



Satellite Activity for the UN Ocean Decade Safe Ocean Laboratory

Further Challenges for Warnings of Tsunamis

SESSION B: What do we know and need to know to warn for tsunamis generated by non-seismic and complex sources?

4. The seven types of volcanic tsunami sources

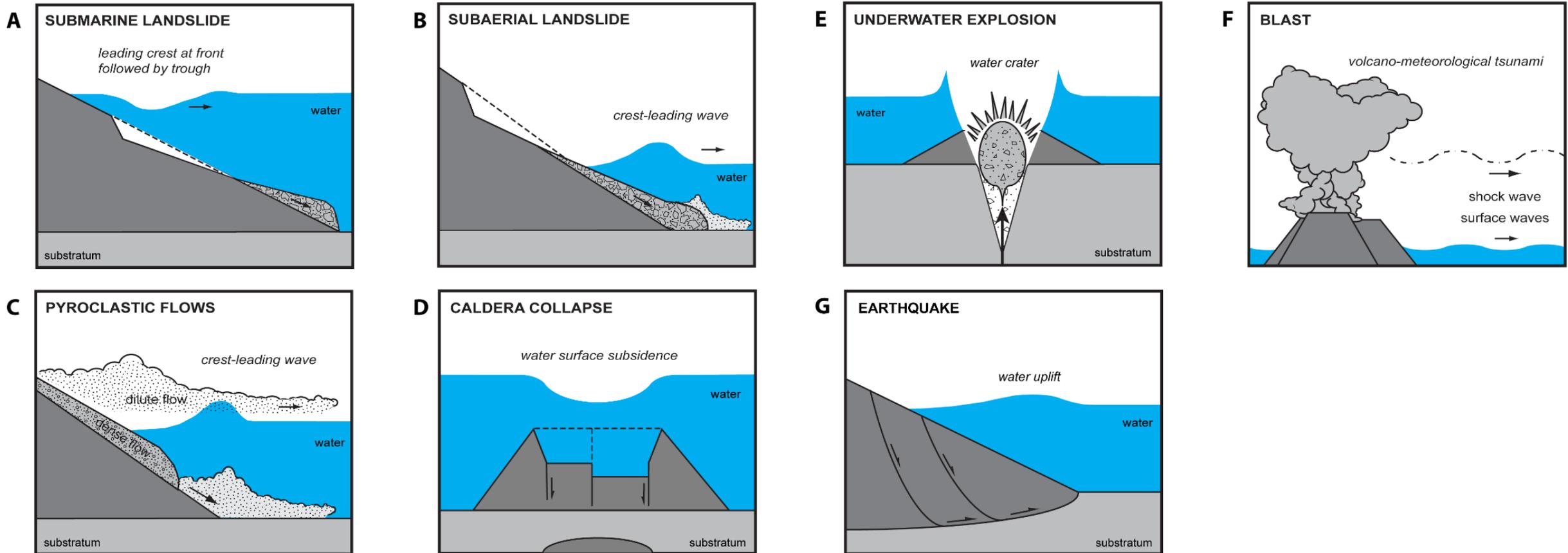
Raphaël Paris

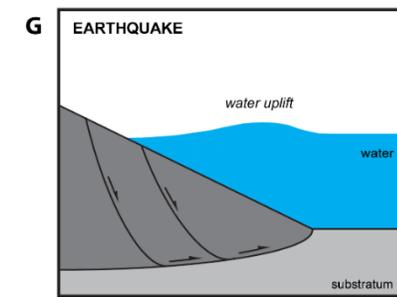
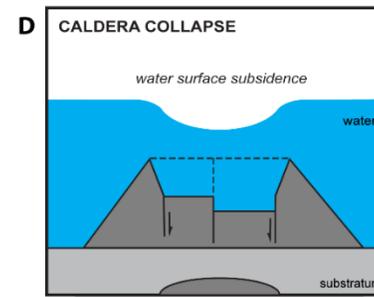
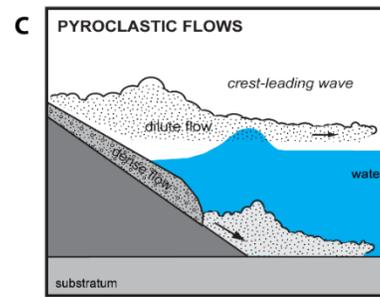
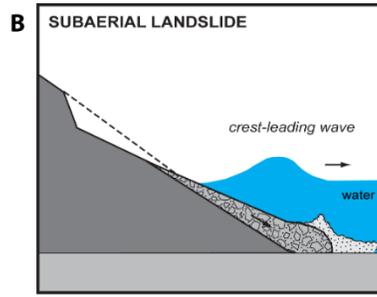
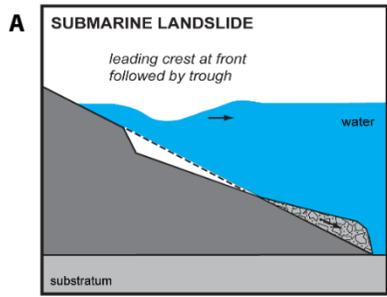
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The activity and instability of volcanic edifices can produce tsunamis, so-called volcanic tsunamis or volcano-generated tsunamis.

Different types of source mechanisms were identified during past events.



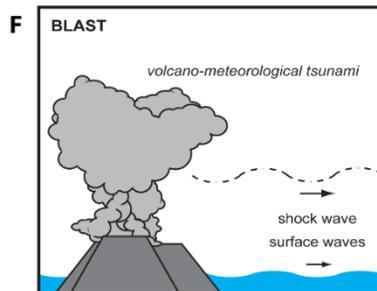
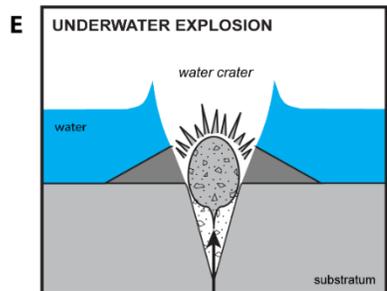


25 %
 0.1 - 500 km³
 10⁵-10⁶ m³/s
 Anak Krakatau 2018

20 %
 0.1 - 100 km³
 10⁵-10⁸ m³/s
 Montserrat 1997-2003

10 %
 1 - 100 km³
 10⁴-10⁶ m³/s
 ?

15 %
 0.1 - 10 km³
 10⁶-10⁹ m³/s
 Kalapana 1975



25 %
 < 1 km³
 10⁸ - 10⁹ m³/s
 Karymskoye 1996

5 %
 Tonga 2022

Volcanic tsunami are often considered as « point » source generating local tsunami only.

