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Natural Hazard and
Earth System Science

Geneva, August 17, 2019

Dear Editor,

Please find enclosed the revised version of our manuscript "Mapping the susceptibility of rain-triggered lahars at Vulcano island (Italy) combining field characterization, geotechnical analysis and numerical modelling" by Valérie Baumann, Costanza Bonadonna, Sabatino Cuomo, Mariagiovanna Moscariello, Sebastien Biass, Marco Pistolesi and Alessandro Gattuso addressing all comments of the two Reviewers.

We believe that our contribution will not only provide fundamental insights for a better comprehension of rainfall-induced lahars but could also suggest new ways to evaluate lahar hazard. Lahars represent one of the most significant hazards to people living in volcanic areas and the characterization of volumes of pyroclastic material that can be potentially remobilized by water is crucial to accurate hazard assessments. Nonetheless, most of the research on lahar hazard is related to lahar inundation based on numerical models of variable complexity.

In this study we analyse the spatial distribution of the potential lahar sources in association with two eruptive scenarios that have characterized the activity of La Fossa cone (Vulcano, Italy): a long-lasting Vulcanian cycle and a subplinian eruption. In particular, we explore the spatial distribution of the potential lahar sources in association with two eruptive scenarios that have characterized the activity of La Fossa cone (Vulcano, Italy): a long-lasting Vulcanian cycle and a subplinian eruption. Our analysis is based on a combination of tephra-fallout probabilistic modelling (with TEPHRA2), slope stability modelling (with TRIGRS), field observations and geotechnical tests.Tephra-fallout properties (hydraulic conductivity, friction angle, cohesion, total unit weight of the soil, saturated and residual water content) required by numerical models and obtained for the primary tephra-fallout deposits on the La Fossa cone represent the first data derived for this region.

The comments of the reviewers have helped us strengthen the manuscript. In fact, it has been substantially restructured and rewritten based on comments of both reviewers in the attempt to clearly identifies the importance and objectives of this study, concisely presents data relevant to support the study, and critically highlights results of importance and explains their significance to the reader. We hope that these substantial modifications (see responses to reviewers here below) have made the manuscript suitable for publication.

Sincerely,

Costanza Bonadonna
on behalf of all authors

Detailed response to reviewers.

We thank Reviewer 1 for valuable and constructive comments. All specific and technical comments (including the provided PDF) have been addressed (see detailed description below with our comments in red).

1) To be acceptable for publication, I suggest the manuscript needs to be restructured in a way that (a) clearly identifies the importance and objectives of this study, (b) concisely presents data relevant to support the study, and (c) critically highlights results of importance and explains their significance to the reader. Some more detailed comments to be considered in the restructuring is highlighted in the following "specific comments" section

   The paper has been substantially restructured and rewritten based on comments of both reviewers in the attempt to clearly identifies the importance and objectives of this study, concisely presents data relevant to support the study, and critically highlights results of importance and explains their significance to the reader.

2) Page 2, line 18: It is important to clarify that overland erosion and shallow landsliding is the most common mechanism (see e.g. Pierson and Major 2014), as opposed to the only two mechanisms for generating lahars

   We thank the reviewer for this comment, however, in our statement in the introduction, we already say that “sheet and rill erosion” and “infiltration of slope surface by rainfall” are the main two mechanisms that trigger lahars in association with heavy rain. As a result, we think that the statement is sufficiently inclusive of all possible mechanisms.

3) Page 3, line 19-20: "Nonetheless, the use of physically-based models ... is necessary...". I think this is intended to be the crucial aim/thrust of the manuscript, but is not justified from the text before it. What are the weaknesses in an approach such as Tierz et al.? Why is coupling a physical model preferable/necessary? Aspects of Volentik et al. (2009) and Galderisi et al. (2013) might help explain the benefits of such an approach.

   We agree with the reviewer that this part was not very clear, so we have expanded it and added some reference to Volentik et al. 2009 and Galderisi et al. 2013 (introduction).

4) Page 3, line 33 and on: "This approach provides the first integrated attempt ..." to page 4, line 6 "offers an innovative treatment of cascading effects". Both Galderisi et al. (2013) and Volentik et al. (2009) used a similar approach that integrated tephra fall models with a slope stability/shallow landslide model, so I don’t necessarily agree with the statements in this paragraph. In combination with the previous comment, I think coupled approaches need to be discussed in more detail to highlight the significance of this work (in my opinion: better considers impact of rainfall on stability, identifies thresholds for initiation and provides fully quantitative estimates of lahar initiation).

   We agree that our work is not the first attempt to couple lahar triggering with probabilistic modelling of tephra sedimentation (see previous comment). However, our work certainly represents the first “integrated attempt to quantify the source volume of lahars as a function of probabilistic hazard assessment for tephra fallout (with TEPHRA2), numerical modelling of lahar triggering (with TRIGRS), field observations (including primary tephra-fallout deposits, geology, geomorphology and precipitations), and geotechnical tests of source deposits.” We have expanded the description of the Volentik et al. 2009, Galderisi et al. 2013 and Tierz et al. 2017 studies in order to clarify this point (introduction).

5) **Field and laboratory methods and results** The field sampling is unclear to me in section 3.1. What is meant by collecting 8 samples "...to retain primary physical characteristics"? Is this where in-situ permeability/soil suction tests were done? On page 5, line 2 - A further 11 samples are collected, looking at Fig. 3 I presume from the Pal D deposit (1 sample), and then at two locations for the 1880-90 vulcanian eruption. This corresponds to samples V1, V2 and V3. However, line 3-7 then discuss location of samples (4 from S La Fossa, 2 from NW La Fossa, 2 from Palizzi valley), but that only sums to 8 samples.

   We agree that the sampling description was unclear. We have rewritten this whole part.

6) Aided by confusion in sampling, the first two results sections (4.1, 4.2) are difficult to follow, presenting a large amount of information not directly relevant to the manuscript. The purpose of field and laboratory characterization is to identify parameters of Pal D and 1880-90 deposits for TRIGRS. While grainsize is a consideration for lahar generation and tephra fall, the authors do not use any of this information in their study. Tephra simulations use Biass et al. 2016 results, and no comparison between the chosen size range in Biass et al. 2016 and the values found in this study.

   It is correct that Biass et al did not use this grainsize because the input of TEPHRA2 is the total grainsize distribution and not the distribution at individual locations. As a result, the TGSD used in TEPHRA2 and the GS analysed in this paper cannot be compared. However, the grainsize of tephra-fallout deposit was analyzed to compare it with that of lahar deposits in order to relate the source area with eh remobilized material. In addition, grain size distribution of source area is required to estimate the Soil Water Retention Curve of soil using the Kovac and Aubertin model necessary for TRIGRS (see section 3.2). In fact, this model requires grainsize data including the diameter corresponding to 10% and 60% passing on the grain size curve (i.e., D10 and D60), and the liquid limit. We have, therefore, kept the Mdphi vs sorting plot in the main text and moved all tables and figures of grainsize distribution in the supplementary material.

7) The sample naming scheme is hard to follow in context, switching from unit to location to site to unit in the tables, and unit to site to sample number in the figures. I suggest simplifying both the description of sampling and presentation of results from field and laboratory analyses. In this study, we are interested in the Pal-D and 1880-90 tephra and lahar units. Individual data from each location (Tables 1-3) can be provided as supplementary material, and results should focus on how Geotechnical (table 4) and input parameters (table 5) are derived from your sampling campaign. I fail to see how the extensive study on grainsize is necessary here, beyond a few sentences, and would recommend shifting figures 5 and 6 to supplementary material.

   We reorganized the table 3 and put tables 1-3 in supplementary material. Figure 6 was moved to supplementary material and we have kept Fig 5 in the main text to illustrate the grainsize similarity between primary and lahars deposits.

8) Page 12, line 33: Were two upper catchments exactly the same size, or were they of similar size? How were catchment boundaries defined (i.e. from the slope or drainage networks/external data)?

   Yes, they are of same size and we have added an explanation on how we have defined them (section 4.3 Modelling).

9) Figure 9: It is better to make this figure greyscale compatible and easier to interpret. I would suggest something like using dashed lines for 25

   Good suggestion! We have made the figure greyscale compatible.

10) Section 4.3.1 - This section seems to show that increasing the tephra thickness above a certain threshold will increase stability, nicely leading onto section 4.3.2. Figure 10 doesn't seem to add much to this discussion over table 7, so I would recommend removing it.

    We agree with this comment. However, we also feel that Fig. 10 helps visualize results of Table 7. Given the importance of these results, we feel that this Figure should be kept.

11) Page 14, line 2-4: It is unclear how deposit thickness was increased. Was this assuming a constant depth of deposit across the entire NW and S area, or was it applied as a proportion of the isopachs (either Tephra2 or observed)?

    Thanks for this comment. We have explained in the text that the thickness was considered constant over the whole source area (section 4.3.2)

12) Page 15, line 1 and on: "... total pressure head has a higher maximum displaced to higher tephra fallout deposit thickness..." What does maximum displaced mean here?

    We agree that this statement was confusing. We have rewritten this all section.

13) Page 15, line 14 - page 16, line 2 : I do not understand the relevance to Cordon Caulle in the entire section, and it seems misguided. The friction angle of a granular material is controlled by the distribution (_) of grainsize, asperity and roughness; not mean grain size. Hydralic conductivity for these two different eruptions would be expected to differ, as the Pal D deposits are much coarser than Cordon Caulle lapilli. Some 'washing' of fines over time may occur, but if differences in measuring techniques cause a 2 orders of magnitude difference in conductivity, then the techniques are unreliable. This section is better served by starting with Page 16, line 3 (Table 8 ...).

    We agree with these comments and this part has been removed.

14) Another consideration in section 5.1 is the volume of lahars. Lahar volumes for all the other examples in table 8 are quite large, in comparison to the smaller lahars at Vulcano.

    We agree with this comment and added some lahar volumes for the volcanoes listed in the table and discussed it in section 5.1.

15) Page 20, lines 6 - 8: How was the assessment of unstable areas found to be accurate? Without validation against a specific event (or set of events), a methodology has been shown to identify unstable areas.

    We have removed this statement

We thank Prof. Barclay (Reviewer 2) for valuable and constructive comments. All comments have been addressed (see detailed description below with our comments in red).

1) One thing that may particularly help with some of the issues around choices to be made with parametrisation and applicability of the system is via the inclusion of any contemporary accounts of lahar activity from the 1888 eruption. Observations of lahars (or even immediate geomorphological change) are not included in the paper (just the discussion of existing 'undisturbed' lahar deposits left on the island now). Even if the population was evacuated it may be that there are some contemporary accounts which might help to validate some of the choices you have made in terms of analytical focus and also provide something against which to measure your conclusions, and might also help with the interpretation of those deposits you have encountered. Similarly, do you have contemporary accounts of weather patterns following this eruption?

   Unfortunately, there is no accurate description of lahars in any of the available chronicles. Lahars clearly occurred as we see them in the deposit and because they occur even at present day (even if in small size given that the original material has almost all gone). Mercalli (1891) do not describe any mud flow, probably because he was not interested in this phenomenon. De Fiore (1922) describes erosion of the 1888-90 deposit which was still loose in 1921 when he observed it. Interesting to notice also that the eruption started on August 3, ie during the dry season, so when lahars are not expected to form. De Fiore 1922 also mentions that he installed a rain station that did not work and also the station in Sicily were not working at that time apparently. But he mentions that the most intense rain typically happens in November, while December is the months with the most frequent rain events. July is the month with the least intense and frequent rain events. All this is in agreement with the recent observations we describe in our paper (Fig. 2). So, it seems that the weather pattern in this region is pretty constant. We have added the information of De Fiore (1922) to the text to clarify this points.

2) Introduction: A distinction between lahar archetypes that is more generally made is that described in Pierson et al., (2014) – which is between 'primary' and 'secondary' lahars – this more obviously has a similarity in mechanism than the examples you give. I'd suggest you would use this more commonly used typology here and throughout – it might make things less confusing. I realise that you regard these as 'syn-eruptive' but really these are secondary lahar generated via syn-eruptive rainfall? (see also lines 0-7 on p. 4).

   Thanks for this comment. However, as we mention in the introduction, we follow the definition of Sulpizio et al. (2006), in agreement with Vallance and Iverson (2015) and Gudmunsson (2015), that syn-eruptive lahars occur during or just after the eruption. The modelled lahars are expected to initiate during the Vulcanian cycle (and therefore syn-eruptive to the cycle) or just after the subplinian eruption. In contrast, recent lahars can be clearly considered as post-eruptive lahars.

3) 2.1 and Figure 1. Eruptive history. To allow an evaluation of the validity of your choice in eruptive scenarios a summary figure of the last 1000 years of activity as a function of eruption size and duration would be useful (in a similar way to how you have synthesised typical rainfall in Figure 2).

   We agree with the reviewer and we completely rewrote section 2.1, in order to better describe the stratigraphy of the selected period of activity. We also present the extrapolated recurrence of the eruptive scenarios (new Table 1). To help with this, we also redrew Figure 1 which is now accompanied by a synthetic log of the last 1000 years of activity.

4) 2.3 Recent lahars. This and the description September 2017 lahar (p.10) are a little distracting/confusing. They describe the cumulative morphological change and the nature of flows some 120+ years after the last eruption. It would be more salient here to describe some of the observations of any laharic activity or immediate morphological changes following the 1888 eruption, as mentioned above. A critical feature here of the eruption is the extent to which 30cm of deposit is representative of different eruptive phases. If the triggering mechanism is landsliding, then different eruptive stages might supply significant mechanical discontinuity.

   We agree with this comment. This part has been moved to supplementary material.

5) Section 3.3 – would be easier to evaluate the 'likelihood' of the scenarios used here with a easier to read eruptive history than currently provided in 2.1

   Following the reviewer's comment and our strategy used for comment #3, we insert a table (Table 1) in which we show the number of events and the recurrence time for each type of activity.

6) 3.4 TRIGRS model. This would be easier to follow to the uninitiated reader if the content of paras 2 and 3 was earlier than paragraph one.

   We have restructured this section following this comment

7) Section 4,3 modelling. I was not sure of the justification for only one rainfall scenario here.

   We have strengthened the explanation of the use of one rainfall scenario (section 4.3). In fact, the selected scenario (heavy-torrential precipitation) represents the most intense precipitation scenario based on available data and is used to investigate the maximum unstable tephra volume. We also note that the parametrization analysis was carried out using two rainfall scenarios in order to investigate the effect of variable rainfall (see Figs 11 and 12 and Table 6).

8) It was also not clear to me the extent to which you had evaluated the influence of deposits from differing eruptive phases (discontinuities in deposits mechanical characteristics). You do discuss in detail the influence of a fine-grained layer on the infiltration (and thus likelihood of instability controlled lahar initiation) but there are more insights available here from the experimental set up of Jones et al., (2017) – this would point to the influence of antecedent rainfall (in generating armouring conditions for subsequent intense rainfall too) – to go with the observational record from other lahar episodes. This would suggest that the overland runoff via Hortonian flow may be significant even immediately following an eruption. This could be compared for example to observed rainfall patterns which then may help assess the likelihood of the failure mechanism you explore (whether the possibility of both means lahars are even more likely). I think the nature of this analysis such that a summary diagram, considering the interacting dimensions of tephra thickenss, antecedent and contemporaneous rainfall and hydraulic conductivity (as a function of grainsize, porosity and saturation) may be more important in 'suggesting windows' of eruptive behaviour and rainfall where lahar generation may become a significant hazard. The conclusions drawn may then be more

robust as given all the caveats and unknowns I am not sure the thresholds and % you present here are fully defensible.

In this work we did not consider the influence of discontinuities in deposit mechanical characteristics because this cannot be described in TRIGRS. However, PAL D deposits are massive and the thickness of individual layers for the 1888-90 deposit is very small (mostly < 1 cm) and, therefore, we assume that they are also massive.
We added the rainfall simulation experimental results from Jones et al. 2017 on fine grained and coarse-grained tephra fallout deposits in section 5.1. However, our outcomes cannot be directly compared with the outcomes of Jones et al. (2017) because, unfortunately, hydraulic conductivity was not measured in this experiments and antecedent rain could not be investigated with TRIGRS. Regarding the armouring conditions, we have not observed any of this even at present days. This is also in agreement with the observations of De Fiore 1922. We consider then that this has a negligible effect on lahar triggering for 1888-90 and Pal D deposit. Nonetheless, we have added a discussion on this in section 5.1.
Finally, we have added a summary table (Table 6) to better describe the outcomes of Fig 11 and 12 and simplified the description of this part in the main text.

Mapping the susceptibility of ~~syn-eruptive ~~rain-triggered lahars at Vulcano island (Italy) combining field characterization, geotechnical analysis and numerical modelling

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Abstract. ~~Lahars are a widespread phenomenon~~The characterization of triggering dynamics and of remobilised volumes is crucial to the assessment of associated lahar hazard. We propose an innovative treatment of the cascading effect between tephra fallout and lahar hazards based on ~~Vulcano island (Italy), where many loose pyroclastic deposits provide a significant~~probabilistic modelling that also accounts for a detailed description of source ~~of ~~sediments. ~~In this study~~As an example, we have estimated the volumes of tephra-fallout deposit that could be ~~remobilized~~remobilised by rainfall-triggered lahars in association with two eruptive scenarios that have characterized the activity of La Fossa cone (Vulcano, Italy) in the last 1000 years: a long-lasting Vulcanian cycle and a subplinian eruption. The spatial distribution and volume of~~ tephra-fallout~~ deposits that could potentially trigger lahars were analysed based on a combination of tephra-fallout probabilistic modelling (with TEPHRA2), slope~~-~~stability modelling (with TRIGRS), field observations and geotechnical tests. ~~Field characterization includes tephra-fallout primary deposits in the lahar initiation zones and lahar deposits both on the volcanic cone and in the ring plain. ~~Model input data ~~(~~were obtained from both geotechnical tests and field measurements (e.g. hydraulic conductivity, friction angle, cohesion, total unit weight of the soil, saturated and residual water content~~) were obtained from both geotechnical tests and field measurements. In particular, hydraulic conductivity plays an important role on the stability of tephra-fallout deposits. Our parametric analysis has shown that the tephra-fallout critical thickness required to trigger a lahar for the considered rainfall event is between 20-25 cm for the Vulcanian scenario, and between 10-65cm or <10cm for a subplinian event depending on the hydraulic conductivity. The scenario remobilizing the largest unstable volumes by rain-triggered lahars is, therefore, that associated with a Vulcanian cycle with duration of 18 months and a subplinian eruption of VEI 3 (for low hydraulic conductivity). TRIGRS simulations show that shallow landsliding is an effective process for eroding the primary tephra-fallout deposits in combination with high-intensity rainfall events with short duration, such as those occurring on Vulcano every year. Our results provide a new innovative treatment of the cascading effect between tephra fallout and lahar susceptibility that also accounts for detailed characterization of source sediments based on field observations and geotechnical tests~~). TRIGRS simulations show how shallow landsliding is an effective process for eroding pyroclastic deposits on Vulcano. Nonetheless, the remobilised volumes and the deposit-thickness threshold for lahar initiation strongly depend on slope angle, rainfall intensity, and grainsize, friction angle, hydraulic conductivity and cohesion of source deposit.

1 Introduction

Lahars, an Indonesian term to indicate volcanic debris flows and hyper-concentrated flows with various amount of volcanic solid content, can cause loss of life and damage to infrastructure and cultivated lands and represent one of the most ~~significant~~devastating hazards for people living in volcanic areas (Pierson et al., 1990, 1992; Janda et al., 1996~~ ~~; Scott et al., 1996, 2005; Lavigne et al., 2000a; Witham, 2005; De Bélizal et al., 2013). The most destructive lahars were caused by break out of crater lakes or volcano dammed lakes (e.g., Mt. Kelud in Indonesia; Thouret et al., 1998) or by the interaction of hot pyroclastic density currents (PDCs) with glacial ice and snow at ice-capped volcanoes (e.g~~.~~., Nevado del Ruiz in Colombia; Pierson et al., 1990). However, the most common lahars are those generated by heavy rainfalls on tephra fallout and ~~pyroclastic density current (~~PDC~~)~~ deposits emplaced on volcano slopes (e.g~~.~~., Casita Volcano, Nicaragua (Scott et al., 2005); and Panabaj, Guatemala (Charbonnier et al., 2018)). For example, torrential rainstorms on loose pyroclastic deposits produced by the 1991 eruption of Pinatubo (Philippines) have generated hundreds of secondary lahars for years after the end of the eruption ~~end~~ (e.g., Janda et al., 1996; Newhall and Punongbayan, 1996). Despite their relatively small volumes, over 6 years, these lahars have ~~remobilized over 6 years~~remobilised 2.5 km^3 of the 5.5 km^3 of primary pyroclastic material~~. After the 1991 eruption, during many years filling of downstream channels and overbank flows,~~ inundated 400 km^2 of villages and fields ~~(400 km^2)~~ and more than 50,000 people were evacuated (Vallance and Iverson, 2015).

