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## Gravitational, erosional and depositional processes on volcanic ocean islands: Insights from the submarine morphology of Madeira Archipelago

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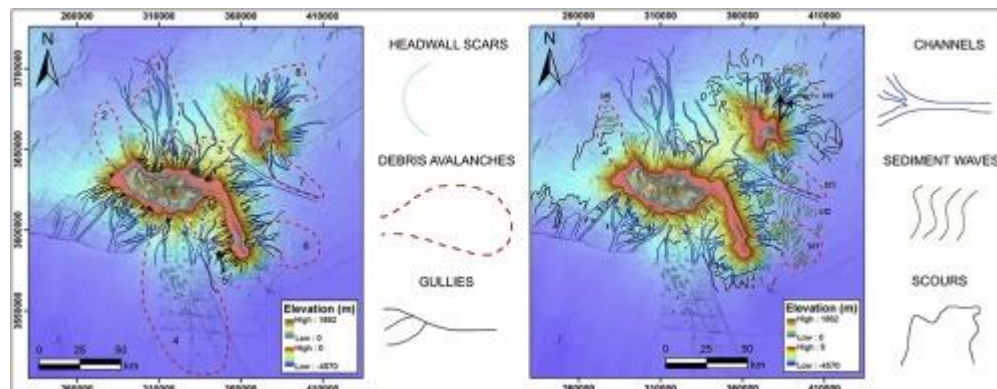
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### Abstract :

The submarine flanks of volcanic ocean islands are shaped by a variety of physical processes. Whilst volcanic constructional processes are relatively well understood, the gravitational, erosional and depositional processes that lead to the establishment of large submarine tributary systems are still poorly comprehended. Until recently, few studies have offered a comprehensive source-to-sink approach, linking subaerial morphology with near-shore shelf, slope and far-field abyssal features. In particular, few studies have addressed how different aspects of the subaerial part of the system (island height, climate, volcanic activity, wave regime, etc.) may influence submarine flank morphologies. We use multibeam bathymetric and backscatter mosaics of an entire archipelago – Madeira – to investigate the development of their submarine flanks. Crucially, this dataset extends from the nearshore to the deep sea, allowing a solid correlation between submarine morphologies with the physical and geological setting of the islands. In this study we also established a comparison with other island settings, which allowed us to further explore the wider implications of the observations. The submarine flanks of the Madeira Archipelago are deeply dissected by large landslides, most of which also affected the subaerial edifices. Below the shelf break, landslide chutes extend downslope forming poorly defined depositional lobes. Around the islands, a large tributary system composed of gullies and channels has formed where no significant rocky/ridge outcrops are present. In Madeira Island these were likely generated by turbidity currents that originated as hyperpycnal flows, whilst on Porto Santo and Desertas their origin is attributed to storm-induced offshore sediment transport. At the lower part of the flanks (–3000 to –4300 m), where seafloor gradients decrease to 0.5°–3°, several scour and sediment wave fields are present, with the former normally occurring upslope of the latter. Sediment waves are often associated with the depositional lobes of the landslides but also occur offshore poorly-developed tributary systems. Sediment wave fields and scours are mostly absent in areas where the tributary systems are well developed and/or are dominated by rocky outcrops. This suggests that scours and sediment wave fields are probably generated by turbidity currents, which

experience hydraulic jumps where seafloor gradients are significantly reduced and where the currents become unconfined. The largest scours were found in areas without upslope channel systems and where wave fields are absent, and are also interpreted to have formed from unconfined turbidity currents. Our observations show that tributary systems are better developed in taller and rainy islands such as Madeira. On low-lying and dry islands such as Porto Santo and Desertas, tributary systems are poorly developed with unconfined turbidite currents favouring the development of scours and sediment wave fields. These observations provide a more comprehensive understanding of which factors control the gravitational, erosional, and depositional features shaping the submarine flanks of volcanic ocean islands.

### Graphical abstract



### Highlights

► Source-to-sink approach to study the submarine flanks of Madeira Archipelago. ► Islands subaerial characteristics control the development of submarine flanks. ► A network of submarine gullies and channels dissects the islands' flanks. ► Their origin is related to hyperpycnal or storm-induced sediment flows. ► Wave and scour fields form downslope of channels by unconfined turbidite currents.

