Response to Referee #2

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Manuscript title: Debris flows in the Eastern Italian Alps: seasonality and atmospheric circulation patterns

by

E. I. Nikolopoulos, M. Borga, F. Marra, S. Crema, L. Marchi

We would like to thank the reviewer for his/her constructive comments. We have revised the manuscript according to these comments and below we provide our detailed response to the points raised by the reviewer. Comments from the reviewer are in black and our response in color.

The manuscript deals with an interesting issue concerning rainfall thresholds triggering debris flows, which the Authors have focused on the effects related to seasonality and atmospheric circulation patterns. Therefore, the research has been oriented to analyze spatial and temporal variabilities of rainfall thresholds, reconstructed by an empirical approach at a regional scale, taking into account different seasonal and climatic conditions. The study area is the Trentino-Alto Adige region (Eastern Italian Alps) for which the Authors have reconstructed, in the period 2000-2009, a consistent dataset of debris flows occurrences (821 events) and gathered hourly rainfall data from a regional rain gauge network (205 stations). The paper is generally well structured and written and only few conceptual improvements can be accomplished to increase its completeness. These possible advances are described following through general and specific comments

Response

Thank you for your comments.

GENERAL COMMENTS

The manuscript describes accurate analyses regarding the influences of seasonal effects and atmospheric circulation patterns on characteristics of rainfall events that triggered debris flows in the studied period. Nevertheless, additional evaluations and descriptions about two aspects, whose explanation would improve the manuscript, could be carried out:

a) Effect of orography on rainfall patterns. This aspect appears to this reviewer not

trivial due the very high mountainous morphology and wide altitudinal range of the Trentino-Alto Adige region. Therefore, Authors could discuss more about the relationship between orography and spatial distribution of rainfall patterns triggering debris flows.

Response

We agree with the reviewer on the importance of the role of orography on spatial rainfall patterns. However, as the reviewer said the relationship of DF triggering rainfall and orography is not trivial at all and we would like to further emphasize on this by including here some recent results derived from the analysis of radar-rainfall fields for 10 different DF-rainfall events in the same region. Figure below shows that the relationship of rainfall with elevation can vary considerably even among events. Therefore to derive safe conclusions on the general patterns between rainfall and orography for the DF events examined, would require a comprehensive study dedicated solely to this topic, which therefore goes beyond the main scope of current work.

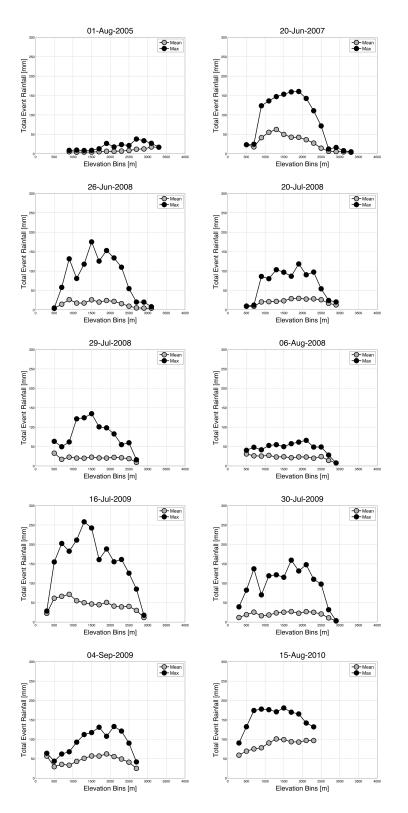


Figure. Total event rainfall versus elevation. Results show the average (grey) and max (black) value within 200m elevation bins. (source: Fig3. in E. I. Nikolopoulos, M. Borga,

J.D. Creutin, F. Marra, 2015: Estimation of debris flow triggering rainfall: influence of rain gauge density and interpolation methods, Geomorphology (conditionally accepted)).

b) Extension of the climatological analyses. Besides the Hess and Brezowsky Gross-wetterlagen (GWL) classification system, Authors could describe the mean annual rainfall patterns of the region in terms of monthly cumulative values and mean intensity. This analysis would improve the comprehension of the seasonal effects on rainfall events triggering debris flow and explain the ratio between debris flow occurrences and rainfall events (Tab. 2) also by this point of view. Also for this type of analysis, a zonal differentiation appears to be possible due the extension and variable physiographic setting of the Trentino - Alto Adige region.

Response

We would like to thank the reviewer for this important suggestion. In the revised version of the manuscript we have added an extra figure showing the annual rainfall climatology of the study region (Fig.5 in revised version) and the relative importance of summer vs fall season on annual rainfall. We have also updated text in section 3.2 where we discuss the connection of spatial patterns between DF occurrence and that of new Fig.5. The new text included is the following:

To examine the connection between rainfall climatology and DF seasonal spatial patterns observed in the region, we present in Figure 5 the mean annual rainfall map (Fig.5a) and a comparison of the contribution of summer and fall season (Fig.5b), during the study period. As shown in Figure 5a, southern part receives most of rainfall (~1000-1200 mm), northeastern part receives ~600-900 mm while the northwestern part of the region receives significantly less rainfall (~400 mm), as a result of the shadowing effect posed by the mountainous range surrounding the area. Looking at the relative importance on the annual rainfall of summer versus fall season (Fig.5b), it is clear that rainfall in the northwestern part is dominated by summer season which is twice or more the fall season rainfall and accounts overall for ~50% of annual rainfall (results not shown). Therefore dominance of summer season in DF occurrence in this part of the region reflects in essence the overall dominance of summer season in rainfall climatology. However, results for the southern part are interestingly different in the sense that in this case, the contribution of summer and fall is almost equal (i.e. ratio close to 1) and account for $\sim 30\%$ (results not shown) of annual rainfall. This means that the "preference" of DF to occur during fall season cannot be explained by the overall rainfall climatology and should be therefore attributed to other factors like antecedent wetness conditions (i.e. being wetter in the fall) and/or to the interactions between hydrogeomorphologic conditions and rainfall event properties.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

1) Lines 115-116: further descriptions about the altitudinal distribution of rainfall stations and locations of debris flows would improve the comprehension about the representativeness of rainfall records and the inherent uncertainties.

