Long runout pyroclastic density currents: analysis and implications

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Supplemental Material

We present supplementary Figs. S1-4 mentioned in the main text, detailed information on the Great Basin ignimbrites and the paleovalleys in which their parent PDCs flowed (Figs. S5-8), a summary of the database of Roche et al. (2021) presented in Table S2 and to which the Great Basin ignimbrites are compared, and the characteristics of the PDCs as well as the statistical model we use.





Fig. S1. Great Basin ignimbrites. (A) Outcrops of moderately welded 28.9 Ma Campbell Creek (lower ledge, 18 m thick) and 23.0 Ma Pahranagat (upper ledge, 15 m thick) ignimbrites at Valley Springs Peak, the western limit of their distribution (Fig. 1 in the main text). Approximate top of Campbell Creek and base of Pahranagat shown by the dashed lines; intervening deposit is poorly cemented gravel. Less welded tops of both ignimbrites are eroded, as are former deposits still farther west. (B) Moderately welded, columnar-jointed Pahranagat ignimbrite making upper ledge in (A).



Fig. S2. Approximate flow paths and percent extension used to calculate flow lengths, including correction for
 post-depositional extension. Example of application to flow distance for the Nine Hill ignimbrite is given. See
 main text for sources of data.





Fig. S3. Runout of PDCs, R, as function of bulk volume of outflow ignimbrite, V. (A) concentrated and (B) dilute
parent currents with mass discharge rate (MDR) known from earlier studies or inferred from our analysis. For the
Great Basin and the Peach Spring ignimbrites, R is the mean runout in directions sub-perpendicular to that of the
maximum runout R_{max}. The power law relationships take into account all data except in (A) those of the Great
Basin ignimbrites, Rattlesnake (Streck and Grunder, 1995) and Kidnappers (see below). Prediction intervals of 90,
95 and 99% are shown. Notation: (A) K: Kidnappers, P; Pahranagat, PS: Peach Spring, R: Rattlesnake; (B) A1:
AsoI-1, A2: Aso 4I-2, NYT: Neapolitan Yellow Tuff.



Fig. S4. Mass discharge rate, Q, as function of bulk volume of outflow ignimbrite, V. Data for concentrated or
dilute parent PDCs from Roche et al. (2021; Table S2). Power law relationships and prediction intervals of 90, 95
and 99% are shown.

GREAT BASIN IGNIMBRITES

We present detailed information on the Great Basin ignimbrites and the paleovalleys in which their
parent PDCs flowed. The distributions of the ignimbrites are shown in Figs. S5-8 and other properties
are given in Table S1.

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Correlation of the Great Basin ignimbrites

Ignimbrite correlation is based on stratigraphy, phenocryst assemblage, composition, remnant 62 magnetic, and, most importantly, precise ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar dates and K/Ca of dated sanidines, which is a very 63 useful secondary correlation tool (Henry, 2008; Hinz et al., 2009; Henry and Faulds, 2010; Henry et al., 64 65 2012). Only a few ignimbrites are compositionally or petrographically distinctive. Almost all are rhvolites, with approximately equal numbers of sparsely porphyritic (≤15% phenocrysts) and 66 abundantly porphyritic (~20-50% phenocrysts) units (Henry and John, 2013). Both sparsely and 67 abundantly porphyritic rhyolites commonly show compositional or petrographic evidence of zoning to 68 trachydacites or dacites. All contain variable proportions of sanidine, plagioclase, quartz, and biotite, 69 and less silicic units or zones contain minor hornblende and/or clinopyroxene. The considerable overlap 70 in phenocryst assemblage and composition makes these poor discriminators. Distinctive units include 71 72 the sparsely porphyritic Nine Hill ignimbrite, which contains three feldspars (sanidine, anorthoclase, 73 and plagioclase), has high Zr and Nb contents (~400 and 30 ppm, respectively), and is zoned from ~77% to 68% SiO₂ (Deino, 1985; Henry and John, 2013). Nine Hill sanidines also have distinctive low K/Ca 74 75 of ~10-12, whereas most Great Basin ignimbrites have K/Ca of ~30 to 100 (Henry and Faulds, 2010).