**Keywords** : volcanic ocean islands, Madeira Archipelago, landslides and debris avalanches, gullies and channels, scour and wave fields

## 1 **1 Introduction**

2           The main volume of volcanic islands lies hidden beneath the sea and consequently their  
3 submarine flanks are far less studied than their accessible subaerial parts. The study of the  
4 submarine pedestals of volcanic islands is of great significance, because it can significantly  
5 improve our knowledge of island evolution, particularly if integrated with information on the  
6 development of subaerial edifices (Moore et al., 1989; Masson et al., 2002; Leat et al., 2010;  
7 Quartau and Mitchell, 2013; Saint-Ange et al., 2013; Quartau et al., 2015a). The advent of  
8 modern seafloor surveys during the 1980's, with sidescan and multibeam sonars, allowed the  
9 discovery of large-scale landslides (Moore et al., 1989; Masson et al., 2002), canyons and  
10 turbidite systems (Krastel et al., 2001; Sisavath et al., 2011), and sediment wave (Wynn et al.,  
11 2000a; Hoffmann et al., 2008) and scour fields (Hoffmann et al., 2011). Despite the vast range of  
12 published works, however, few comprehensive source-to-sink studies on ocean island volcanoes  
13 have focused on the development of their submarine flanks (e.g., Saint-Ange et al., 2013).  
14 Moreover, whether based on drilling (Schmincke and Sumita, 1998) or on the characterization of  
15 their submarine morphologies, most studies focus on a single island (Saint-Ange et al., 2013) or  
16 on a single process (Hunt et al., 2014). Consequently, works rarely relate subaerial conditions  
17 and shelf processes with the development of deeper submarine morphologies.

18           In this study, we make use of novel multibeam bathymetric and backscatter mosaics of an  
19 entire archipelago – which crucially extend from the nearshore to the abyssal plains – to gain a  
20 comprehensive insight on the origins of several gravitational, erosional and depositional features  
21 shaping the submarine flanks of volcanic islands. Furthermore, a correlation with the diverse  
22 physiographic conditions and geological evolution of each of the islands, allowed us to  
23 understand how these characteristics conditioned their present-day submarine flank

24 morphologies. The case study of Madeira Archipelago is therefore particularly elucidative  
25 providing a unique insight onto the evolution of the submarine flanks of reefless oceanic  
26 volcanoes.

27

## 28 **2 Regional Setting**

29 Madeira Archipelago is located in the NE Atlantic, ~1000 km SW of the Iberian  
30 Peninsula (Figure 1). It comprises the islands of Madeira (737 km<sup>2</sup>), Porto Santo (42 km<sup>2</sup>), and  
31 Desertas (13 km<sup>2</sup>). The island edifices are the result of intra-plate volcanism on the slow-moving  
32 Nubian plate, leading to a hotspot track extending to the NE (Geldmacher et al., 2000). Although  
33 administratively included in Madeira Archipelago, the Selvagens Islands (~3 km<sup>2</sup>) constitute,  
34 from the geological point of view, a distinct archipelago.

35 Madeira is the youngest island, with volcanism extending from >7 Ma to the Holocene  
36 (Geldmacher et al., 2000; Mata et al., 2013; Ramalho et al., 2015). Subaerial Madeira extends 58  
37 km in the WNW-ESSE direction and has an average width of 15 km (annotation 1 in Figure 2).  
38 The island is an elongated shield volcano, which despite being highly dissected, is largely above  
39 1200 m, reaching a maximum elevation of 1862 m at Pico Ruivo. This configuration of the  
40 island constitutes a barrier to the dominant NE trade winds, causing higher precipitation in the  
41 north-facing slopes (Prada et al., 2005). Notwithstanding this asymmetry, Madeira has a well-  
42 developed and deeply incised subaerial drainage system on both flanks, mostly oriented N-S,  
43 descending on average from 1200 m to sea level in only 6 km. The annual precipitation on  
44 Madeira varies from 600–800 mm on the south coast to 1500–2000 mm on the north, reaching  
45 3000 mm in the higher ranges (Baioni, 2011). Rainfall is often temporally concentrated making



46 the island very prone to flash floods and subaerial landslides (Baioni, 2011). During the flash-  
47 flood of 20<sup>th</sup> February 2010, rainfall attained 500 mm in a single day and the volume of solid  
48 discharge deposited in the Funchal urban area reached  $\sim 250\,000\text{ m}^3$  (Lira et al., 2013).

49 The Madeira-Desertas system is considered to be the expression of two arms of a  
50 volcanic rift intersecting at an angle of  $\sim 110^\circ$  and surrounded by the 200 m isobath (Klügel et al.,  
51 2009). The Desertas Islands (from north to south: Ilhéu Chão, Deserta Grande and Bugio)  
52 correspond to the 50 km-long NNW-SSE trending arm, although their subaerial expression is  
53 only 22 km long (annotation 2 in Figure 2). Effectively, these islands are presently reduced to  
54 very narrow ridges ( $< 2$  km), featuring subaerial aspect ratios (height/width) between 0.2 and 0.6,  
55 clearly the result of strong wave erosion and landsliding. Volcanism leading to the formation of  
56 Desertas shows similarities with Madeira's, although its volcanic activity ceased 1.9 Ma ago  
57 (Schwarz et al., 2005).