Response

Thank you for highlighting this important point. We have included this information in the revised manuscript by adding the following text:

The average (standard deviation) of Euclidian distance and absolute altitudinal difference between debris flows and closest available rain gauge is 3.7 (1.9) km and 0.43 (0.41) km respectively.

2) Line 124: probably the extension of references about the Hess and Brezowsky Grosswetterlangen (GWL) could give to the reader a more comprehensive view of the scientific literature about this topic (e.g. references cited in James, 2007).

Response

We have revised the text by including reference to initial work of Hess and Brezowsky as follows:

The Hess and Brezowsky Grosswetterlagen (GWL) classification system (Hess and Brezowsky, 1952, 1969, 1977).

Also we have revised the following sentence (L137-139) in the last part of the section:

For more detailed information on the GWL classification system and the individual GWL weather types, the interested reader is referred to Gestengabe and Werner (2005) and James (2007) and references therein.

3) Line 150: "rain" before "gauge" perhaps is better.

Response

Corrected

4) Lines 164-166: the Fig. 3 shows a distribution of DF rainfall events, with higher

accumulation and intensity values, which appears in accordance with the shape of the principal mountainous ridges (Fig. 1). A description of the effect of the orography with rainfall event triggering debris flows could increase the understanding about factors controlling rainfall thresholds.

Response

Please see response above on the DF rainfall – orography relationship. In addition we would like to mention that deriving a relationship between DF rainfall and topography should take into account that DF and topography are linked beyond the orographic enhancement of rainfall, given that DF occurrence depends on the surface slope and debris availability. Indeed deciphering a potential connection of these variables with topography is important but it is beyond the scope of the work presented in this manuscript.

5) Lines 177-178: this finding could be better understood with a descriptive analysis of the mean pluviometric regime of the area. For instance, with an additional figure showing the mean annual monthly cumulative and intensity values of rainfall as well as a related description.

Response

We have included new results/discussion regarding spatial pattern of rainfall climatology and summer/fall contribution (see above), which hopefully provides to the reader further insight/clarity on the relative connections.

6) Lines 194-195: the same as the preceding point 5.

Response

Please see our response to point 5 above.

7) Lines 203-206: the same as the preceding point 4.

Response

Please see our response to point 4 above. In addition, results regarding the distribution of DF rainfall properties per season (discussed in subsequent lines in text) are reinforcing the discussion regarding the season/type rainfall characteristics.

7) Line 246: in this case, also a correlation with orography would complete the analysis.

Response

Please see our response to 1st general comment above.

8) Lines 255-258: the relationship could be found also with orographic conditions.

Response

This is a very interesting point but we believe (as stated above) that to derive conclusions on this, it requires a detailed investigation which is beyond the scope of current work.

9) Lines 309-311: the same as the preceding point 4.

Response

Conclusions have been revised to summarize also the new findings regarding the connection between spatial patterns of rainfall climatology and DF occurrence.

11) Line 339: the following paper should be cited and discussed

Vessia, G., Parise, M., Brunetti, M.T., Peruccacci, S., Rossi, M., Vennari, C., Guzzetti, F., 2014. Automated reconstruction of rainfall events responsible for shallow landslides. Natural Hazards Earth System Sciences, 14, 2399-2408.

Response

Thank you for this. The reference is now included and the following statement is added in conclusions:

However, more advanced procedures for the identification of triggering rainfall as recently proposed by Vessia et al. (2014) could be considered for further enhancing this type of analysis.

12) Lines 390-392: this reference seems incomplete.

Response

Corrected.

flows the Eastern Italian Debris in Alps: 1 seasonality and atmospheric circulation patterns 2 3 4 5 E. I. Nikolopoulos^{a,*}, M. Borga^a, F. Marra^b, S. Crema^c, L. Marchi^c 6 7 ^a Department of Land, Environment, Agriculture and Forestry, University of Padova, 8 9 Legnaro, Italy ^b Department of Geography, Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Israel 10 ^c Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, IRPI, Padova, Italy 11 12 13 *Corresponding author. Tel: (+39) 0498272681; Fax: (+39) 0498272750 14 15 16 E-mail address: efthymios.nikolopoulos@unipd.it (E.I. Nikolopoulos) 17 18

19 Abstract

20 The work examines the seasonality and large-scale atmospheric circulation patterns 21 associated to debris flows occurrence in the Trentino-Alto Adige region (Eastern Italian) 22 Alps). Analysis is based on classification algorithms applied on a uniquely dense archive 23 of debris flows and hourly rain gauge precipitation series covering the period 2000-2009. 24 Results highlight the seasonal and synoptic forcing patterns linked to debris flows in the 25 study area. Summer and fall season account for 92% of the debris flows in the record, 26 while atmospheric circulation characterized by Zonal West, Mixed and Meridional South, 27 Southeast patterns account for 80%. Both seasonal and circulation patterns exhibit geographical preference. In the case of seasonality, there is a strong north-south 28 29 separation of summer-fall dominance while spatial distribution of dominant circulation 30 patterns exhibits clustering, with both Zonal West and Mixed prevailing in the northwest and central east part of the region, while the southern part relates to Meridional South. 31 32 Southeast pattern. Seasonal and synoptic pattern dependence is pronounced also on the 33 debris flow triggering rainfall properties. Examination of rainfall intensity-duration 34 thresholds derived for different data classes (according to season and synoptic pattern) 35 revealed a distinct variability in estimated thresholds. These findings imply a certain 36 control on debris-flow events and can therefore be used to improve existing alert systems. 37

1 Introduction

39 Debris flows are recognized as one of the most devastating natural disasters for 40 mountainous regions at global scale (Dowling and Santi, 2014). The sudden occurrence 41 combined with the high destructive power of debris flows pose a significant threat to 42 human life and infrastructures (Petley, 2012). Therefore, developing early warning 43 procedures for the mitigation of debris flows risk is of great economical and societal 44 importance.