Many studies exist that make use of various analytical and numerical models to describe the potential inundation area of lahars (e.g. Procter et al. 2012; Cordoba et al. 2015; Caballero et al. 2016; Mead and Magill 2017; Charbonnier et al. 2018). ~~Rain~~The associated outcomes are fundamental to the development of risk-reduction strategies; nonetheless, all inundation models require the determination of the volume of potentially remobilised material that is often approximated due to the lack of information. In fact, the identification of lahar source areas and lahar initiation mechanisms is crucial to the evaluation of lahar recurrence and magnitude. With "lahar source areas" we refer to areas with pyroclastic material that can be remobilised to form lahars; these areas are normally located on steep slopes (> 20°), and at the head of channels draining the volcano flanks. The generation of rain-triggered lahars may be influenced by several factors such as the amount of rainfall, deposit stratigraphy, slope gradient, vegetation cover and the physical characteristics of pyroclastic deposits (e.g., thickness, permeability, pore pressure and ~~grain-size~~grainsize distribution). ~~Rain-triggered lahars occur due to two~~Two main mechanisms have been identified for the triggering of lahars by rainfall on pyroclastic material: sheet and rill erosion due to Hortonian overland flow caused by deposit saturation (e.g., Collins and ~~-~~Dunne, 1986; Cuomo et al., 2015) and infiltration of slope surface by rainfall that can generate shallow landslides (e.g., Iverson and Lahusen, 1989; Manville et al., 2000; Crosta and Dal Negro, 2003; Zanchetta et al., 2004; Volentik et al., 2009; Cascini et al., 2010). Infiltration occurs when the rainfall intensity is lower than the hydraulic conductivity, while overland runoff occurs when rainfall intensity is greater than infiltration capacity, which is also related to capillary suction for unsaturated soils (Cuomo and Della Sala, 2013). Overland runoff is enhanced by the emplacement of very fine ash layers (< 0.125 mm) that reduces the infiltration capacity (Collins and Dunne, 1986; Leavesley et al., 1989; Pierson et al., 2013; Cuomo et al., 2016). Poor infiltration capacities of fresh pyroclastic deposits have been measured, for example, at Mt. St. ~~Helen~~Helens 1980, USA (Collins and Dunne, 1986; Leavesly et al., 1989; Major et al., 2000; Major et al., 2005), Mt. Uzen 1990-1995, Japan (Yamakoshi and Suwa, 2000; Yamamoto, 1984) and Chaitén 2008, Chile (Pierson et al., 2013).

The combination of a large supply of loose pyroclastic deposits and intense rainfall episodes, therefore~~ increase~~, increases the likelihood of lahars. This is the case on Vulcano island (Italy; Fig. 1), where the deposits of the 1888-1890 eruption, the last eruption of La Fossa volcano, are still remobilised during the rainy season (e.g., Frazzetta et al., 1984; Dellino and La Volpe, 1997; De Astis et al., 2013; Di Traglia et al., ~~2011~~2013). The initiation mechanism of recent lahars has been studied in detail by Ferrucci et al~~.,~~. (2005), but the initiation mechanism during and just after long-lasting eruptions and in association with short sustained eruptions (such as the eruptions that have characterized the activity of the volcano of the last 1000 years; Di Traglia et al., 2013) has not yet been characterized. ~~Identification of lahar source areas and lahar initiation mechanisms is crucial to the evaluation of lahar recurrence and magnitude. We refer to "lahar source areas" as areas with pyroclastic material that can be remobilized to form the lahars; these areas are normally located on steep slopes (> 20°), and at the head of channels~~

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~~draining the volcano flanks. Based on the physical characteristics (high permeability) of the tephra-fallout deposits and on the rainfall events characteristics, we assume that the most probable rain-triggered lahar initiation mechanism on la Fossa is shallow landsliding. The later~~

In order to determine the volume of potentially remobilised material, Volentik et al. (2009) and Galderisi et al. (2013) have already combined lahar triggering modelling with probabilistic assessment of tephra deposition based on a static hydrological model (Iverson, 2000) and assuming total saturation of the deposit. In addition, Tierz et al. (2017) have compiled a probabilistic lahar hazard assessment through the Bayesian~~ is produced by an increase of water pore pressure due to rainfall infiltration on tephra deposits which causes a slope failure. Several slope stability models have been used to predict lahar initiation processes as shallow landslides in volcanic areas (e.g. Cascini et al., 2010; Frattini et al., 2004; Crosta and Dal Negro, 2003; Cuomo and Iervolino, 2016; Cuomo and Della Sala, 2016; Cascini et al., 2011; Sorbino et al. 2007, 2010; Mead et al., 2016, Baumann et al., 2018). Among those, the model TRIGRS (Baum et al., 2002) can be used for computing transient pore pressure and the related changes in the factor of safety due to rainfall infiltration. Here, TRIGRS is used to investigate the timing and location of shallow landslides in response to rainfall in large areas (e.g. Baumann et al., 2018).~~

~~Lahars represent a complex hazard volcanic phenomenon strongly related to the availability and characteristics of the source pyroclastic material (e.g. tephra, PDC), geological and geomorphological characteristics of the area and climatic conditions (mostly precipitation). Tierz et al. (2017) have already show the importance of assessing the effect of cascading hazards by compiling a probabilistic lahar hazard assessment through the Bayesan~~ belief network "Multihaz" based on a combination of probabilistic hazard assessment of both tephra fallout and PDCs and a dynamic physical model for lahar propagation. ~~Nonetheless,~~Even though these three examples were pioneering in assessing the ~~use~~effect of cascading hazards, the associated description of lahar triggering was overly simplified (i.e., fundamental aspects such as hydraulic conductivity and friction angle were not taken into account) and the soil characteristics as well as the intensity and duration of the rainfall were not considered. In our paper we build on these first studies to show the importance of the application of physically-based models in combination with the characterization of pyroclastic material for the determination of deposit instability~~ in combination with field observations is also necessary for an accurate characterization of the lahar triggering process.~~. Our goal is to accurately predict the volume of tephra fallout that could be ~~remobilized~~remobilised by a rainfall-triggered shallow landslide in association with various eruptive conditions at La Fossa cone in order to compile a rain-triggered lahar susceptibility map. To achieve this task, we combine the shallow landslide model TRIGRS (Baum et al., 2002) with both probabilistic modelling of tephra fallout (for eruptions of different ~~time~~duration and magnitude) and field and geotechnical characterisations of tephra-fallout deposits (i.e~~.~~., grainsize, hydraulic conductivity, soil suction, deposit density).

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First, we describe the physical characteristics (e.g., grainsize, hydraulic conductivity, angle of friction) of selected tephra-fallout deposits associated with both a long-lasting Vulcanian eruption (i.e., the 1888-90 eruption) and a subplinian eruption (Pal D eruption of the Palizzi sequence; Di Traglia et al., 2013). ~~For clarity, we refer to the deposits of the last 1888-1890 long-lasting Vulcanian event as the "1888-90 eruption" and to the fallout deposit of the subplinian Palizzi D eruption as "Pal D" primary deposits.~~ Second, we characterize the lahar deposits associated with the 1888-90 eruption, which provide insights ~~in~~into lahar source areas, flow emplacement mechanisms and inundation areas of future lahars. The physical characteristics of tephra-fallout deposits~~ characteristics~~ are used in combination with a probabilistic modelling of tephra fallout (Biass et al., 2016) to estimate the unstable areas based on the shallow landslide model TRIGRS (Baum et al., 2002). This approach provides the first integrated attempt to quantify the source volume of lahars as a function of probabilistic hazard assessment for tephra fallout (with TEPHRA2), numerical modelling of lahar triggering (with TRIGRS), field observations (including primary tephra-fallout deposits, geology, geomorphology and precipitations), and geotechnical tests of source deposits. Finally, we propose a new strategy to map the syn-~~eruption~~eruptive lahar susceptibility as a critical tephra-fallout deposit thickness resulting in unstable conditions, which could represent a valuable tool for contingency plans. Here the term syn-eruptive is used in the sense of Sulpizio et al. (2006) to indicate lahars originated during volcanic eruptions or shortly after, while post-eruptive lahar events are generated long (i.e. few to several years) after an eruption. ~~To sum up, this study explores the problematic of~~This is also in agreement with the current definition of primary (syn-eruptive) or secondary (post-eruptive or unrelated to eruptions) provided by Vallance and Iverson (2015) and Gudmunsson (2015). To sum up, this study explores new strategies for volcanic multi-hazard assessment and offers an innovative treatment of the cascading effects between tephra fallout and lahar susceptibility.

2 Study area

2.1 Eruptive history

The island of Vulcano, the southernmost island of the Aeolian archipelago, consists of several volcanic edifices whose formation overlapped in time and space beginning 120 ka ago ~~**(Fig. 1)**.~~. The most recently active volcano is the La Fossa cone, a 391 m-high active composite cone that began to erupt 5.5 ka ago (Frazzetta et al., 1984) and whose erupted products vary in composition from latitic to rhyolitic, with minor shoshonites (Keller, 1980; De Astis et al., 1997; Gioncada et al., 2003~~1984).~~). The stratigraphy of La Fossa cone has been described in detail in several studies (Keller, 1980; Frazzetta et al., 1983; Di Traglia et al., 2013; De Astis et al., 2013). The last period of eruptive activity (younger than 1 ka) has been recently divided into two main eruptive clusters, further separated into eruptive units (Di Traglia et al., 2013; **Fig. 1**). The activity of Palizzi and Commenda eruptive units (PEU and CEU, respectively) is grouped into a single eruptive period (Palizzi-Commenda Eruptive Cluster, PCEC) lasting approximately 200 years (11th to 13th century). The following Pietre Cotte cycle, the post-1739 AD and the 1888–1890 AD activity form the Gran Cratere eruptive cluster (GCEC, 1444-1890 AD; Di Traglia et al., 2013). The stratigraphic sequence of PEU displays a large variety of eruptive products and a wide spectrum of magma compositions, including cross-stratified and parallel-bedded ash layers (e.g., Pal A and Pal C in Di Traglia et al., 2013), pumiceous fallout layers of rhyolitic (Pal B) and trachytic composition (Pal D), several lava flows intercalated in the sequence (e.g., the rhyolitic obsidian of Commenda and the trachytic lava flows of Palizzi, Campo Sportivo and Punte Nere), and, finally, several ash layers and widely dispersed PDC deposits (CEU) associated with the hydrothermal eruption of Breccia di Commenda Eruptive Unit (Gurioli et al., 2012; Rosi et al., 2018) which closes the PCEC. The GCEC includes the recent products of the Pietre Cotte eruptive unit (ash and lapilli layers from Vulcanian activity), rhyolitic pumiceous fallout layers and the rhyolitic AD 1739 Pietre Cotte lava flow. The uppermost part of the GCEC is represented by the products of the AD 1888-1890 eruption, consisting of latitic spatters, trachytic and rhyolitic ash and lapilli layers and the characteristic breadcrust bombs. Historical chronicles (Mercalli and Silvestri, 1891; De Fiore, 1922), archeomagnetic data (Arrighi et al., 2006; Zanella et al., 1999; Lanza and Zanella, 2003) and stratigraphic investigations (Di Traglia et al. 2013; De Astis et al. 1997, 2013) ~~indicate~~concur in indicating that in the past 1000 years at least ~~15~~20 effusive and explosive eruptions have occurred. ~~This period of eruptive activity has been recently divided into two main eruptive clusters. The eruptive activity of Palizzi and Commenda units is grouped into a single eruptive period (Palizzi-Commenda Eruptive Cluster), lasting approximately 100 years during~~Among the ~~13th century. The younger Pietre Cotte cycle~~explosive eruptions, the ~~post-1739 AD and~~ Vulcanian cycles represent the ~~1888–1890 AD activity form the Gran Cratere eruptive cluster (1444-1890 AD; Di Traglia et al., 2013). The composition of the products~~ most important events in terms of recurrence (at least five long-lasting episodes corresponding to annual frequencies of 5×10^{-3} /year) and erupted ~~at La Fossa varies~~ volumes, followed by rarer short-lived, higher intensity events, strombolian explosions and phreatic eruptions (Table 1~~from latitic to rhyolitic, with minor shoshonites (Keller, 1980; De Astis et al., 1997; Gioncada et al., 2003~~). In this work, we will focus on the tephra fallout associated with two main eruptive styles of the past 1000 years: ~~subplinian eruption, which emplaced deposits such as the the Palizzi D sub-unit, and~~a long-lasting Vulcanian eruption such as that of 1888-90 (e.g., Di Traglia et al., 2013, Biass et al., ~~2016).~~2016) and a subplinian eruption, which emplaced deposits such as the Palizzi D sub-unit. For simplicity, we refer to the deposits of the last 1888-1890 long-lasting Vulcanian event as the “1888-90 eruption” and to the fallout deposit of the subplinian Palizzi D eruption as “Pal D” primary deposits.

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2.2 Climate

Vulcano island has a typical semi-arid Mediterranean climate (De Martonne, 1926) with annual rainfall between 326 mm and 505 mm, falling mostly during autumn and winter seasons **(Fig. 2a)**. Based on Arnone et al. (2013~~)~~), rainfall trends in Sicily island can be classified in three intensity-based categories: light precipitation (0.1-4 mm d^{-1}), moderate precipitation (4-20 mm d^{-1}) and heavy–torrential precipitation (>20 mm d^{-1}). ~~Events more intense than 20 mm/d~~Heavy–torrential precipitation occurred three times in 2010 and 2011, two times in 2012 and one time in 2013 and 2014 (INGV Palermo~~). The~~); the associated rainfall duration ~~for the 20 mm d^{-1} events~~ can last 2~~ or ~~-3 hours to 3 days and occur normally in September, October, November and December, ~~but can also occur~~and, more rarely, in May **(Fig. 2b)**. Such observation agrees with the observations of De Fiore (1922) for the period just following the 1888-90 eruption, indicating that the weather pattern in the region has been pretty constant. These meteorological conditions associated with poor vegetation coverage (Valentine et al., 1998), steep slopes **(Fig. ~~1b~~1d)** and the presence of layered, fine-grained tephra (lapilli and ash), favour the ~~remobilization~~remobilisation of volcanic deposits (Ferrucci et al., 2005; Di Traglia, 2011). Wind patterns inferred from the ECMWF ERA-Interim dataset (Dee et al., 2011) for the period 1980-2010 show a preferential dispersal towards SE at altitudes lower than 10 km above sea level (a.s.l~~.,~~.), which above shift towards E (Biass et al., 2016).

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2.3 Recent lahars

Both syn-eruptive and post-eruptive lahar events induced the progressive erosion of the tephra deposits which covers La Fossa cone. The tephra~~-~~-fallout deposit associated with the most recent Vulcanian eruption (1888-90) has been almost completely removed from the upper slopes and accumulated at the foot of the cone, where the stratigraphic sections show a succession of lahar deposits with thicknesses between 0.1 and 1 m (Ferrucci et al., 2005). All the tephra sequence of the Gran Cratere eruptive cluster (including the ~~last~~ 1888-90 Vulcanian eruption) lies on top of thinly stratified reddish, impermeable ash layers (Varicolored Tuffs or "Tufi Varicolori"; Frazzetta et al., 1983; Capaccioni and Coniglio, 1995; Dellino et al., 2011) which concluded the Breccia di Commenda phase. In most parts of the cone, the dark-~~gray~~grey tephra of the Vulcanian cycles is almost completely eroded and the “Tufi Varicolori” tuffs are exposed. A rill network developed on the impermeable fine~~-~~-grained tuffs that conveys water to a funnel shape area, where a main gully ~~initiates,~~ defines a drainage basin (Ferrucci et al., 2005). The main gullies start where the loose grey ~~coloured~~ interdigitated tephra~~-~~-fallout and lahar deposits crop out **(Fig. 1)**. Lahar volumes and travel distance strongly depend on both the availability of pyroclastic material in the source area and on the characteristics of the rainfall events (intensity and duration). Ferrucci et al. (2005) estimated volumes between 20 and 50 m^3 for 3 recent lahars based on levees and terminal lobe deposits geometry on the NW sector of La Fossa cone. We describe, as an additional example, a small lahar that occurred on September 2017 (just before our main field survey) on the NW cone flank covering part of the La Fossa crater trail (supplementary material). However, the occurrence of larger syn-eruptive lahars (10^3-10^4 m^3) reaching the Porto di Levante and Porto di Ponente areas have been also reported (Di Traglia~~ et al., 2013~~, 2011). Much of the material of the La Fossa ring plain has been transported by lahars during the post-1000 AD period; in fact, the Porto di Levante and Porto di Ponente plains were progressively filled up with 2-3 m of reworked tephra-fallout deposits during this time interval (Di Traglia et al., 2013). In 1921 the loose grey 1888-1890 tephra-fallout deposit was already largely eroded and the “Tufi Varicolori” tuffs were already exposed (De Fiore, 1922). Di Traglia et al. (2013) also reported post-eruptive lahar deposits on the flank of the volcano with increasing thickness towards the base. Deposit thickness then decreases on the ring plain in Porto area where they also show finer grainsize and lamination.

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The study of recent lahars located on the NW flank of La Fossa cone indicated that the deposits were emplaced by saturated slurries in which grain interaction dominated the flow dynamics (Ferrucci et al., 2005). The use of empirical ratio clay/(sand+silt+clay) (Vallance and Scott, 1997) and the physically based calculation of Nmass (Iverson and Vallance, 2001) suggest non-cohesive debris flows and transport dominated by granular flows (Ferrucci et al., 2005).

3 Methods

3.1 Field sampling

The field characterization of both tephra-fallout primary deposits in the lahar initiation zones and lahar deposits was carried out during two field campaigns in 2017 and 2018. ~~A total of eight~~ Eight undisturbed samples of tephra-fallout primary deposit were collected for geotechnical tests from ~~undisturbed~~four outcrops on the La Fossa cone and Palizzi valley for the 1888-90 and the Pal D ~~primary deposits (~~units (yellow circles in Fig. ~~1) in order to retain~~1b and 1d). In particular, Pal D tephra-fallout primary ~~physical characteristics. Besides 11~~deposit was sampled at locations V3 (1 sample) and V4 (1 sample) (Fig. 1b), while the 1888-90 tephra-fallout primary deposit was sampled at locations V1 (4 samples~~-~~) and V2 (2 samples) (Fig. 1d). In addition, five samples for grainsize analysis were collected ~~from the 1888-90 and Pal D primary deposits sections for grain-size analysis (Fig. 3). For the~~ vertically every 6 cm at two 1888-90 ~~deposit, four samples were collected in~~ tephra-fallout primary deposit outcrops (yellow circles V1 and V2 in Fig. 1d). We consider the tephra-fallout primary deposit of V1 and V2 as representative of the lahar initiation zone on the S ~~flank~~and NW flanks of La Fossa cone, ~~where the deposit crops out in the inter-channel zone (V1 in Fig. 1). On the NW flank of La Fossa, since most of the 1888-90 primary deposit is covered with remobilized material, two samples were taken from outcrops in the upper part of the cone where the minimum disturbance occurred (V2 in Fig. 1). Two samples of the Pal D primary deposit were collected in the Palizzi valley (V3 and V4 in Fig. 1). Note that~~respectively. In contrast, the lahar source area associated with the Pal D primary deposit is either covered by the new eruptive products or eroded. ~~We chose~~As a result, Pal D had to be sampled at the ~~two most complete sections~~base of the cone (V3 and ~~dug the most recent products.~~

V4 in Fig. 1b). Deposit sampling for geotechnical tests was performed by inserting a steel tube with a height of 30 cm and a diameter of 10 cm into the ground (see Appendix A, Fig. A1). A basal support was then inserted, and the tube extracted from the deposit with a minimum disturbance of the internal stratigraphy. The tube was then covered on both ends to preserve the deposit for further laboratory analysis (see Section 3.2). Due to the sampling apparatus, ~~only the top 30 cm of the deposits were sampled both for grainsize analysis and geotechnical tests, and our results therefore do not provide a comprehensive characterization of the whole deposit. Despite this~~most geotechnical tests could only be carried out on the top 30 cm of each deposit location. As a comparison, in V1 the 30 cm tube was inserted after having eliminated the top 30 cm of deposit to analyse the central part of the outcrop. Given the characteristics of the deposit, we consider 30 cm of sampling as representative for the main characteristics of both the 1888-90 (which is thinly laminated across the entire section) and the Pal D (which is mostly massive) deposits. Soil suction measurements were carried out in situ on the 1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit with a soil moisture probe ("Quick Draw" Model 2900FI) (Fig. 1~~) (see~~ and Appendix A~~, Fig A2~~). The saturated hydraulic conductivity was estimated in the field with a single-ring permeameter ~~for both~~on Pal D primary deposit (V3 and I3 in Fig. 1) and on 1888-90 primary deposits (~~see Appendix A,~~I1 and I2, near V2 location, in Fig. 1) (see Appendix A, Fig. A3).