58 Porto Santo is separated from the Madeira-Desertas system by a 30 km wide and 2500 m  
59 deep channel (annotation 3 in Figure 2 and Figure 3). It is a much older island (with volcanic  
60 activity restricted to 14-10 Ma), being significantly eroded and lying below 517 m of elevation  
61 (Schmidt and Schmincke, 2002). It has an average annual precipitation  $< 400$  mm, typical of a  
62 semi-arid climate. Streams have an ephemeral character and only flow after heavy rainfall  
63 (Ferreira and Cunha, 1984).

64

### 65 **3 Data and Methods**

66 The comprehensive multibeam mapping around Madeira Archipelago was performed by  
67 the Portuguese Hydrographic Institute (IH) under the programs EMEPC (Estrutura de Missão

68 para a Extensão da Plataforma Continental) and SEDMAR (Sedimentary environment of the  
69 Madeira Archipelago). The intermediate and deeper bathymetry was acquired by IH, between  
70 2005 and 2014, using the Kongsberg EM710 and EM120 multibeam echo-sounders aboard R/Vs  
71 “Almirante Gago Coutinho” and “D. Carlos I”. Multibeam bathymetry of the southern shelves of  
72 Madeira and Porto Santo was also acquired by IH during coastal management projects, between  
73 2003 and 2008, with the Kongsberg EM3000 and EM3002 echo-sounders onboard survey  
74 launches. Multibeam surveys were mostly DGPS-positioned and processed using Caris software  
75 Hips & Sips. Corrections were mostly done by manual editing of data before 2011 and with  
76 CUBE (Combined Uncertainty and Bathymetric Estimator, Calder and Mayer, 2003) after 2011.  
77 Bathymetric data acquired above -200 m included tide corrections based on published tidal  
78 charts. High-resolution digital elevation models were produced with cell-size varying from 2 m  
79 in areas < -100 m to 250 m at -4500 m (Figure 3). Radiometric and geometric corrections were  
80 also applied to the raw data with the Geocoder algorithm implemented in Fledermaus Pro to  
81 build backscatter strength mosaics (Figure 4). Single-beam bathymetry (grid-size of ~230 x ~190  
82 m), from the European Marine Observation and Data Network (EMODnet) project, filled gaps  
83 between multibeam datasets.

84 The multichannel seismic reflection profile was acquired by IFREMER during the  
85 TORE-MADÈRE cruise (25th September – 20th October 2001), using a six- channel streamer at  
86 5 m depth and two GI airguns (105/105 and 45/45 cu in.) at a surface speed of 10 knots (Cornen  
87 et al., 2003). Seismic lines were processed using a spherical divergence correction, a band pass  
88 filter, and stacking of the six channels to improve the signal/noise ratio.

## 90 **4 Results**

91 The features identified on the multibeam bathymetry, backscatter and seismic reflection  
92 datasets allowed mapping the submarine flanks of the archipelago in detail, from the coastline  
93 down to -4500 m. Seafloor interpretation was divided into gravitational (headwall scars of  
94 landslides and respective debris avalanches), erosive (gullies, channels and scour fields), and  
95 depositional morphologies (sediment wave fields).

### 96 4.1 Large landslides

#### 97 4.1.1 NW Madeira

98 This landslide exhibits the largest headwall scar (~22 km in length) of all the identified  
99 shelf edge failures, and is mimicked by an adjacent concave coastline (annotation 1 in Figure 5  
100 and Table 1). It was previously identified based on onshore geomorphology and named “São  
101 Vicente landslide” (Brum da Silveira et al., 2010a). The scar is incised by small gullies (black  
102 lines in Figure 5), a few hundred-metres wide and up to 10 km in length, commonly having a V-  
103 shaped section. They are commonly organized in parallel networks, slightly converging  
104 downslope into three wider and flat-bottomed channels without a marked headwall. The gullies  
105 are restricted to the chute area and their transition into the channels occurs at ~-2000 m,  
106 corresponding to an abrupt change of gradient. The three main channels are each around 60 km  
107 in length, with widths varying from 1 to 5 km. They divert inside a somewhat lobate area with an  
108 irregular seafloor punctuated by some large blocks between -3000 m and -4000 m. The blocks  
109 are irregular, with varying sizes, from a few hundred metres to a few kilometres in diameter. The  
110 largest is 3 km in diameter and rises 0.6 km above the surrounding seafloor. The seismic line  
111 Torem060 (Figure 6) crosses these channels and shows an irregular and sometimes hyperbolic

112 seafloor reflection between shots 2350 and 3250 (Figure 6). This irregular surface corresponds in  
113 depth to a single chaotic seismic unit (~250 ms thick), interpreted as a debris avalanche. Around  
114 shot 2350, this unit is abruptly replaced by a well-stratified unit along a plane dipping ~20° to the  
115 NW. The three main channels widen and give way to a braided channel system only perceptible  
116 in the backscatter imagery (Figure 4). Here, high backscatter values suggest the channel filling  
117 by coarser sediments, dissecting normal pelagic sedimentation (seen in the seismic line as well-  
118 defined and rhythmic reflections between shots 2000 and 2350).