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77 Correction of flow distances for extension78

79 Flow distances were corrected for spatially variable extension in the Basin and Range Province 80 (Fig. 1 in the main text; Fig. S2). Major extension in the Great Basin began $\sim 16-17$ Ma and post-dates 81 all the ignimbrites discussed here (Colgan and Henry, 2009). The caldera belt is the least extended part of the Great Basin because the plutonic region that fed and underlies the belt resisted major extension 82 (Long, 2019). Areas at the edge of and outside the caldera belt locally underwent as much as 100% 83 84 extension (e.g., Colgan et al., 2008). In addition to the preceding references, we use published geologic maps and regional estimates of extension (Henry and Faulds, 2010; Cassel et al., 2012) to correct 85 86 present-day distances. The Sierra Nevada was not extended, so present-day distances require no correction. Our corrections assume that paleovalleys are linear and down the Sierra Nevada topographic 87 88 gradient, which is an oversimplification at either large or small scale (Lindgren, 1911; Cassel and Graham, 2011; Fig. 1 in the main text, Figs. S5-8). True flow distances would be greater than our 89 90 estimates but require too many assumptions to be reliable.

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92 Recognition and mapping of paleovalleys93

94 Paleovalleys in which the PDCs flowed and were deposited are generally much wider (8-10 km) 95 than deep (≤ 1 km), in relatively easily erodible rocks, predominantly Mesozoic granitoids that were weathered and eroded during the warm, wet Eocene climate (Henry and Fauld, 2010; Henry et al., 2012; 96 Henry and John, 2013; Mudelsee et al., 2014; Christensen et al., 2015; see Fig. 1 in the main text). 97 Paleovalleys are locally much narrower (1-2 km) in highly resistant, metamorphic rocks. Geologists 98 mapped the paleovalleys in great detail in the Sierra Nevada in the late 1800s and early 1900s because 99 Eocene gravels that occupy bottoms of paleovalleys contained considerable gold (Lindgren, 1911; 100 Yeend, 1974; Christensen et al., 2015). This old work connected major gold-bearing gravel deposits but 101 whether these connected the same channel, different channels, or meanders in one wider, braided 102 channel is not always certain (Yeend, 1974; Cassel and Graham, 2011). Paleovalleys in the Sierra 103 Nevada were generally grouped into west-southwest segments, down the topographic gradient, and 104 north-northwest segments that aligned with major structural-lithologic boundaries (Lindgren, 1911). 105 Although workers in the Sierra Nevada recognized that the paleovalleys had headwaters east of the 106 present Sierra Nevada crest (Bateman and Wahrhaftig, 1966; Yeend, 1974), continuation of the 107 108 paleovalleys into the Great Basin was only recognized beginning about 2000 (Davis et al., 2000; Henry 109 et al., 2003; Garside et al., 2005). Identification and mapping of paleovalleys in the Basin and Range varies from detailed (e.g., Henry et al., 2004; Henry et al., 2009; Henry and Faulds, 2010) to 110 reconnaissance (Henry et al., 2012; Henry, 2008) to not at all (Figs. S5-8). Paleovalleys are broadly 111 mapped across the northern Great Basin, whereas only minor segments are recognized in the southern 112 113 part. Individual ignimbrites in paleovalleys are incompletely preserved-exposed because of shortly postemplacement and later, late Cenozoic - Quaternary erosion, and covered by younger rocks in the 114 unfaulted Sierra Nevada. The same factors affected ignimbrites in the highly faulted and extended Great 115 116 Basin, especially cover in large basins.