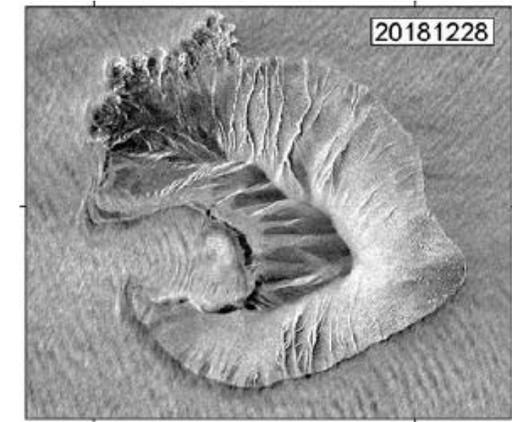
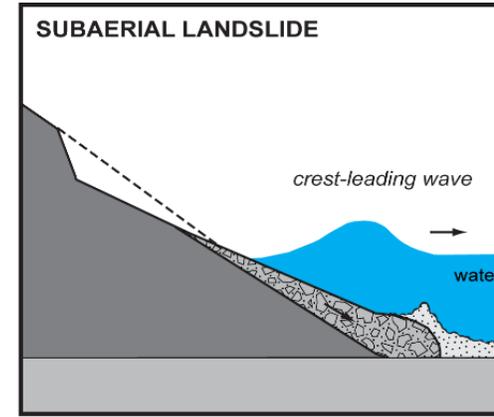
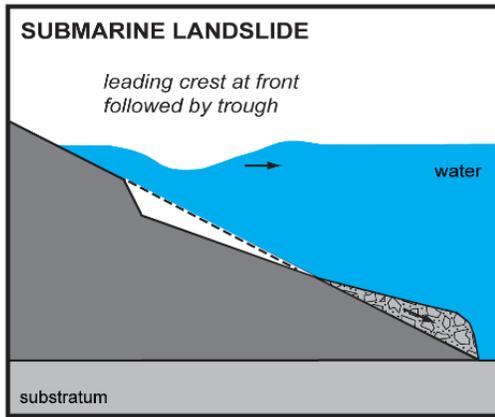
However, the different types of source mechanisms vary in terms of frequency, volume, and flux.

-> different wave patterns from one case to another.

Learning from past examples of volcanic tsunamis

| <u>Type of eruption</u> | <u>Type event</u> | <u>Earth-quake</u> | <u>Underwater explosion</u> | <u>Caldera subsidence</u> | <u>Pyroclastic flow</u> | <u>Flank failure</u> |
|---|---|--------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|
| <u>Phreatomagmatic explosions in shallow waters</u> | <u>Myojin-Sho 1952</u> <u>Karymsky Lake 1996</u> | | | | | |
| <u>Plinian eruption forming a submarine caldera</u> | <u>Krakatau 1883</u> <u>Santorini LBA 3.6 ka</u> | | | | | |
| <u>Plinian eruption forming a subaerial caldera</u> | <u>Tambora 1815</u> <u>Aniakchak 3.5 ka</u> | | | | | |
| <u>Explosive eruption with dome growth and collapse</u> | <u>Montserrat 2003</u> <u>Paluweh 1928</u> | | | | | |
| <u>Explosive paroxysm of strombolian cone</u> | <u>Stromboli 2002</u> <u>Tinakula 1971</u> | | | | | |
| <u>Massive flank failure</u> | <u>Ritter 1888</u> <u>Oshima-Oshima 1741</u> | ? | | | | |

- The great majority of volcanic eruptions do not generate tsunami.
- A single eruption might generate different types of tsunamis.
- Source of tsunami observed during an eruption is often difficult to identify.
- It is extremely difficult to anticipate a volcanic tsunami.
- Hazard assesment is complex and requires a double volcano-tsunami expertise.
- Risk assement is thus challenging but not impossible if an adequate monitoring is combined with early warning system and population preparedness.



Main parameters:

- volume of the sliding mass
- its initial acceleration
- its maximum velocity

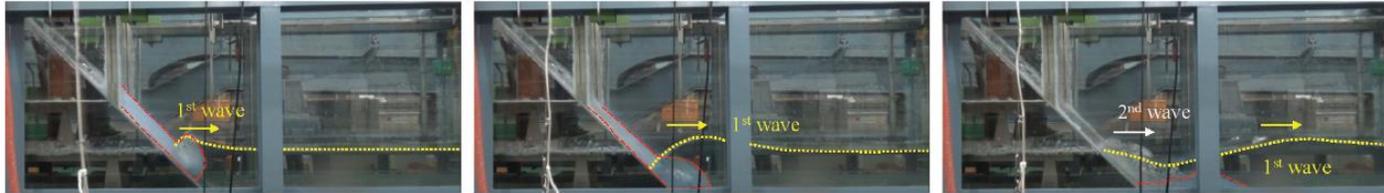
Three successive waves:

1. a first crest ahead of the slide front (energy transfer from the slide)
2. a large trough propagating at the speed of the slide front
3. a final crest (often the highest) = main cause of inundation

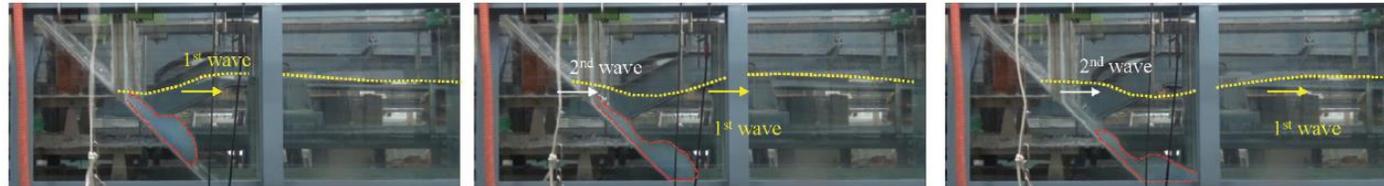
Subaerial landslides characterized by complex interactions flow/air/water at the impact -> more challenging to simulate.

- Water above the flow pushed upward, and water in front pushed forward.
- Impulse (forced) wave first travels at the speed of the slide front, and then becomes a free wave
- Followed by trailing waves
- Near-field, this leading wave is usually the largest one (efficient energy transfer). Its height increases with increasing slide Froude number, relative thickness, mass flux and volume
- Far-field: propagation influenced by frequency dispersion

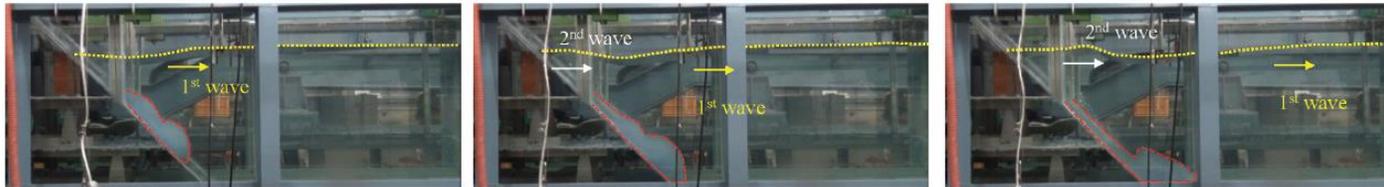
Numerical models are benchmarked using laboratory experiments