#### 119 4.1.2 NNW Madeira

120 This landslide is inferred by the slightly concave configuration of the shelf edge,  
121 featuring a ~8 km wide headwall scar and downslope by a somewhat lobate debris avalanche  
122 deposit (annotation 2 in Figure 5 and Table 1). The surface of this deposit is dissected by scour  
123 fields from 12 to 25 km of the scar, evolving to a sediment wave field that extends up to 43 km  
124 offshore (see sections 4.3 and 4.4 and Figure 7).

#### 125 4.1.3 NE Madeira

126 This landslide is inferred by the concave configuration of the shelf edge, which features a  
127 ~20 km wide headwall scar (annotation 3 in Figure 5 and Table 1). Onshore, the coastline  
128 mimics this concave configuration, exhibiting steep cliffs up to 700 m high. This landslide had  
129 been previously proposed by Geldmacher et al. (2000) and named “Porto da Cruz landslide” by  
130 Brum da Silveira et al. (2010a). The shelf break is incised by small gullies that form three main  
131 channels further offshore.

## 132 4.1.4 SE Madeira

133 This landslide is inferred by the hummocky seafloor morphology that extends ~100 km  
134 from the shelf break (annotation 4 in Figure 5 and Table 1). Some of these reliefs correspond to a  
135 NNW-SSE, ~60 km long alignment of submarine volcanic cones, named as the “Funchal  
136 Volcanic Ridge” by Klügel and Klein (2006). However, within this ~100 km strip, several  
137 features exhibit irregular shapes, typical of blocks from a large debris avalanche deposit.  
138 Onshore, the morphology corresponds to a wide amphitheatre. This feature has been interpreted  
139 as a subaerial scar of a flank collapse (named “Funchal landslide”), which has been covered by  
140 recent volcanism of the Upper Volcanic Complex (Brum da Silveira et al., 2010b; Ramalho et  
141 al., 2015). The shelf break is incised by small V-shaped gullies, a few hundred-metres wide and  
142 up to 2-3 km in length. These are generally organized in sub-parallel networks, slightly  
143 converging downslope into several wider and flat-bottomed channels without a marked headwall.  
144 This channel system is diverted around seafloor irregularities (cones and blocks) and ends  
145 gradually around 30-60 km from the shelf break.

## 146 4.1.5 SW Desertas

147 This landslide is inferred from a ~10 km wide concave incision of the shelf break,  
148 roughly mimicked by the arcuate coastline of the adjacent Deserta Grande (annotation 5 in  
149 Figure 5 and Table 1). Downslope of the headwall scar, there is a mid-slope bench at -400 m,  
150 where three U-shaped, 1-2 km-wide channels originate. These channels run perpendicular to the  
151 slope (WSW-ENE) for ~19 km where they merge into a larger channel oriented roughly N-S  
152 coming from SE Madeira.

## 153 4.1.5 SE Desertas

154 This landslide is also inferred from the concave morphology of the shelf break and by the  
155 arcuate coastline of Bugio (annotation 6 in Figure 5 and Table 1). The headwall scar is ~9 km  
156 wide, adjacent to a wide chute area incised by small gullies. At around -2000 m and 6 km from  
157 the shelf edge, the gullies stem into a series of small parallel channels less than 1 km wide, which  
158 incise the seafloor up to 20 km offshore. At the end of the channels there are some scours  
159 perpendicular to the channels' direction, followed by a large wave field (see sections 4.3 and 4.4  
160 and Figure 7). The entire system (channel, scours and wave fields) exhibits a somewhat lobate  
161 shape.

## 162 4.1.6 S S Porto Santo

163 This landslide is also inferred by the concave shelf break with a ~10 km wide headwall  
164 scar, backed by a coastline mimicking the arcuate shelf edge (annotation 7 in Figure 5 and Table  
165 1). Below the shelf break, there is a wide chute area of 5-6 km in length stemming into a system  
166 of channels at its base. The westernmost channel discharges on a larger channel that collects  
167 sediments from other smaller channels dissecting the NE slopes of Desertas. This main channel  
168 marks the SW border of a lobate feature containing the landslide chute, channels, scours, and  
169 wave fields (Figures 5 and 7).

## 170 4.1.6 N Porto Santo

171 This landslide has a very arcuate headwall scar, ~9 km wide that gives away downslope  
172 to a series of divergent gullies and channels (annotation 8 in Figure 5 and Table 1). The areas  
173 between the channels are extremely scoured whilst the channels are filled with rhythmic waves  
174 (see sections 4.3 and 4.4 and Figure 7).