45 Effective debris flows warning procedures require accurate knowledge on the relevant 46 triggering mechanisms and their corresponding characteristics (Borga et al. 2014). 47 Indisputably, rainfall is the predominant factor controlling debris flow triggering. Hence 48 most of the work so far on the prediction of debris flow occurrence is focused on the 49 identification of relevant rainfall conditions (Guzzetti et al. 2008 and references therein; 50 Nikolopoulos et al., 2014). However, the vast majority of the literature on identification 51 of debris flow triggering rainfall conditions deals primarily with the estimation of rainfall 52 properties (e.g. rainfall duration, intensity or accumulation) leading to debris flows. Less 53 attention has been paid to the seasonal and meteorological characteristics of the triggering 54 rainfall events. Knowledge on the seasonality and meteorological patterns characterizing 55 debris flow triggering rainfall events is important for two main reasons. First, 56 classification of debris flow events according to these factors may be used for the 57 development of a typology for debris flow rainfall events. This typology can subsequently be used for refining the rainfall triggering conditions according to different 58 59 debris flow types and thus improve prediction. This hypothesis was examined by Govi et 60 al. (1985) who analyzed the seasonality effect on the triggering of shallow landslides (soil 61 slip – mud flow and soil slip – debris flow) in a sector of NW Italy. It is also justified 62 from the recent works of Peruccacci et al. (2012) and Vennari et al. (2014) who 63 demonstrated differences in debris flow triggering rainfall properties between warm and 64 cold season for central and southern Italy, respectively. Furthermore, Toreti et al. (2013) 65 showed that debris flow occurrence in southern Swiss Alps, exhibit a distinct pattern in 66 large-scale atmospheric circulation and suggested that this information can be used to improve existing warning systems. On this line, Turkington et al. (2014), in a study 67

centered on the southern French Alps, showed that empirical thresholds can be directlyidentified based on regional atmospheric patterns.

Second, linking debris flow occurrence with seasonal and meteorological characteristics may provide indications on the potential impact of climate change on debris flow activity (Stoffel et al., 2014). As an example, Schneuwly-Bollschweiler and Stoffel (2012) concluded that the observed seasonal shift in debris flow activity in the Zermatt valley (Switzerland) is attributed to changes in precipitation and temperature regime in Swiss Alps over the last century.

76 The main objective of this work is to investigate the existence of distinct patterns in 77 seasonality and large-scale atmospheric circulation associated with rainfall events that 78 trigger debris flows. Furthermore, examination of debris flow rainfall properties with 79 respect to seasonality and weather circulation patterns is investigated to evaluate the potential benefit of using such discriminant factors for the identification of debris flow 80 81 triggering rainfall conditions. The work is focused over the region Trentino-Alto Adige in 82 the eastern Italian Alps and the analysis is based on a 10yrs record of debris flows and 83 raingauge rainfall observations. Section 2 provides a description of the study area and the different data sources used in the analysis. Results from the analysis are presented and 84 85 discussed in Section 3. The main conclusions derived from this work are summarized in Section 4. 86

87 2 Study area and data

88 2.1 The Trentino-Alto Adige region

The Trentino-Alto Adige study region is located in the Eastern Italian Alps (Fig. 1); it covers 13,607 km² and is characterized by complex topography with elevation ranging from 65 to almost 4000 m a.s.l. (mean elevation is approximately 1600 m a.s.l.). Mean annual precipitation amounts exhibit strong spatial variability in the region, with annual sums of slightly above 500 mm in the north-western portion of the region (the Venosta Valley, located in the rain-shaded Inner Alps) and exceeding 1500 mm in the southeastern edge of the area. The features of the precipitation mean annual climatology

96 exhibit characteristic seasonal variations (Norbiato et al. 2009; Parajka et al., 2010). The 97 precipitation regime in the northern part of the study area is characterized as continental, 98 with a unimodal cycle and the highest precipitation amount during the main convective 99 period (May-September). The southern portion of the study area exhibits a bimodal 100 regime, with maxima in spring-early summer and in autumn, which generally receives the 101 most abundant precipitation. Typically the precipitation during cold months (October to 102 April) is in the form of snow and widespread precipitation while mesoscale convective 103 systems and localized thunderstorms dominate the precipitation regime during warm 104 months (May to September) (Norbiato et al. 2009; Mei et al. 2014).

There are two important factors that make the area attractive for this study. First, the region is characterized by significant societal risk due to both the high frequency and the impact (in terms of casualties) of landslides in the area (Salvati et al. 2010). Second, the availability of a long-term record of precipitation and debris flows (Nikolopoulos et al., 2014), as described in detail in the following section.

110

111 **2.2** Debris flow and rainfall database

112 Ten years (2000-2009) of available precipitation observations and debris flow (DF, 113 hereinafter) records are analyzed in this work. Compilation of the DF events occurred in 114 the region during the period 2000-2009 was based on two independent databases, 115 covering the two administrative units: Trentino (377 events) and Alto Adige (444 events). 116 The selected 821 were identified based on a larger number of events in order to get the 117 same level of spatial and temporal occurrence accuracy. Available information includes 118 the location of the individual DF initiation point (shown in Fig.1) with a 500 m spatial 119 accuracy and the date of occurrence with a daily accuracy. Hourly accumulation values of 120 precipitation are obtained from a network of 192 rain gauges that cover the study region 121 (Fig. 1). As can be seen from Fig. 1, rain gauge stations are spread quite uniformly over 122 the region providing a spatial density approximately equal to $\frac{1}{80}$ (station/km²). The 123 average (standard deviation) of Euclidian distance and absolute altitudinal difference 124 between debris flows and closest available rain gauge is 3.7 (1.9) km and 0.43 (0.41) km 125 respectively.