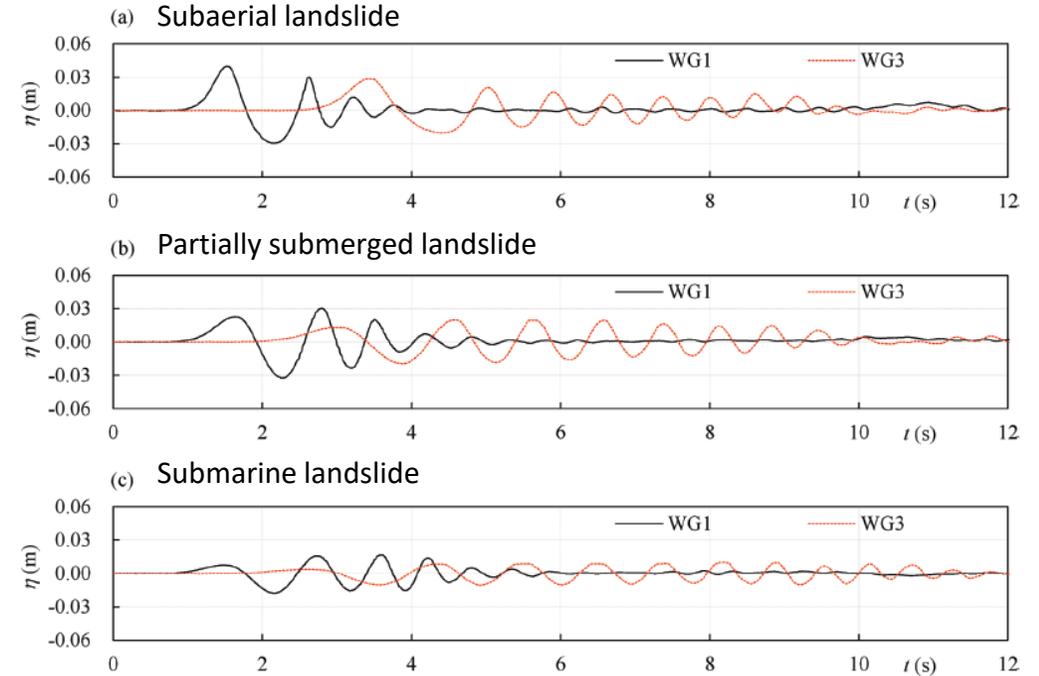
(a) Subaerial ($\theta=45^\circ$, $d=0.004$ m, $m=10$ kg, $h=0.20$ m, $h_i=0.40$ m)



(b) Partially submerged ($\theta=45^\circ$, $d=0.004$ m, $m=10$ kg, $h=0.45$ m, $h_i=0.40$ m)

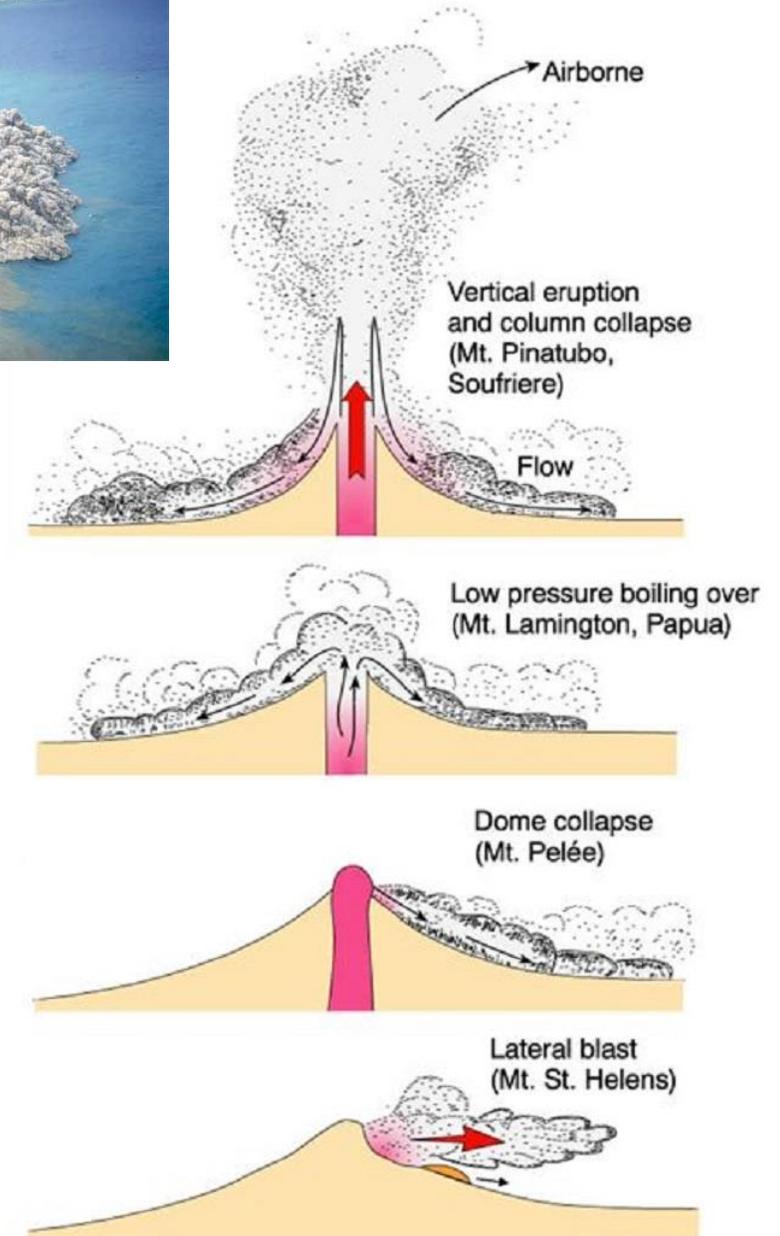
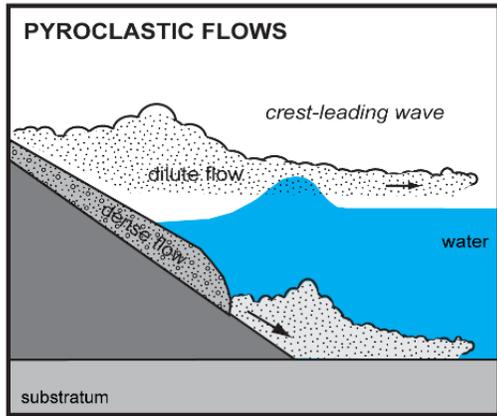


(c) Submarine ($\theta=45^\circ$, $d=0.004$ m, $m=10$ kg, $h=0.60$ m, $h_i=0.40$ m)



Takabatake et al. 2020

- Understanding the physics of wave generation and wave propagation
- Influence of each parameter
- Propose equations that predict the wave amplitude
- Provide guidance for the parameterization of the numerical models