## 175 4.2 Gullies and Channels

176 The submarine flanks of Madeira, Desertas, and Porto Santo are extensively incised by  
177 numerous gullies and channels (Figure 5). These can be easily distinguished in the backscatter  
178 mosaic, showing linear features with high backscatter values (corresponding to coarser  
179 sediments) relative to the surrounding environment (Figure 4). The shelf edge around the islands  
180 often exhibits small headscars that stem into one or more gullies, suggesting continuous headwall  
181 erosion and transport downslope. The gullies are located on the steepest upper submarine flanks  
182 of the islands (gradients  $>15^\circ$ ); they are V-shaped in cross-section and can be up to 5-10 km in  
183 length and a few hundred metres wide. They can either be parallel or dendritic, but the later  
184 dominates, normally converging into U-shaped channels. The channels develop normally at  
185 gradients lower than  $15^\circ$ , commonly with parallel to dendritic pattern. The dendritic channels  
186 often converge downslope into a larger main channel, whilst the parallel ones remain with that  
187 configuration or in some cases diverge, forming fan-shaped systems. The smaller and upper  
188 channels are ~500 m-wide, but the lower and wider ones can reach 5 km in width and extend up  
189 to 60-70 km from the shelf break (as in NW Madeira). These channel systems are well developed  
190 on the northern and southern submarine flanks of Madeira, and in the area between Desertas and  
191 Porto Santo. They are less developed on the W and E slopes of Desertas and the NE and E of  
192 Porto Santo. They are absent on the NNW Madeira and in the NW, W, and SW slopes of Porto  
193 Santo. In the NW and SE of Madeira, the channels are deflected by large irregularities on the  
194 seafloor. SW of Madeira, the channel system probably extends much further than we can  
195 disclose (~35 km), but the lack of multibeam bathymetry in this area prevented mapping the  
196 entire system.

### 197 4.3 Sediment wave fields

198 Sediment wave fields are found East of Desertas, SE and NE of Porto Santo and, NNW  
199 of Madeira (Figure 7). Their wave length generally increases with increasing water depths  
200 (Figure 8 and Table 2).

#### 201 4.3.1 East of Desertas

202 At Desertas, sediment wave fields are present on their eastern slopes below -3000 m and  
203 where gradients are  $<5^\circ$  (Figures 7 and 8). At this depth, the channels that incise the slope of  
204 Desertas gradually disappear and give way to scours. Thus, the scours constitute a gradual  
205 transition to the wave fields, making them difficult to separate in some places. Immediately  
206 below the transitional area (at -3000 to -3800 m and gradients  $2.9^\circ$ - $3.7^\circ$ ), the bedforms exhibit  
207 wave lengths of 1350-2000 m and wave heights of 150-350 m. Below -3800 m and, down to -  
208 4300 m, seafloor gradients decrease from  $2^\circ$  to  $0.6^\circ$  and the bedforms become widely spaced  
209 (1900-4200 m) and taller(500-1400 m). Generally, these bedforms show sinuous and often  
210 undulating crestlines in plan-view and are upslope asymmetrical in cross-section (according to  
211 the classification of Symons et al., 2016). The stoss sides slope shoreward, and are normally less  
212 steep and shorter than the lee sides that slope seaward. However, examples of downslope  
213 asymmetrical cross-sections are also found showing stoss sides sloping seaward. There are  
214 mainly two fields of bedforms, one in front of the eastern landslide headwall scar(bf1 in Figure  
215 7) and another (bf2 in Figure 7) that extends downslope at the end of a series of parallel channels  
216 (Figure 5).



## 217 4.3.2 SE Porto Santo

218 SE of Porto Santo, the wave fields occur on top of a volcanoclastic bulge with lobate-  
219 shape (bf3 in Figures 7 and 8). The bedforms also occur downslope of scours, showing a  
220 transition from well-developed scours to more rhythmic bedforms. The bedforms develop  
221 between -3400 m and -4000 m at seafloor gradients  $< 2.4^\circ$ . Generally, these bedforms show less  
222 sinuous crestlines in plan-view and are downslope asymmetrical in cross-section.

## 223 4.3.3 NE Porto Santo

224 NE of Porto Santo bedforms develop in two settings (Figures 7 and 8). Some bedforms  
225 can be found inside channels (indicated by arrows and bf4 in Figure 7) and others (bf5 in Figure  
226 7) on top of a volcanoclastic bulge with a lobate-shape. In both cases there are no scours upslope  
227 of the bedforms.

228 On top of the bulge, bedforms occur at -3300 m to -3600 m, on seafloor gradients of  $1.4^\circ$ ,  
229 with wave lengths of 1300-2400m and wave heights of 4-16m. They show somewhat crescent  
230 upslope crestlines in plan-view and are downslope asymmetrical in cross-section.