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118 Evidence that ignimbrites primarily flowed and were deposited in paleovalleys

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That ignimbrites primarily flowed in paleovalleys is demonstrated by their preservation almost 120 121 entirely in the deepest parts of paleovalleys, both in the Great Basin and the Sierra Nevada, where they are interbedded with fluvial deposits and wedge out against paleovalley walls composed of Mesozoic or 122 Paleozoic rocks (Fig. 1B in the main text). Ignimbrites of any kind are generally not preserved over the 123 124 mostly flat interfluves. Thin, interfluve-veneering deposits from the dilute parts of two-layer PDCs may have been deposited but were rapidly eroded. Distal and partly stratified deposits of this type are only 125 preserved for Nine Hill, which had magmatic temperature up to 950°C (Deino, 1985), and Campbell 126 Creek; these two units are commonly welded even where only a few meters thick. Any veneering 127 128 deposits from the dilute part of cooler PDCs would have been poorly or non-welded and probably rapidly 129 eroded. In the northern Great Basin, where paleovalleys and their contained ignimbrites are best mapped, 130 most ignimbrites demonstrably were channelized into one or two paleovalleys and are therefore only found in those paleovalleys in the Sierra Nevada (e.g., Axehandle and Rattlesnake; Figs. S5-8). 131 132 Ignimbrites farther south (e.g., Pahranagat, Fig. 1A in the main text) flowed as far west in the Sierra Nevada as those to the north, but lesser detailed mapping hampers determining specific paleovalleys 133 134 and flow paths.

The variation in mapping detail bears on total flow distances and whether some Great Basin 135 ignimbrites have non-elliptical distributions. For example, Best et al. (2013b) recognized Underdown 136 137 (their Clipper Gap), Pahranagat, and Windous only east of or <50 km west of their respective calderas (Fig. 1A in the main text; Figs. S5 and S8). This more limited work underestimates total flow distances 138 and suggests highly asymmetric distributions. Our new work (this report; Henry, unpublished data; see 139 140 also Lee et al., 2020) demonstrates that all three parent PDCs flowed far to the west to the western foothills of the Sierra Nevada. Without the new data and corrected for extension, these ignimbrites 141 142 would appear to have a more circular distribution that is highly asymmetric to source calderas. Extensive 143 eastward flow of each of these units is consistent with their emplacement on a high plateau with a gentle paleodivide and significant relief was restricted to paleovalleys (Henry and John, 2013). The apparent 144 145 restriction of the tuff of Toivabe to west of its caldera likely also reflects insufficient mapping to the east (Fig. S8). 146

147 The presence of the Rattlesnake Canyon ignimbrite in a paleovalley south of its main distribution raises the possibility of avulsion in the western, lower elevation parts of paleovalleys (Fig. S5). 148 Rattlesnake Canyon and the slightly older Axehandle ignimbrite are preserved mostly in a single, 149 northern paleovalley, but Rattlesnake Canyon is also found in the lower reaches of the next major 150 drainage to the south, where it occurs ~200 m below its outcrops to the north. This southern presence 151 could indicate flow in both paleovalleys, and non-preservation or recognition in the upper part of the 152 southern valley, or avulsion from the northern into the southern in the westernmost part where 153 interfluves locally were at ≤ 100 m above the channel. 154

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Fig. S5. Great basin ignimbrites. Distributions and source calderas of 31.7 Ma Windows Butte, 31.5 Ma Axehandle Canyon, and 31.2 Ma Rattlesnake Canyon ignimbrites. Source calderas of Axehandle and Rattlesnake Canyon are buried, probably in the area shown.



Fig. S6. Great basin ignimbrites. Distributions and source calderas of 30.3 Ma Deep Canyon and 27.3 Ma Mickey

- Pass ignimbrites.



172 Fig. S7. Great basin ignimbrites. Distributions and source calderas of 25.3 Ma New Pass and 25.1 Elevenmile

- Canyon ignimbrites.



Fig. S8. Great basin ignimbrites. Distributions and source calderas of 24.9 Ma Underdown and 23.3 Ma Toiyabe
 ignimbrites.