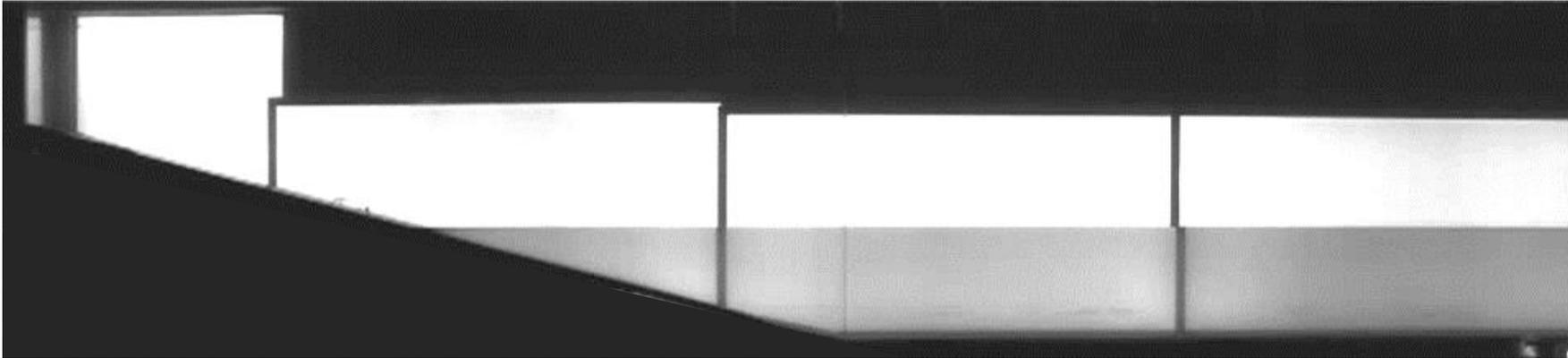
Pyroclastic flows are highly-mobile hot mixtures of gas and particles generated by volcanic eruptions, particularly in case of a volcano dome collapse or a plume (column) collapse

-> add a degree of complexity compared to other landslides

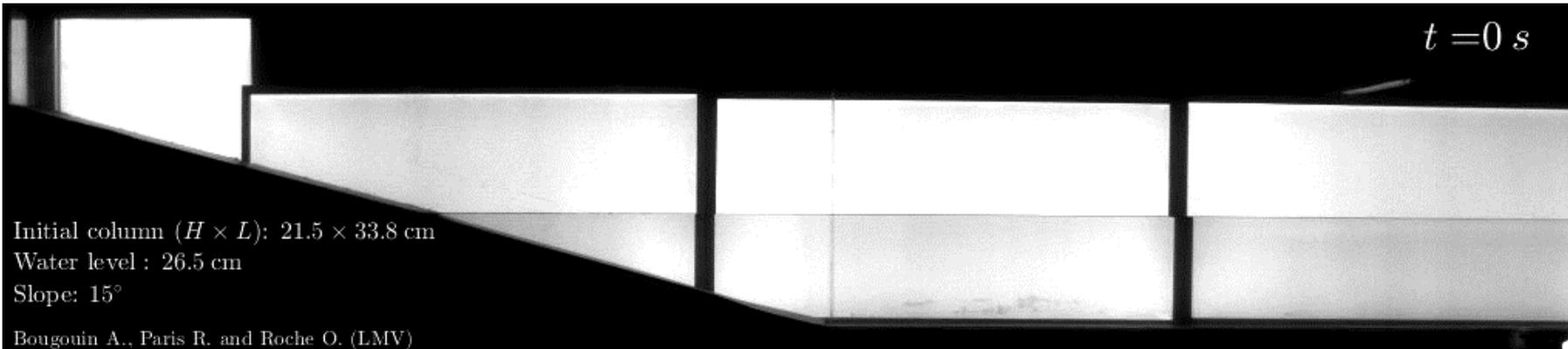
Important parameters controlling the interactions between pyroclastic flows and water bodies:

- flow bulk density
- flow permeability (i.e., its grain size distribution)
- mass flux at the impact with water
- angle of incidence (slope) at the impact with water
- distance from the eruptive vent to the shoreline

Laboratory experiments on tsunami generated by pyroclastic flows



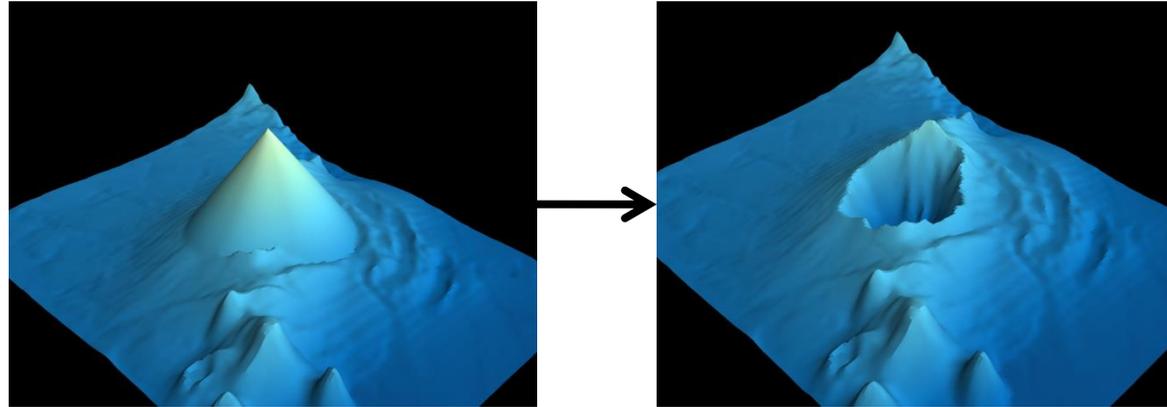
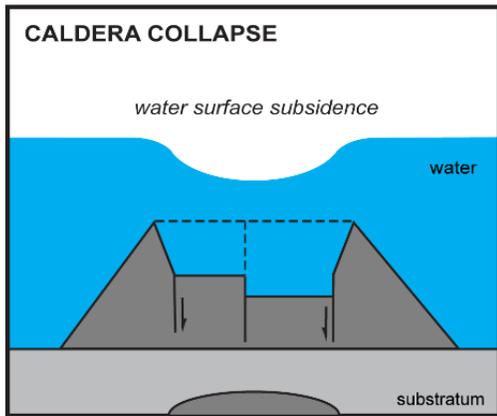
Non-fluidized



Fluidized

Highly mobile flow
E.g. pyroclastic flow

- > higher flow velocity and mass flux
- > very efficient energy transfer from flow to water
- > steeper and higher wave



Large explosive eruptions may result in the collapse of the central part of the edifice
-> large depression, so-called caldera, with diameter typically hundreds of metres to tens of kilometres.

Sources of uncertainty:

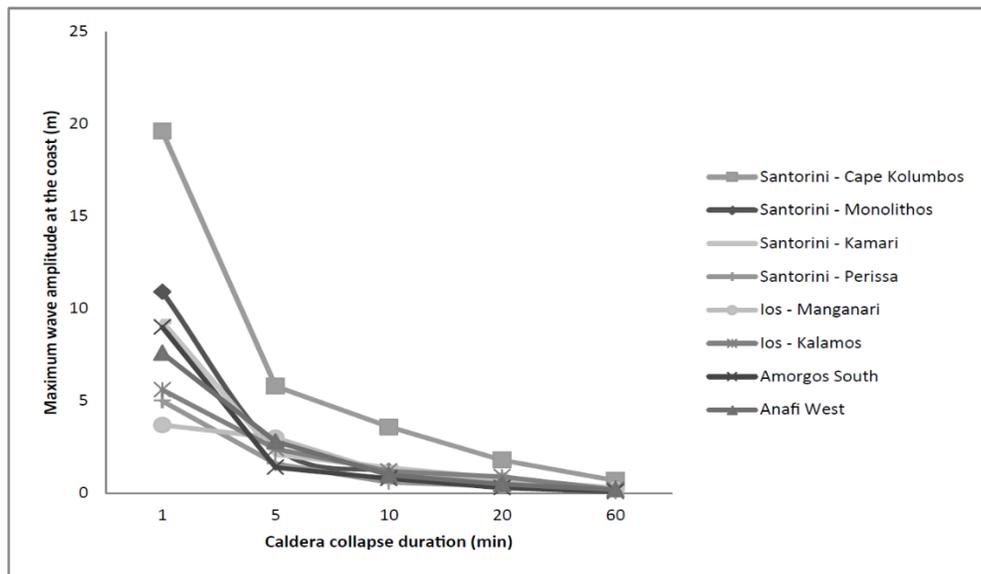
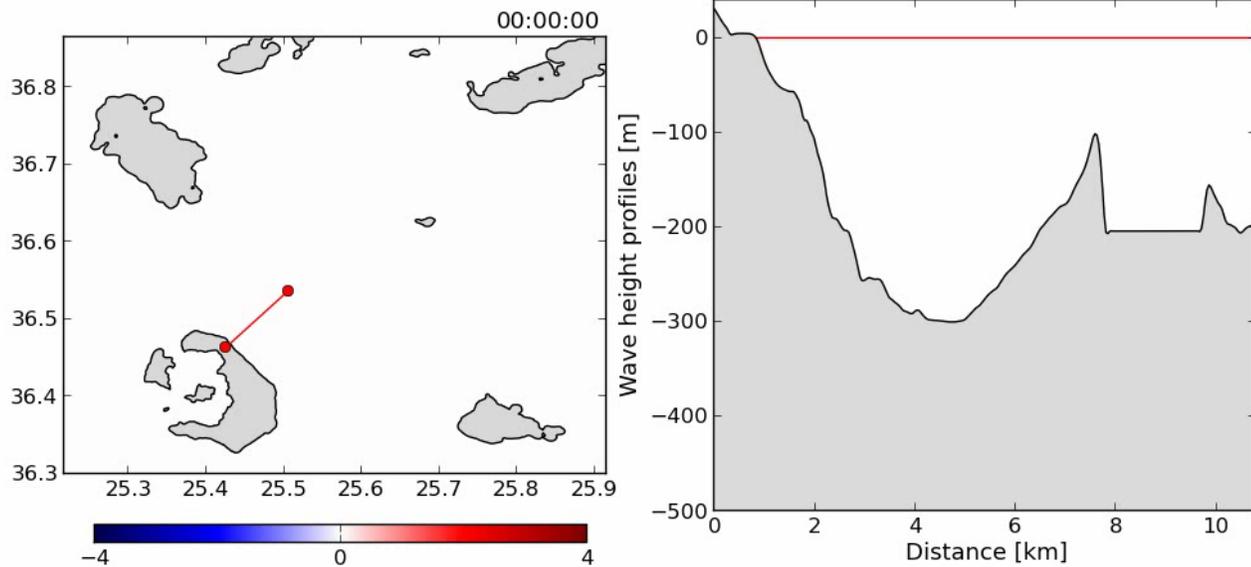
- Duration of a caldera collapse: poorly constrained (from minutes to hours)
- Geometry: from a single block to multi-stage subsidence of sub- blocks.

In theory, submarine caldera collapse generates:

- An initial subsidence of the water surface -> leading trough (negative wave), whose size depends on the collapse geometry and duration.
- Followed by a dome of water that collapse -> secondary crests (positive waves)

Kolumbo submarine volcano (Aegean Sea)

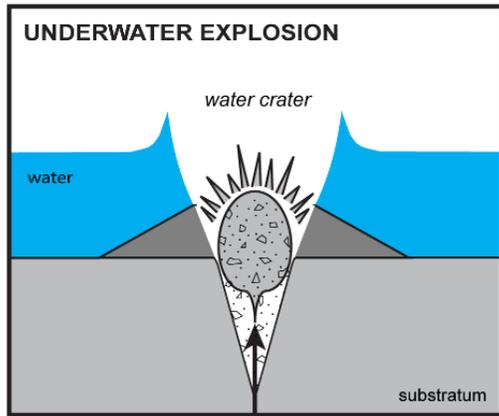
Ulvrova et al. 2016



Only fast caldera collapses (<5 minutes) are efficient in terms of tsunami generation. Unrealistic?

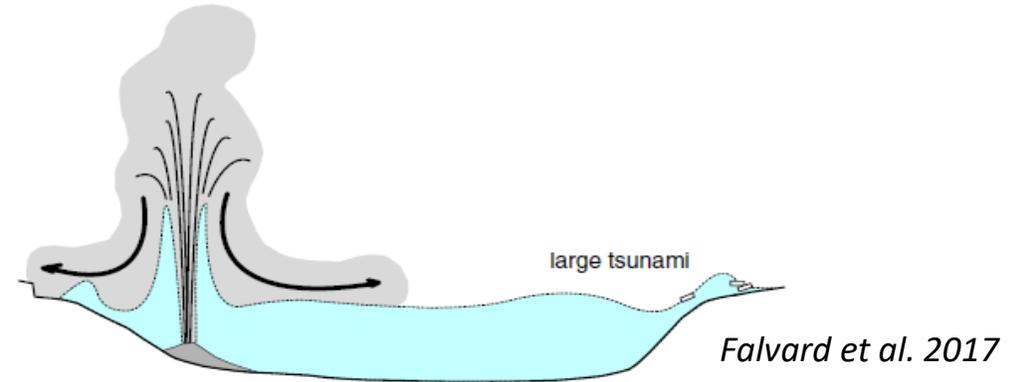
Real-case caldera collapses usually last from ~30 minutes (e.g., Pinatubo 1991, Philippines) to 12 days (e.g., Fernandina 1968, Galapagos).

Tonga 2022 caldera collapse?



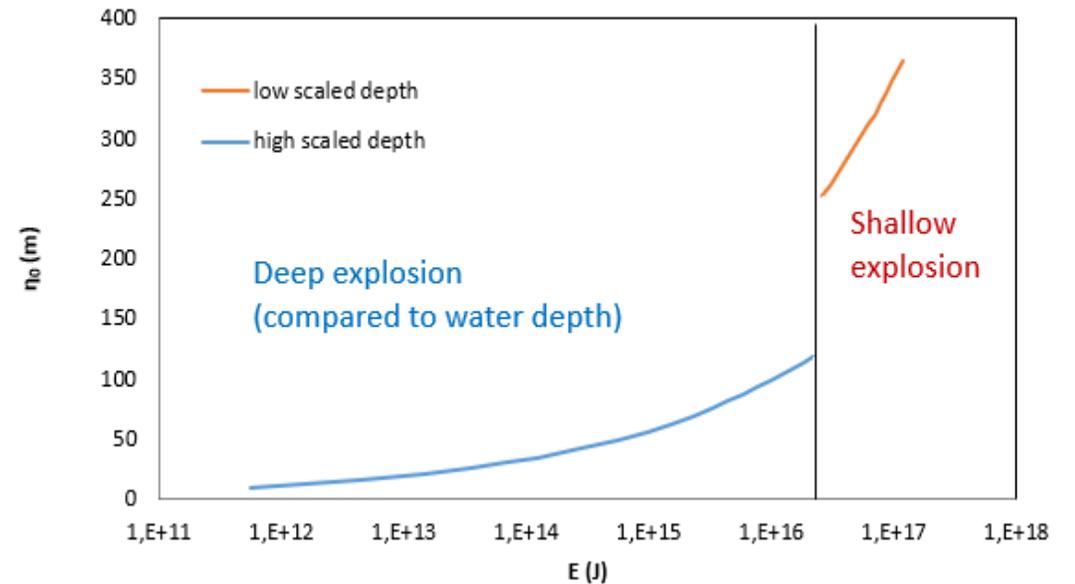
Underwater explosion may generate tsunami under specific conditions of explosion depth, duration, and energy.