126 **2.3 Weather circulation patterns**

127 The Hess and Brezowsky Grosswetterlagen (GWL) classification system (Hess and 128 Brezowsky, 1952, 1969, 1977) is used for the classification of large scale atmospheric 129 flow and weather circulation patterns. The GWL classification system is based on the 130 mean air pressure distribution (sea level and 500 hPa level) over the North Atlantic 131 Ocean and Europe. The classification initially identifies three groups of circulation types 132 (zonal, mixed and meridional), which are divided into 5 major types, which in turn are 133 divided into 29 subtypes (Grosswetterlagen, GWL) (Gestengabe and Werner, 2005; 134 James 2007). This classification system is frequently used to characterize the atmospheric 135 flow and weather patterns over the eastern North Atlantic and Europe (Gestengarbe and 136 Werner, 2005; Kysel'y and Huth, 2006; Planchon et al., 2009). Following Gestengabe 137 and Werner (2005) and Parajka et al. (2010), the original GWL classes were further 138 grouped into six categories (Table 1) that were used for the description of the general 139 weather regime during DF events. For more detailed information on the GWL 140 classification system and the individual GWL weather types, the interested reader is 141 referred to Gestengabe and Werner (2005) and James (2007) and references therein.

142 The monthly frequency of the GWL groups (Table 1) is presented in Fig. 2, for the whole 143 study period (2000-2009). As it is shown, the occurrence of Mixed weather pattern 144 dominates the other patterns consistently over all months, with monthly occurrence being 145 greater than 30% in all cases. On the other hand, the Mixed CE type is associated with 146 the minimum occurrence (less than 5% for all months except ~10% in August), while the 147 frequency for the rest of the weather patterns is within the same range and generally 148 between 10 to 20%. One noticeable feature is that during the winter period, apart from 149 the Mixed type, the Zonal West pattern occurrence is significant and distinctly higher 150 than the rest.

151 **3** Analysis and results

152 **3.1** Spatial distribution of debris flow triggering rainfall properties

153 Characteristic properties, namely duration and accumulation, for each DF triggering 154 rainfall event are estimated from the closest available rain gauge. Calculation of event155 based properties is based on the identification of individual events in the rainfall records 156 by separating subsequent rainfall events according to an inter-event period of 24 157 consecutive hours without rainfall (Nikolopoulos et al, 2014). This procedure results in 158 the identification of a total of 128 individual rainfall events, which have triggered the 821 159 DF analyzed. To examine the spatial distribution of DF rainfall properties, results are 160 grouped into different classes of duration and accumulation respectively and are mapped 161 over the study region (Fig. 3). Geographical distribution of the DF rainfall properties, as 162 shown in Fig. 3, allow us to investigate and potentially identify areas over the study 163 region with distinct pattern in the characteristics of the triggering rainfall. In terms of 164 duration, DF occurrence is dominated by events with duration >24h, which account for 165 ~82% of the DF occurrences, while in terms of rainfall accumulation DF events are 166 distributed more uniformly with 25-30% of cases corresponding to each of the three 167 highest classes (> 100 mm, 50-100 mm and 20-50 mm) and $\sim 14\%$ for the lowest class 168 (<20 mm). Visual interpretation of the spatial pattern of rainfall properties (Fig. 3) shows 169 that classes of rainfall and duration are rather mixed without revealing clustering of 170 specific rainfall properties. Perhaps the only noticeable feature from Fig. 3 is that most of 171 the DF events located in the northwestern part of the study region are generally 172 associated with relatively low (<50 mm) rainfall accumulation. This is an indication of 173 the link with the local climatic characteristics, with this portion of the study area being 174 included in the dry internal alpine region, characterized by relatively low mean annual 175 precipitation amounts.

176 **3.2** Seasonality of DF events

177 Relationship between DF events and season is examined to analyze the importance of 178 seasonality in a) the occurrence of DF events and b) the corresponding DF rainfall 179 properties. Geographical distribution of the season of occurrence of the DF events is 180 shown in Figure 4a, which reveals two important features. First, summer and fall season 181 dominate DF occurrence in the region of study. Specifically, 49% of the DF occurred 182 during summer and 43% during fall season (see Table 2 for more details). Second, there 183 is a very distinct geographical separation between the two dominant seasons of DF 184 occurrence. DFs in the northern part of the area are mainly occurring during the summer

185 while at the southern part, DFs occur predominantly during the fall season. In addition, 186 examining the seasonal distribution of DF rainfall events (Table 2) shows that summer 187 season is associated with 59% of the rainfall events while spring and fall seasons 188 correspond almost equally to 16% each and winter to ~9%. Relating the seasonal 189 distribution of the number of rainfall events with that of DF occurrences indicates clearly 190 that rainfall events during fall season are associated with the highest (on average) DF 191 numbers per event. Specifically, the ratio DF/event is 1.25(winter), 2.2 (spring), 5.4 192 (summer) and 17.75 (fall).

193 To further investigate the relationship between seasonality and number of DFs triggered 194 per rainfall event, we classified DF rainfall events according to the total number of DFs 195 triggered and analyzed the seasonal distribution of each class. Five classes were 196 considered that included rainfall events with total DF triggered equal to: 1 (class 1, 63 197 events), $1 \le DF \le 5$ (class 2, 35 events), $5 \le DF \le 10$ (class 3, 13 event), $10 \le DF \le 20$ (class 4, 198 11 events) and DF>20 (class 5, 6 events). Examination of the results (Fig. 4b) shows that 199 summer is clearly the dominant season in all classes. This is not surprising given that the 200 greatest number of rainfall events is also associated with summer season. For the first 201 class that involved events with only 1 DF occurrence, 60% of occurrences is almost 202 uniformly distributed among winter, spring and fall and the rest ~40% corresponds to 203 summer. There are no winter events for classes higher than class 2 suggesting that all 204 winter events are associated with low number of DF occurrence. On the contrary, spring 205 events are apparent for class 4, suggesting that spring events can be associated with the 206 triggering of several DFs. Interestingly, the highest class (DF>20) is equally distributed 207 between summer and fall season. Occurrence of a large number of DF-triggering rainfall 208 events during summer is hypothesized as a result of mesoscale convective systems that 209 although they have a relatively limited spatial extent, they are usually associated high 210 intensities. On the other hand, rainfall events during fall season are commonly 211 widespread systems covering a large spatial extent and are associated with moderate 212 intensities but long durations and rather wet antecedent soil moisture conditions.

