# Sediment Yield and its Interannual Variability are Underestimated in Supply-Limited Mountain Basins with Short Records

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#### Abstract

Climate and sediment supply are critical factors for the sediment output of geomorphic systems. It is known that nonlinearities between forcing and sediment mobilization may lead to dampened or shredded environmental signals in sediment flux measurements. But it is unclear under which circumstances environmental signals, such as extreme events or climate change, are transmitted and measurable downstream. We used a sediment cascade model and a stochastic weather generator to quantify climate forcing effects under a range of sediment supply regimes in a debris-flow catchment in the Swiss Alps (Illgraben). Sediment yields estimated from short records have high uncertainties both in terms of mean and interannual variability, and tend to be underestimated especially in supply-limited systems, where also long-term memory effects driven by sediment storage are evident. Consequently, climate change impact assessments based on short duration records may be grossly inaccurate, and should be extended with uncertainty estimation.

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#### Key Points:

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10	•	Long-term sediment flux simulations (10k years) at hourly resolution are studied
11		under stochastic forcing
12	•	Sediment yield estimates from short records are highly uncertain and likely un-
13		derestimated

• The actual timing of sediment input events is not preserved in the sediment yield

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#### 15 Abstract

Climate and sediment supply are critical factors for the sediment output of geo-16 morphic systems. It is known that non-linearities between forcing and sediment mobi-17 lization may lead to dampened or shredded environmental signals in sediment flux mea-18 surements. But it is unclear under which circumstances environmental signals, such as 19 extreme events or climate change, are transmitted and measurable downstream. We used 20 a sediment cascade model and a stochastic weather generator to quantify climate forc-21 ing effects under a range of sediment supply regimes in a debris-flow catchment in the 22 23 Swiss Alps (Illgraben). Sediment yields estimated from short records have high uncertainties both in terms of mean and interannual variability, and tend to be underestimated 24 especially in supply-limited systems, where also long-term memory effects driven by sed-25 iment storage are evident. Consequently, climate change impact assessments based on 26 short duration records may be grossly inaccurate, and should be extended with uncer-27 tainty estimation. 28

# <sup>29</sup> Plain Language Summary

Whether or not climate change is measurable in the sediment output of a basin is 30 a timely question. Climate has an important role for processes related to sediment pro-31 duction and transport. However, because relations between these are complex and of-32 ten non-linear, it is questionable if environmental signals such as climate change are also 33 transmitted and measurable in the downstream sediment transport. We used a sediment 34 cascade model and a stochastic weather generator to study the detectability under a range 35 of conditions such as different sediment sampling durations and different mean erosion 36 rates in a debris-flow catchment in the Swiss Alps (Illgraben). We show that sediment 37 yields estimated from short duration records are highly uncertain and that transient sed-38 iment supply introduces long-term memory effects. Consequently, climate change impact 39 assessments based on short duration records may be grossly inaccurate, and should be 40 extended with uncertainty estimation. 41

# 42 **1** Introduction

The study of erosion rates is fundamental for understanding landscape response 43 to environmental signals such as climate change (e.g., Molnar & England, 1990; Bookha-44 gen & Strecker, 2012; Adams et al., 2020), land use change (e.g., Borrelli et al., 2017), 45 deciphering sedimentary records (e.g., Castelltort & Van Den Driessche, 2003), and for 46 predicting hazards and risk connected to sediment transport processes (Jakob et al., 2005) 47 or riverine ecological habitat (Evans et al., 2006). Spatially averaged erosion rates are 48 usually defined for a given area and at different timescales. Short-term erosion rates can 49 be inferred from measured sediment loads with a representative timescale of years to decades 50 (e.g., Fuller et al., 2003). Long-term estimates, averaged over  $\sim 10^5$ -years, are commonly 51 inferred from sediment tracing, e.g., by cosmogenic radionuclide concentrations such as 52 <sup>10</sup>Be in alluvial sediments (Brown et al., 1995). Comparing such short- and long-term 53 sediment yield estimates has revealed some discrepancies depending on basin size and 54 the dominant erosional process (see Covault et al., 2013, and references therein). Short 55 records are often missing erosional pulses resulting from rare events such as large land-56 slides or extreme rainfall (Kirchner et al., 2001; Schaller et al., 2001; Tomkins et al., 2007). 57 This leads to the underestimation in sediment yields especially in small, natural basins 58 with little opportunity for sediment storage, while larger basins buffer these pulses in flood-59 plains (Wittmann et al., 2011). The variable timescales of sediment production and trans-60 fer therefore present significant challenges for observation and prediction. 61

