-	-
NE 550	50	37	55	55	34	50	20			

Lichen Diameter in order of size (ranked 1 to 10)

			L	lichen Diam	eter in orde	er of size (ra	nked I to I	0)									
Waypoint ID	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10							
KL-54	44	37	32	-	-	-	-	-	-								
KL-56	28	27	25	18				-		-							
KL-57	65	63	62	58	58	50	42	40	34	31							
KL-58	58	57	49	48	43	42		-									
KL-59	78	58	48	-	-	-	-	-	-	-							
KL-60	52	51	50	48	45	41	40	35	34	29							
KL-61	82	69	56	52	45	40	35	35		-							
KL-62	55	53	50	47	46	46	45	44	43	43							
KL-61 KL-62	82 55	69 53	56 50	52 47	45 46	40 46	35 45	35 35 44	- 43								

Lichen Diameter in order of size (ranked 1 to 10)

Reported lichen diameters were measured along the axis coinciding with the largest diameter.

## APPENDIX C: Radiocarbon Data

Location ID	Latitude**	Longitude**	Samples Analyzed At Location	Stratigraphic Column (in text)	Notes on Sample Type/Depth
12 KS 04A	46.769802	-121.824968	12-KS-04A	D	In-text description
12 KS 9A	46.761462	-121.833001	12-KS-09	E	In-text description
KRC 01*	46.747022	-121.84828	KRC-01	-	Sample KRC-1 collected from outermost rings of buried stump ~0.33m below forested terrace surface
KRC 04	46.790131	-121.798759	KRC-04A, KRC-04C	А	In-text description
KRC 05	46.787592	-121.798695	KRC-05B, KRC-05C	В	In-text description
KRC 06	46.774192	-121.812663	KRC-06A, KRC-06B, KRC-06C, KRC-06D, KRC-06E	С	In-text description
12-BF*	46.750942	-121.841377	12-BF	-	Sample 12-BF was collected from the outermost rings of a stump ~3 m below a terrace surface in a right cutbank of the main channel of Kautz Creek

Geographic Locations of Radiocarbon Samples Analyzed for this Study

\* Samples not discussed in the main body of this thesis due to their young ages.

\*\*Locations were marked with a handheld GPS with approximately 5 meters accuracy

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Ø14C	-39.07	-80.52	-49.32	-45.35	-52.62	-119.95	-35.04	-80.34	-135.38	-131.93	L	Ľ,	ı
图13C	-22.88	-25.78	-24.26	-26.6	-24.18	-24.63	-25.19	-25.28	-23.52	-23.8	-26.51	-21.21	-23.5
Age Err	30	25	25	25	25	30	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Age	260	615	345	315	375	965	225	615	1110	1080	205	1130	1030
Fm Err	0.00390	0.00300	0.00310	0.00300	0.00330	0.00310	0.00320	0.00300	0.00280	0.00280	0.00310	0.00270	0.00280
F Modern	0.96800	0.92630	0.95770	0.96170	0.95440	0.88660	0.97210	0.92650	0.87100	0.87450	0.97460	0.86880	0.87980
Laboratory Accession #	OS-93055	OS-93056	OS-93057	OS-93058	OS-93059	03-93060	OS-93061	OS-93062	OS-93063	OS-93064	OS-98408	OS-98407	OS-98406
Process*	OC	OC	OC	OC	OC	OC	OC	OC	OC	OC	OC	OC	oC
Type	Plant/Wood	Plant/Wood	Plant/Wood	Charcoal	Plant/Wood								
Date Reported	2/7/2012	2/7/2012	2/7/2012	2/7/2012	2/7/2012	2/7/2012	2/7/2012	2/7/2012	2/7/2012	2/7/2012	10/5/2012	10/5/2012	10/5/2012
Laboratory Receipt #	102722	102723	102724	102725	102726	102727	102728	102729	102730	102731	109100	109101	109102
Sample ID	KRC-01	KRC-04A	KRC-04C	KRC-05B	KRC-05C	KRC-06A	KRC-06B	KRC-06C	KRC-06D	KRC-06E	12-BF	12-KS-09	12-KS-04A

\* Organic Carbon