213 To examine the connection between rainfall climatology and DF seasonal spatial patterns

214 observed in the region, we present in Figure 5 the mean annual rainfall map (Fig.5a) and

a comparison of the contribution of summer and fall season (Fig.5b), during the study

216 period. As shown in Figure 5a, southern part receives most of rainfall (~1000-1200 mm), 217 northeastern part receives ~600-900 mm while the northwestern part of the region 218 receives significantly less rainfall (~400 mm), as a result of the shadowing effect posed 219 by the mountainous range surrounding the area. Looking at the relative importance on the 220 annual rainfall of summer versus fall season (Fig.5b), it is clear that rainfall in the 221 northwestern part is dominated by summer season which is twice or more the fall season 222 rainfall and accounts overall for ~50% of annual rainfall (results not shown). Therefore 223 dominance of summer season in DF occurrence in this part of the region reflects in 224 essence the overall dominance of summer season in rainfall climatology. However, 225 results for the southern part are interestingly different in the sense that in this case, the 226 contribution of summer and fall is almost equal (i.e. ratio close to 1) and account for 227 $\sim 30\%$ (results not shown) of annual rainfall. This means that the "preference" of DF to 228 occur during fall season cannot be explained by the overall rainfall climatology and 229 should be therefore attributed to other factors like antecedent wetness conditions (i.e. 230 being wetter in the fall) and/or to the interactions between hydrogeomorphologic 231 conditions and rainfall event properties.

232 A further step in the seasonal analysis of DF is related to the seasonality of DF rainfall 233 properties. Figure 6 reports the distribution (as boxplots) of DF rainfall accumulation and 234 duration for the summer and fall seasons. The sample size for the DF cases of winter and 235 spring (see Table 2) is considered rather limited (number of DF<50), to be able to derive 236 statistical properties of the underlying distribution with an adequate degree of robustness 237 and therefore results for these cases were omitted. Results show that rainfall 238 characteristics of DF triggering events are significantly different between summer and 239 fall season. Events during the summer are associated with lower rainfall accumulation 240 and shorter duration while during the fall events are characterized by higher 241 accumulations and longer durations. Specifically, average rainfall accumulation 242 (duration) for summer events is equal to 44mm (48h), while for fall events is equal to 243 128mm (98h). These results are in agreement with the explanation provided above 244 regarding events of convective nature dominating summer rainfall and frontal systems 245 associated with long-lived widespread systems occurring in the fall season. Therefore,

- 246 properties of DF triggering rainfall events follow the general seasonal characteristics of
- rainfall events in the region without exhibiting any other particular pattern.

248 **3.3** Debris flows distribution and weather circulation patterns

249 Following the same methodological framework of section 3.2, we examine in this section 250 the relationship of DF occurrence and corresponding triggering rainfall properties, with 251 the weather circulation patterns. As it may be observed in Fig. 7, weather circulation 252 patterns corresponding to Mixed, Zonal West and Meridional Southeast and South (SE, 253 E) groups dominate DF occurrence in the region. In addition, visual inspection of Fig.7a 254 reveals the clustering (i.e. geographical preference) of specific types. For example, the 255 southern part of the study regions is associated to SE, E group while northwest and 256 central east is associated to Mixed and Zonal West groups. Results regarding the 257 connection between weather type and the different classes of rainfall events (see section 258 3.2) are reported in Fig. 7b. Again, results show clearly that Zonal West, Mixed and SE, E circulation patterns are the most dominant ones, with Meridional North (N) and 259 260 Northeast, East (NE, E) having an apparent but significantly less percentage of occurrence. Although the number of events included in class 5 is only six, thus not 261 262 permitting statistically significant interpretation of results, nevertheless it is interesting to 263 note that rainfall events that triggered the highest number of DF in the region and 264 occurred during summer and fall season (see Fig.4b) are predominantly associated with 265 weather circulation patterns (50% SE,E and \sim 17% N) that are much less frequent than 266 Mixed (which corresponds to 33%) and Zonal West (0% occurrence) according to the 267 climatology presented in Fig.2.

Examination of rainfall characteristics as a function of the weather circulation patterns
(Fig.8) shows the variability of both rainfall accumulation and duration with weather
type. On average, accumulation and duration increases consistently moving from Zonal
West (38mm, 42h) and Mixed (37mm, 42h), to N (75mm, 59h), to SE,E (128mm, 99h).
Note that due to sample size limitations, results in Fig.8 are presented for the four most
dominant weather type groups.

275 **3.4 DF rainfall thresholds**

Results obtained from previous sections revealed strong dependencies between DF triggering rainfall properties with a) season and b) weather circulation patterns. This allow us to hypothesize that there is merit in classifying DF events according to these factors and identifying the DF rainfall thresholds separately for each case. This could potentially result in the development of a set of thresholds that can be used according to different conditions (e.g. depending on the weather type) thus providing a more accurate prediction in comparison to using a universal threshold.