<sup>62</sup> Observational and modelling challenges in geomorphic systems also arise from non-<sup>63</sup> linearities due to the complex relationships between climatic forcing, hydrological and

sediment connectivity, the biosphere and the different geomorphic thresholds involved 64 in sediment production, storage and transport (e.g., Phillips, 2003; Lancaster & Case-65 beer, 2007; Van De Wiel & Coulthard, 2010; Coulthard & Van De Wiel, 2013; Pelletier 66 et al., 2015). Recent work highlights the importance of the frequency and magnitude of forcing variables compared to system response timescales (Jerolmack & Paola, 2010) and 68 the signal preservation in the stratigraphic records by undisturbed deposition in short 69 intervals between erosion events (Sadler & Jerolmack, 2015; Paola et al., 2018; Ganti et 70 al., 2020). These perspectives are drawn from observations, theoretical constructs and 71 simple models, e.g., the sandpile model (Bak et al., 1987), and they illustrate the poten-72 tial impact of the timing of sediment supply and export on basin sediment yields. More 73 complex numerical models are increasingly used to study the non-linear response of sed-74 iment flux to variability in forcings (e.g., Tucker & Bras, 2000; Van De Wiel & Coulthard, 75 2010; Coulthard & Van De Wiel, 2013; Godard & Tucker, 2021). The effect of mass move-76 ments and their impact on sediment fluxes on shorter timescales has received less atten-77 tion. Yet modelling tools are most appropriate to capture the cause-and-effect relations 78 in geomorphic systems, necessary for climate change impact and hazard assessments, and 79 for designing sampling strategies and hazard mitigation structures. 80

Herein we focus on steep headwater catchments, which are often characterized by 81 mass-wasting processes such as landslides and debris flows (e.g Dietrich & Dunne, 1978; 82 Bennett et al., 2013), fed to the channel in a stochastic manner (Benda & Dunne, 1997a, 83 1997b), and affecting the downstream sediment flux (Hovius et al., 1997). We use a stochas-84 tic process-informed geomorphic modelling perspective to show how (a) sediment sup-85 ply limitations cause bias and uncertainty in sediment yield estimates; (b) short records 86 affect debris-flow magnitude-frequency distributions; (c) memory effects in sediment yields 87 contrasts in supply-limited and transport-limited systems; and (d) the exact timing and 88 magnitudes of sediment inputs are shredded in the sediment yield. 89

#### <sup>90</sup> 2 Experimental setup

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#### 2.1 Geomorphic System and Climate Forcing Models

We coupled the SedCas sediment cascade model (Bennett et al., 2014) and the AWE-92 GEN stochastic weather generator (Fatichi et al., 2011) to simulate hydrological and sed-93 iment fluxes at the highly active Illgraben debris-flow torrent (4.8 km<sup>2</sup>), located in the 94 Swiss Rhône Valley and producing  $\sim 5$  debris flows yearly on average (Hirschberg, Badoux, 95 et al., 2021). This model setup was calibrated by (Hirschberg, Fatichi, et al., 2021) against 96 observed climate and debris-flow magnitudes to assess climate change impacts on sed-97 iment yield and debris-flow activity in the 21st century and also provided a detailed de-98 scription of the calibration, validation and sensitivity analysis of the entire model chain (see the article supplement). Here, we ran simulations at high temporal resolution (hourly) 100 while spanning geomorphologically relevant timescales (10k years) and a range of climatic 101 and sediment supply conditions. 102

SedCas is a conceptual geomorphic system model where the sediment production
 rates by hillslope landslides (triggered by frost-weathering, rainfall, or randomly) are stochas tic and drawn from a prescribed probability distribution (Bennett et al., 2012). These
 landslides provide sediment to the channel and can be re-mobilized and transported out
 of the catchment by debris flows and fluvial processes, which are simulated with a con ceptual hydrological model.

AWE-GEN is used for the stochastic climatic forcing of SedCas. It produces hourly time series of correlated weather variables (e.g., precipitation, air temperature) at the point scale (Fatichi et al., 2011). It was calibrated against 30 years of observations from a weather station in the vicinity (11 km) of the catchment.

Coupling these models reflects the observation that climate and landslides (sedi-113 ment input) are stochastic forcings in geomorphic systems (Benda & Dunne, 1997a, 1997b) 114 and that the resulting debris-flow activity (sediment output) depends not only on the 115 recurrence interval of climatic thresholds triggering debris flows, but also on the sedi-116 ment recharge to the channel (Bovis & Jakob, 1999; Jakob et al., 2005). In the 10k-year 117 simulations, the model parameters remain unchanged and the forcings from climate and 118 sediment recharge are therefore stationary. Hence, the estimated mean sediment yields 119 from the full simulations represent the equilibrium state. The estimated uncertainties 120 result from temporal variability in climate and sediment input, and geomorphic thresh-121 olds. 122

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#### 2.2 Modelled Scenarios

We ran SedCas with six scenario setups, as summarized in Table S1. The calibrated 124 setup with frost-weathering as the main hillslope sediment supply mechanism (Bennett 125 et al., 2013) and 25 yearly sediment recharge events on average served as a reference (re-126 ferred to thermal\_ls25 hereafter). To study the effect of the timing (seasonality) of sed-127 iment recharge, and decouple it from air temperature, we ran simulations with the same 128 number of hillslope landslides triggered by rainfall and randomly (rainfall\_ls25 and ran-129 dom\_ls25). For simulating sediment supply-limited conditions we assumed that the prob-130 ability distribution of landslide magnitudes remains fixed, but we reduced the number 131 of yearly generated landslides from 25 to 16 and 8 with the frost-weathering mechanism 132 (thermal\_lS26 and thermal\_ls8). This resulted in decreased erosion rates by 1/3 and 2/3, 133 respectively. We additionally considered a transport-limited scenario to quantify signals 134 in the sediment yield introduced by interannual climate variability alone. 135