182 DATABASE

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Table S2 presents the database of Roche et al. (2021) but neglecting Oruanui, whose volume 184 185 estimates are only orders of magnitude (Wilson, 2001), and considering additional cases: Aso 4I-3 and 4II-3 (Kaneko et al., 2007), Atana and Toconao (Lindsay et al., 2001a,b), Cerro Panizos (Ort, 1993), 186 Loma Seca units S and V (Hildreth at al., 1984), Toya, unit 2c (Ito, 2014; Goto et al., 2018). Almost all 187 of the Great Basin ignimbrites that appear to have more circular distributions were generated by 188 189 eruptions from calderas east of the paleodivide of Fig. 1 in the main text (Best et al., 2013a and 2013b). Their circular distributions may be real and reflect mostly eastward flow to a base level of 190 intracontinental basins that were well above sea level. Alternatively, these ignimbrites may correlate to 191 192 those farther west, but confirmation will require additional mapping and precise dating.

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CHARACTERISTICS OF PYROCLASTIC DENSITY CURRENTS

197 We compare new data from 12 eruptions in the Great Basin ignimbrite province (Table S1), most of which PDCs traveled unusually long distances, to the database of Roche et al. (2021, Table S2). 198 199 Following this reference, we first consider the types of PDCs (i.e., dilute or concentrated) based on the 200 sedimentological characteristics and architecture of ignimbrites described by the authors and on the ignimbrites aspect ratios. We recognize that this approach has limitations but the types of PDCs can be 201 202 confirmed in a second step by considering the relationship between the runout and the mass discharge 203 rate (Fig. 4 in the main text). The Great Basin ignimbrites have aspect ratios greater than $\sim 5 \times 10^{-5}$ 204 indicating two-layer parent currents with a concentrated base consistent with other ignimbrites features 205 (Fig. 2 in the main text).

206 The two essential parameters for our study are the runout distance of the PDCs and the eruption 207 mass discharge rate (MDR). We determine the runout by taking into account the asymmetry of the areal 208 extent of ignimbrites around their respective eruptive sources (see limitations to estimating runout 209 distance in Roche et al., 2021). For this purpose, we define the ratio R_{max}/R , with R_{max} the maximum runout and R the mean runout in two, or alternatively one, directions sub-perpendicular to that of Rmax 210 211 (Fig. 3A in the main text). The MDRs for several eruptions in the database of Roche et al. (2021), and those of the Great Basin province, are unknown. Accordingly, we infer these MDRs from the power law 212 213 relationship given by Roche et al. (2021; their Fig. 8b) between the bulk volume of outflow ignimbrites and the known MDRs for eruptions that produced 28 concentrated and 14 dilute PDCs. However, for 214 215 concentrated PDCs, we exclude Kidnappers (Wilson et al., 1995) and Rattlesnake (Streck and Grunder, 1995) for the following reasons. The MDR estimates for these two eruptions are from a dilute PDC 216 217 model (Dade, 2003) and it appears that the good agreement of these data with the power law relationship between runout and MDR given by Roche et al. (2021; their Fig. 4) is probably a coincidence. 218 219 Furthermore, when considering the relationship between PDC runout and ignimbrite volume, the data for Kidnappers and Rattlesnake are clearly outside the prediction intervals for concentrated currents 220 221 (Fig. S3). Excluding these two cases, we obtain for the concentrated PDCs the following power law relationship between mass discharge rate, Q, and volume, V, 222

223 $Q=1.147\times10^9\times V^{0.460}$ (1) 224 (Fig. S4) which is nevertheless very close to that of Roche et al. (202

(Fig. S4), which is nevertheless very close to that of Roche et al. (2021; Q= $1.412 \times 10^9 \times V^{0.537}$). Interestingly, this relationship is also very close to that for dilute PDCs, Q_d= $1.475 \times 10^9 \times V^{0.497}$, implying that the MDR estimates we give vary little with the type of PDC assigned.