Rainfall thresholds, used for predicting possible debris flow occurrence, identify critical rainfall condition by linking rainfall intensity (or accumulation) and duration (for a review see Guzzetti et al., 2007, 2008). In this study we considered a widely used model for the definition of the rainfall thresholds, which is the intensity-duration (*ID*) threshold commonly adopting the power-law form

$$I = \alpha D^{-\beta} \tag{1}$$

where $I \pmod{h^{-1}}$ is the mean intensity and D (h) is the duration of the DF triggering 288 289 rainfall. The multiplier (α) and exponent (β) parameters are constants and are estimated 290 by fitting the power-law model to the empirical data. For the estimation of parameters α 291 and β we applied the *frequentist* approach proposed by Brunetti et al., 2010. Note that the 292 frequentist method allows identifying ID thresholds at different levels of exceedance 293 probabilities (see for example Brunetti et al. 2010 and Peruccacci et al., 2012). In this 294 work we adopted a 5% exceedance level, which means that the probability of a debris 295 flow triggering rainfall event (I, D pair) to be under the estimated ID threshold is less 296 than 5%.

To evaluate the significance of seasonal and weather type dependence of *ID* thresholds, we estimated the *ID* parameters from each DF sample corresponding to different season and weather circulation type. Note that in both cases, only the dominant seasons and weather types were examined. Also, *I*, *D* pairs used for the estimation of thresholds were filtered to remove values associated with $I < 1 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ and/or D < 2h, which are considered to fall within a range associated with high estimation uncertainty. Marra et al. 2014 has 303 shown that using I,D pairs below these thresholds may lead to unrealistic values of ID 304 parameters. Filtering and splitting the original DF sample (821 data points) according to 305 season and weather type group introduces uncertainty in the *ID* estimation procedure due 306 to the size of individual samples considered. To account for this effect, we applied the 307 methodology developed by Peruccacci et al. (2012). Specifically, for each case, ID 308 estimation was repeated 1000 times on samples derived from the original population 309 following the bootstrapping resampling technique (see Peruccacci et al. 2012 for more 310 details). Results on the estimation of parameters α and β and the uncertainty associated 311 to sample size are summarized in Table 3 and are visualized in Fig.9 (for different 312 seasons) and Fig. 10 (for different weather types).

313 Several conclusions can be drawn from these results. The estimated ID parameters for 314 summer and fall differ mainly on parameter α , with *ID* for fall being associated with higher value. The sampling uncertainty appears significant mostly for the α parameter 315 316 and is higher for fall. However, it can only partially explain the seasonal difference in 317 parameter α . Comparison of *ID* thresholds for different weather types shows that DF 318 cases associated with Meridional North pattern, are characterized by significantly higher 319 (than in all other weather types) values of both *ID* parameters. Results for Zonal West 320 and Mixed patterns are associated with very low values for parameter β in comparison 321 with the other cases but also with reference to other thresholds reported in literature (see 322 Guzzetti et al., 2007). Despite the associated uncertainties due to sampling size, overall 323 the results presented (Table 3, Fig.9 and Fig.10) show that classification of DF according 324 to season or weather type can lead to considerably different thresholds. This has 325 important implications for the operational use of the thresholds.

326 4 Conclusions

In this work, the seasonal and atmospheric circulation patterns of debris flows in the Eastern Italian Alps was examined. The study was focused on the Trentino-Alto Adige region and analysis was carried out over a ten years (2000-2009) period, for which a unique catalog of debris flow occurrences and hourly rain gauge precipitation was available. The principal conclusions derived are summarized below. 332 • The vast majority (92%) of debris flows occur during summer and fall season. 333 Furthermore, the two dominant seasons exhibit a clear geographical preference, 334 with summer and fall season dominating the northern and southern part 335 respectively. Analysis of these results with respect to the general rainfall 336 climatology in the region showed that dominance of summer season in DF 337 occurrence at the northwestern part is expected since it accounts for 50% of 338 annual rainfall and contributes twice the rainfall relative to fall season. However, 339 rainfall during summer and fall season at the southern part has equal contribution 340 $(\sim 30\%)$, which suggests that dominance of DF occurrence during fall season at 341 the southern part is probably controlled by other rainfall properties and/or other 342 variables (e.g. higher antecedent soil moisture)

Rainfall properties (accumulation and duration) derived for each individual debris 343 • 344 flow location and from the closest available raingauge, exhibit a seasonal pattern 345 as well. On average, summer events are associated with lower rainfall 346 accumulation and shorter duration than fall events but with higher intensity. 347 Essentially, this is a reflection of the general seasonal characteristics of rainfall in 348 the region, where rainfall during summer is dominated by short duration convective systems, while during fall season widespread long-lived systems 349 350 prevail (Borga et al., 2005).

Weather circulation groups of Mixed, Zonal West and Meridional Southeast and
 South patterns dominate debris flow occurrences in the region. Debris flow
 triggering rainfall properties vary considerably with weather type and specifically,
 both duration and accumulation increase on average moving from Zonal West, to
 Mixed, to N and finally to SE,E.

Variability of rainfall properties with season and weather type was further examined in the context of *ID* thresholds used for the prediction of debris flow occurrence. Results revealed that there are indeed apparent differences in the *ID* thresholds estimated for each case (season or weather type). Although sampling size limitations introduce a considerable amount of uncertainty in the estimated thresholds, this alone cannot fully explain the observed differences. Therefore, results indicate that there is potentially merit in the application of a classification scheme (according to season and/or circulation type)

363 on debris flow event for improving accuracy of threshold-based prediction systems.

364

365 An important note that should be kept in mind when considering the results reported in 366 this work regarding the derived rainfall properties and *ID* thresholds is that those depend 367 on a) the identification of individual rainfall events and b) on the accuracy of rainfall 368 estimates obtained from closest available gauges. Regarding the first point, we 369 acknowledge that the use of an inter-event period of 24h may not always represent well 370 the properties of the debris-flow triggering storms, especially in the case of short 371 rainstorms spaced by few hours, and can therefore impact at some degree the derived 372 values. We adopted the 24h threshold as a realistic value of a minimum period between 373 consecutive events according to our experience and also following previous work 374 (Nikolopoulos et al. 2014) to allow our results to be comparable with similar studies. 375 However, more advanced procedures for the identification of triggering rainfall as 376 recently proposed by Vessia et al. (2014) could be considered for further enhancing this 377 type of analysis. On the second issue, which relates to the DF rainfall estimation from 378 closest gauges, recent work on this topic (Nikolopoulos et al. 2014, Marra et al. 2014) has 379 demonstrated clearly that gauge-based estimates of DF rainfall are largely 380 underestimated, due to distance between closest gauge and DF location, and this results 381 also in underestimation of ID thresholds. However, the current work focuses mostly on 382 highlighting the relative differences of rainfall properties and subsequently of ID 383 thresholds among different seasons/weather types and thus the absolute accuracy is not of 384 focus. Therefore, we feel that the patterns portrayed regarding the seasonality and 385 atmospheric circulation dependence hold despite the existence of bias in rainfall 386 estimates.