The field description and sampling of ~~both~~ syn-eruptive lahar deposits associated with the 1888-90 eruption were performed on the NW volcano flanks, in the Palizzi valley and in the Porto plain (red squares in Fig. 1~~). We described also a recent~~; V5 to V12). Eleven samples of lahar ~~deposit occurred in September 2017~~matrices were sampled on the ~~La Fossa~~S cone ~~NW~~ flank~~.~~ ~~Lahar matrix samples from these lahars were collected~~ (V5), on the ~~volcano flanks~~NW cone flank (V8-V12), in the Palizzi valley (V6) and ~~ring plain for grainsize analyses.~~in the Porto Plain (4 samples in V7).

3.2 Laboratory analyses

Grainsize analyses were carried out at the University of Geneva for three tephra-fallout sections (11 samples) and for 11 lahar-deposit matrix samples (fractions between -6 and 10 φ). The phi (φ) scale is a sediment particle size scale diameter calculated as the negative logarithm to the base 2 of the particle diameter (in ~~millimeters~~millimetres) (Krumbein, 1938). Samples were mechanically dry~~-~~ sieved at half-φ intervals for the coarser fraction between 16 mm and 0.25 mm. The laser granulometry

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technique (CILAS 1180 instrument) was used for fractions smaller than 0.25 mm. Deposit density of five samples of the 1888-90 primary deposits and for one samples of the Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit were also determined at the University of Geneva weighing a given volume of sample material measured with a graduated cylinder.

Natural water content and shear strength were measured on undisturbed samples at the University of Salerno. The natural water content (w_n) was evaluated at several depths (from 0.06 m to 0.3 m) for six samples of the 1888-90 primary deposits and for four samples of the Pal D primary deposit. The shear strength of primary deposits was measured through direct shear tests performed in conventional direct shear apparatus in the Laboratory of Geotechnics at University of Salerno. Tests on undisturbed specimens of 1888-90 primary deposit were performed at both natural water content and in fully saturated condition. The natural water content (w_n) and the degree of saturation were evaluated before and after the tests. The modified Kovacs model of Aubertin et al. (2003) was used to obtain the Soil Water Retention Curve (SWRC) from the ~~grain size~~grainsize data of the source area (i.e., D10 and D60, the diameter corresponding to 10% and 60% of the grainsize distribution; see supplementary material, Table S2), and the liquid limit. SWRC relates the water content to soil suction. The tests were interpreted in terms of shear stress and the vertical effective stress as defined by Bishop (1959), referring to the "effective saturation degree" (S_{re}) following Eq. (1):

$$\sigma'_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} - u_a\delta_{ij} + S_r(u_a - u_w)\delta_{ij}, \tag{1}$$

where σ_{ij} (kPa) is the total stress tensor, u_a (kPa) is the pore air pressure, u_w (kPa) is the pore water pressure, u_a - u_w is the matric suction and S_r (%) is the degree of saturation.

The saturated hydraulic conductivity K_s (m s^{-1}) for the 1888-90 primary deposit was measured through laboratory tests at the University of Salerno. The test was carried out on a reconstructed specimen with height of 140 mm and diameter of 39.4 mm obtained through water pluviation technique, ensuring specimen saturation. A constant water volume (5 ml) was forced to go through the specimens by applying a difference of pore pressure between top and bottom, while the time was measured. The test was repeated 5 times and each time K_s was evaluated.

The saturated soil diffusivity D_0 (m^2 s^{-1}) was evaluated for both deposits using the soil water retention relationship of Rossi et al. (2013) as a function of the saturated hydraulic conductivity and the parameters (h_b, λ) of Brooks and Corey (1962, 1964) following Eq. (2):

$$D_0 = \frac{h_b k_{sat}}{\lambda(100 \cdot n - \theta_s)}, \tag{2}$$

where θ_s (%) is the soil water content at the saturation, h_b (kPa) the bubbling pressure and λ (m^2 g^{-1}) the pore size index distribution. The parameters h_b and λ were estimated interpolating the data of SWRC.

3.3 Probabilistic tephra-fallout modelling

In order to best describe the cascading effect between tephra deposition and lahar triggering susceptibility in a context of multi-hazard assessments, tephra-fallout deposits considered in our analysis are those probabilistically modelled by Biass et al. (2016). Based on the stratigraphy of the last 1000 years of La Fossa (Di Traglia et al., 2013), Biass et al. (2016) defined three eruption scenarios for tephra fallout including: i) a long-lasting Vulcanian eruption scenario (plume heights: 1-10 km a.s.l.; total mass: 1.9-140 × 10^9 kg; duration: 30 days-3 years); ii) a VEI 2 (Volcanic Explosivity Index, Newhall and Self, 1982) subplinian eruption scenario (plume heights: 5-12 km a.s.l.; mass: 0.6-6 ×10^9 kg; duration: 0.5-6 h); and iii) a VEI 3 subplinian eruption scenario (plume heights: 8-17 km a.s.l.; mass: 6-60× 10^9 kg; duration: 0.5-6 h). Note that although no VEI 3 eruption is observed in the stratigraphy of the last 1000 years of activity, evidences of VEI 3 eruptions are found in the older history of La Fossa. All three scenarios were simulated probabilistically using the ~~Tephra2~~TEPHRA2 model (Bonadonna et al., 2005) through the TephraProb software (Biass et al., 2016b).

Probabilistic isomass maps were computed for various probability thresholds, which express the distribution of tephra load for

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a fixed probability of occurrence within a given eruption scenario (Biass et al., 2016b). For the long-lasting Vulcanian scenario, various probabilistic isomass maps were computed to express the cumulative tephra fallout at a given time after eruption onset. Note that these cumulative maps ignore ~~remobilization~~remobilisation of the primary deposit between single Vulcanian explosions. These probabilistic isomass maps were converted ~~to~~in probabilistic isopach maps using deposit densities of 1200 kg m^{-3} and 600 kg m^{-3} for the Vulcanian and subplinian scenarios, respectively (Biass et al., 2016).

3.4 TRIGRS model

~~The Fortran Program TRIGRS of Baum et al. (2002) computes transient pore pressure changes and related changes in the safety factors due to rainfall infiltration.~~Based on the physical characteristics of the tephra-fallout deposits (high permeability) and on the high intensity of rainfall events, we assume that the most probable rain-triggered lahar initiation mechanism on La Fossa cone is shallow landsliding. Shallow landsliding is produced by an increase of water pore pressure due to rainfall infiltration on tephra deposits which causes a slope failure. Several slope stability models have been used to predict lahar initiation processes as shallow landslides in volcanic areas (e.g. Cascini et al., 2010; Frattini et al., 2004; Crosta and Dal Negro, 2003; Sorbino et al. 2007, 2010; Cascini et al., 2011; Cuomo and Iervolino, 2016; Cuomo and Della Sala, 2016; Mead et al., 2016, Baumann et al., 2018). Among those, the Fortran Program TRIGRS (Baum et al., 2002) can be used for computing transient pore pressure and the related changes in the factor of safety due to rainfall infiltration. Here, TRIGRS is used to investigate the timing and location of shallow landslides in response to rainfall in large areas (e.g., Baumann et al., 2018). Baum et al. (2002) extended the method of Iverson (2000) by implementing the solutions for complex time sequence of rainfall intensity, an impermeable basal boundary at infinite depth and optional unsaturated zone above the water table. ~~The reader is referred to the vast literature published on the application of this model for more details (e.g., Baum et al. 2002, 2008, Savage et al., 2003; Salciarini et al., 2006, Cuomo and Iervolino, 2016). Briefly, the infiltration models in TRIGRS for wet initial conditions are based on Iverson's (2000) linearized solution of the Richards equation and its extention to that solution (Baum et al., 2002; Savage et al., 2003, 2004). The solution is valid only where the transient infiltration is vertically downward and the transient lateral flow is relatively small.~~

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~~The model computes the transient pore pressure and changes in the safety factor at different depth due to rainfall infiltration. In addition,~~ TRIGRS model is applicable for unsaturated initial conditions, with a two-~~layers~~layer system consisting of a saturated zone with a capillary fringe above the water table overlain by an unsaturated zone that extends to the ground surface. The unsaturated zone acts like a filter that ~~smoothes~~smooths and delays the surface infiltration signal at depth. The model uses the soil-water characteristic curve for wetting of the unsaturated soil proposed by Gardner (1958) and approximates the infiltration process as a one-dimensional vertical flow (Srivastava and Yeh, 1991, Savage et al., 2004). The reader is referred to the vast literature published on the application of this model for more details (e.g., Baum et al. 2002, 2008, Savage et al., 2003; Salciarini et al., 2006, Cuomo and Iervolino, 2016). Briefly, the infiltration models in TRIGRS for wet initial conditions are based on Iverson's (2000) linearized solution of the Richards equation and its extension to that solution (Baum et al., 2002; Savage et al., 2003, 2004). The solution is valid only where the transient infiltration is vertically downward and the transient lateral flow is relatively small.

Following Iverson (2000), slope stability is calculated using an infinite-slope stability analysis. Incipient failure of infinite slopes is ~~decribed~~described by an equation that balances the downslope component of gravitational driving stress against the resisting stress due to basal Coulomb soil friction and the influence of groundwater (Iverson, 2000). The Factor of Safety (FS) is calculated at a depth Z by Eq. (3):

$$FS\ (Z,t) = \frac{tan\phi'}{tan\beta} + \frac{c' - \psi\ (Z,t)\gamma_w tan\phi'}{\gamma_s Z sin\beta cos\beta} \qquad (3)$$

where *c'* (kPa) is the effective soil cohesion, *ϕ'* (deg) is the effective friction angle, *ψ*(*Z*,*t*) is the ground water pressure head *ψ* (kPa) as a function of depth Z (m) and time t (s), β (deg) is the slope angle, Υ_w (kN m^{-3}) is the unit weight of groundwater and Υ_s (kN m^{-3}) is the unit weight of soil. The pressure head ψ (Z, t) in (3) is obtained from various formula depending on the particular condition modelled.

FS is calculated for pressure heads at multiple depths (Z). The slope is predicted to be instable where FS< 1, in a state of limiting equilibrium where FS=1 and stable where FS>1. Thus, the depth Z of landslide initiation is where FS first drops below 1.

~~The~~ TRIGRS model for unsaturated initial conditions was applied on the probabilistic isopach maps described in section 3.3 for the long-lasting Vulcanian, the subplinian ~~VEI2~~VEI 2 and the subplinian ~~VEI3~~VEI 3 eruption scenarios. For each eruption scenario, probabilistic isopach maps are computed for probabilities of occurrence of 25% and 75% (Biass et al., 2016). The eruption associated with the subplinian scenario is considered to be short lived (<6 hours), and therefore, one single deposit is analysed. Instead, for the long-lasting Vulcanian scenario, deposits are computed for durations of 3, 6, 9, 12, 18 and 24 months.

A 5-m resolution Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of Vulcano Island was used in our susceptibility analysis that was computed from contour lines and ~~spots~~spot heights reconstructed from stereo-photograms at a scale of 1:35000 collected during an aerophotogrametric flight in 1994-5 (Bisson et al., 2003). The maximum planimetric error of the contour lines reconstructed from stereo models is less than 3.5 m. The vertical error of the DEM is lower than 0.5 m in the area of La Fossa cone and <1 m in the flat area of Vulcano Porto (Bisson et al., 2003).

4 Results

4.1 Field characterization of tephra-fallout and lahar deposits

Pal D tephra-fallout deposit

We logged two sections of the Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit at outcrops located in the Palizzi Valley (point V3 and V4, Fig. ~~1~~1b). The isopach map ~~(~~of Di Traglia~~,~~ (2011) ~~in Fig. 1b show~~ shows the associated southward dispersal ~~of~~ (Fig. 1b). The Pal D ~~primary deposit distribution on Vulcano island. The~~ section at V3 is a 1 m-thick, massive, grain supported and well-sorted pumice deposit ~~(Fig. 3 A). The Pal D deposit occurs~~ between two sub-units of the Palizzi cycle~~. At the base,~~ (Fig. 3a): Pal C deposit at the base (alternation of black lapilli and ash) ~~crops out, while on top of Pal D~~and the rhyolitic white ash of Rocche Rosse eruption from Lipari and the Breccia di Commenda ~~are present~~at the top (Di Traglia et al., ~~2011~~2013; Rosi et al., 2018). The mean saturated hydraulic conductivity of the Pal D deposit measured in the field at V3 (Fig. 1b) is 6.8 × 10^{-4} m s^{-1} ~~(Table 1).~~.

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1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit

Two stratigraphic sections of the 1888-90 ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit were logged in the upper part of the La Fossa cone S flank (V1~~;~~ in Fig. ~~3 C~~1d; Fig. 3c) and at the base of the NW flank (V2~~;~~ in Fig. ~~3 D~~1d; Fig. 3d). The isopach map for 1888-90 primary tephra-fallout deposit shows ~~its~~and almost circular dispersal (Fig. ~~1 c~~1d). The V1 section overlies several older tephra-fallout and lahar units ~~(Fig. 1).~~. It is a 1 m-thick deposit consisting of an alternation of thin ash and lapilli layers overtopped by 0.2 m of reworked tephra. The whole sequence shows an inclination of 30°. The second section (V2) is a 0.5 m-thick deposit laying on the Commenda tephra sequence and is overlaid by 0.3 m of reworked tephra. Seven soil suction measurements on the 1888-90 deposits located on the La Fossa cone in the upper catchment and lower part of the cone ~~(Fig. 1)~~ are comprised between 15 kPa and 27 kPa (Fig. 1d and supplementary material, Table ~~2~~S1). The mean saturated hydraulic conductivity measured in the field varies between 6.0 and 7.5 × 10^{-5} m s^{-1} (~~Table 1~~Fig 1d, I1 and I2).

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~~Syn-eruptive lahars (~~1888-90 ~~eruption)~~lahar deposits

~~Here, we use *syn-eruptive* lahars to describe events that occurred during and shortly after the 1888-1990 eruption cycle.~~

Stratigraphic sections in gullies and small channels on the NW flank of the ~~la~~La Fossa cone show several massive to laminated, ~~remobilized~~remobilised deposits covering the 1888-90 primary tephra~~. Assessing the areal~~ -fallout deposit. Unfortunately, no map exists that describes the distribution ~~and~~of lahars on Vulcano mostly due to the difficulty to correlate the ~~correlation between~~exposed deposits across the different ~~lahar deposits is difficult since no lahar map on Vulcano exist~~gullies. The thickness of each lahar layer, representing different flow pulses, varies between ~ 0.20 and 1 m. The ~~lahars~~lahar deposits are massive to thinly laminated~~,~~ and matrix-supported~~ deposit~~, with boulders immersed in a coarse~~-~~ash and lapilli matrix. The observed boulders have diameter between 5 and 15 cm. Although the distinction among debris flow and ~~hyperconcentrated~~hyper-concentrated flow emplacement mechanisms from the direct observation in the field was not possible due to the lack of information related to original water content, we speculate that most of the well-sorted, massive deposits were related to ~~hyperconcentrated flows based on the definition of Pierson (2005). 11 samples (total number) of lahar matrices were sampled on the S cone flank (V5; Fig. 4a), on the NW cone flank (V8-V10; Fig 4d), in the Palizzi valley (V6; Fig 4b) and in the Porto Plain (V7-1-4; Fig. 4f), where the matrices of four lahars were sampled from distinctive episodes.~~hyper-concentrated flows based on the definition of Pierson (2005).

~~*September 2017 lahar*~~

~~We also described a small lahar event that occurred in September 2017, one month before our 2017 field work (Fig. 4e). The lahar source area was located on the NW cone flank in a funnel shaped area located above a small gully at an elevation of 159 m a.s.l. The lahar flowed into a gully with an average width of 2 meter and a depth varying between 0.4 and 0.8 m, formed levees on both sides and stopped on the La Fossa crater trail with a final runout of 120 m. The area of the front lobe deposit was measured with a handheld GPS (135.5 m^2) and approximate thickness estimated (0.3 m) in the field, which resulted in a volume of ~40 m^3. A second lahar flow pulse deposited a small deposit confined within the channel (Fig. 5e). Two samples (V11 and V12) were taken from this recent lahar deposit in order to compare with the older syn-eruptive lahar deposits.~~

4.2 Laboratory characterization of tephra-fallout and lahar deposits

Grain-size analyses

~~Grain-size distributions of all samples are summarized in Table 3 and Figure 5.~~ The Mdϕ of the majority of tephra-fallout and lahar samples is in the range of 2ϕ and -1ϕ and most deposits are well sorted~~. Grain-size distribution of primary deposits are presented in Figure 6a. The grain-size~~ (σϕ mostly between 1-2) (Fig. 5; associated grainsize distributions are shown in supplementary material, Fig. S3). An exception is represented by the grainsize distribution of the top 30 cm of the Pal D primary tephra-fallout deposit at section V3 that shows an Mdϕ and σϕ of -3.42 and 1.55, respectively (Fig. 5). ~~Table 3).~~ ~~Grain-size~~Grainsize distributions of the top 30 cm of the 1888-90 ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit on the S flank of La Fossa cone (V1) show Mdϕ ~~of~~between -0.88–0.08 and σϕ ~~of~~between 1.46–1.80, respectively (~~Table 3~~Fig. 5). At the base of the cone on the NW sector (V2), ~~grain-size~~grainsize distributions of the 1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit are slightly finer (Mdϕ of 0.09 to 0.9) and with a poorer sorting (σϕ of 1.49 to 2.1). ~~Generally, the grain-size~~The grainsize distributions of the top 30 cm of ~~sections~~the 1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit at V1 and V2 show a predominance of coarse ash (Fig. ~~3) but V2, located at the base of the cone, contains more fine ash. Grain-size distribution of lahar matrices are presented in Figure 6b. All~~3). All lahar matrix samples have a low content of fine ash (i.e., 2.4–16~~%). The matrix is composed primarily of~~%) and contain 60–83% of coarse ash and 2–36% of lapilli. The Mdϕ vs σφ diagram shows a finer ~~grain-size~~grainsize distribution for lahar matrices located in the Palizzi valley and Porto di Ponente harbour (V6 and V7 samples, respectively~~,~~; Fig. 5) than for those located on the La Fossa cone (V5 sample~~, Fig. ;5). The grain-size distribution for older (V8–10 samples, Fig. 5) and more recent (V11–12 samples,~~ Fig. ~~5) lahars are in the same range.~~5). In general, the ~~grain-size~~grainsize distributions of the 1888-90 primary tephra-fallout deposits is similar to their ~~remobilized~~remobilised counterparts (~~Figs. 5, 6; Table 3).~~Fig. 5 and supplementary material, Fig. S3). Only three primary tephra-fallout deposits are coarser than lahar matrices (V1C, V1D and V3; Fig. 5)

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Natural water content

The natural water content (w_n) of the 1888-90 ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit varies from 2.64% to 3.65%, while Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit exhibit higher w_n (10.80–30.63%). The specific gravity (G_s) for the solid fraction was measured for both deposits and shows values of 2.57 and 2.42 for the 1888-90 and Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposits, respectively.

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Shear strength

Although the four specimens of 1888-90 primary tephra-fallout deposit are consolidated at three different total stresses, all specimens exhibit a slight hardening associated to a dilative behaviour. The shear stress envelope ~~exhibit~~exhibits high friction angle (ϕ = 42°) and nil cohesion (Table ~~4~~2). For Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposits, direct shear tests are performed on reconstructed specimens constituted only by ~~sandy~~the size fraction~~,~~ smaller than 20 mm~~. The~~ (i.e. lapilli and ash). In order to maintain the in-situ characteristics, the specimen is reconstructed using air pluviation method into the shear box, i.e. pouring the dry deposit material with a spoon from nil drop height. The specimens exhibit high porosity (n equals about 0.72~~) closer than in-situ porosity.~~). The tests are performed in dry condition and all specimens ~~exhibited~~exhibit a dilative behaviour. The friction angle at peak is high, and typical of lapilli clasts (ϕ = 54°), while the cohesion is null (Table ~~4~~2). The angle of dilatation (Ψ) is also evaluated and is about 13°. Thus, according to Taylor (1948) the friction angle is about 41°, but it will be reached at large deformation.