All scenario runs were forced with the same 10k-year hourly climate simulated with 136 AWE-GEN and therefore the hydrological variables (e.g., snowcover, soil moisture, dis-137 charge, etc.) are identical among the scenarios. When the condition for a hillslope land-138 slide was met, the magnitude was sampled from the same distribution in every scenario 139 (Figure 1a). However, depending on the scenario the number of landslides can differ. To 140 enforce 25, 16 and 8 landslides on average per year, the temperature threshold for the 141 onset of frost-weathering was adjusted (Table S1). The simulated channel sediment stor-142 age develops in cycles of transport-limited and supply-limited conditions (Figure 1b) and 143 confirms that the long-term sediment delivery ratio goes to 1 (i.e. no long-term storage). 144 The differences in sediment supply result in distinct distributions of annual sediment yields. 145 The more supply-limited, the more right-skewed is the sediment yield distribution and 146 the lower the mean (Figure 1c). 147

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#### 2.3 Analysis of Long-Term Simulations

Each scenario simulation (Table S1) was resampled with different sampling durations to quantify uncertainties in annual sediment yields and their interannual variability. The full time series was split into periods from 1 to 100 years, and the mean and variance of the sediment yield were estimated for each subset. The uncertainties in these estimates were computed to analyze (a) the effects of short records on the sediment output and (b) the detectability of differences in sediment input between the scenarios.

Sediment storage is a source of non-linearity in geomorphic systems (Phillips, 2003). 155 To identify and quantify the long-term memory effects in sediment yields induced by tem-156 porary sediment storage, we analyzed long-term correlation in sediment yields using de-157 trended fluctuation analysis (DFA, Peng et al., 1994) using Python (Rydin & Hassan, 158 2021). DFA is a technique to identify scaling properties in fluctuating or non-stationary 159 time series, e.g., precipitation (Matsoukas et al., 2000) or temperature (e.g., Koscielny-160 Bunde et al., 1998; Shao & Ditlevsen, 2016). The mean of the detrended variance scales 161 with sampling record duration s as  $F(s) \propto s^{\alpha}$ . Applying DFA on uncorrelated random 162

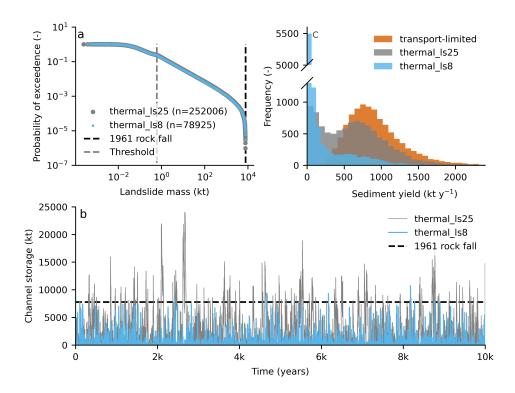


Figure 1. Comparison of different sediment supply scenarios (see Table S1); "thermal\_ls25" is the original model setup and calibrated for Illgraben; "transport-limited" and "thermal\_ls8" are hypothetical scenarios with unlimited and reduced sediment supply, respectively. (a) Magnitudefrequency distributions of the hillslope landslides generated with SedCas (Bennett et al., 2012). (b) Example time series of the channel sediment storage available for mobilization, with indication of the largest observed rockfall in 1961. (c) Histograms of simulated annual sediment yields.

series (white noise) results in  $\alpha = 0.5$  (Kantelhardt et al., 2002). Time series with long-163 term memory manifest in  $\alpha > 0.5$  (Figure S2a). When plotting  $\alpha$  as a function of s, i.e. 164 the local slope from the s-F(s) plots, the representative timescales and scaling prop-165 erties can be identified visually (Figure S1 Bryce & Sprague, 2012). We also examined 166 the presence of long-term memory by fitting an ARFIMA model to the sediment yield 167 time series and estimated the differencing order d which is related to the Hurst expo-168 nent H as d = H - 0.5, where d > 0 (H > 0.5) is also indicative of long-term memory 169 (Montanari et al., 1997). 170

#### 171 **3 Results**

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#### 3.1 Effects of Short Records on Sediment Yield Estimates

Analyses are presented for annual sediment yields and corresponds to the mean mass of sediment exported from the catchment by debris flows per year (unless declared differently). The estimated mean annual sediment yield  $\hat{\mu}$  can be both greatly over- or underestimated in all scenarios if based on short records (Figure 2a). The uncertainty is largest for thermal\_ls25, where  $\hat{\mu}$  can be biased by a factor of ~2 even after 30 years of measurements. Although uncertainty bounds of  $\hat{\mu}$  for different scenarios may overlap even after 50 years, there are distinct equilibria. Thus, sediment-supply regime changes are likely to be identified after 30 years of sampling in this system. Underestimating  $\hat{\mu}$  based on short records is most likely for the strongly supply limited thermal\_ls8.