1. Water is initially pushed upward
-> water crater
2. Water crater collapses
-> dome of water
3. Water dome then turns to a cylindrical bore that expands radially to form the leading wave

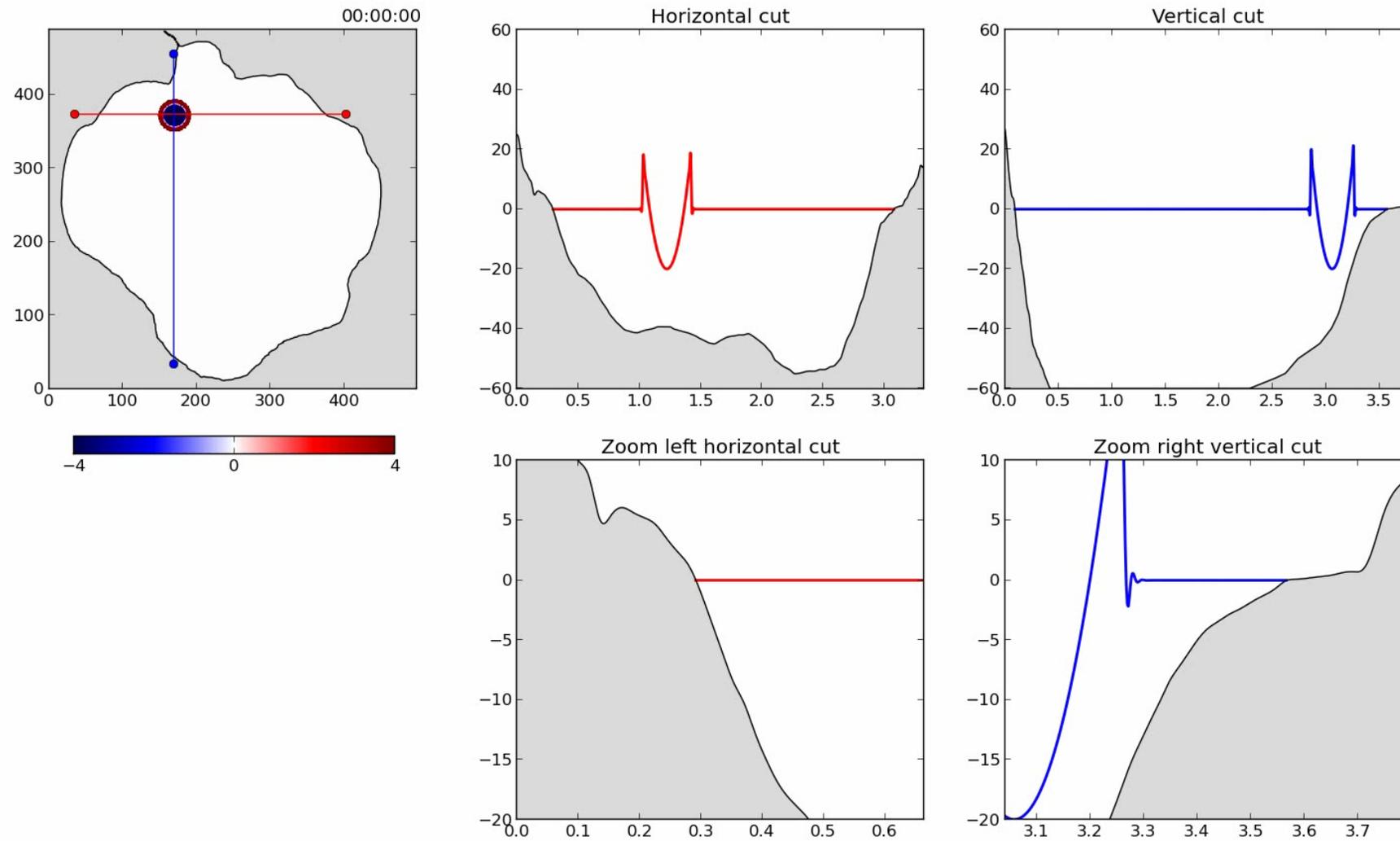


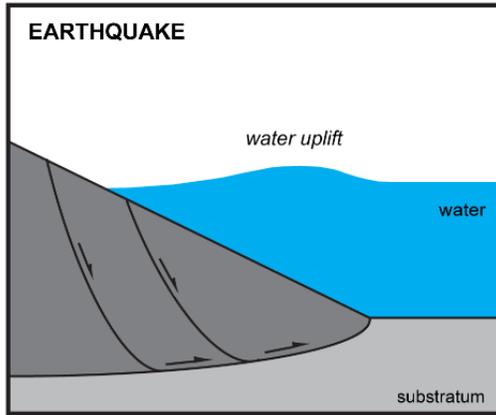
The leading wave (crest) is followed by a trough and a secondary crest. Short-period waves, frequency dispersion

Initial water surface uplift η_0 can be estimated as a function of explosion energy E .



Numerical simulation of the 1996 tsunami in Karymskoye Lake (Kamchatka)





In theory, volcano-tectonic earthquakes (VT) with a magnitude $M_s > 6$ resulting from the accumulation of stress induced by magma ascent may involve ground deformation large enough to generate local tsunamis.

However, it is often difficult to distinguish between the tsunamigenic nature of the VT earthquake itself and its secondary effects such as landslides.

Another scenario :

$M_s > 7$ on large thrust faults at the base of ocean shield volcanoes can generate local tsunami with significant wave amplitude

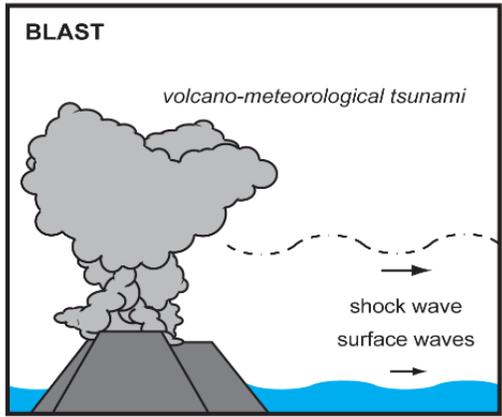
e.g. 1975 Kalapana $M_s = 7.2$ earthquake in Hawaii

-> large-scale slumping/faulting (still debated) of the SE submarine flank of Kilauea volcano

-> 1 m subsidence onshore and 1 m uplift offshore = 2.5 km^3 of water displaced (*Ma et al. 1999*)