Hydraulic conductivity

The mean saturated hydraulic conductivity of the 1888-90 ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit measured in the laboratory (8.50×10^{-5} m s^{-1}) is similar to that obtained during field measurements (6.0 and 7.5×10^{-5} m s^{-1}). The mean hydraulic saturated conductivity of the Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit could not be measured in the laboratory because the deposit grainsize (Mdφ = -3.4φ) is too coarse for the apparatus~~ measuring hydraulic conductivity; instead~~. As a result, we use ~~here both~~two values for the modelling: one from the literature derived for~~ other~~ coarse-grained volcanic soils and ~~the second the value~~one obtained ~~through~~from field measurements. A value of 1×10^{-2} m s^{-1} (Table ~~4~~2) is inferred from the hydraulic conductivity measured in the field on 2011 ~~Cordon~~Córdon Caulle (Chile) eruption lapilli deposits (Baumann et al., 2018) and from the lower pumice deposit from Vesuvius (Crosta and Dal Negro, 2003). These values ~~show a large discrepancy~~are significantly higher with respect to our field measurements of 6.8×10^{-4} m s^{-1}. These two end- members are hereafter referred to as *high* (i.e. 1×10^{-2} m s^{-1}) and *low* (i.e. 6.8×10^{-4} m s^{-1}) hydraulic conductivities and will be used to explore a variety of deposit conditions.

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Soil Water Retention Curve

The SWRC of the 1888-90 primary tephra-fallout deposit ~~exhibit~~exhibits air entry value equal to 1 kPa, while the water content at saturation (θ_s) is 0.47 and the residual water content (θ_r) is 0.04. The SWRC of Pal D deposit ~~exhibit~~exhibits air entry value lower than 1 kPa and slightly high~~-~~ water content at saturation ($\theta_s = 0.72$) and low residual water content ($\theta_r = 0.03$) (Table 2). The data are interpolated using the equations from both Gardner (1958) and Brooks and Corey (1962, 1964~~) equations (Table 4~~).

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Saturated soil diffusivity

The saturated soil diffusivity of the 1888-90 and Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposits are one order of magnitude higher than their saturated soil conductivity (Table ~~4~~2). The 1888-90 ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit shows a value of 3.28×10^{-4} m^2 s^{-1}, while the Pal D primary tephra-fallout deposit a value of 6.59×10^{-3} m^2 s^{-1}.

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4.3 Modelling

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Based on ~~considerations in~~ the local weather pattern (Section 2.2~~,~~), TRIGRS ~~simulation are~~simulations were run using ~~only~~ one ~~very~~ high intensity rainfall scenario of 6.4 mm h^{-1} over 5 hours (i.e., total of 32 mm). ~~Such intensities~~As mentioned in section 2.2, such heavy-torrential precipitations have occurred twice in 2011 ~~and have been witnessed to cause~~causing widespread floods in the Porto flood-plain~~. This scenario should~~ and can be considered amongst the most intense scenarios to occur on Vulcano based on available data (Fig. 2). Following Arone et al. (2013), we consider this scenario as a ~~very high/~~heavy-torrential scenario and we used it to investigate the maximum unstable tephra-fallout volume. For the Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit, we used two different hydraulic conductivities in order to consider both end-members as described in laboratory analyses (Table ~~5~~2).

TRIGRS simulations assume that: i) a water table is located at the bottom of the tephra-fallout sequence (lower boundary); and ii) the tephra-fallout sequence lies on an impermeable layer. These assumptions are supported by the exposure of the consolidated and impermeable Tufi Varicolori unit on the upper part of the La Fossa cone (Frazzetta et al., 1983; Capaccioni and Coniglio, 1995; Dellino et al., 2011).

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Although lahars have been initiated all around the La Fossa cone in the past, we analyse here the slope and the stability condition of the tephra deposits in two selected potential lahar source areas (Fig. ~~7~~6, black lines). The first NW source area represents a direct threat to the populated Porto village, while the second S source area is downwind of the prevailing wind and presents the highest probabilities of tephra ~~accumulations~~accumulation (Section 1.2; Biass et al., 2016). The percentage of slope angle ranges (Fig. ~~7~~6) for the NW and S lahars source area respectively are 18% and 22% for a slope angle between 6° and 30°; 38% and 46% for slope angle between 30° and 35°; 31% and 24% for slope angles between 35° and 41°; and 12% and 7 % for slope angles bigger than 41°. Comparing the slope angle distribution for both areas, we observe that the percentage of steep slopes is higher in the NW area. Finally, we selected two upper catchments with similar surface area and reshaped the S upper catchment to have the same ~~surface (~~size of 4,665 m^2~~)~~ in order to facilitate the comparison of ~~remobilized~~remobilised volumes associated with different eruptive conditions (Fig. ~~7). ~~6). The catchment boundaries were defined with a semiautomatic tool in ArcGIS, using the flow direction raster and defining a pour point for the catchment, then we obtained the contributing area above the pour point, which was defined as the lahars source area.

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4.3.1 Deposition and ~~mobilization~~remobilisation scenarios

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Vulcanian eruption scenarios

Figure ~~8~~7 shows the probabilistic isopach maps (for a probability of occurrence of 25%) and the instability maps for eruption durations of 6, 12, 18 and 24 months. For an eruption duration of 6 months, only 4.8% percent of the NW and 6% of the S lahar source areas, respectively, ~~result~~are unstable due to the small tephra-fallout deposit thickness (between 6 and 12 cm) (Fig. ~~8A~~7A). For an eruption duration of 12 months, the unstable areas are significantly higher: 69% for the NW and 81% for the S lahar source areas, respectively~~, for a~~ (tephra-fallout deposit thickness between 14 and 22 cm ~~(~~; Fig. ~~8B, table 6~~7B and Table 4). For an eruption duration of 18 months the percentage of unstable areas for the NW is also very high (89%) and reached a value of 66% for the S area (Fig. ~~8C~~7C). The percentage of unstable area decreases for an eruption duration of 24 months, with 52% for the NW and 22% for the S, where the tephra-fallout deposit accumulation is more than 35 cm in the case of S source area (Fig. ~~8D~~7D, Table ~~6~~4). Figure ~~9~~8 shows the unstable volumes as a function of eruption durations described above calculated for the 2 single upper catchments with the same area (4,665 m^2) located in the NW source area (~~UC~~ NW catchment) and ~~the~~ in the S source area (~~UC~~ S catchment; Fig. ~~9~~6). The largest unstable volume is reached for an eruption duration of 18 months, with a volume of 1,105 m^3 for the S upper catchment and 990 m^3 for the NW upper catchment in the case of 25% probability of occurrence scenario (Table ~~7~~5).

Subplinian eruption scenarios

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The same two ~~lahars sources~~lahar source areas were used for investigating the ~~TRIGRS runs using~~instability of the subplinian deposits. Four probabilistic isopach maps were considered (VEI 2 and VEI 3 with 25% and 75% probability of occurrence) and combined with hydraulic conductivities both measured in the field and derived from literature (i.e. $K_s = 1 \times 10^{-2}$ m s^{-1} and $K_s = 6.8 \times 10^{-4}$ m s^{-1}). Using the highest hydraulic conductivity, a VEI 2 eruption with a 25% probability of occurrence results in 79% and 14% of unstable areas in the NW and S flank, respectively (Table ~~6~~4). A 75% probability of occurrence increases unstable areas to 99% and 97%. On the contrary, considering a VEI 3 eruption with 25% probability of occurrence, only the tephra-fallout deposit located on slope > 48° is unstable (2% and 0.02%). A 75% probability shows a 99% of unstable area in the NW and 58% in the S area.

Using the lowest hydraulic conductivity, almost all the deposit resulting from a VEI 2 is unstable (99% of the NW source area and 97% of the S source area) regardless of the probability of occurrence (Table ~~6~~4). In the case of VEI 3 scenario with a 25% probability of occurrence, a high percentage of the NW source area is unstable (97%) whereas only 25% of the S source area is unstable (Table ~~6).~~

4). The unstable tephra-fallout volumes calculated for the subplinian scenarios for the two single upper catchments NW and S show that the largest volume (2,455 m^3) resulted for the NW upper catchment and the subplinian VEI 3 (25%) scenario with a $K_s = 6.8 \times 10^{-4}$ (i.e. hydraulic conductivity measured in the field~~)~~() (Table ~~7, fig. 10~~5, Fig. 9).

4.3.2 Parametrization of unstable area based on variable tephra-fallout thickness

In order to characterize the minimum tephra-fallout deposit thickness necessary to trigger lahars on Vulcano during or just after either a Vulcanian cycle or a subplinian eruption, we carried out TRIGRS simulations using the characteristics of the 1888-90 and of the Pal D ~~primary deposit~~tephra-fallout deposits and increasing deposit thicknesses from 0.1 to 1.1 m, with an interval of 0.05 m. In these simulations, the deposit thickness was considered constant over the whole NW and SE source areas. The same rainfall scenario was applied.

The percentage of unstable areas for the NW and S source areas (Fig. ~~11)~~10 shows that the tephra-fallout deposit thickness generating the largest instability for the 1888-90 eruption ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit is between 20 and 30 cm. For Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposits using the lowest hydraulic conductivity, the unstable percentage area decreases rapidly with an increase in deposit thickness, with virtually the entire deposit being stable beyond a 45 cm thickness. In contrast, when the Pal D ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit is simulated with high hydraulic conductivity, almost all of the lahar source area is unstable (98%) for deposit thickness between 10 and 65 cm, after which the fraction of unstable area decreases with increasing ~~tephra~~deposit thickness.

~~We have also plotted~~In order to investigate the ~~total pore pressure and the lowest FS at the end~~combination of ~~the rainfall event as a function of~~multiple parameters (FS, deposit thickness ~~for three different~~, pore pressure, slope, rainfall intensity), we have carried out dedicated simulations for a smaller area (100 pixel only on the NW source area) (Fig. 11 for the 1888-90 eruption and Fig. 12 for Pal D). Three slope angles (38°, 35.4° and 30.1~~°). Fig.12 presents results for the 1888-90 eruption primary deposit~~ °) and ~~results for the Pal D primary deposit, for both values of K_s, are seen in Fig. 13. We simulated~~ two ~~different~~ rainfall ~~events: a rainfall intensity of~~ intensities have been considered (6.4 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 5 hours ~~(total rainfall of 32 mm)~~ and ~~a rainfall intensity of~~ 15.5 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 3 hours ~~(~~). In particular, the rainfall intensity of 15.5 mm h^{-1} represents the worst rainfall scenario for 2017 (rainfall event recorded at Lentia station the 11 November 2017, with a total of 46.5 mm). ~~The total pressure head for the 1888-90 eruption deposit has a maximum at 0.25 m for a 30.1° slope angle and a maximum of 0.3 m for a 38° and 35.4° slope angle (Fig 12a). We also show that there is an~~ In summary, Table 6 shows how a lapilli-rich tephra-fallout deposit with a low hydraulic conductivity is unstable ~~window (FS < 1) for thicknesses between 12 cm and 50 cm with a slope of 38°, which with lower~~ for slopes >30◦ regardless of the associated thickness (deposit features of Pal D eruption); nonetheless, Fig. 10 shows that the deposit becomes stable for thickness values >65 cm. In fact, a constant FS (dashed lines in Fig. 12b,d) is the result of the upper boundary of pressure head, which is physically limited at the beta-line

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(Iverson, 2000; Baum et. al., 2008). The total pore pressure cannot be above the values denoted by a water table at the ground surface (beta-line) and the model calculates ~~is narrower; in the case of a slope of 30.1° the~~FS with this value, which is the worst condition for instability. In contrast, the same lapilli-rich tephra-fallout deposit is unstable ~~for thicknesses between 20 and 27 cm (Fig. 12b). We also explored the pressure head and FS for a higher rainfall intensity (I = 15.5 mm h^{-1}), representing the worst rainfall scenario for 2017 (Fig. 12c, d). We~~at all observed ~~that the~~slopes only for thickness values <10-20 cm in case of high hydraulic conductivity. Finally, a tephra-fallout deposit dominated by coarse ash is unstable ~~window is~~ at slopes <35.4◦ mostly for thickness values between about 10-40 cm (deposit features of the 1888-90 eruption); for a slope >38◦ the same tephra-fallout deposit is unstable for thickness values larger ~~for the three slope angles, with an upper thickness limit of 35 cm, 50 cm and more~~ than ~~50 cm for the slope angles 30.1°, 35.4° and 38°, respectively~~13 cm. For the same tephra-fallout deposit the ratio of rainfall intensity and hydraulic conductivity (I/K_s) determines the time to reach the water table (located at the bottom of the deposit in our case study); the rate of rise of water table increases with an increase in I/K_s ratio (Li et al., 2013). In the case of the 1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit, the upper critical thickness for instabilities increases with the increase of rainfall intensity and total rainfall. It is also important to note how the maximum value of total pore pressure, and, therefore, the potential for triggering lahars, is shifted toward larger values of tephra-fallout deposit thickness when rainfall intensity is increased. As an example, the maximum value of pore pressure for 38° slope angle (blue solid line in Figs 12a,c) is reached at 15 cm and 30 cm for a rainfall intensity of 6.4 mm h^{-1} and 15.5 mm h^{-1}, respectively.

~~For the Pal D primary deposit with high hydraulic conductivity, the pressure head increases with decreasing thickness and reaches a maximum of 0.07 m, 0.08 m and 0.087 m for a tephra thickness of 15 cm (Fig. 13a). In contrast, the total pressure head shows a monotonic increase with increasing deposit thickness for low hydraulic conductivity. In the case of the safety factor for high hydraulic conductivity, only very shallow deposits are unstable and for slope angles of 38° the tephra-fallout deposit with a thickness larger than 20 m is stable. In contrast, the FS is constant in the case of low hydraulic conductivity and is below 1 for deposit thicknesses between 10 cm and 55 cm (Fig. 13b).~~

~~For a rainfall intensity of 15.5 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 3 hour (Fig. 13c, d) and with a high hydraulic conductivity, the total pressure head has a higher maximum displaced to higher tephra-fallout deposit thickness and the deposit thickness limit between stable and unstable area is higher (almost 32 cm for a slope angle of 38°) compared with the 6.4 mm h^{-1} rainfall intensity (Fig. 13a, b). In contrast, in the case of the low hydraulic conductivity the total pressure head and the safety factor are the same as the results obtained for the lower rainfall intensity (6.4 mm h^{-1}). The constant factor of safety~~

~~is the result of the upper boundary of pressure head, which is physically limited at the beta-line (Iverson, 2000; Baum et. al., 2008). The total pore pressure cannot be above the values denoted by a water table at the ground surface (beta-line) and the model calculates the factor of safety with this value, which is the worst condition for instability.~~

5. Discussion

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5.1 Characteristics of lahar source deposits

~~Grain-size distribution of pyroclastic material is one of the primary factors influencing the type of erosion or failure mechanism in the case of rainfall-triggered lahars (e.g., Manville et al., 2000, Pierson et al., 2013). In this study, critical characteristics of tephra-fallout deposits (i.e. grain-size, hydraulic conductivity and angle of friction) necessary as input for shallow landsliding process modelled with TRIGRS have been analysed for two different eruption scenarios (Vulcanian and subplinian). Overall, the tephra fallout deposits associated with both the 1888-90 Vulcanian eruptions and the subplinian Pal D eruption are relatively internally homogeneous in terms of grain-size and geotechnical properties (Tables 1–5). In contrast, the tephra-fallout sequence associated with the climactic phase of the 2011 Cordón Caulle eruptions (Chile) that also generated post-eruption lahars is characterized by two different layers with contrasting grain-size: lapilli at the base (Units I and II) and ash on the top (Unit III) (Pistolesi et al., 2015). In terms of friction angle, Pal D deposits and lapilli layers I and II of Cordón Caulle eruption are very similar, 54° and 53°, respectively. However, the hydraulic conductivities measured in the field are very~~

~~different (K_s= 3.9x10^{-2} m s^{-1} and K_s= 6.8x10^{-4} m s^{-1}, respectively). This significant difference in hydraulic conductivities can be due partly to the age and the geological setting of the primary deposits and partly to the use of different measuring techniques. In the case of 2011 Cordón Caulle lapilli (Units I and II) the hydraulic conductivity was measured by filling a plastic tube with an undisturbed sample and saturating the materiel with water. Instead, measurements for the Pal D primary deposit was performed on the outcrop with a single ring permeameter (see Appendix A). Besides, the 2011 Cordón Caulle deposit had only a small layer (10 cm) on the top and 0.7% of fine ash. The Pal D deposit is older (AD 1200), with 7% fine ash and overtopped by almost two meters of younger pyroclastic deposits. The lower hydraulic conductivity of the Pal D deposit compared to the 2011 Cordón Caulle lapilli layers could be due to the migration of small particles from the top and a compaction due to the load of the deposits on the top, which reduced the porosity. In fact, the dry unit weight of the Pal D undisturbed sample and the same a reconstructed sample (without compaction) is 6.63 kN m^{-3} (Table 4) and 6.18 kN m^{-3} respectively, which means a greater porosity (6.7%) for the reconstructed sample. Although the 1888-90 primary deposits have a slightly greater friction angle than the ash layers (Unit III) from the 2011 Cordón Caulle eruption (41° and 38.4°, respectively), the hydraulic conductivities are in the same range. The 1888-90 primary deposit also has similar friction angles and hydraulic conductivities with respect to the pyroclastic deposits (ash soil class B) from Vesuvius (Cascini et al., 2010).~~

~~Table 8 shows a detailed comparison of grainsize, hydraulic conductivity and infiltration capacity associated with various tephra-fallout and PDC deposits that have generated rain-triggered lahars; annual precipitation for the associated region is also reported.~~Rain-triggered lahars associated with both tephra-fallout and PDC deposits are associated with a variety of precipitation, grainsize, hydraulic conductivity and infiltration capacity (Table 5). It is important to note that infiltration capacity and hydraulic conductivity can be considered as similar parameters for the sake of this comparison. In fact, the infiltration capacity is a measure of the rate at which soil is able to absorb water (Horton, 1945), while the hydraulic conductivity measures the ease with which water will pass through a porous media (Darcy, 1856). Infiltration capacity typically decreases through time and converges to a constant value, which is the hydraulic conductivity. Infiltration capacity is more easily measured in the field, while hydraulic conductivity is more easily measured in the laboratory.

Examples of lahar generation enhanced by fine-grained deposits include Mt. St ~~Helen~~. Helens 1980 (Leavsley et al., 1989), Chaitén 2008 (Pierson et al., 2013) and ~~Cordon~~Córdon Caulle 2011 (Pistolesi et al., 2015) (Table ~~8~~6). In contrast, the grainsize of the Vulcano 1888-90 ~~eruption~~tephra-fallout deposit is closer to Mt. Unzen PDC and Pinatubo tephra~~.~~-fallout deposit. Hydraulic conductivity associated with the Vulcano 1888-90 ~~eruption~~tephra-fallout deposit is 44 times higher than the infiltration capacity of the PDC in Shultz Creek (Mt. St. ~~Helen~~Helens). Infiltration capacity is low also in the case of Mt. Unzen~~,~~ but is higher for the PDCs of Mt. Pinatubo. If we also compare the lahar volumes of Mt. St. Helens 1980, Pinatubo 1990, Chaitén 2008 and Vulcano 1888-90, we observe that the volumes are in the range of million cubic meters for the three first volcanoes, while in the case of Vulcano the larger events were only in the range of thousand cubic meters. An important difference between the deposits studied in this paper and the other deposits is the climatic conditions (Table ~~8):~~7). In fact, Vulcano is characterized by a semi-arid, poorly vegetated regions with non-permanent streams and limited annual rainfall (500 mm), ~~such as in the case of Vulcano, versus~~while all other cases are characterized by a forested ~~areas~~area with permanent streams draining the volcano flanks and annual precipitation between 1000 mm and until 4300 mm ~~for all other cases.~~

~~Grain-size of tephra-fallout deposits directly affect the~~Lahar triggering is clearly influenced by hydraulic conductivity and infiltration capacity of the ~~deposits.~~primary deposits, which, in turns, are strongly related to deposit grainsize. The highest hydraulic conductivities (1 ~~×~~ ×10^{-2}) ~~for~~are associated with Mdϕ < -1ϕ (lapilli~~) and~~), while the lowest hydraulic conductivities and infiltration capacities (between 5×10^{-5} and 1.9x10^{-6}) result for Mdϕ > 1 (coarse and fine ash), except for the ~~PDC in~~PDCs at Mt. Unzen where Mdϕ is between -1 and 1ϕ (Table ~~8). In~~ 6). Nonetheless. in the case of Mt. Unzen, the poor infiltration capacity is not due to fine ~~grain-size~~grainsize but to the development of an impermeable crust on the top of the deposit (Yamakoshi et al., 2000). The combination of hydraulic conductivity (or infiltration capacity) and rainfall intensity influences the ~~lahars~~lahar triggering mechanism either in terms of slope failure or erosion (Cuomo and Della Sala, 2013). If hydraulic

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conductivity exceeds rainfall intensity only infiltration occurs, but if rainfall intensity exceeds hydraulic conductivity runoff (overland flow) occurs (Cuomo and Della Sala, 2013; Pierson et al., 2014).