231 Inside the channels, bedforms occur at -3000 m to -3500 m, in seafloor gradients of  $1.2^\circ$ -  
232  $1.9^\circ$ , with wave lengths of 600-2000 m and wave heights of 2-17 m. They show crescent  
233 downslope crests in plan-view and have both downslope and upslope asymmetry in cross-  
234 section. On the shallower sections of the channels, bedforms probably also exist but the  
235 resolution of the bathymetry does not allow the identification of these features.

## 236 4.3.4 NNW Madeira

237 Here the bedforms develop on top of a lobate body, stemming from an arcuate scar (bf 6  
238 in Figure 7) at the shelf edge. The bedforms occur between -3400 m to -3700 m on a seafloor

239 with gradients between 0.8-1.9°. Upslope, they are bounded by a series of sinuous scours that can  
240 extend up to -3000 m. The bedforms show an almost linear shape in plan view and are upslope  
241 asymmetrical in cross-section.

#### 242 4.4 Scours

243 The term scour is used here to denote erosional bedforms, often characterized by  
244 enclosed depressions (Wynn et al., 2002; Symons et al., 2016). They were identified in the  
245 bathymetry as headwall scars mostly transverse to the main slope, being generally deeper  
246 downslope of the headwall. Being abundant on the lower slopes of Madeira Archipelago (Figure  
247 7), these features were found in four different settings: (1) between the channel systems and the  
248 wave fields (e.g., E of Desertas and SE of Porto Santo); (2) at the end of the gully/channel  
249 systems but without offshore wave fields (e.g., N, NW and E of Porto Santo and around the  
250 southern tip of Desertas), (3) where no channel system exists (e.g., NNW and SSW of Madeira,  
251 the latter displaying the largest scours); and; (4) on ridges between the channels (e.g., S and NE  
252 of Madeira).

253 These structures display mostly linear to sinuous shapes in plan-view. The sinuous ones  
254 are commonly rectangular or U-shaped in plan-view and seem to be formed by coalescing  
255 individual scours. The coalescing scours feature headwalls up to 10-30 km in width, 20 km in  
256 length and 200 m deep (e.g., SW of Madeira). Individual scours can be less than 1 km in width  
257 and length, and 10-20 m deep. Smaller scours were not mapped because they fall beyond the  
258 resolution of bathymetry. All scours occur within the same depth range (-3000 to -4300m) and  
259 seafloor gradients (0.5°-3°) as the wave fields.

260

## 261 **5 Discussion**

### 262 5.1 Large landslides

263 It has been proposed that the occurrence of large landslides (involving volumes in excess  
264 of  $1 \text{ km}^3$  or areas over a few hundreds of  $\text{km}^2$ , Siebert, 1984; Paris et al., 2018) is controlled by  
265 edifice elevation and topography of individual islands (Mitchell, 2003). Here we explore our  
266 observations of large landslides in Madeira Archipelago and set these in the context of other  
267 volcanic islands.

268 Eight large landslides were identified and most of them exhibit: (i) well-defined  
269 amphitheatres at their source regions; (ii) well defined chute areas of up to 10 km in length and 2  
270 km in height; and (iii) debris avalanche fields with somewhat lobate shapes, albeit being  
271 significantly incised by channel systems. Some of these slide deposits still exhibit hummocky  
272 morphologies with mega blocks up to 2 km wide (NW and SE Madeira). Additionally, with the  
273 exception of the landslides inferred SE of Madeira and N of Porto Santo, all sites exhibit concave  
274 coastlines mimicking the arcuate shelf break scars. It must be noted, however, that the SE  
275 Madeira landslide probably also created an arcuate coastline – corresponding to the “Funchal  
276 amphitheatre” – but the area has subsequently been covered by post-collapse volcanism (Brum  
277 da Silveira et al., 2010a). The western lateral ramp of this landslide probably corresponds to the  
278 erosional unconformity observed at Cabo Girão between the Middle and the Upper Volcanic  
279 Complexes and thus it must pre-date the Lombos Unit of the Upper Volcanic Complex ( $\sim 1.8 \text{ Ma}$ ,  
280 Brum da Silveira et al., 2010a). Nevertheless, the size and extent of the debris avalanche deposits  
281 (larger than the NW landslide) suggest a greater volume than the one implied by Brum da  
282 Silveira et al. (2010a). Thus, we do not exclude the possibility that this avalanche debris  
283 corresponds to an earlier and larger event than the “Funchal landslide”. Otherwise the Funchal

284 ridge ( $< 3$  Ma, according to Geldmacher et al., 2006) would have been buried by the debris  
285 avalanche flow.