The rate at which the uncertainty in  $\hat{\mu}$  drops is related to the effect of record du-182 ration, interannual variance, and interannual memory on the standard error of  $\hat{\mu}$  (Montgomery 183 & Runger, 2018). Similarly to  $\hat{\mu}$ , the estimate of the interannual variance (standard de-184 viation) of annual sediment yields  $\hat{\sigma}$  is affected by record duration, but with more over-185 lap between the scenarios (Figure 2b). However,  $\hat{\sigma}$  is underestimated in all scenarios for 186 187 short records, and this effect is stronger for supply-limited scenarios. As a consequence, in order to not underestimate  $\hat{\sigma}$ , observations of  $\sim 30$  years are necessary especially for 188 supply-limited conditions. Repeating the same analysis for the annual total sediment yield 189 (including fluvial transport) and the annual number of debris flows resulted in the same 190 patterns (Figures S2, S4). 191

The scenarios with the same number of landslides as thermal\_ls25 but different trig-192 gering mechanisms showed very similar results (Figures 2c, S2). These scenarios differ 193 in the seasonality of sediment recharge, but such high-frequency variations were not dis-194 tinctly transmitted to the outlet, and therefore invisible in the annual sediment yields. 195 Comparing the thermal scenarios ls\_8, ls\_16 and ls\_25 shows a clear effect of reduced sed-196 iment supply in diminishing mean sediment yields and increasing interannual variabil-197 ity. Although the climate forcing remained the same among the scenarios, by altering 198 sediment supply, the coefficient of variation (CV) increased from 0.7 in the transport-199 limited case, to  $\sim 1$  for the ls25 scenarios and to 1.5 and 2.3 for the more supply-limited 200 scenarios (Figure 2c). 201

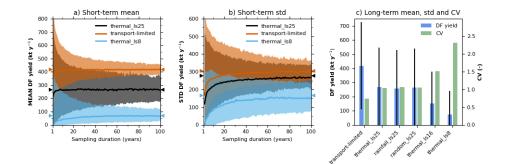


Figure 2. Sensitivity to record duration for (a) mean and (b) standard deviation of annual sediment yields for three scenarios. The medians (solid line) and the 5th-95th percentile range (shaded area) were computed by resampling the 10k-year simulations. Triangles mark the long-term values. (c) The sediment yields long-term mean  $\pm 1$  standard deviation (black lines) and coefficient of variation (CV) for all considered scenarios.

# 3.2 Observed and Simulated Debris-Flow Magnitude-Frequency Distributions

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Magnitude-frequency (MF) distributions were estimated for simulated debris-flow events for all scenarios and compared with observations for the same record duration of 18 years (Figure 3). The distributions are characterized by a power-law tail and range from  $8 \cdot 10^3$  to  $7 \cdot 10^5$  m<sup>3</sup>. The observations lie within the simulated uncertainties of the transport-limited, thermal\_ls25 and thermal\_ls8 scenarios. The simulated magnitudes tend to overestimate observations and this is attributed to the temporal rainfall structure generated with AWE-GEN and the streamflow that results in these extreme events (Hirschberg,

Fatichi, et al., 2021). The power-law tails of the different sediment supply scenarios look 211 similar, although the actual number of debris-flow events may vary from less than one 212 to more than four per year (Figure S4). It seems impossible to discern the sediment pro-213 duction process from the MF distributions of debris-flow events (Bennett et al., 2014). 214 However, the magnitudes of the very largest events are significantly different between 215 the scenarios and point to the fact that the observations are more likely to result from 216 the supply-limited scenarios (red histograms in Figure 3). The observations, based on 217 18 years of continuous monitoring, seem to be cutoff at  $8 \cdot 10^4$  m<sup>3</sup>. However, volume es-218 timates of destructive debris flows in 1961 suggest the possibility of larger events in the 219 order of  $\sim 5 \cdot 10^5$  m<sup>3</sup> (Hürlimann et al., 2003), which are mostly absent in short records. 220

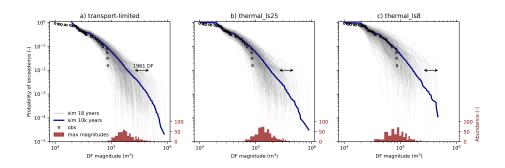


Figure 3. Debris-flow magnitude-frequency distributions. The blue lines were estimated from the 10k-year simulations. The grey lines are fits to 18-year-long subsets of the simulations, which corresponds to the time period of the observations (black circles). The histograms show the largest debris-flow magnitudes (95th percentile) from the simulation subset. The range of volume estimates from large destructive debris flows in 1961 are indicated by the black arrows.

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# 3.3 Long-Term Memory Effects in Sediment Fluxes

A key premise in this work is that sediment supply limitations may lead to long-222 term memory effects in sediment yields. In the DFA, all scenarios show the typical power-223 law scaling of the s-F(s) relation (Figure S5). The scaling behavior, expressed as the 224 exponent  $\alpha$ , was more pronounced for short records (Figure 4). This bias for short records 225 is expected and has no physical meaning (Peng et al., 1994). The presence of long-term 226 memory is evident in the simulations with stable slopes around  $\alpha \approx 0.75$  between ~8-50 227 years for the ls25 scenarios (Figure 4a,d,e). The scenarios with decreased sediment sup-228 ply (thermal\_1S26, thermal\_1s8) had a shorter period of stable slope ( $\sim 8-20$  years), but 229 the higher slopes ( $\alpha > 0.75$ ) indicate stronger long-term memory at these timescales 230 (Figure 4b,c). Depending on the scenario,  $\alpha$  scattered more after 20-50 years and trended 231 towards 0.5, indicating weakening memory and random signals at longer timescales. The 232 transport-limited scenario differs from all the others because  $\alpha$  stabilizes at 0.5 already 233 for small s. Hence, there are no long-term memory effects in the sediment output induced 234 by climate, which only imprints a short-term memory signal on sediment yields. 235