227 In the context described above, determining the bulk volumes of the Great Basin ignimbrites is an 228 important step for our analysis but is not straightforward. In fact, estimating volumes from ignimbrites 229 average thicknesses and areas is elusive because the former often vary from a few meters in unconfined areas to >200-300 m in some valleys (even in distal domains >100 km from the source; Henry and 230 Faulds, 2010) and depends also on possible compaction related to welding while the latter may be 231 232 overestimated (see main text). Although an error as large as one order of magnitude, for example, would not affect the conclusions of our study, we prefer to estimate the bulk volume of the ignimbrites in 233 234 another way. We first calculate the total dense rock equivalent volume of each eruption ($V_{t,DRE}$) from 235 the caldera area and the subsidence depth, which are generally well constrained. Then, we convert V_{t,DRE} to outflow ignimbrite bulk volume from the average ratio V/V_{t,DRE}~0.6 according to the database of 236

Roche et al. (2021). Estimates of bulk volumes of the Great Basin ignimbrites are given in Table S1. In 237 238 three cases where calderas are buried (Axehandle, Nine Hill, Rattlesnake Canyon), we nevertheless calculate the volume by considering the ignimbrite area and an average thickness of 25 m, typical of the 239 240 other Great Basin ignimbrites, which leads to overestimates.

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242 Statistical model to infer eruption mass discharge rate

244 We use the statistical link between volume and MDR (Equation 1) to determine the missing MDR 245 values. In this case, the runout prediction intervals are influenced by both the MDR's fit uncertainty

$$R = \mu_2 + Q \beta + \varepsilon_2$$
(2)
and the uncertainty of predicting the missing MDR from the volume
$$Q = \mu_1 + V \gamma + \varepsilon_1.$$
(3)

249 In this model, the parameters are fitted using the observed volumes and MDRs. The non-observed MDRs 250 are then imputed using observed volumes from equation (3). The errors ε_1 and ε_2 are independent with zero mean and have variances σ_1 and σ_2 ; the parameters μ_1, μ_2, γ and β are estimated via a penalized 251 least squares procedure (see for instance Hastie et al., 2009). We denote \widehat{S}_1 and \widehat{S}_2 , respectively, the 252 253 residual estimated standard deviations of equations (2) and (3). The methodology for calculating the prediction intervals is the following. We define, for a risk α_1 , the interval I = [m, M] giving the 254 prediction interval of the MDR from equation (3). In this case, $m = \widehat{\mu_1} + V\widehat{\gamma} - t_{1-\alpha_1}\widehat{S_1}$ and $M = \widehat{\mu_2} + V\widehat{\gamma} - t_{1-\alpha_1}\widehat{S_1}$ 255 $V\hat{\beta} + t_{1-\alpha_1}\hat{S_1}$. The term $t_{1-\alpha_1}$ is a corrected quantile corresponding to $1-\alpha_1$ of the student distribution. Since the estimated slope coefficient β is positive, we deduce the final prediction interval of the runout 256 257 I = $[m - t_{1-\alpha_2} \widehat{S_2}; M + t_{1-\alpha_2} \widehat{S_2}]$. This technique is an adaptation of meta-models procedures 258 (Friedrich and Knapp, 2013). The choice of the risks α_1 and α_2 is made so that the final risk of the 259 260 interval I is equal to a desired risk α . In Fig. 4 in the main text, the prediction intervals are given for $\alpha = 0.90, 0.95$ and 0.99. 261