-> tsunami runup up to 14 m on SE Hawaii

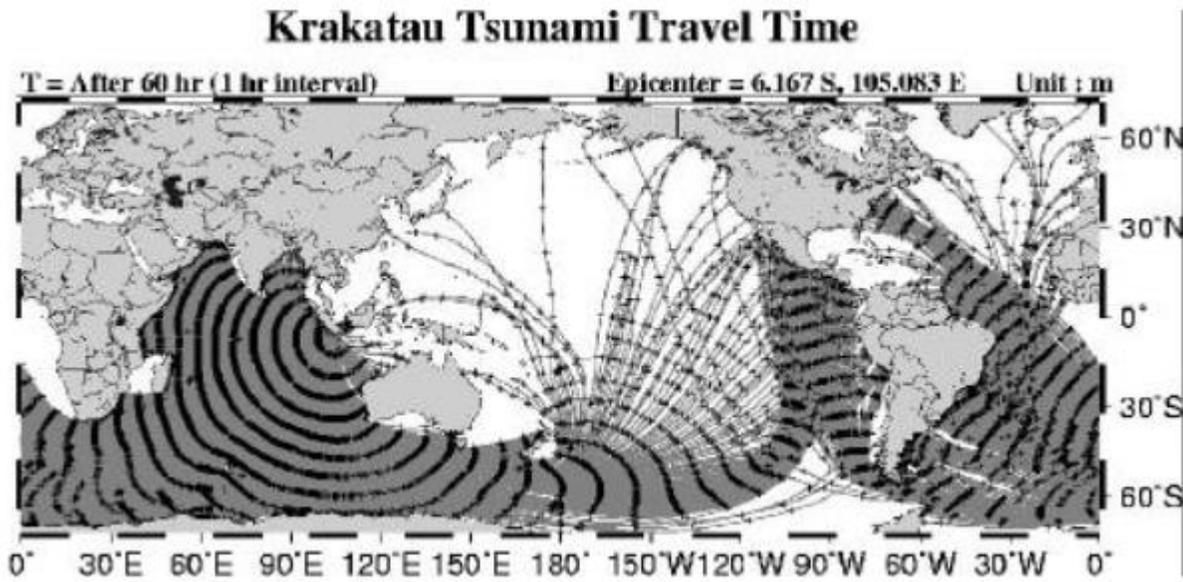




Large explosion -> volcano-meteorological tsunami

Lamb-type atmospheric pressure-forcing (moving source) generates basin-wide tsunamis that jumps over land and travels faster (~ 310 m/s) than usual earthquake-induced tsunamis.

World-wide tsunami following the 1883 August 27 explosion of Krakatau: a predecessor of the 2022 January 15 Tonga tsunami



Pelinovsky et al. 2005

Harkrider & Press 1967

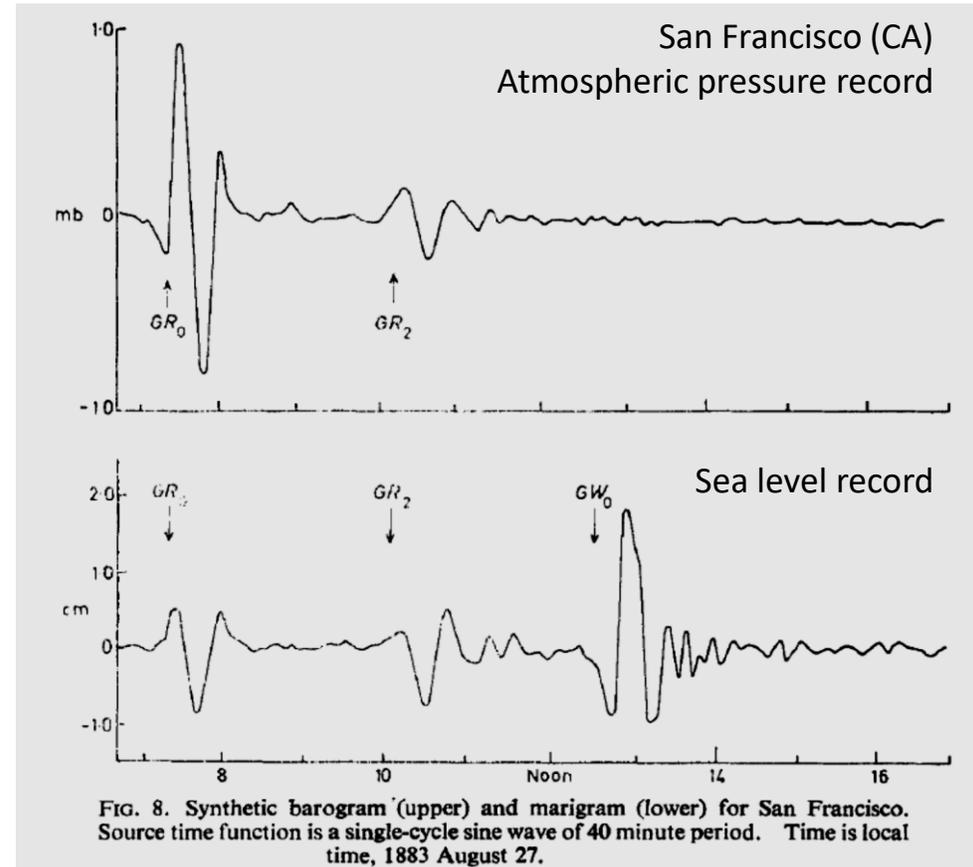


FIG. 8. Synthetic barogram (upper) and marigram (lower) for San Francisco. Source time function is a single-cycle sine wave of 40 minute period. Time is local time, 1883 August 27.

Annex

Other examples of volcanic tsunamis

La catastrophe de 1792, Japon, Kyushu



Tsunami in Ariake Bay generated by the collapse of the Mayuyama peripheral dome during the eruption of Unzen volcano

Precursors: strong seismicity
Aggravating factor: hydrothermal alteration

Volume of collapse:
 $340 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$
(*Michiue et al., 1999*)

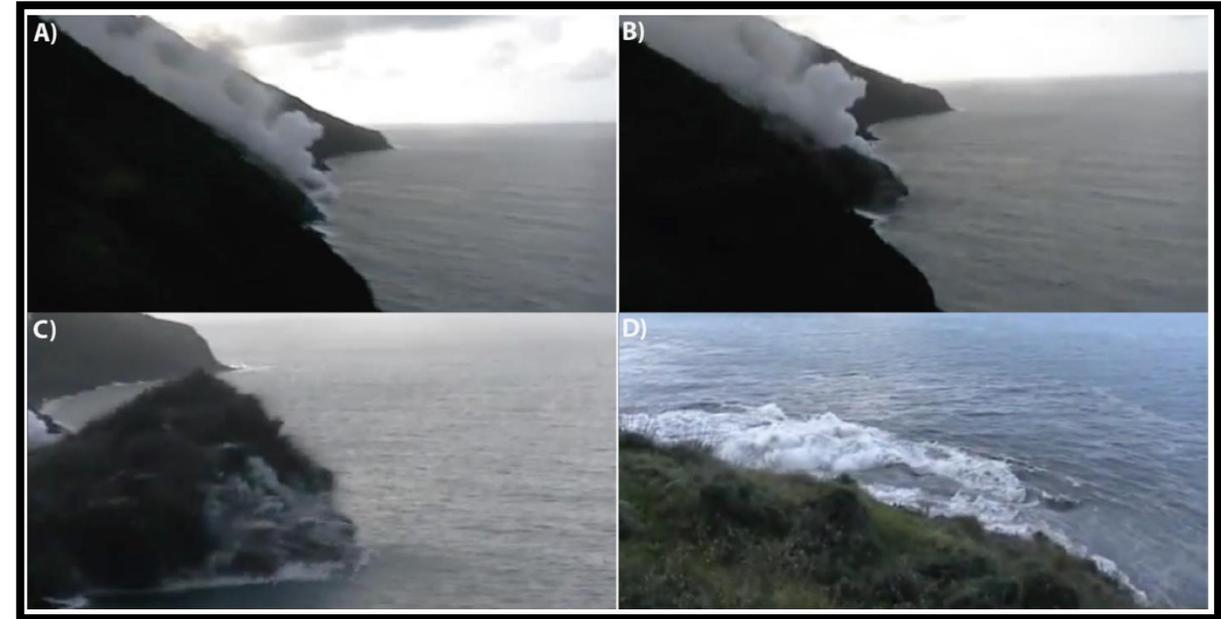
~3 times Krakatau 2018

Tsunami > 10000 fatalities

2nd deadliest natural disaster in Japan with the 2011 Tohoku-oki earthquake and tsunami