Long-term memory is also evident from the uncertainty in  $\hat{\mu}$  (Figure 2a). The drop in uncertainty is inversely related to *s* for the transport-limited case, while the drop for the other scenarios is much slower. A similar decrease in the uncertainty for those scenarios could only be reproduced by fitting an ARFIMA time series with long-term memory H>0.5 (Figure S6). Together with the findings of the DFA analysis, this confirms that the long-term memory in the other scenarios was induced by different sediment supply regimes.

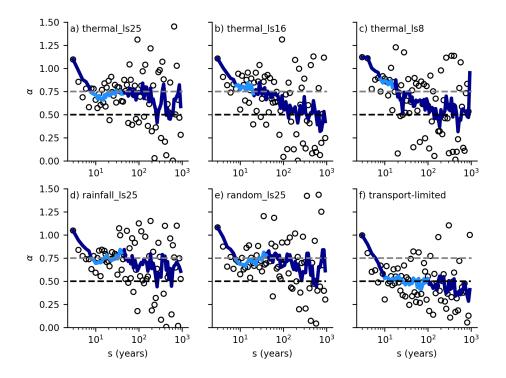


Figure 4. Local slope (exponent  $\alpha$ ) of the  $s - \overline{F(s)}$  relation in sediment yields shown in Figure S5 as a function of sampling duration s. The dots represent the slope between two individual points and the dark blue line is the moving average from five points. The light blue lines mark the timescales with approximately stable slopes (see text). The black dashed line at  $\alpha=0.5$  shows the condition of no long-term correlation. The dashed grey line at  $\alpha=0.75$  serves for comparison with strong long-term memory being present.

#### <sup>243</sup> 4 Discussion

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# 4.1 Short-Long-Term Discrepancy in Sediment Yield Estimates

We quantified the timescales and amplitude ranges of variabilities in sediment fluxes 245 in Illgraben. We investigated the influence of several different sediment supply scenar-246 ios and sampling timescales on sediment yields. Short records (<20 years) resulted in 247 uncertainty in mean  $(\hat{\mu})$  and standard deviation  $(\hat{\sigma})$  of annual sediment yield of a fac-248 tor of 2. With current erosion rates, the likelihood of over- or underestimation of  $\hat{\mu}$  was 249 balanced. However, in scenarios resulting in more supply-limited conditions,  $\hat{\mu}$  was likely 250 to be underestimated if based on short records. The interannual variability  $\hat{\sigma}$  was un-251 derestimated in all scenarios for short records. This is an inherent effect of undersam-252 pling and known from statistics, but compounded by the fact that for supply-limited sce-253 narios, the long-term memory was stronger (Figure 4). If the sediment supply was fur-254 ther decreased, the sediment yield would converge to zero and lose the long-term mem-255 ory effect. Therefore, interannual variability is expected to be underestimated in short 256 records and geomorphic systems with memory. 257

Discrepancies between short- and long-term estimates of sediment yield has been
attributed to low-frequency high-magnitude pulses of erosion (e.g., Kirchner et al., 2001;
Tomkins et al., 2007). Here, we are able to identify what this process is. If it was caused

by low-frequency high-magnitude rainfall events leading to large debris flows, the dis-261 crepancy would be visible in all scenarios because all scenarios were forced with the same 262 climate. This points to the role of the stochasticity in hillslope landsliding, which induced 263 stronger long-term memory for supply-limited scenarios (Figure 4). The discrepancy in short- and long-term  $\hat{\mu}$  in this study was therefore driven by the sequencing of random 265 large sediment supply events. We acknowledge that our spatially-lumped model neglects 266 variability in space and is therefore not ideal to study the impact of single extreme rain-267 fall events, because the hydrological connectivity may be an important limiting factor 268 for sediment flux even in small basins (Reid et al., 2007). Nevertheless, the simulated 269 dynamics reflect observations of elevated debris-flow activity or sediment yield after large 270 sediment supply events in Illgraben and other basins after landslides (Hürlimann et al., 271 2003), earthquakes (e.g., Tang et al., 2011), or wild fires (Cannon et al., 2001), and can 272 lead to elevated sediment yields even at the  $10^3$ -year timescale (Korup, 2012). 273

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#### 4.2 Implications for Risk Assessment and Mitigation