The effect of grainsize on runoff has also been investigated based on laboratory experiments. As an example, Jones et al. (2017) have investigated the behaviour of two tephra-fallout samples with contrasting grainsize (a fine grained sample from Chaitén 2008 eruption (D50= 4.2 φ, fine ash) and a coarse grained sample from Mt. Kelud 2014 eruption (D50= 0.9ϕ, coarse ash)) in relation to one rainfall intensity (150 mm/h). Experiments showed that surface sealing occurred within minutes of rainfall on dry fine-grained tephra but was not evident on coarser material. The surface sealing on fine-grained tephra reduces infiltration and enhances overland flow generating downslope sediment transportation. Additionally, antecedent rainfall and, thus, increased moisture content, increased runoff rates and reduced runoff lag time; thus, low rainfall intensities with short duration could still trigger lahars when the tephra residual moisture content is high (Jones et al. 2017). More experimental investigations should be carried out considering a range of rainfall intensities and more directly relating grainsize with hydraulic conductivity. Nonetheless, these outcomes confirm that lahar triggering mechanism is strongly influenced by grainsize, and, therefore, by hydraulic conductivity, and rainfall intensity, and could be complicated by deposit local grainsize, composition and weather patterns. Interesting to note that on Vulcano some specific material formed a solid crust that made it impermeable forming an ideal surface for shallow landsliding (e.g. Tufi Varicolori), while some other material remains unconsolidated over the years (e.g. the 1888-90 deposit); this is probably related to the grainsize and composition of the pyroclastic material and to the variable fumarolic activity at the time of deposition (De Fiore 1922; Fulignati et al. 2002).

5.2 Short versus long-lasting eruptions

The duration of a long-lasting eruption plays an important role in the pattern of ~~remobilization~~remobilisation of tephra-fallout deposits. Different unstable volumes calculated with TRIGRS were obtained for durations of Vulcanian eruptive cycles between 3 and 24 months without considering remobilisation in between the eruptive cycles. The results show that for an eruption time of 18 months and a probability of occurrence of 25% (corresponding to a tephra-fallout deposit thickness between 17 and 33 cm) the unstable areas, and, therefore, the remobilised volumes from the lahar source areas, reached a maximum (1,105 m^3 for the S upper catchment and 990 m^3 for the NW upper catchment). For the eruption duration of 24 months, the increase of tephra-fallout deposit thickness (between 21 and 42 cm) produced a decrease ~~of~~in the unstable areas (95 m^3 for the S upper catchment and 861 m^3 for the NW upper catchment). It is worth noting also that the thickness of the deposit affects both the driving and resisting forces along the slip surface at the bedrock contact. In addition, a higher soil thickness also increases the time for rainfall to produce significant changes in pore water pressure at the bedrock contact. Thus, a lower volume of ~~mobilized~~remobilised material may occur despite a thicker deposit. The results obtained with TRIGRS showed that there is an unstable window of tephra-fallout deposit thickness, which depends on amount and duration of rainfall, slope angle and geotechnical characteristics of the deposit~~.~~ (Table 6). These results are ~~similar to~~in agreement with the window of potentially unstable soil thickness found by Dietrich et al. (2007) for a range of non-volcanic case studies. In their work, Dietrich et al. (2007) have adopted a slope stability model that ~~include~~includes shear resistance due to lateral and basal boundaries as a result of combination of cohesion (soil and root cohesion) and friction.

The morphology of the middle and the upper part of the La Fossa cone ~~evidence~~shows a strong remobilisation of the 1888-90 eruption tephra-fallout deposit. The coarse-ash grainsize range and medium permeability of the 1888-90 tephra~~–~~-fallout deposits in combination with the impermeable deposits at the base of the sequence (i.e., Tufi Varicolori) make this deposit easily remobilised by rainfall through a shallow landslide initiation mechanism. Deep channels due to the continuous remobilisation of this deposit can be observed on the cone (Fig. 1). Because of the short transport distance (200-400 m), the lahar deposits on the La Fossa cone have almost the same grainsize as the 1888-90 tephra~~–~~-fallout deposits (Fig. ~~6B~~5). The same relation between the primary pyroclastic deposits and the lahars has been described for the la Cuesta succession (Valentine et al., 1998).

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Field evidence for post Pal D remobilisation and lahar deposits are not recorded in the stratigraphic record (Di Traglia, 2011). This is consistent with our modelling results with K_s = 1 × 10^{-2} m s^{-1} that shows the low potential of ~~remobilization~~remobilisation associated with thick lapilli deposits. In this case, a high hydraulic conductivity allows the water to rapidly migrate down to the water table with low transient pressure. Therefore, the water table rarely rises sufficiently to induce instability, which explains why thicker deposits are relatively less unstable. In fact, the thick lapilli deposits associated with both VEI 2 and 3 and a high permeability are stable even for the largest rainfall event occurring ~~in~~on Vulcano, e.g. VEI 3 and 25% probability of occurrence (~~Fig. 10 and table 6~~Table 4). Studies on rainfall lahar generation in Mayon volcano, Philippines also demonstrated that coarse and high permeability pyroclastic deposits on volcano slopes remain stable in most cases (Rodolfo and Arguden, 1991). A similar case occurred at Mt. St. ~~Helen~~Helens, where rainfall-induced lahar drastically dropped when the erosion of fine ash exposed coarser and more permeable material (Collins and Dunne, 1986).

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5.3 Initiation mechanisms of rain-triggered lahars

The tephra ~~mobilization~~remobilisation model used in our study assumes rainfall-induced shallow landslides caused by the infiltration of rain on the slope surface. These shallow landslides can eventually transform into lahars depending on the availability of water, slope morphology and characteristics of tephra deposits. In particular, we studied the cases in which rainfall intensity (I) is lower than hydraulic conductivity (*Ks*) and infiltration occurs before runoff (Cuomo and Della Sala, 2013). At Vulcano, both the 1888-90 and the Pal D tephra-fallout deposits have high permeability compared to the cases of Mt. St. Helen 1980 and Chaitén 2008 fine-grained tephra-fallout deposits (Table 3). The fine-grained tephra-fallout deposits reduce infiltration capacity on basin slopes, enhancing runoff and producing larger peak flows. However, we cannot discard the mechanism of sheet and rill erosion in Vulcano, which was not simulated in this study. The physical characteristics of primary tephra-fallout deposits (e.g. high hydraulic conductivity) and the rainfall characteristics ~~in~~on Vulcano indicate that the main lahar initiation mechanism is most likely shallow landsliding.

The relationship between unstable areas and deposit thicknesses ~~suggest~~suggests a significant influence of the hydraulic conductivity on the model outcomes and on the resulting estimation of unstable volumes (Fig. ~~8~~7 and Tables ~~6~~4 and ~~7~~5). Our results better explain the parameter values affecting slope instability (Fig. ~~11~~10 and Tables ~~6~~4 and ~~7~~5). In fact, the tephra-fallout deposit thickness of 21-33 cm associated with the largest unstable volumes for the Vulcanian scenarios (18- and 24-months durations), well ~~correlate~~correlates with the thickness of 20-30 cm shown in Figure ~~11~~10. Similarly, the tephra-fallout deposit thickness associated with the largest unstable volumes for the VEI 2 and 3 scenarios (with Ks derived from literature, i.e. 1 × 10^{-2} m s^{-1}), i.e. 8-25 cm, also shows how a higher hydraulic conductivity generates lahars for lower deposit thickness. These values of tephra-fallout deposit thickness are in good agreement with the critical threshold for the lahar generation found by Sulpizio et al. (2006) for syn-eruptive lahars in the Vesuvian area (i.e. 10 cm).

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For the 1888-90 ~~primary~~ tephra-fallout deposit, results suggest that cohesion leads to a critical minimum landslide depth size (lower limit deposit thickness for instability) dependent on the slope angle (Fig. ~~12b~~11b, d; Table 6). Using a model for natural slopes, Milledge et al. (2014) found a critical depth in cohesive soil, resulting in a minimum size for failure. For cohesionless material, such as the primary Pal D, the lower thickness limit is not defined as most small deposit thickness ~~are~~is unstable~~,~~ and become progressively stable with deposit thickness increase depending on rainfall intensity~~ and~~, duration and slope angle (Fig. ~~13b~~12b, d~~).~~

; Table 6). The different behaviour ~~for all modelled~~ shown by the different tephra-fallout deposits modelled in our study could relate to the fact that rainfall-induced slope failure can occur by two mechanisms (Li et al. 2013): 1) rainfall infiltration that produces a rise of groundwater~~, which generates~~ generating positive pore pressure and adds weight on the slope (Cho and Lee, 2002; Crosta and Frattini, 2003; Soddu et al., 2003); 2) rainfall that results in a propagation of wetting front causing an increase in water content and pore pressure (loss in matric suction) (Ng et al., 2001; Collins and Znidarcic, 2004; Rahardjo et al., 2007). First, in the case of subplinian tephra-fallout deposit with K_s= 6.8 × 10^{-4} m s^{-1} (low conductivity), wetting front mechanism

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moves from the ground surface toward the bedrock, which means that the time for the perturbation to reach the bedrock contact increases with deposit thickness. As a result, for the same rainfall, the higher the thickness the more stable the slope (Fig. ~~11~~10, green curve). Second, in the case of subplinian tephra-fallout deposit with $K_s = 1 \times 10^{-2}$ m s^{-1} (high ~~-~~conductivity) the water moves fast down to the water table with low transient pressure (a sort of drained conditions). This means that the water table should be the same provided by the same rainfall, independently from the total deposit thickness. The slope is very sensitive to the ratio of water table/total thickness and becomes stable with the increase of deposit thickness. Finally, in the case of the 1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit, the increase in deposit stability (right side of the red curve in Fig. 10) could be explained by both mechanisms ~~of green and orange curves (Fig. 11),~~described above, but ~~for~~ the first decrease in stability (left side of the red curve) indicates that for small deposit thicknesses the pore pressure reached at the end of the rainfall is not enough to neutralize the effect of cohesion (0.5 kPa).

The results obtained with the TRIGRS model show the potential for the evaluation of transient pore-water pressure stability condition and lahar (landslide) source areas during rainfall (Godt et al., 2008), even though the role of suction in unsaturated condition, which plays a fundamental role for the pore pressure regime, is not included in the model (Sorbino et al., 2010). Matrix suction between 24 and 27 kPa were measured in 1888-90 primary tephra deposits in May 2018 (at the beginning of the dry season), but further seasonal matrix suction variation needs to be performed to evaluate the role of suction in potential unstable areas evaluation and the most critical period for slope stability (Pirone et al., 2016~~) —~~). Finally, our deposit-stability analysis could be largely strengthened by the validation with the volume of observed lahar deposits that, unfortunately, is difficult to obtain for the 1888-90 eruption due to complex deposit correlation.

5.4 Impact and risk implications

Remobilised tephra-fallout volume ~~has been~~was calculated with TRIGRS for two different catchments with same area, one located on the NW flank and the other on S flank of La Fossa volcano~~. We~~, and different values were obtained ~~different volumes for the two catchments~~ for the same eruption scenarios (Figs. 8 and ~~10~~9). Two main factors are responsible for these differences in volume. The first factor is that the tephra deposit is thicker for the S flank due to the prevailing wind direction to the SE and, therefore, it inhibits the formation of lahars as it requires more water to be ~~remobilized~~remobilised (which is not frequently available in the Vulcano area). In fact, there is a thickness threshold for instability depending on rainfall intensity and tephra-fallout deposit properties (~~Fig. 13~~Figs. 11 and 12). An additional factor influencing the deposit stability is the slope morphology. Steep slope (> 35°) are more frequent ~~in~~on the NW flank, with 42% for the NW basin and 32% for the S basin, which explains a higher percentage of unstable area for the NW part. As a result, due both to the lower deposit thickness and to the steeper slopes, the NW flank is more likely to generate lahars than the S flank, even though lahars from the S flank ~~are~~can also be significant (~~Fig. 10~~Figs. 8 and 9). It is important to consider that one of the most populated part of the island ~~(i.e.,, Porto Village; Galderisi et al., 2011),~~ which is also where the key infrastructures are located (i.e., Porto Village; Galderisi et al., ~~,~~2013), is directly exposed to the lahars potentially generated on the NW flank of the volcano. In contrast, the residential area of Piano located on the S of the island is protected by caldera rim that could easily block all lahars forming on the S flank. It is also important to highlight the importance of assessing the effect of compounding hazards in the case of multi-hazard environments such as volcanic eruptions. In fact, volcanic hazards are often assessed individually, while investigation of the associated cascading effects such as for tephra sedimentation and lahars should be considered (e.g. Volentik et al. 2009, Tierz et al. 2017). ~~In fact, our~~Our results demonstrate the effectiveness and strength of combining probabilistic tephra hazard modelling with both physically-based lahar-triggering modelling and physical and geotechnical characterisation of the pyroclastic material. The next step necessary to assess the impact of the combination between tephra sedimentation and lahar ~~propagation~~generation is lahar-inundation modelling. Clearly, each step requires dedicated studies and investigations and has some intrinsic value on its own; however, the combination of all aspects has a tremendous potential for the impact assessment of communities ~~developed~~located in volcanic areas.

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6. Conclusions

We presented a detailed analysis of the volume of tephra-fallout deposit that could be potentially ~~remobilized~~remobilised by rainfall as a result of two likely eruptive scenarios of La Fossa volcano, the main volcanic system on Vulcano island: a long lasting Vulcanian eruption (i.e., using the 1888-90 eruption as the reference event) and a short-lived eruption (VEI 2 and VEI 3; using the Pal D eruption as the reference event~~).~~) (Fig. 1 and Table 1). The great novelty of this work is the assessment of compounding hazards (tephra-fallout deposits and lahar triggering) based on both numerical modelling and field and geotechnical characterization~~. We demonstrate that an accurate assessment~~ of ~~unstable areas can only be obtained based on a combination of dedicated numerical simulations and detailed field and geotechnical studies.~~the source deposit. In fact, volumes of tephra-fallout deposit that could be ~~remobilized~~remobilised by rain-triggered lahars were ~~analyzed using a~~analysed combining a tephra sedimentation model (TEPHRA2) and slope stability model (TRIGRS) in combination with field observations and geotechnical tests. ~~In particular, we~~

We have considered 12 probabilistic isopach maps with different eruption duration and probabilities of occurrence of 25% and 75% in the case of the Vulcanian eruptive scenario. We have also considered 4 probabilistic isopach maps ~~with~~for two ~~different~~ short-lived eruptions of VEI ~~(~~2 and 3~~)~~ and ~~the~~ same probabilities of occurrence as in the case of ~~subplinian~~the Vulcanian eruptive scenario. In addition, a parametric analysis was performed with TRIGRS to determine the tephra~~-~~-fallout thickness thresholds required to trigger lahars for a given rainfall event. Two basins of same area were identified on the NW and S flank of the volcano to analyse the effect of different morphology and of different accumulation related to the prevailing wind direction. The results of unstable volumes for the two basins ~~located~~ show that:

1) for the Vulcanian scenario, the largest unstable volume is reached for an eruption duration of 18 months and a 25% probability of occurrence scenario, with a volume of 1,105 m^3 for the S basin and 990 m^3 for the NW basin~~;~~ (Fig. 8);
2) for the subplinian scenario, the largest unstable volume (2,455 m3) resulted for the ~~VEI3~~VEI 3 (25% of occurrence) with a Ks= 6.8 × 10^{-4} m s^{-1} (i.e. hydraulic conductivity measured in the field) in the case of the NW basin~~;~~ (Fig. 9);
3) for the subplinian scenario with Ks= 1 × 10^{-2} m s^{-1} (i.e. hydraulic conductivity estimated from literature) the largest unstable volume (563 m^3) was found for the NW basin with a scenario ~~VEI2~~VEI 2 (25% of occurrence) (Fig. 9).

~~The parametric analysis with variable tephra-fallout thickness and slope and two rainfall events~~

For a tephra-fallout deposit with features associated with a Vulcanian eruption we observe an unstable window of deposit thickness suggesting that particle cohesion leads to a critical minimum landslide depth, which is dependent on the slope angle; an increase in rainfall intensity enlarges the windows of thickness instability (Table 6). In contrast, for cohesionless material such as the primary Pal D, a low thickness limit of instability is not reached, and the deposit becomes stable with thickness increase depending on rainfall intensity and slope angle (Table 6). In particular, the parametric analysis with variable tephra-fallout thickness and slope and two rainfall intensities of 6.4 mm h^{-1} for 5 hours and 15. 5mm h^{-1} for 3 hour shows that:

~~4)~~1) for a tephra-fallout deposit with features associated with a Vulcanian eruption, the thickness generating the largest instability is between 20 and ~~25~~27 cm for 6.4 mm h^{-1} and between 20 and 35 cm for 15.5 mm h^{-1}~~;~~ (Fig. 11 and Table 6);

~~5)~~2) for a tephra-fallout deposit with features associated with a subplinian eruption with K_s= 1 × 10^{-2} m s^{-1}, the unstable area ~~percentage~~ decreases rapidly with an increase in deposit thickness, being all the area almost stable beyond a ~~45 cm~~ thickness~~;~~ of 32 cm (Fig. 12 and Table 6);

~~6)~~3) for a tephra-fallout deposit with features associated with a subplinian eruption with K_s= 6.8 × 10^{-4} m s^{-1}, almost all the lahar source area results unstable (98%) ~~between 0.1 and 0.65 m deposit thickness; beyond 0.65 m the fraction of unstable area decreases with the increase in tephra thickness increase for the rainfall of 6.4 mm h^{-1};~~ for deposit thickness < 65 cm (Figs 10, 12 and Table 6);

~~7) for a tephra-fallout deposit with features associated with a Vulcanian eruption we observe an unstable window with a minimum thickness for instability and suggest that cohesion leads to a critical minimum landslide depth dependent~~

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~~on the slope angle. Instead, cohesionless material such as the primary Pal D deposit is unstable for all small deposit thickness values and a low thickness limit was not reached; the tephra-fallout deposit becomes stable with thickness increase depending on rainfall and slope angle.~~

The results modelled with TRIGRS show that shallow landsliding is an effective process for eroding both Vulcanian-type and subplinian-type (with K_s= 6.8 × 10^{-4} m s^{-1}) tephra-fallout deposits in combination with high-intensity rainfall events with short duration, such as those occurring in Vulcano every year. Nonetheless, the occurrence of shallow landsliding is a complex process (e.g., Table ~~7~~4 and Fig. 10~~ and 13~~) and the tephra~~-~~-fallout deposit thickness threshold strongly depends on rainfall intensity, tephra-fallout deposit characteristics and geomorphology features. Both eruptive scenarios (e.g., plume height, erupted mass, eruption duration) and prevailing wind direction are, therefore, crucial to the generation of rain-triggered lahars, having a first order control on tephra-fallout deposit thickness. Physical characteristics of tephra-fallout deposits (e.g. hydraulic conductivity, grainsize, friction angle and cohesion~~) and~~), geomorphological features (e.g. flank slopes), the characteristics of soil at the base of the deposits and vegetation are also important parameters to consider as they have a first order control on slope instability. We can conclude that deposit thickness and rainfall intensity alone are not sufficient to derive thresholds for lahar triggering; a comprehensive assessment of unstable volumes that could potentially trigger lahars, in fact, requires dedicated numerical simulations combined with detailed field observations and geotechnical analysis as we ~~did~~ have shown in this study.