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482	Table 1. Groups of weather	circulation pattern	n according to Grosswetterlager	n
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483 classification scheme.

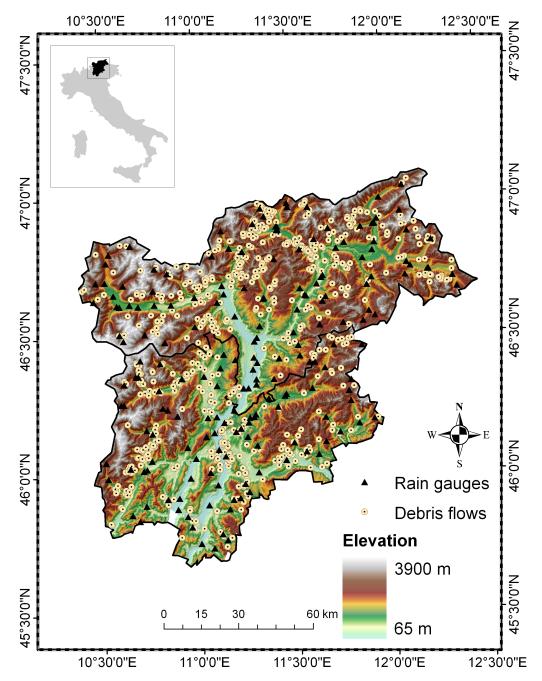
GWL group	GWL type (see Gestengabe and Werner (2005)
Zonal West	WA, WZ, WS, WW
Mixed	SWA, SWZ, NWA, NWZ, HM, BM
Mixed Central Europe (CE)	TM
Meridional North (N)	NA, NZ, HNA, HNZ, HB, TRM
Meridional Northeast and East (NE, E)	NEA, NEZ, HFA, HFZ, HNFA, HNFZ
Meridional Southeast and South (SE, E)	SEA, SEZ, SA, SZ, TB, TRW

Table 2. Number of debris flows and individual rainfall events per season and weather
type group. Results are reported also as percentages in the parenthesis.