Our findings point to challenges in assessment of climate change impacts on sed-275 iment flux, hazard and design of engineering structures (e.g., sediment retention basins), 276 which are based on short records of sediment yields. Many sediment transport and debris-277 flow observation records are short and our simulations have shown the implied risks re-278 lated to uncertainties in sediment yields (Figure 2) and underestimating the possibility 279 of large debris flows (Figure 3). In basins with short records, additional methods and 280 secondary observations providing information for longer timescales should be consulted. 281 In debris-flow hazard assessments, events have been reconstructed using dating techniques 282 such as dendrochronology (e.g., Stoffel et al., 2008) or radiocarbon dating (e.g., Jakob 283 et al., 2017) to establish MF relationships. Because these methods are time and cost in-284 tensive, effort has been put into extrapolating existing MF curves at the regional scale 285 in relation to morphometric catchment characteristics (de Haas & Densmore, 2019), fan 286 area, or fan volume (Jakob et al., 2020). In addition to these procedures, stochastic mod-287 elling frameworks, as presented here, are helpful for quantifying uncertainties related to 288 climatic forcing and transient sediment supply and to extend MF distributions beyond 289 short-term observations (Figure 3). 290

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#### 4.3 Preservation of Climate Signals in Sediment Records

The sediment supply mechanism (thermal, rainfall or random) in our system had no effect on the long-term sediment yield estimates. These mechanisms mainly differ in their timing and seasonality. For example, frost-weathering is most active in cold months while intense rainfall mainly occurs in warm months. Because the frequency and magnitude of these processes are similar, their differences were not apparent in the sediment output, and their signals were shredded (Jerolmack & Paola, 2010).

Finally, it has been argued that environmental signals will only be recorded and 298 identified in sediment transport measurements or the sedimentary record if their timescale 299 exceeds the response time of the system (Castelltort & Van Den Driessche, 2003; Hoff-300 mann, 2015), unless the magnitude of the signal exceeds the natural variability (Jerolmack 301 & Paola, 2010). For Illgraben and similar basins this means that a change needs to per-302 sist for only >30 years. This may seem short, but when considering that this catchment's 303 erosion rate exceeds other Alpine sites by about one order of magnitude (Stutenbecker 304 et al., 2018; Delunel et al., 2020) and has relatively little opportunity to store sediments 305 (i.e. only temporary storage), this timescale can be expected to be much larger where 306 307 storage opportunities exist and where other controls dominate, such as glacial periods (e.g., Hoffmann, 2015; Ganti et al., 2016). Stochastic frameworks as presented here are 308 helpful in quantifying the role of different forcings and future research should aim at quan-309 tifying it for other basins with other sediment supply regimes and other geomorphic sys-310 tem models. 311

# <sup>312</sup> 5 Conclusions

We quantified the uncertainties introduced by climate forcing, transient sediment 313 supply and sampling record duration on estimates of sediment yields in Illgraben by sim-314 ulating 10k years with a sediment cascade model forced by hourly stochastic weather. 315 Consistent with field observations from other basins, estimates of mean annual sediment 316 yield may be underestimated when based on short records and this effect becomes stronger 317 when the sediment supply is decreased. This results from transient sediment supply by 318 hillslope landslides leading to cycles of transport- and supply-limited conditions. We showed 319 that such cycles cause long-term memory in sediment output at timescales of up to  $\sim 50$  years. 320 Consequently, the interannual variability of sediment yield estimates was underestimated 321 if sediment supply was limited. Furthermore, we showed that the signal from changing 322 sediment supply mechanisms (triggering conditions), which affect the timing and sea-323 sonality of sediment recharge, was shredded. Climate change impacts on sediment sup-324 ply may therefore only be recorded in the sediment output if they considerably alter the 325 erosion rate of the geomorphic system. The results highlight the importance of charac-326 terizing sediment supply events with regard to their stochastic nature. This will support 327 decision making and decrease the risk of misinterpretation both in natural hazard and 328 climate change impact assessments, especially if they are based on short records. 329

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# Supporting Information for "Sediment Yield and its Interannual Variability are Underestimated in Supply-Limited Mountain Basins with Short Records"

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- 1. Text S1 and S2
- 2. Figures S1 to S6
- 3. Table S1

# Text S1: Sediment Cascade Model (SedCas)

SedCas is a conceptual model based on the geomorphic concept of sediment cascades in headwaters (Bennett et al., 2014; Berger et al., 2011). It consists of two sediment reservoirs on the hillslope and the channel. Larger hillslope failures are triggered either by frost-weathering, rainfall or in random intervals, while smaller failures occur more often and randomly in time. A fraction of these sediments is redeposited on the hillslope and the remainder is directly transferred to the channel by gravity-driven processes. Sediment transfer in the channel and out of the catchment is triggered by surface runoff. To this end, the water balance is solved with a linear reservoir approach for hydrological response units and under consideration of the main hydrological processes (i.e. snow accumulation and melt, runoff generation, evapotranspiration). The channel sediment storage is eroded by sediment-laden floods and debris flows triggered by surface runoff. The total mobilized sediment volume depends on the surface discharge and the channel sediment storage.

The hillslope failures are sampled from a magnitude-frequency distribution characterized by a power-law tail (Bennett et al., 2012). This reflects the observation that the landslides feeding the channel with sediments and the weather conditions initiating sediment flow out of the catchment are stochastic forcings (see also model of Benda & Dunne, 1997a, 1997b). Although this modelling framework does not allow for a detailed investigation of sediment production and transfer processes in a spatially explicit way, it enables the study of compound impacts of climate on sediment production and transfer processes, and how climate signals are reflected in debris flows and sediment yield at the catchment scale (see also Lu et al., 2005).