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Data availability

Most data is made available in main tables~~.~~ and supplementary material. Additional data is available upon request, based on a collaborative agreement.

Appendix

Appendix A: Field strategies

Sampling of undisturbed deposit for geotechnical tests

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Undisturbed tephra-fallout deposit is sampled for testing the properties in the laboratory, without disturbing structure texture, density, natural water content and stress condition (Figs A1a and b). Sampling was performed by inserting a steel tube 3 mm thick with a height of 30 cm and a diameter of 10 cm into the ground (Fig. A1a). After that, we cleaned all the deposit around the tube to extract it with a minimum disturbance. Then, a support was inserted at the base of the cylinder, and the tube was extracted from the deposit. Finally, the tube was covered on both ends with a plastic cover and plastic tape to preserve the deposit for disturbance during the transport (Fig. A1b).

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Soil suction measurement

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Soil suction measurements were carried out in situ on the 1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit with a soil moisture probe (“Quick Draw” Model 2900FI) (Fig. A2b). The first step in taking a reading with the probe is to core a hole pushing the coring tool into the soil (Fig. A2a). After removing the coring tool, we have a proper sized hole to insert the probe. The second step is to insert the probe in the soil and wait approximately one minute (equalization time assessed for such soils). Finally, the suction can be read on the dial gauge (Fig. A2b). The soil suction is created by water capillary pressure that each soil particle applies into the soil. The moisture probe has a porous ceramic sensing tip at the end of the tube. The soil suction reading is obtained when a small amount of water transfers between the sensing tip of the probe and the soil.

Saturated hydraulic conductivity measurement

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The saturated hydraulic conductivity was estimated in the field with a single-ring permeameter for both deposits (Figs A3a and b). The apparatus for the measurements consists of a steel ring with diameter of 21 cm and height of 12 cm, a plastic cover with a hole to insert a Mariotte bottle (Fig. A3b). In the field, we put the ring on a horizontal plane surface on the tephra-fallout deposit. Then, the first 6 cm were pushed into the ground. Finally, we filled the Mariotte bottle with water and inserted it on the tape turned upside-down. The water first formed a 1 cm layer on the tephra-fallout deposit and then started to infiltrate into the deposit. For the infiltration rate measurements, the readings were done every minute in the case of 1888-90 eruption deposit and every 30 seconds in the case of Pal-D deposit. The duration of the measurements was 40 minutes for 1888-90 deposit and 3.2 minutes for the pal-D deposit.

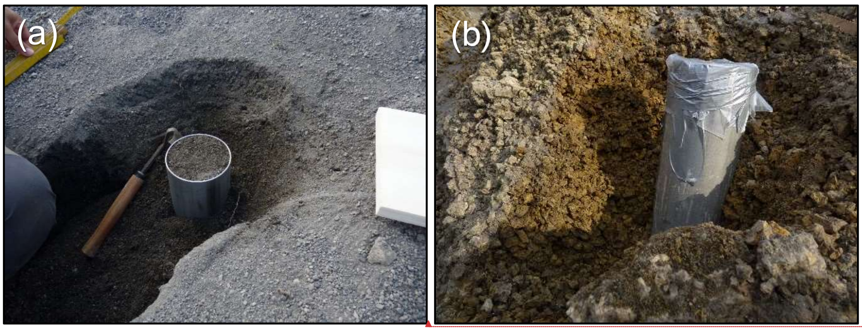

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Figure A1: a) Sampling the 1888-90 AD tephra~~-sequences ~~-fallout deposit with a 30 cm steel tube. We ~~clean~~cleaned all the deposit around the tube to extract it with a minimum disturbance. B) Sampling the Pal-D tephra-fallout deposit with a 30 cm steel tube. The tube is covered with a plastic cover and plastic tape before ~~to extract the tube~~extracting it from the deposit with a basal support.

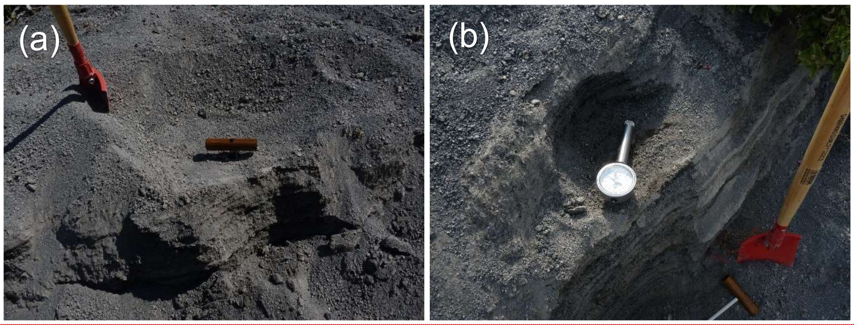

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Figure A2: a) Coring tool into the ~~soil~~deposit before soil suction measurement b) Soil suction measurement on the 1888-90 primary tephra-fallout deposit on the NW volcano flank.

Figure A3: a) Ring infiltrometer~~,~~; 6 cm are buried into the 1888-90 ~~primary~~tephra-fallout deposit. b) Ring infiltrometer during the infiltration measurements~~. With~~ showing the bottle turned upside~~-~~ down with water infiltrating in the ~~ground.~~deposit.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Tables

~~Table 1: Hydraulic conductivity measured in the field~~

Table 1: Number of observed eruptions for the different types of activity in the last 1000 years on Vulcano island. Values of frequencies and the detailed events for each type are also reported. In red, the selected scenarios used in Section 3.3. Based on data from Di Traglia et al. (2013) and De Astis et al. (1997, 2013).

Eruption type	Frequency and Events	
Phreatic eruptions		Eruption 1727 Eruption 1444 Commenda
	Number	3
~~**unit**~~	~~**test**~~Freq. [a^{-1}]	~~***Ks* (m s^{-1})**~~3.0 × 10^{-3}
Effusive activity		Pietre Cotte, Palizzi, Commenda, Vulcanello 3 (2), Vulcanello 1, Vulcanello 2, Punte Nere, Campo Sportivo
	Number	9
~~**Pal D**~~	Freq. [a^{-1}]	~~6.8~~9 × 10^{-}~~^{4}~~^{3}
Strombolian activity		Vulcanello 3, Vulcanello 2, Vulcanello 1
	Number	3
~~**V 88-90**~~	Freq. [a^{-1}]	~~6~~3.0 × 10^{-}~~^{5}~~^{3}
Vulcanian cycles		**1888-90** Pietre Cotte (3) Palizzi (1)
	Number	5
~~**V 88-90**~~	~~2~~Freq. [a^{-1}]	~~7.~~5.0 × 10^{-}~~^{5}~~^{3}
Sustained eruptions		Event in Pietre Cotte Palizzi trachitic (**PAL D**) Palizzi rhyolitic (Pal B)
	Number	3
	Freq. [a^{-1}]	3.0 × 10^{-3}

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~~Table 2: Suction measured in the field on the 1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit and Mdϕ for Su5 and Su7 (Fig. 1). NA = Not available~~

~~**Location**~~	~~**Suction (kPa)**~~	~~**Mdφ**~~
~~Su1~~	~~25~~	~~NA~~
~~Su2~~	~~24~~	~~NA~~
~~Su3~~	~~27~~	~~NA~~
~~Su4~~	~~14~~	~~NA~~
~~Su5/V01~~	~~15~~	~~-0.27~~
~~Su6~~	~~15~~	~~NA~~
~~Su7/V08~~	~~20~~	~~0.90~~

~~Table 3: Summary of the physical characteristics of the tephra-fallout and lahar samples analysed. 30*: slope is measured on GIS (Geographic Information System).~~ ~~*Thick.*~~ ~~refers to the total deposit thickness.~~ ~~*Unit*~~ ~~refers to the 1888-1890 eruption (1888-90), the Palizzi D eruption (Pal D) and to the September 2017 lahars.~~ ~~*T*~~ ~~refers to the primary fallout and~~ ~~*L*~~ ~~to the associated lahars. For V1 and V2, the horizon shows the sampled section interval.~~ ~~*F1*~~ ~~and~~ ~~*F2*~~ ~~refers to the weight sample fraction < 1mm and < 63 µm, respectively.~~

~~**Site**~~	~~**Name**~~	~~**Thick. (cm)**~~	~~**Horizon**~~	~~**Unit**~~	~~**Slope (°)**~~	~~**Mdϕ**~~	~~**σϕ**~~	~~**F1**~~	~~**F2**~~
~~S La Fossa cone~~	~~V1A~~	~~100~~	~~0-6~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~30~~	~~-0.37~~	~~1.80~~	~~35.13~~	~~3.23~~
	~~V1B~~	~~100~~	~~6-12~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~30~~	~~0.08~~	~~1.46~~	~~39.99~~	~~2.60~~
	~~V1C~~	~~100~~	~~12-18~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~30~~	~~-0.88~~	~~1.63~~	~~24.03~~	~~1.22~~
	~~V1D~~	~~100~~	~~18-24~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~30~~	~~-0.41~~	~~1.68~~	~~32.81~~	~~0.84~~
	~~V1E~~	~~100~~	~~24-30~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~30~~	~~-0.27~~	~~1.71~~	~~35.26~~	~~0.83~~
~~NW La Fossa cone base~~	~~V2A~~	~~50~~	~~0-6~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~10~~	~~0.14~~	~~1.49~~	~~40.81~~	~~5.63~~
	~~V2B~~	~~50~~	~~6-12~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~10~~	~~0.09~~	~~1.78~~	~~44.97~~	~~4.13~~
	~~V2C~~	~~50~~	~~12-18~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~10~~	~~0.85~~	~~1.51~~	~~62.09~~	~~7.86~~
	~~V2D~~	~~50~~	~~18-24~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~10~~	~~0.66~~	~~1.80~~	~~54.66~~	~~8.68~~
	~~V2E~~	~~50~~	~~24-30~~	~~1888-90 T~~	~~10~~	~~0.90~~	~~2.10~~	~~60.41~~	~~9.71~~
~~Pallizi valley~~	~~V3~~	~~25~~	~~-~~	~~Pal D T~~	~~10~~	~~-3.42~~	~~1.55~~	~~6.31~~	~~2.83~~
	~~V6~~	~~15~~	~~-~~	~~1888-90 L~~	~~5~~	~~2.07~~	~~1.78~~	~~84.12~~	~~12.38~~
~~S La Fossa cone~~	~~V5~~	~~15~~	~~-~~	~~1888-90 L~~	~~30~~	~~-0.12~~	~~1.83~~	~~37.46~~	~~5.73~~
~~Porto di Ponente~~	~~V7-1~~	~~26~~	~~-~~	~~1888-90 L~~	~~0-3~~	~~0.58~~	~~2.04~~	~~51.65~~	~~7.71~~
	~~V7-2~~	~~11~~	~~-~~	~~1888-90 L~~	~~0-3~~	~~0.90~~	~~1.75~~	~~58.91~~	~~7.87~~
	~~V7-3~~	~~10~~	~~-~~	~~1888-90 L~~	~~0-3~~	~~1.38~~	~~1.73~~	~~72.86~~	~~10.31~~
	~~V7-4~~	~~6~~	~~-~~	~~1888-90 L~~	~~0-3~~	~~1.29~~	~~1.76~~	~~68.65~~	~~8.92~~
~~NW La Fossa cone~~	~~V8~~	~~30~~	~~-~~	~~1888-90 L~~	~~30*~~	~~-0.29~~	~~1.67~~	~~33.27~~	~~2.51~~
	~~V9~~	~~40~~	~~-~~	~~1888-90 L~~	~~30~~	~~-0.27~~	~~1.69~~	~~34.04~~	~~3.29~~
	~~V10~~	~~30~~	~~-~~	~~1888-90 L~~	~~30~~	~~-0.24~~	~~1.68~~	~~34.02~~	~~2.85~~
	~~V11~~	~~20~~	~~-~~	~~2017 L~~	~~25*~~	~~-0.40~~	~~1.82~~	~~31.68~~	~~1.89~~
	~~V12~~	~~20~~	~~-~~	~~2017 L~~	~~25*~~	~~-0.02~~	~~1.82~~	~~39.42~~	~~3.16~~

~~Table 4~~

Table 2: Geotechnical parameters for the subplinian tephra-fallout deposit (Pal D) and the Vulcanian tephra-fallout deposit associated with the 1888-90 eruption (Vulc).

unit	K_s	Do *	φ´	Υ_s wet	Υ_s dry	c´	θ_s	θ_r	α	G_s	n	e
	$m\ s^{-1}$	$m^2\ s^{-1}$	deg	$kN\ m^{-3}$	$kN\ m^{-3}$	kPa	%	%	kPa^{-1}	-	-	-
Pal D	$1{\cdot}10^{-2}$	$6.59{\cdot}10^{-3}$	54.00	13.70	6.64	0.00	0.72	0.04	0.93	2.42	0.72	2.57
Vulc	$8.50{\cdot}10^{-5}$	$3.28{\cdot}10^{-4}$	40.98	17.00	13.51	0.00	0.47	0.03	0.28	2.57	0.47	0.87

c': cohesion; **ϕ'**: friction angle; **γ_s**: total unit weight of the soil; **K_s**: saturated conductivity; **D_0**: saturated diffusivity; **θ_s**: saturated water content; **θ_r**: residual water content; **α:** Gardner parameter; **Gs**: specific gravity; **n:** porosity; **e**: void ratio. * Diffusivity was evaluated using the procedure proposed in the paper: Rossi et al. (2013).

Table ~~5~~3: Input parameters for subplinian (K_s from literature), subplinian *(K_s measured in the field) and the 1888-90 Vulcanian eruption scenarios used for simulation with TRIGRS.

unit	K_s	D_o	φ´	Υ_s	c´	θ_s	θ_r	α
	$(m\ s^{-1})$	$(m^2\ s^{-1})$	(deg)	$(kN\ m^{-3})$	(kPa)	(%)	(%)	(kPa^{-1})
vulcanian	8.50x10-5	1 x 10-4	41.00	17.00	0.5	0.47	0.029	0.28
subplinian	$1x\ 10^{-2}$	$6.59x10^{-3}$	54.00	13.70	0.00	0.72	0.04	0.93
subplinian *	$6.8x10^{-4}$	$6.59x10^{-3}$	54.00	13.70	0.00	0.72	0.04	0.93

c': cohesion; **ϕ'**: friction angle; **γ_s**: total unit weight of the soil; **K_s**: saturated conductivity; **D_0**: saturated diffusivity; **θ_s**: saturated water content; **θ_r**: residual water content; **α:** Gardner parameter;

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Table ~~6~~4: Unstable areas (FS≤1) for long-lasting vulcanian eruption and subplinian (VEI: K_s from literature; VEI*: K_s measured in the field) calculated with TRIGRS for NW and S source areas (Fig. ~~7~~6). Rainfall intensity 6.4 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 5 h. Thickness: tephra-fallout deposit thickness from probabilistic isopach maps considered in the model. Input parameters used for the simulation are described in ~~table 5~~Table 3. VEI: Volcanic explosivity index.

Long-lasting Vulcanian eruption scenario

Probability (%)	**Duration (month)**	**NW source area**		**S source area**	
		Thickness (cm)	**percentage of unstable area (%)**	**Thickness (cm)**	**percentage of unstable area (%)**
25	9	11-14	34	13-17	57
25	12	14-18	69.5	16-22	81.6
25	18	21-26	89.4	24-31	66.6
25	24	26-33	52.3	30-39	22.9
75	9	6.5-8	0.08	7.6-10	0
75	12	8-10	7.1	8-12	10.9
75	18	9-12	17.9	11-14	31.1
75	24	10-12.8	20.7	11-15	36.8

Subplinian eruption scenario

Probability	**VEI**	**NW source area**		**S source area**	
		Thickness (cm)	**percentage of unstable area (%)**	**Thickness (cm)**	**percentage of unstable area (%)**
25	2	8-25	79.1	15-40	14.7
25	3	36-95	1.9	61-112	0.2
75	2	1-3	99.1	2-4	97.1
75	3	3-10	0.9	5-19	0.5
25	2*	8-25	99	15-40	97
25	3*	36-95	97	61-112	25
75	2*	1-3	99	2-4	97
75	3*	3-10	99	5-19	97

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Table ~~7~~5: Total and unstable volumes of primary tephra deposits for long-lasting vulcanian eruption and subplinian (VEI: K_s from literature; VEI*: K_s measured in the field) calculated with TRIGRS for NW and S upper catchments. NW and the S UP (upper catchments) have the same area (4665 m^2), with a mean slope of 43.5° and 40.1°, respectively. Rainfall intensity 6.4 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 5 h. Thickness: tephra-fallout deposit thickness from probabilistic isopach maps considered in the model.

Long-lasting Vulcanian eruption scenario

Probability (%)	**Duration (months)**	**NW catchment**			**S catchment**		
		Thickness (cm)	**Volumes (m^3)**		**Thickness (cm)**	**Volumes (m^3)**	
			Total	**Unstable**		**Total**	**Unstable**
25	9	11-13	574	246	15-16	734	585
25	12	14-16	748	601	20-21	959	952
25	18	20-24	1061	991	28-30	1353	1105
25	24	25-30	1326	861	35-37	1689	95
75	9	6.5-7.5	333	0	9	427	0
75	12	9-10	417	0	11	533	21
75	18	9.5-11.5	489	47	13-14	627	231
75	24	10-12	507	74	13.5-14.5	649	319

Plinian eruption scenario

Probability (%)	**VEI**	**NW catchment**			**S catchment**		
		Thickness (cm)	**Volumes (m^3)**		**Thickness (cm)**	**Volumes (m^3)**	
			Total	**Unstable**		**Total**	**Unstable**
25	2	11-15	589	563	32-40	1663	0
25	3	37-58	2455	0	101-112	5112	0
75	2	1.2-2	77	77	3.2-3.6	187	185
75	3	2-8	245	244	13-16	736	401
25	2*	11-15	589	604	32-40	1663	1636
25	3*	37-58	2455	2455	101-112	5112	0
75	2*	1.2-2	77	77	3.2-3.6	187	187
75	3*	2-8	245	245	13-16	736	731

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~~Table 8: Measured median grain size~~

Table 6. Summary description of outcomes of Figs 11 and 12 showing the relation between tephra-fallout deposit thickness and Safety Factor (FS) based on various key parameters (i.e. tephra-fallout properties, slope angle, rainfall intensities). Unstable deposit thickness is shown in red. The ratio between rainfall intensity and hydraulic conductivity (I/K_s) is also shown as an indication of the time for the rainfall water to reach the bottom of the deposit.

Tephra-fallout properties	**Slope**	**Tephra fallout thickness (cm)**		**Stability**
		Rainfall **I = 6.4 mmh^{-1}** **D = 5 hours**	**Rainfall** **I = 15.5 mmh^{-1}** **D = 3 hours**	
1888-90		$I/K_s = 0.02$	$I/K_s = 0.05$	
Mdφ = - 0.90 - 1	38°	0-12	0-12	stable (FS > 1)
K_s = 8.50x10^{-5} m s^{-1}		**13 - 50**	**13 - 50+**	**unstable (FS <1)**
φ′ = 41°	35.4 °	0-10	0-12	stable (FS > 1)
c′= 0.5 kPa		**11-40**	**11-50**	**unstable (FS <1)**
		41-50	50 +	stable (FS > 1)
	30.1°	0-19	0-19	stable (FS > 1)
		20-27	**20-35**	**unstable (FS <1)**
		28-50	36-50	stable (FS > 1)
Pal-D - high Ks		$I/K_s = 0.0001$	$I/K_s = 0.0004$	
Mdφ = - 3.42	38°	**0-21**	**0-32**	**unstable (FS <1)**
K_s = 1x10^{-2} m s^{-1}		22-50	33-50	stable (FS > 1)
φ′ = 54°	35.4°	**0-18**	**0-26**	**unstable (FS <1)**
c′= 0 kPa		19-50	27-50	stable (FS > 1)
	30.1°	**0-13**	**0-21**	**unstable (FS <1)**
		14-50	22-50	stable (FS > 1)
Pal-D - low Ks		$I/K_s = 0.002$	$I/K_s = 0.006$	
Mdφ = - 3.42				
K_s = 6.8 x10^{-4} m s^{-1}	38°	**0-50**	**0-50**	**unstable (FS <1)**
φ′ = 54°	35.4°	**0-50**	**0-50**	**unstable (FS <1)**
c′= 0 kPa	30.1°	**0-50**	**0-50**	**unstable (FS <1)**

Table 7: Measured median grainsize, hydraulic conductivity and infiltration capacity on tephra-fallout (TF) and PDC deposits near volcanic vents and lahar volumes

Eruption	**Deposit type**	~~Median grain size, Mdφ~~**Mdφ**	~~Annual precipitation~~**P (mm)**	~~Hydraulic conductivity~~**K_s (m/s)**	~~Post-eruption infiltration capacity~~**I (m/s)**	**V (m^3)**	**Data source**
Vulcano (1888-90 ~~Vulcanian~~vulcanian)	TF	-0.90 - 1	500	8.5x10-5	ND	10^3-10^4	this study, a
Vulcano (Pal D subplinian)	TF	-3.42	500	1x10-2	ND	ND	this study
Cordón Caulle 2011	TF-ash (unit III)	2.15	2500-3000	5x10-5	ND	~~a~~ND	b
Cordón Caulle 2011	TF-lapilli (unit I-II)	~~-1.5~~0.2	2500-3000	3.9x10-2	ND	~~a~~ND	b
~~Chaitén~~Chaiten 2008	TF	< 3	2600-4300	ND	ND	~~b~~3-8x10^6	c
Mt Pinatubo ~~1990~~1995	~~PDC~~PF	0-3		ND	1x10-4	~~e~~80-250x10^6	d
	TF	-1.1- 1.7	1950	ND	ND	~~c~~	d, e
Mt Unzen 1990-95	~~PDC~~PF	-1-1	3100	ND	1.25x10-5; 5x10-6	~~d~~ND	f
Mt St Helen 1980	TF	1.73	1200	ND	1.9x10-6; 1.13x10-6	~~e~~14x10^6	g, h

Mdφ: Median grain size of deposit; P: annual precipitation; K_s: Hydraulic conductivity; I: Post-eruption infiltration capacity: V: lahars volume; ND = No data.