Season	Number of DF	Number of rainfall events
	(total=821)	(total=128)
Winter	15 (2%)	12 (9%)
Spring	46 (6%)	21 (16%)
Summer	405 (49%)	75 (59%)
Fall	355 (43%)	20 (16%)
~~~~		
GWL group		
Zonal West	95 (12%)	30 (23%)
Mixed	179 (22%)	44 (34%)
CE	7 (1%)	4 (3%)
Ν	86 (10%)	14 (12%)
	55 (7%)	9 (7%)
NE, E	55 (770)	<i>y</i> ( <i>i</i> , <i>i</i> 0)

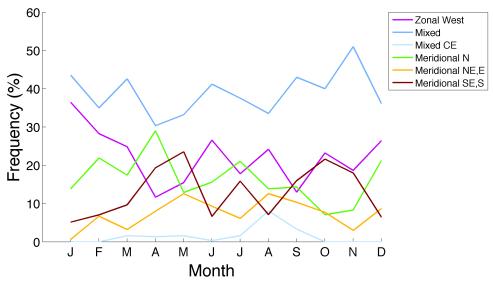
Season	α	$\mu_{\alpha}\left(\sigma_{\alpha} ight)$	β	$\mu_{\beta} \left( \sigma_{\beta} \right)$
Summer	2.63	2.68(0.40)	0.30	0.31(0.04)
Fall	3.64	3.75(0.76)	0.28	0.28(0.04)
GWL group				
Zonal West	2.22	2.42(0.74)	0.34	0.34(0.10)
Mixed	1.41	1.45(0.32)	0.12	0.11(0.06)
N	6.10	6.43(2.01)	0.47	0.46(0.08)
SE, E	1.92	2.00 (0.49)	0.14	0.14(0.05)

490 Table 3. Estimated *ID* parameters  $(\alpha,\beta)$  from original sample and their corresponding 491 mean ( $\mu$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) derived from the resampling exercise.



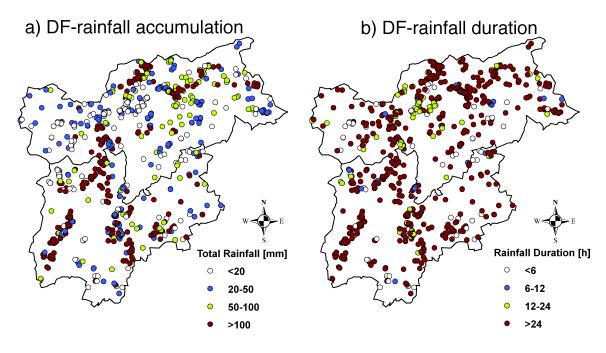
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Fig.1. Map of the Trentino - Alto Adige region. Shades of color show terrain elevation. Triangles and circles show respectively the location of rain gauges and debris flows involved in current study.

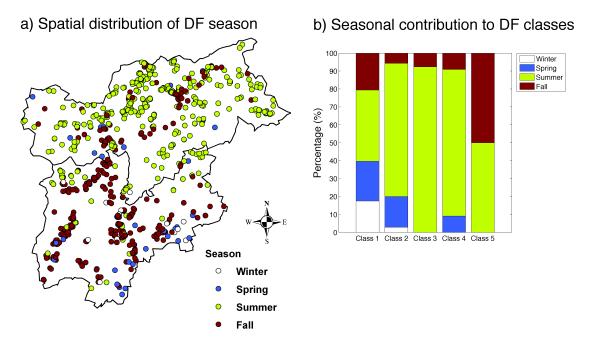


501 502 Fig.2 : Frequency of occurrence of weather circulation patterns classified in the Groswetterlagen catalogue in the period 2000–2009.

- 505 506

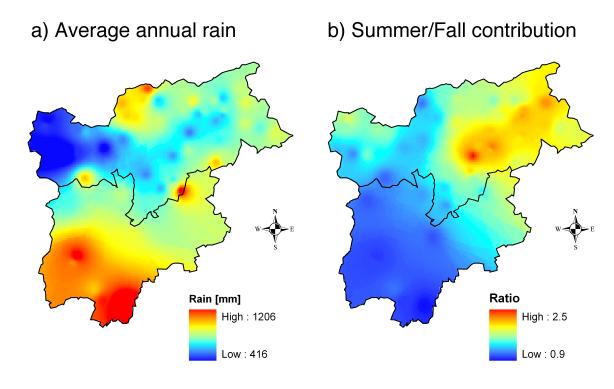


507 508 509 Fig.3 Map showing spatial distribution of DF rainfall a) accumulation and b) duration.



511 Fig.4 Seasonality of DF occurrence: a) Map showing spatial distribution of DF locations color coded according to season of occurrence, b) Correspondence between season and percentage of DF rainfall events, classified according to number of triggered DF. See 

- section 3.2 for definition of classes.



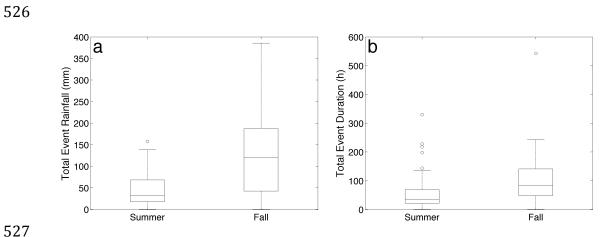
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520 Fig.5. Annual rainfall climatology and seasonal contribution. Average annual rainfall

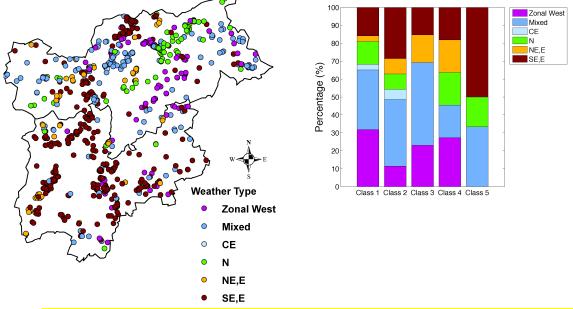
derived from available observations (a) and ratio of summer/fall contribution to annual 521

rainfall (b). Note that available rain gauge observations were spatially interpolated using 522

523 inverse distance weighted technique to produce the spatial maps shown.



528 Fig.6. Box-plots of DF rainfall accumulation (a) and duration (b) for summer and fall season. Circles correspond to outliers of the distribution (identified as greater that 1.5 times the inter-quartile range).



a) Spatial distribution of DF weather type b) Weather type contribution to DF classes

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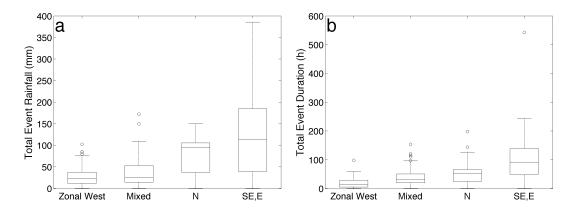


Fig.8. Box-plots of DF rainfall accumulation (a) and duration (b) of DF events associated 544 with Zonal West, Mixed, Meridional North and Meridional Southeast and South weather 545 type groups (Table 1). Circles correspond to outliers of the distribution (identified as 546 greater that 1.5 times the inter-quartile range).

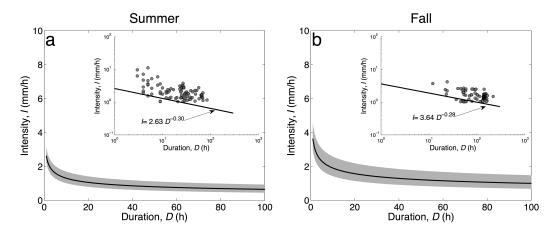
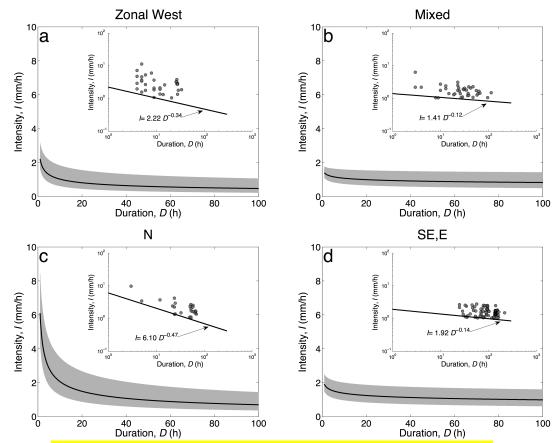




Fig.9. Intensity-Duration thresholds estimated for a) summer and b) fall seasons. Black 550 line corresponds to ID thresholds estimated from corresponding DF samples. Grey shade 551 denotes the uncertainty bounds equal to the mean +/- 1 standard deviation of the 552 parameter values obtained from the resampling exercise (see Table 3).

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- 555



558 Fig.10. Intensity-Duration thresholds estimated for a) Zonal West, b) Mixed, c)Meridional North and d) Meridional Southeast and South weather type groups. Black line corresponds to ID thresholds estimated from corresponding DF samples. Grey shade denotes the uncertainty bounds equal to the mean +/- 1 standard deviation of the parameter values obtained from the resampling exercise (see Table 3).