Here we use the SedCas setup as described in Hirschberg et al. (2021), where we applied it for future predictions on debris flows and sediment yield in the Illgraben. We conducted the calibration and sensitivity analysis in a Monte Carlo framework based on 17 years of climate and debris-flow observations (McArdell & Hirschberg, 2020). SedCas was calibrated primarily to reproduce debris-flow statistics such as frequency, mean and standard deviation of the magnitudes. Further evidence of the satisfying model performance is supported by the successful reproduction of seasonal patterns in sediment production and transfer.

# Text S2: Advanced Weather Generator Model (AWE-GEN)

AWE-GEN produces stochastic hourly time series of correlated weather variables (e.g. precipitation, air temperature, incoming shortwave radiation) at the point scale (Fatichi et al., 2011). It is calibrated against observations collected by the Swiss Meteorological Office (MeteoSwiss) between 1981 and 2010 at the Montana weather station, located about 11 km away from the catchment at similar altitude (1423 m a.s.l.). Because climate statistics are aggregated at a range of spatial scales (from hourly to annual) in the calibration, AWE-GEN reproduces extremes as well as inter-annual variability for considered climate variables. For more details on the model and on how it was calibrated for the Illgraben the reader is referred to Fatichi et al. (2011) and Hirschberg et al. (2021).

Typically, 50, 30-year long time series (1500 years in total) are generated to estimate stochastic uncertainty (e.g. Fatichi et al., 2016). To ensure that natural variability is sufficiently considered, we simulate a time series of 10'000 years. It is representative for

the observed climate between 1981 and 2010 and used to force SedCas and determine the long-term means in sediment fluxes.

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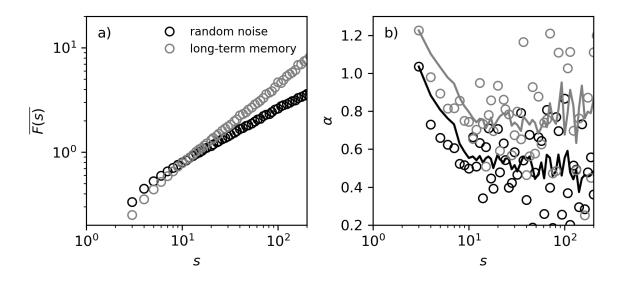


Figure S1. Example DFA analysis using fractional Gaussian noise without (random noise,  $\alpha = 0.5$ ) and with long-term memory ( $\alpha = 0.75$ ). (a) scaling of the mean spread  $\overline{F(s)}$  with sampling record length s; (b) local slope (exponent  $\alpha$ ) computed from the  $s - \overline{F(s)}$  pairs.

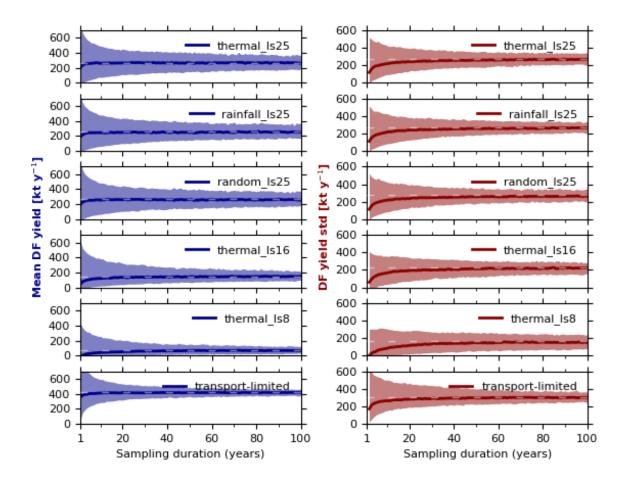
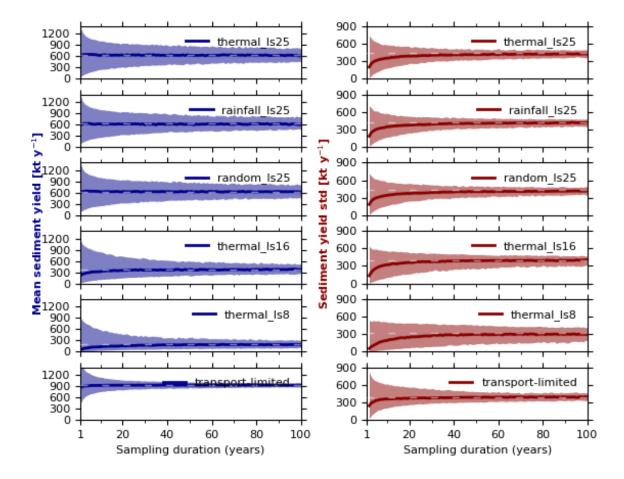
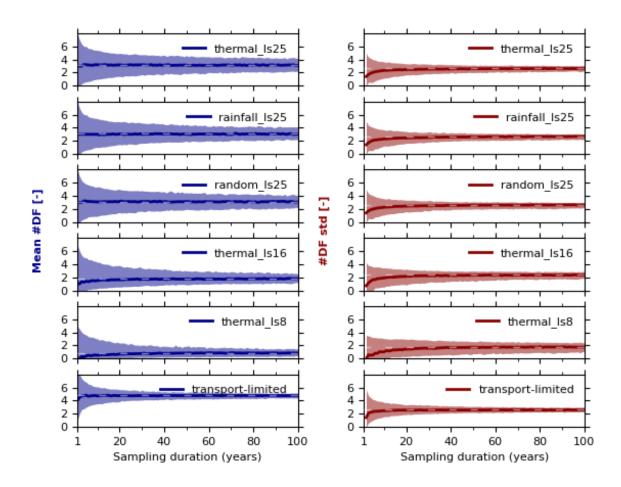


Figure S2. Debris-flow yields for all scenarios as a function of record duration. The median (solid line) and the 5-95 percentile range (shaded area) are shown for all modelled scenarios (Table S1) with SedCas.