286         The presence of arcuate shorelines is a testimony that these major landslides most likely  
287 affected the subaerial and submarine portions of the volcanic edifices. Subsequently, the incision  
288 of the island flanks by waves during Quaternary glacio-eustatic sea level-oscillations produced  
289 the observed shelves ( $> 1$  km wide). In the Azores, such wide shelves were produced over  
290 several hundreds of thousands of years (Quartau et al., 2010; Quartau et al., 2012; Quartau et al.,  
291 2014; Quartau et al., 2015b; 2016). Therefore, we suspect that all these major landslides are also  
292 at least several hundreds of thousands of years, since they show at least one of the following  
293 features: (1) well-developed channel systems in front of their chutes, incising the debris  
294 avalanche deposits; (2) relatively wide-shelves ( $> 1$  km) in front of the arcuate coastlines, and (3)  
295 filling by post-collapse volcanism, dating at least several hundreds of thousands of years (Brum  
296 da Silveira et al., 2010a; 2010b).

297         Madeira Island landslides are the largest of the archipelago (Table 1) and have  
298 dimensions of the same order of magnitude of those reported for the Canaries (Table 1 at Acosta  
299 et al., 2003). They are also similar to the landslides in Hawaii with the exception of the three  
300 largest ones (North Kauai, Nuuanu at Oahu, and Wailau at Molokai), which are three to six times  
301 larger than the SE Madeira landslide (Table 1 at Moore et al., 1989). Landslides at Porto Santo  
302 and Desertas are, however, smaller than the ones at Madeira. Thus, this study also suggests that  
303 there is a clear relationship between landslide dimension and island sizes/topography, as it  
304 happens in other archipelagos. Mitchell (2003) also suggested that landslides are more common  
305 in edifices taller than 2500 m. Landslides with dimensions similar to the smaller ones at Hawaii  
306 and Canaries, however, also occur at Porto Santo and Desertas, which are islands that clearly

307 never reached such heights. Further studies are therefore needed to understand exactly which  
308 conditions favour these catastrophic events at Madeira Archipelago and on other island settings.

## 309 5.2 Gullies and channels

310 The submarine network of gullies and channels is very well developed N and S of  
311 Madeira and between Desertas and Porto Santo where channels from both islands converge into  
312 a larger main channel. The parallel gullies (V-shaped) in the upper slope converge downslope  
313 into wider and flat-bottomed channelized features (U-shaped). In turn, these structures also tend  
314 to converge into one or more larger channels, with transition from gullies to channels occurring  
315 at gradients smaller than  $15^\circ$ . The increase in width downslope could be the result of lateral  
316 erosion predominating over vertical incision. This and the decrease of gradients could promote  
317 deceleration of the flows and consequent sediment infilling of the seafloor creating the U-shaped  
318 drainage system. The pathways of these features are strongly influenced by the presence of rocky  
319 outcrops. Consequently, this tributary system is absent where protruding rocky outcrops and  
320 bulge areas are abundant such as to the W of Porto Santo and NNW of Madeira. It is also poorly  
321 developed to the NE of Madeira. To the NW and SE of Madeira, the channels, albeit being well-  
322 developed, are diverted around obstacles such as the volcanic cones and collapsed blocks.

323 According to Krastel et al. (2001), submarine drainage in Gran Canaria and Tenerife  
324 (Canaries) was initiated by flash floods that crossed the island shelf as hyperpycnal flows. When  
325 these flows reached the steep upper slopes of the islands, they accelerated and carved proto-  
326 gullies aligned with the subaerial drainage. Other studies provided similar interpretations for the  
327 formation of submarine drainage at Tenerife, El Hierro (Mitchell et al., 2003), La Gomera  
328 (Llanes et al., 2009) and Réunion Islands (Mazuel et al., 2016). When volcanic activity wanes,  
329 abrasion and widening of the insular shelf prevents the direct stream discharge on the insular

330 slope and the development of the submarine drainage diminishes (Mitchell et al., 2003).  
331 However, the submarine drainage once initiated is probably continued by exceptional erosive  
332 sediment flows coming from onshore, and reaching the upper slopes of the islands and/or by  
333 failures of the gullies' walls (where gradients reach  $>15^\circ$ ). In either case, downslope eroding  
334 flows such as turbidites, are probably responsible for the development of the submarine drainage.