~~ND = No data.~~ References: a) Di Traglia et al. (2013); b) Baumann et al~~.,~~. (2018~~ b~~); c) Pierson et al~~.,~~. (2013~~ e~~); d) Daag~~,~~ (2003~~ d)~~); e) Janda et al. (1996); f) Yamakoshi and Suwa~~,~~ (2000~~ e~~); g) Leavesley et al~~.,~~. (1989~~.~~); h) Pierson 1985

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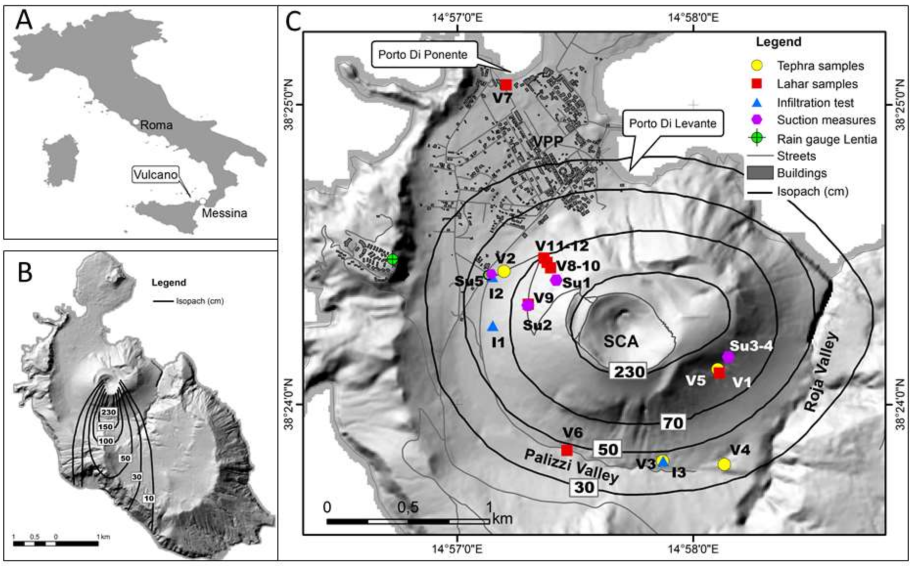
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Vulcano
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B
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1 0.5 0 1 km
C
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14°58'0"E
38°25'0"N
38°24'0"N
Porto Di Ponente
Porto Di Levante
V7
VPP
V11-12
V8-10
V2
Su5
I2
Su1
V9
Su2
I1
SCA
230
Su3-4
V5
V1
70
Roja Valley
V6
50
Palizzi Valley
30
V3
I3
V4
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Tephra samples
Lahar samples
Infiltration test
Suction measures
Rain gauge Lentia
Streets
Buildings
Isopach (cm)

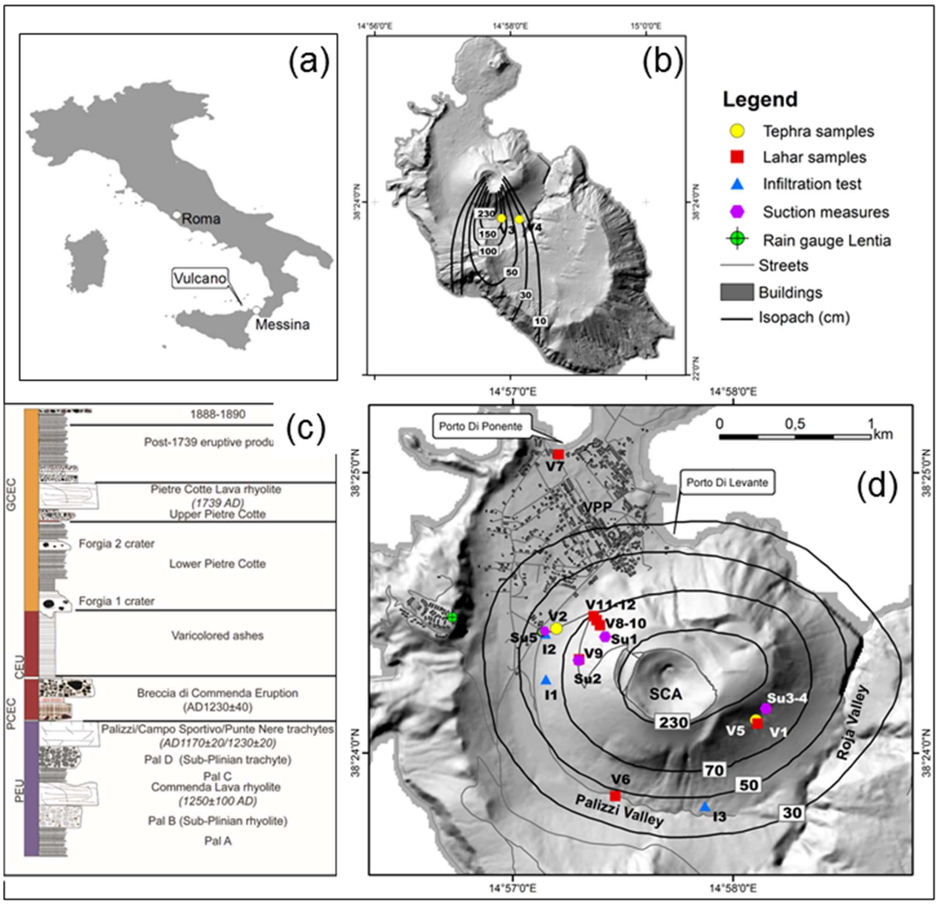
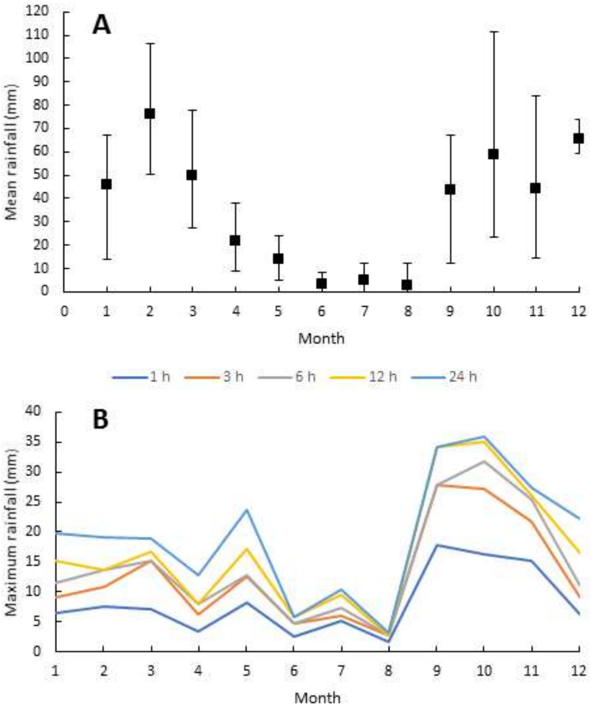


Figure 1: Overview of the study area. A) location of the island of Vulcano in Italy; B) Isopach map on shaded relief of Vulcano Island of the cumulative tephra-fallout Pal D deposit (after Di Traglia (2011); C) Simplified stratigraphy of the last 1000 years of La Fossa volcano based on DI Traglia et al. (2013) and De Astis et al. (1997, 2013) (see Table 1 for more details); D) isopach map of the cumulative 1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit (after Di Traglia, 2011) and sample locations. Sample names refer to *V* samples of tephra fallout (yellow circles) and lahars (red squares), *I* infiltration measures (blue triangle) and *Su* suction measurements (pink diamond). *SCA*: summit cone area. *VPP*: Vulcano Porto Plain. The rain gauge of Lentia is also shown (green circle).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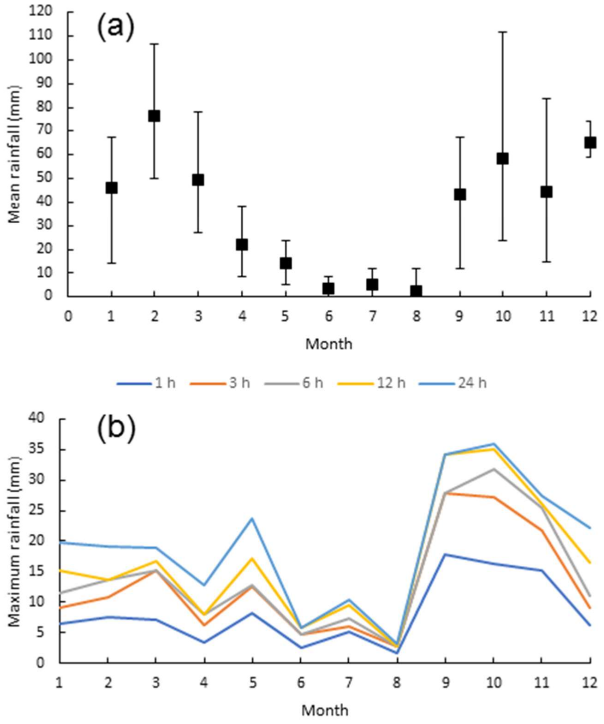

Figure 2: ~~A~~a) Mean monthly rainfall (mm) observed at Lentia station (Fig. 1) between 2010 and 2014 (error bars also indicate minimum and maximum values); ~~B~~b) Maximum monthly rainfall within 3, 6, 12 and 24 hours (data from INGV Palermo).

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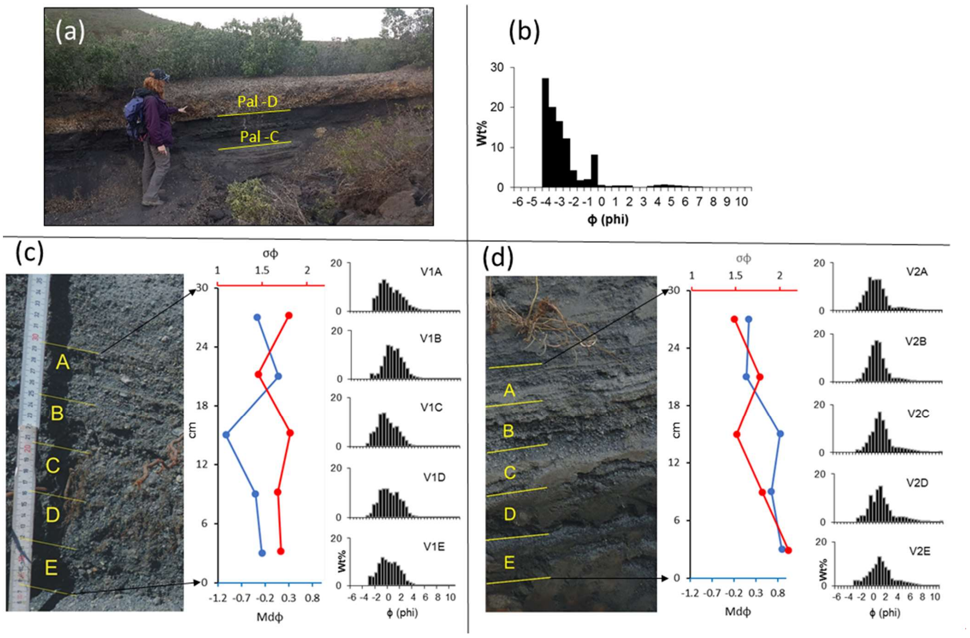

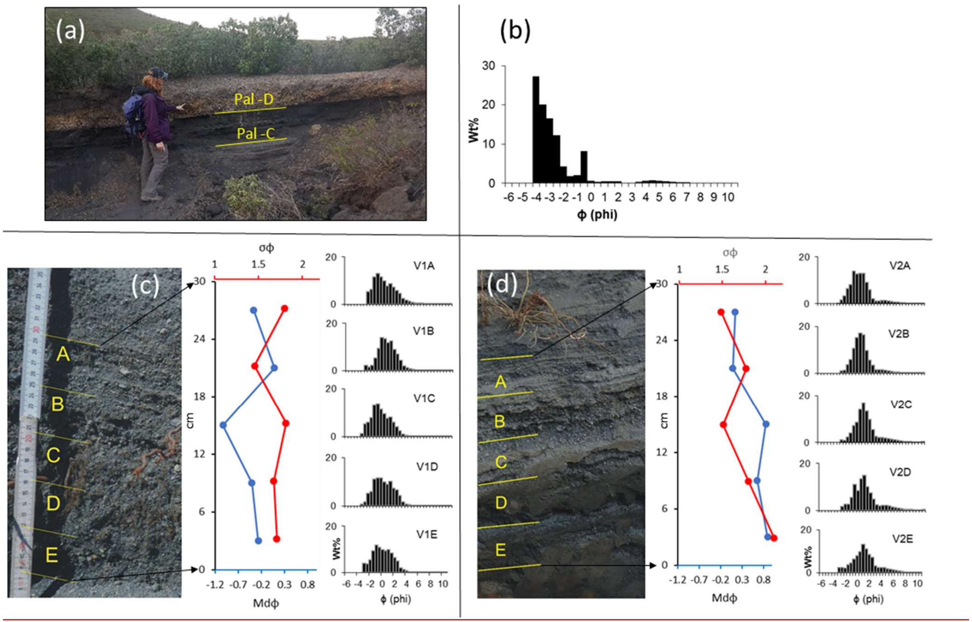

Figure 3: ~~A~~a) Pal D subplinian tephra fallout deposit outcrop (V3, Fig.1) ~~B~~b) grainsize distribution Pal D subplinian tephra fallout deposit; ~~C~~c) and ~~D~~d) Mdφ, σφ and grainsize distribution of the first 30 cm of the tephra-fallout deposit associated with the 1888-90 Vulcanian eruption for stratigraphic sections V1 and V2 (Fig. 1) (thickness of layers analysed: A (24-30 cm); B (24-18 cm); C (18-12 cm); D (12-6cm); E (6-0 cm).

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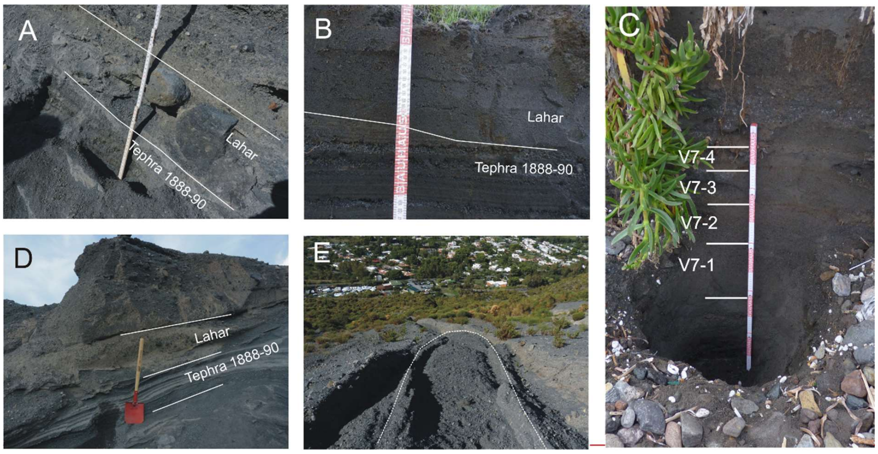

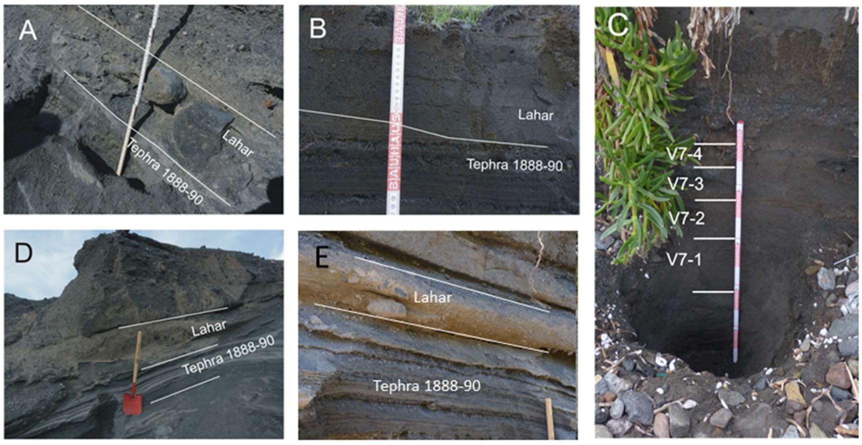

Figure 4: A) Lahar levee deposit (sample V5 in Fig. 1) above the 1888-90 tephra-fallout, located in a channel cut on the S of La Fossa cone. B) Lahar deposit (sample V6) above the 1888-90 tephra-fallout in the Palizzi valley. C) Profile observed at the beach side in Porto di Ponente (1) is a 14 cm bed of coarse ash, with a 1cm thick grey fine ash grey layer, this is the primary 1888-90 AD tephra-fallout; Layer V7-1 is a 26 cm lahar deposit of coarse ash to fine lapilli inversely graded; Layer V7-2 is a 11 cm fine lapilli lahar deposit with a 1 cm soil on the top; V7-3 is a 10 cm lahar deposit of coarse to fine ash with a soil on the top and 6 cm lahar deposit (V7-4) of coarse to fine ash with the recent soil on the top. D) Several lahar deposits located in a channel on the NW of La Fossa cone: the first deposit above 1888-90 was sampled (V9 in Fig. 1). E) ~~September 2017 lahar deposit confined within the~~ Lahar deposits located in a channel~~;~~ on the NW of La Fossa cone on the ~~white lines mark~~top of the ~~contour of the~~1888-90 tephra-fallout deposit.

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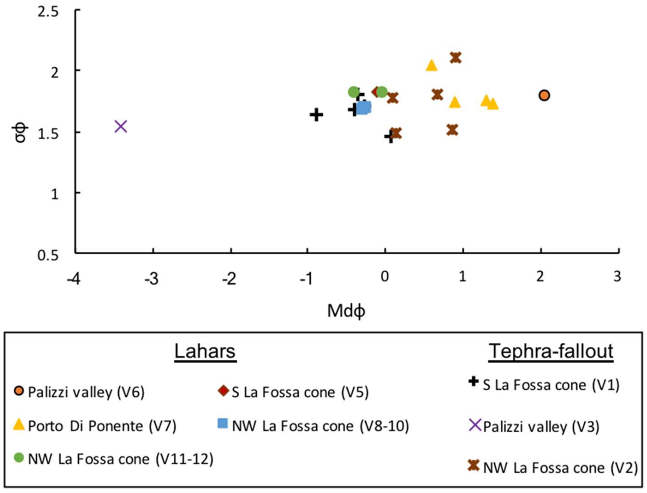

Figure 5: Mdφ vs σφ diagram for the lahar matrix and tephra-fallout deposits. Porto Di Ponente (orange triangle) correspond to samples: V7-1, V7-2, V7-3, V7-4 S (Fig 4C); La Fossa cone V1 (black cross): V1A, V1B, V1C, V1D, V1E (Fig. 3C). NW La Fossa cone V2 (brown star): V2A, V2B, V2C, V2D, V2E (Fig. 3D).