← Tsunami inundation map (the first one?) made by Japanese engineers after the disaster

Stromboli volcano (Aeolian Islands, Italy),
December 2002



Unusual explosive activity

$17 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$ landslide on the northern flank
(Tinti *et al.* 2006).

-> tsunami runup 8 m on the coasts of Stromboli, but no fatalities (winter time).

NB- short-period tsunami had a limited impact in the near-field (> 200 km)
(Maramai *et al.* 2005).

Mount Pelée, Martinique, May 1902

Debris flow on May 5, 1902 in the Rivière Blanche, 3 days before the destruction of St Pierre city by a large pyroclastic flow

-> Tsunami waves observed during 15 minutes

- sea retreat 10-30 m
- 15 successive oscillations
- wave amplitude 2-3 m



A unique example of tsunami generated by debris flow.



Fig. 7 19 September 1994 pyroclastic flow entering seawater on the northern flank of Vulcan (photograph taken from the Rabaul Volcano Observatory). Note that no water disturbance is apparent yet

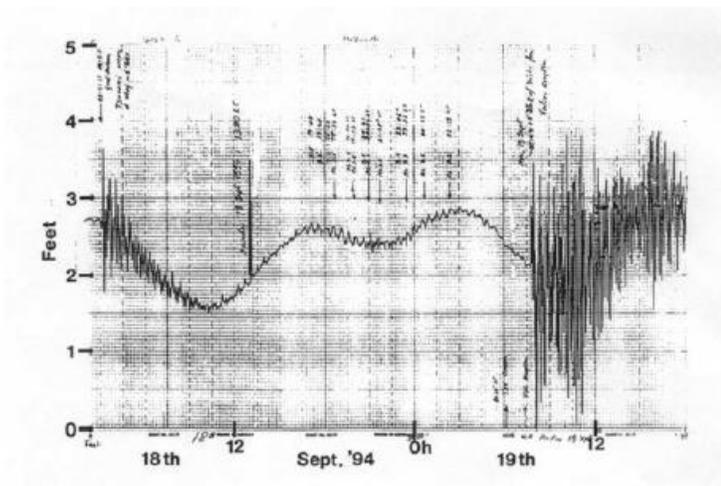


Fig. 2. Tide gauge record at Rabaul, registering two tsunamis. The tsunami that occurred on the morning of September 18th, 1994, was caused by earthquake, and that of September 19th was associated with the eruptive activity of Vulcan volcano. The tide gauge is operated by the Rabaul Volcanological Observatory.

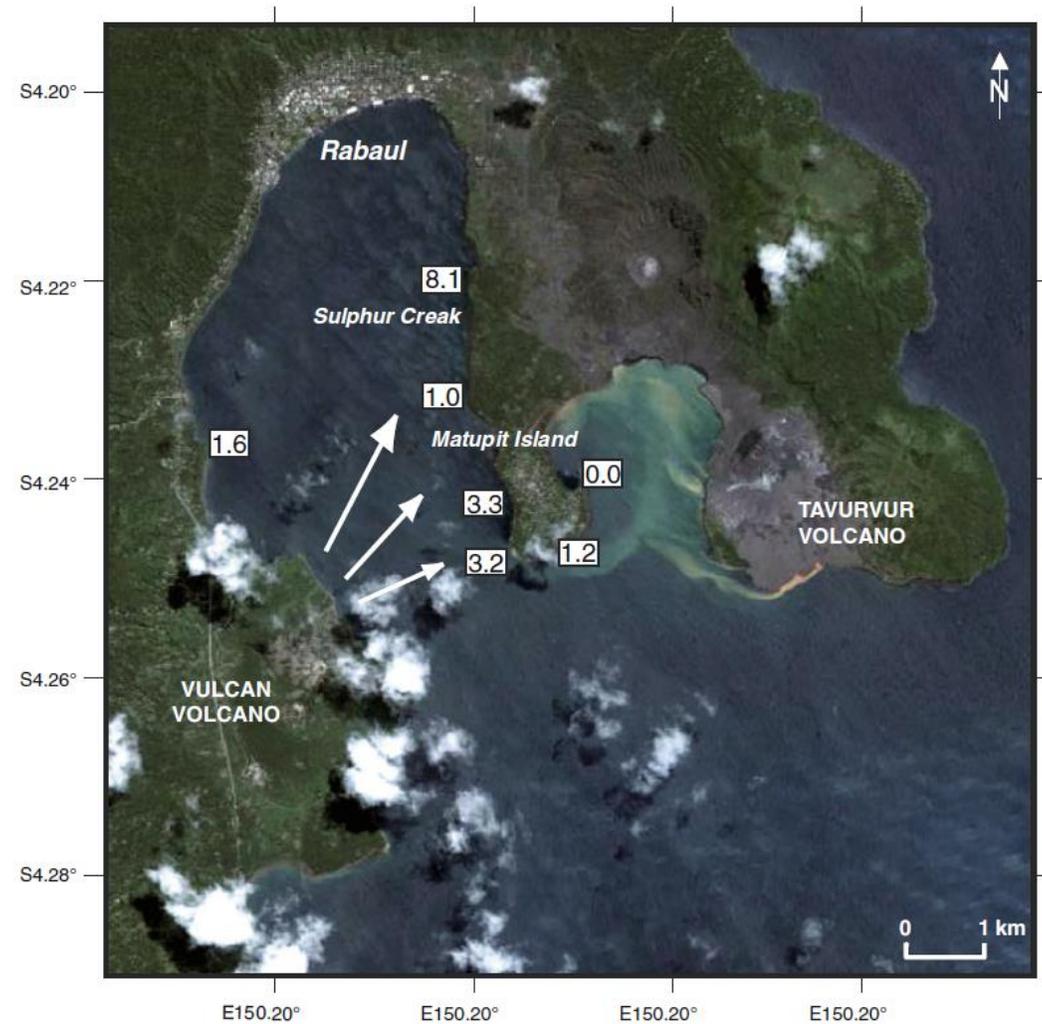


Fig. 6 September 2006 satellite imagery showing the maximum tsunami run-up heights (m a.s.l.) generated by the 1994 Rabaul eruption, Papua New Guinea (modified after Nishimura et al. 2005)