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**Figure S3.** Sediment yields for all scenarios as a function of record duration. The median (solid line) and the 5-95 percentile range (shaded area) are shown for all modelled scenarios (Table S1) with SedCas.



**Figure S4.** Number of debris flows for all scenarios as a function of record duration. The median (solid line) and the 5-95 percentile range (shaded area) are shown for all modelled scenarios (Table S1) with SedCas.

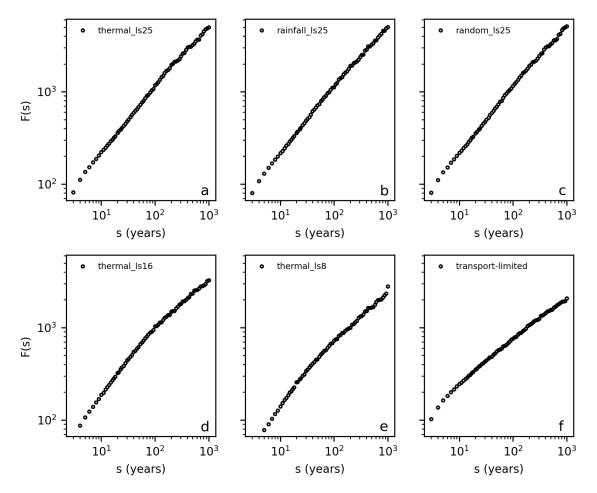


Figure S5. Detrended fluctuation analysis for annual debris flow yields. Each panel refers to one scenario (see Table 1). The corresponding local slopes (exponent  $\alpha$ ) are reported in Fig. 4.

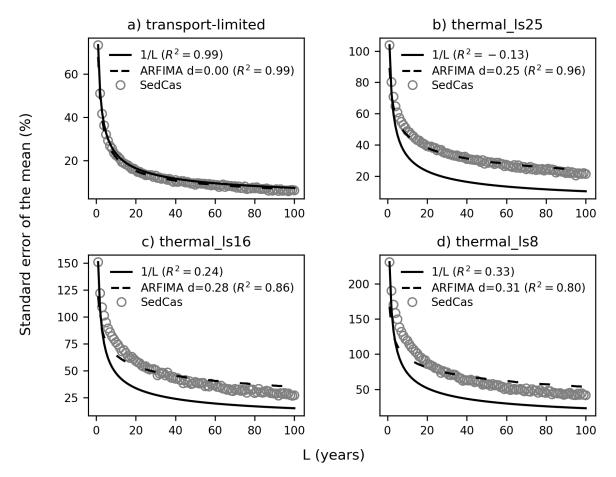


Figure S6. The drop of the standard error in annual debris-flow yields with record length (L) computed with SedCas. The solid black line marks the theoretical drop in standard deviation inversely to record length, if the annual yields were independent and identically distributed random variables. The dashed black line shows the drop from a stochastic time series with long-term memory generated with ARFIMA (Fatichi, 2021). The intensity of long-term memory increases with the d parameter (Montanari et al., 1997) and was fitted to the SedCas data.

**Table S1.** List of model scenarios and their parameterizations. Model runs differ only in the landslide triggering mechanism and climatic threshold for triggering of hillslope landslides. The corresponding parameters are the hillslope landslide triggering mechanism  $(LS_{trig})$  and the thresholds for snow depth  $(T_{FC-SD})$  and temperature  $(T_{FC-T})$  for landslides to be triggered by frost-weathering, and the rainfall threshold for landslides  $(T_R)$ .

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Scenario	Parameters				Description
	$LS_{trig}$	$T_{FC-SD}$	$T_{FC-T}$	$T_R$	
		(mm SWE)	(°C)	(mm/d)	
thermal_ls25	frost-weathering	11	-0.5	-	Reference, as calibrated in Hirschberg et al. (2021a)
rainfall_ls25	rainfall	-	-	7.9	Hillslope landslides trig- gered by a daily rainfall threshold
random_ls25	random	-	-	-	Hillslope landslides occur with random temporal spac- ing (log-normal)
thermal_ls16	frost-weathering	11	-2.2	-	Reduced sediment supply by $\sim 1/3$ (16 instead of 25 yearly landslides on aver- age) by adjusting $T_{FC-T}$
thermal_ls8	frost-weathering	11	-4.2	-	Reduced sediment supply by $\sim 2/3$ (8 instead of 25 yearly landslides on aver- age) by adjusting $T_{FC-T}$
transport-limited	-	-	-	-	Sediment transport follows the transport capacity com- puted with the SedCas hy- drological module