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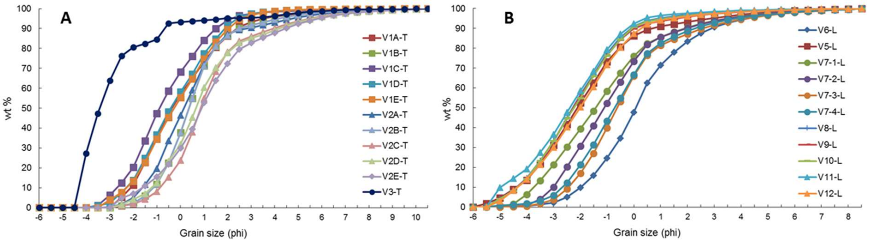

~~**Figure 6: Grainsize distribution for A) primary and B) remobilized deposits (lahars). See Table 3 for a reference of sample numbers.**~~

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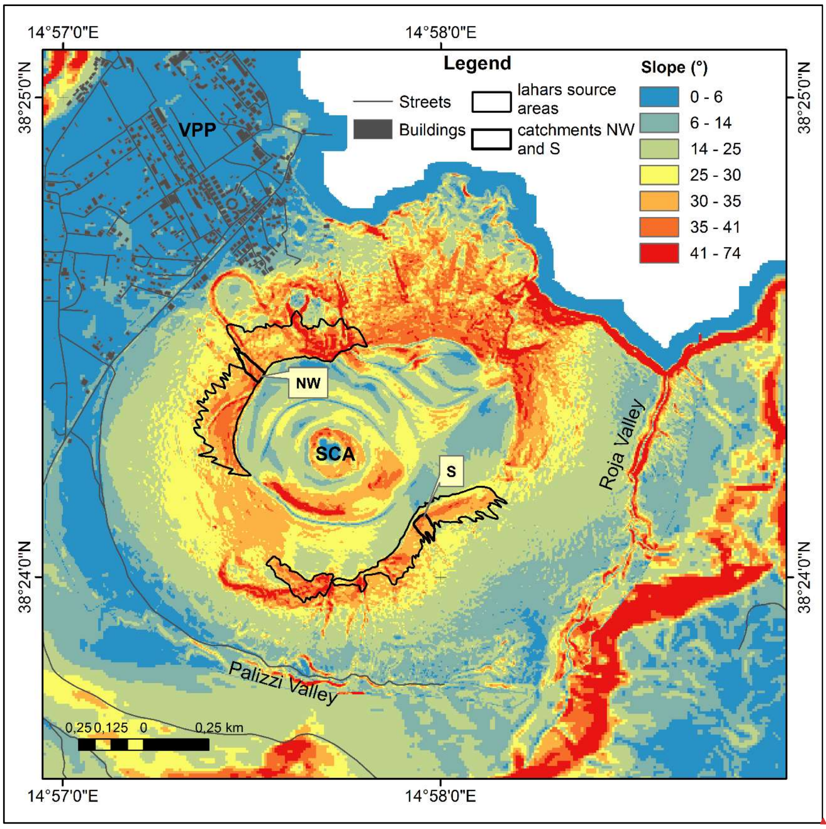

Figure ~~7~~6: Slope map for the La Fossa cone and surrounding areas. North West and South lahar source areas are indicated with a black contour. The NW and S upper catchment are indicated with a black contour. *SCA*: summit cone area; *VPP*: Vulcano Porto Plain

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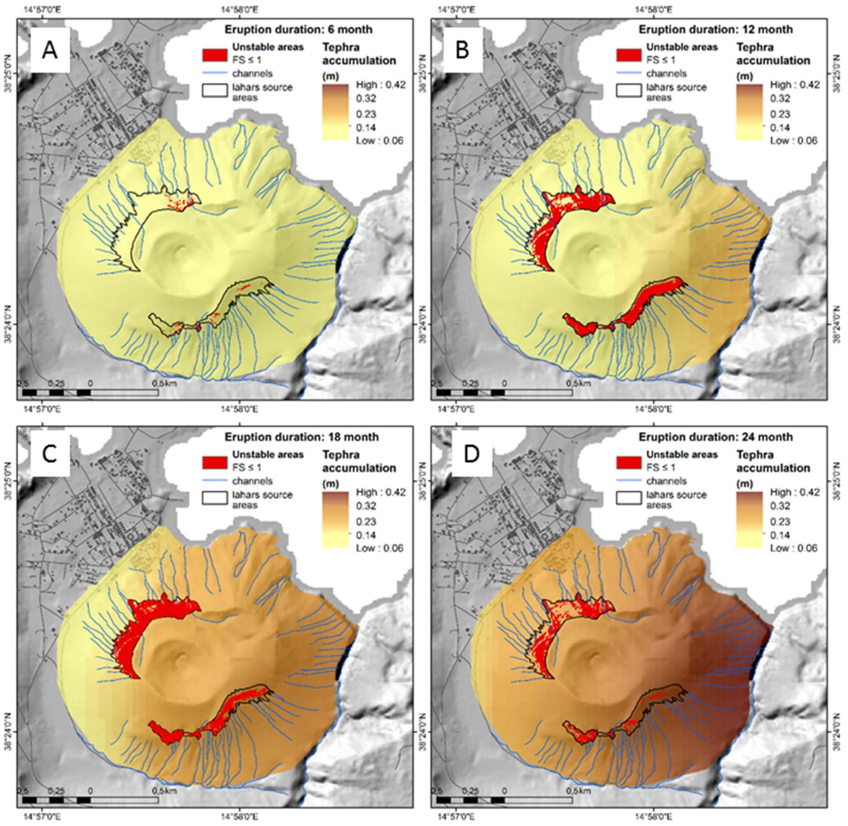

Figure ~~8~~7: Probabilistic isopach maps (converted from the probabilistic isomass maps of Biass et al. (2016) based on deposit density) and corresponding instability maps compiled with TRIGRS for a Vulcanian eruption with: A) an eruption duration of 6 months and a probability of occurrence of 25%; B) an eruption duration of 12 months and a probability of occurrence of 25%; C)) an eruption duration of 18 months and a probability of occurrence of 25%. D) an eruption duration of 24 months and a probability of occurrence of 25%. The rainfall intensity is 6.4 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 5h for all the scenarios and the parameters for the 1888-90 Vulcanian deposits are listed in ~~table 5~~Table 3.

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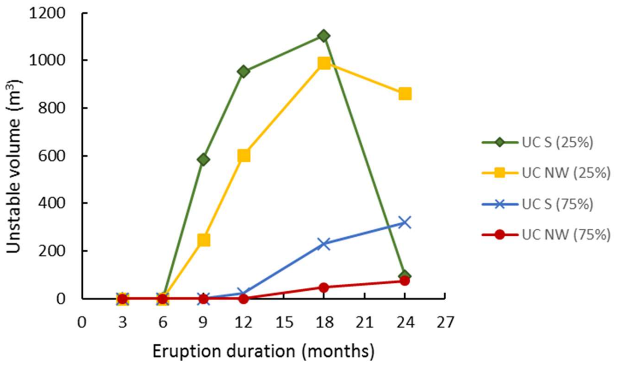

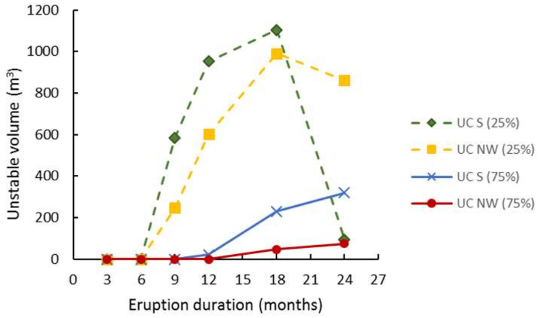

Figure ~~9~~8: Unstable tephra-fallout volume for the S and NW upper catchments obtained with TRIGRS for eruption durations of 3, 6, 9, 12, 18 and 24 and for probabilities of occurrence of 25% and 75%. UC: upper catchment (see Fig. 7b).

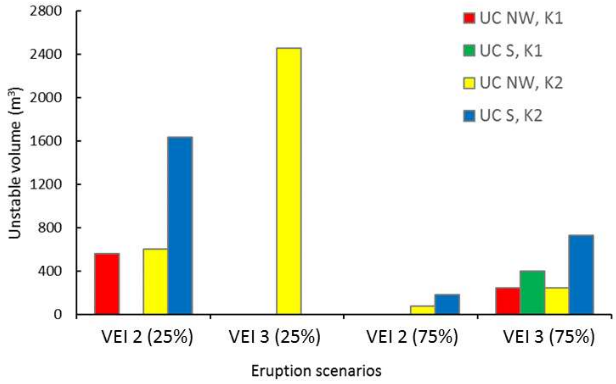

Figure ~~10~~9: Unstable tephra-fallout volume for the S and NW upper catchments obtained with TRIGRS for: 1) the subplinian scenarios ~~VEI2~~VEI 2 and ~~VEI3~~VEI 3 with a $K_s = 1x10^{-2}$ m s^{-1} (from literature) and VEI2, VEI3 with a K_s= $6.8x10^{-4}$ m s^{-1} (as measured in the field) and the probabilities of occurrence 25% and 75%.

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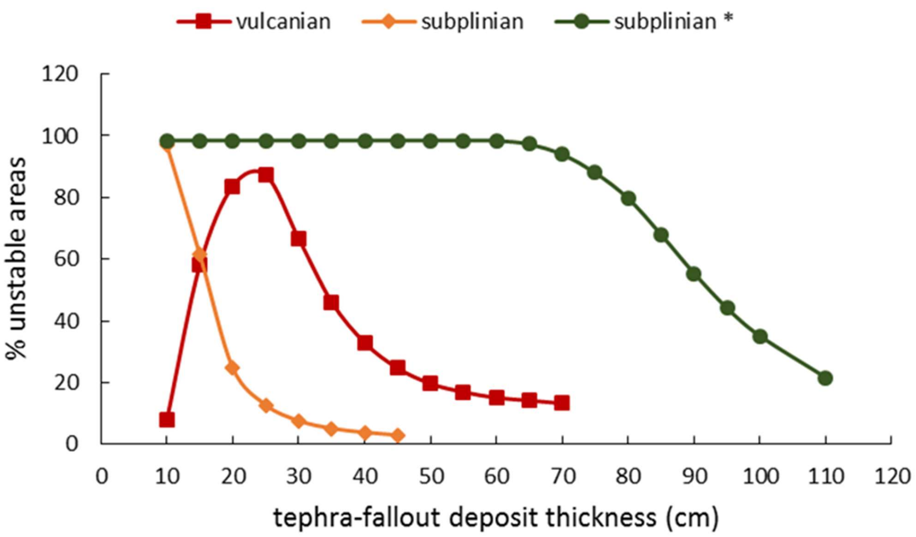

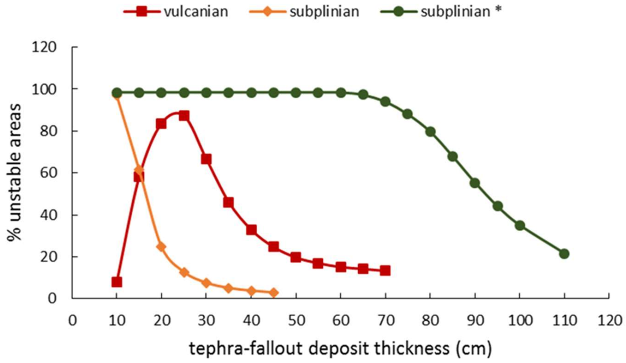

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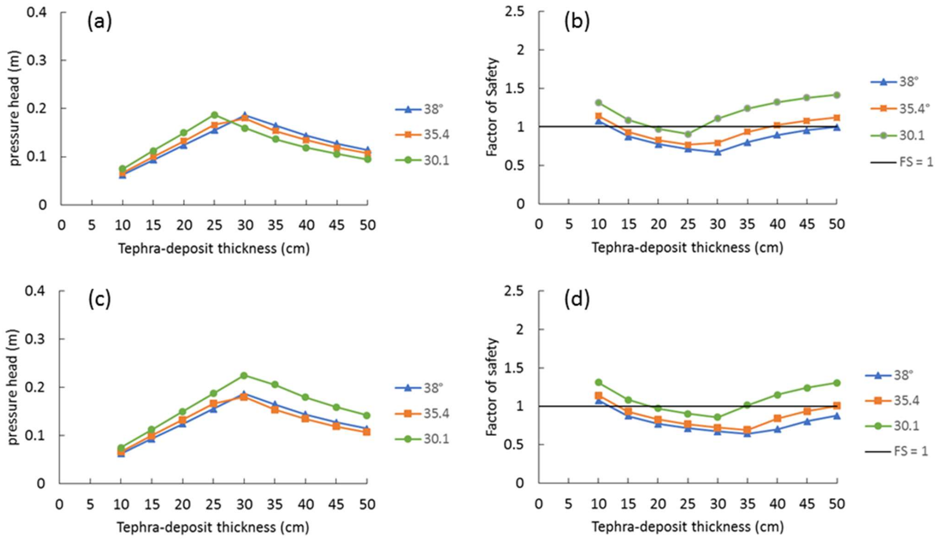
Figure ~~11~~10: Percentage of unstable area for the NW and S lahar source areas simulated with TRIGRS for tephra-fallout deposit thicknesses between 0.1-1.1 m and a rainfall intensity of 6.4 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 5 hours and parameters for: Vulcanian tephra-fallout deposits (red squares); subplinian tephra-fallout deposits with K_s = 1x10^{-2} m s^{-1} (value from literature; orange diamonds) and subplinian tephra-fallout deposits with K_s= 6.8x10^{-4} m s^{-1} (value measured in the field; green circles).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pressure head (m)
0.4
0.3
0.2
0.1
0
0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50
Tephra-deposit thickness (cm)
38°
35.4
30.1
(b)
Factor of Safety
2.5
2
1.5
1
0.5
0
0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50
Tephra-deposit thickness (cm)
38°
35.4°
30.1
FS = 1
(c)
pressure head (m)
0.4
0.3
0.2
0.1
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0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50
Tephra-deposit thickness (cm)
38°
35.4
30.1
(d)
Factor of safety
2.5
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Tephra-deposit thickness (cm)
38°
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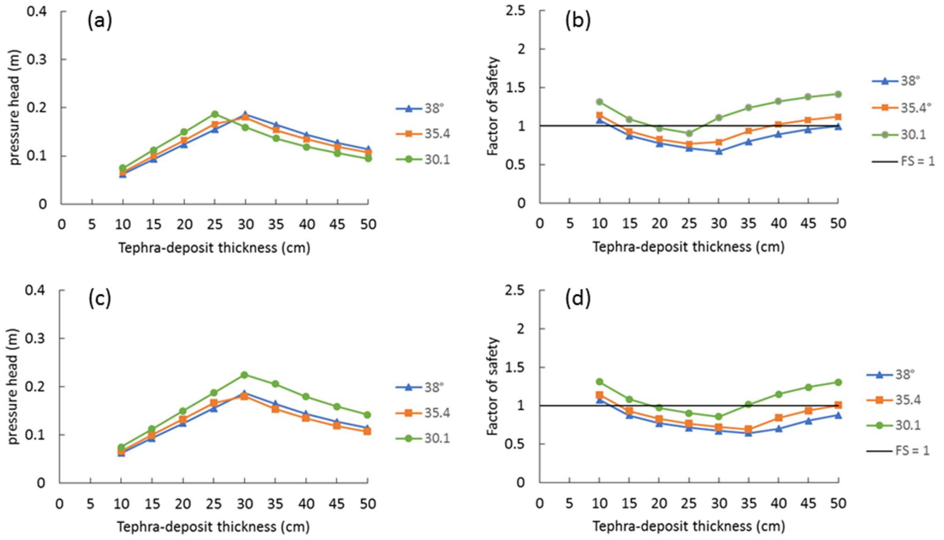
FS = 1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Tephra-deposit thickness (cm)
38°
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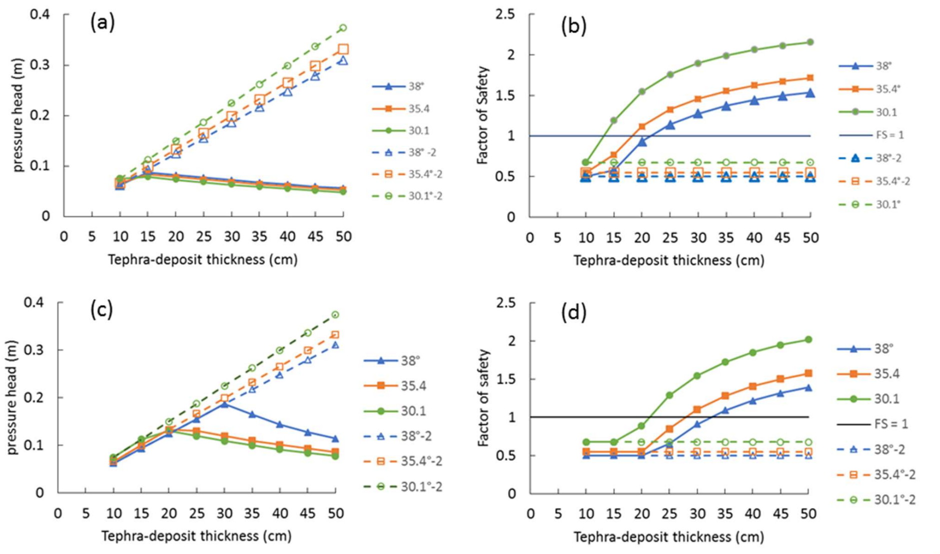
30.1
FS = 1

Figure ~~12~~11: Total pressure head and factor of safety~~ for tephra~~ versus tephra-fallout deposit thicknesses between 0.1 and 0.55 m for Vulcanian tephra-fallout deposits (~~table 5~~Table 3) and a rainfall intensity of: A) and B) 6.4 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 5 hours (I/K$_s$ = 0.02); C) and D) 15.5 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 3 hours (I/K$_s$ = 0.05) ~~-~~(see also Table 6).



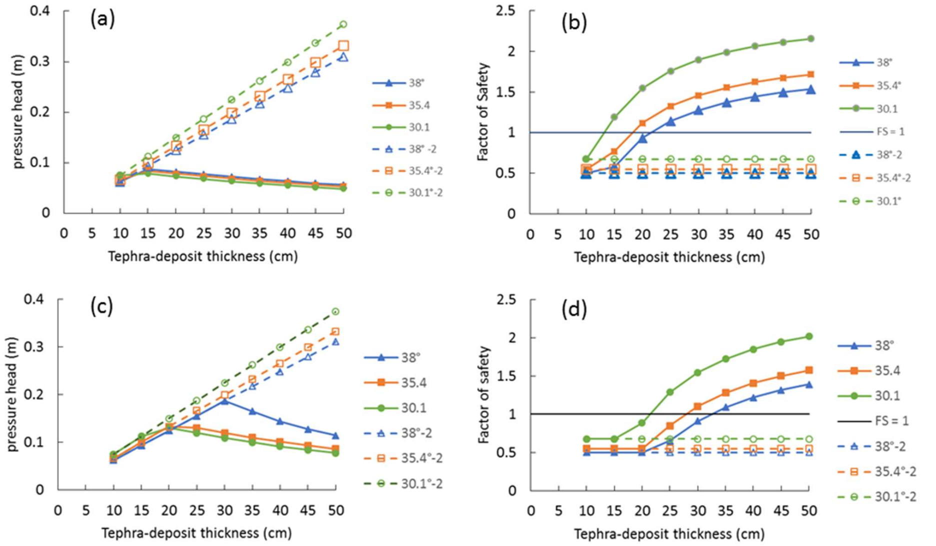


Figure ~~13~~12: Total pressure head and factor of safety ~~for tephra~~ versus tephra-fallout deposit thicknesses between 0.1 and 0.55 m for subplinian tephra-fallout deposits with K_s = 1x10^{-2} m s^{-1} and K_s= 6.8x10^{-4} m s^{-1} (dashed lines) for two different rainfall intensities and durations: A and B) 6.4 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 5 hours. C) and D) 15.5 mm h^{-1} with a duration of 3 hours~~.~~ (see also Table 6).

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