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Ignimbrite/tuff (other name)	Age (Ma)	Runout distance (km)				R (km)	R _{max} /R	Vt,DRE (km ³)	V (km ³)	A (km ²) ^(a)	H (m) ^(a)	AR	Q (kg/s) ^(b)	Q range (kg/s) ^(b)
``´´		West	South	East	North	、 - <i>/</i>		(-)	、	~ /	. ,			× 0 /
Axehandle Canyon ^(c)	31.5	238	53	66	38	45.5	5.2		520 ^e	21000		1.5E-04	2.0E+10	0.9-4.5E+10
Campbell Creek (d)	28.9	228		217	49	49	4.7	2500	1500	55000	27	1.0E-04	3.3E+10	1.4-8.0E+10
Deep Canyon (Cove spring) (e)	30.4	165	53	82		53	3.1	600	360	24000	15	8.6E-05	1.7E+10	0.8-3.7E+10
Elevenmile Canyon	25.1	105	41	26		41	2.6	3000	1800				3.6E+10	1.5-8.9E+10
Mickey Pass (Mt Jefferson) (f)	27.3	244		52		52	4.7 ^(k)	1900	1140	24000		2.7E-04	2.9E+10	1.3-6.9E+10
New Pass (Chimney spring, Poco canyon) ^(g)	25.3	142	41	56	35	38	3.7	450	270	10000	27	2.4E-04	1.5E+10	0.7-3.1E+10
Nine Hill ^(h)	25.4	285	69	202	152	111	2.6		1337 ⁽¹⁾	54000		9.4E-05	3.2E+10	1.3-7.5E+10
Pahranagat	23.0	314	54	109	54	54	5.8	2100	1260	40000	32	1.4E-04	3.1E+10	1.3-7.3E+10
Rattlesnake Canyon (i)	31.2	230		130		130			867 ^(l)	35000		1.2E-04	2.6E+10	1.1-5.9E+10
Toiyabe (Santiago canyon)	23.3	144						500	300				1.6E+10	0.8-3.3E+10
Underdown (Clipper gap)	24.9	192	93	190		93	2.1	1400	840	38000	22	1.0E-04	2.5E+10	1.1-5.8E+10
Windous Butte ^(j)	31.7	280		144	69	69	4.1	2700	1620	63000	26	9.1E-05	3.4E+10	1.4-8.4E+10
Peach Spring (m)	18.8	170	97	101	64	81	2.1	640	1231	32000	38	1.9E-04	2.4E+11	1.0-3.8E+11

Supplementary Table 1. Properties of the elliptical Great Basin and Peach Spring ignimbrites.

Notation. R: mean runout in directions sub-perpendicular to the maximum runout R_{max}, V_{t,DRE}: total dense rock equivalent volume of eruption, V: bulk volume of outflow ignimbrite, A: area, H: mean thickness, AR: aspect ratio, Q: eruption mass discharge rate.

^(a) Conservative estimates. ^(b) Estimated from V_{buk} (except Peach Spring), ranges are 95% confidence inrervals. ^(c) Caldera buried. ^(d) Minimum volume estimates. ^(e) V_{t,DRE} ±260 km³ (Henry, C. D. & John, D. A., 2013, Magmatism, ash-flow tuffs, and calderas of the ignimbrite flareup in the western Nevada volcanic field, Great Basin, USA. *Geosphere* 9, 951-1008, doi:

1010.1130/GES00867.00861). ^(f) Minimum volume estimates. ^(g) Caldera highly extended. ^(h) Caldera partly buried. ⁽ⁱ⁾ Caldera buried. Not to be confused with Rattlesnake tuff (Streck, M. J. & Grunder, A. L., 1995, Crystallization and welding variations in a widespread ignimbrite sheet; the Rattlesnake Tuff, eastern Oregon, USA. *Bull. Volcanol.* **57**, 151-169). ⁽ⁱ⁾ V_{t,DRE} ±500 km³. ^(k) R considered in east direction. ⁽ⁱ⁾ Assuming a typical mean thickness of 25 m for the Great Basin ignimbrites. ^(m) Roche, O., Buesch, D. C. & Valentine, G. A., 2016, Slow-moving and far-travelled dense pyroclastic flows during the Peach Spring super-eruption. *Nat. Commun.* **7**, 10890, doi: 10810.11038/ncomms10890.