335         The three main factors controlling sediment supply and transport offshore volcanic  
336 islands are, in decreasing importance, volcanic activity, climate and sea-level changes (Krastel et  
337 al., 2001). Turbidites are more likely formed during flank collapses and syn-eruptive mass flows  
338 (e.g., pyroclastic flows, lahars) (Manville et al., 2009). Hence, sedimentation rates in the slope  
339 apron are likely to be highest during phases of high volcanic activity and decrease during non-  
340 eruptive phases (Carey and Schneider, 2011). When volcanic activity wanes, subaerial erosion  
341 increases and gullies evolve into streams bringing terrigenous sediments to the shelf (Saint-Ange  
342 et al., 2013). Steeper slopes and high precipitation rates result in stronger erosion that generates  
343 hyperpycnal flows, which are capable of transporting riverine sediments across the shelf onto the  
344 edge (Mazuel et al., 2016). An additional important source of material is the reworking of  
345 unconsolidated volcanoclastic material previously deposited in the marine environment, termed  
346 'secondary volcanoclastic turbidites' (Carey and Schneider, 2011). Storm waves are able to  
347 transport large amounts of nearshore sediments into the shelf edge and upper slopes of the  
348 islands (Tsutsui et al., 1987). The initiation of submarine gravity flows by storm waves is  
349 recognised on continental margins where narrow shelves exist and canyon heads incise most of  
350 the shelf (e.g. at La Jolla and Monterey canyons, Piper and Normark, 2009). Sediments deposited  
351 progressively nearby the canyon heads or the outer shelf during floods can become unstable and  
352 fail when a loading threshold is reached (Mazuel et al., 2016). Shelf storage also controls the flux

353 of turbidites to the deep sea: in principle, sea-level highstands favour the accumulation of  
354 sediments on the shelf, whereas sea-level lowstands are expected to result in important  
355 sedimentary remobilization and transport towards the deeper parts of aprons (Carey and  
356 Schneider, 2011). According to cores in Figures 8 and 10 of Hunt et al. (2013), there are 9  
357 volcanoclastic turbidites originated at Madeira and/or Desertas between 34 ka and 106 ka, which  
358 gives a recurrence time of 8 kyrs for large turbidite emplacement. Given the age uncertainties  
359 and that turbidites were emplaced during interglacial (MIS 5) and glacial (MIS 3 and 4) periods  
360 (when sea-level rose and fell), a correlation between higher productivity of turbidites related to  
361 glacio-isostatic changes is impossible to establish.

362         The islands composing Madeira Archipelago are markedly different concerning their age,  
363 subaerial height and morphology, and precipitation rates. Madeira is a young and tall island  
364 (almost 2000 m), with extremely incised and high gradient streams, precipitation values up to  
365 3000 mm/year and a known history of flash-floods. These characteristics contrast greatly with  
366 the low islands of Porto Santo and Desertas, which feature poorly developed streams, low  
367 precipitation rates and did not experience recent volcanism. Unfortunately additional studies  
368 presenting high resolution submarine data as Madeira Archipelago and Réunion Island do not  
369 exist, precluding a better discussion on the factors controlling the size of the submarine tributary  
370 systems. Nevertheless, some inferences can be drawn based on the diverse islands at Madeira  
371 Archipelago. The size of the respective submarine tributary system is apparently controlled by  
372 the relatively age of the islands' subaerial topography, and their precipitation rates. Turbidites  
373 derived directly from volcanic eruptions are unlikely in Madeira Island because volcanism is  
374 dominantly effusive (Geldmacher et al., 2000; Brum da Silveira et al., 2010a). Thus, during  
375 flash-floods in Madeira, sediments probably reach the edge of the shelf as hyperpycnal flows,

376 feeding the gullies and promoting their development. Unfortunately, with exception of the 2010  
377 flash-flood episode, there are no records of sediment concentrations and discharge from streams  
378 at Madeira Archipelago. The same process is inferred to explain the well-developed  
379 volcanoclastic deep-sea fans around Réunion Island (Sisavath et al., 2012; Babonneau et al.,  
380 2013; Mazuel et al., 2016). These are larger (100-300 km long) than those of Madeira Island  
381 because Réunion is taller (~3000 m), subjected to heavier rainfall (>5000 mm/year), and exposed  
382 to tropical cyclones. On the older Porto Santo and Desertas islands, which do not exhibit well-  
383 developed onshore drainage networks, storm-induced offshore currents are likely the only  
384 process delivering sediments to the upper slopes. Such mechanism possibly explains the  
385 triggering of small-scale mass-wasting at the shelf edge at Oahu (Tsutsui et al., 1987) and in the  
386 Azores (Quartau et al., 2012; Meireles et al., 2013). Data acquisition of shelf currents and river  
387 discharge is fundamental to support these inferences and therefore further research is needed to  
388 fully understand a possible relationship between stream sediment discharge (and consequently  
389 the maturity of drainage networks) and shelf sediment dynamics.

390         The submarine drainage in Madeira Archipelago is also present on top of debris flow  
391 fields, being more developed where these fields are larger. This is because collapse scars  
392 commonly act as traps for subsequent sedimentation, leading to enhanced sedimentation rates  
393 and increasing the risk of further landslides at the shelf edge (Masson et al., 2006).

### 394         5.3 Sediment wave fields

395         Wave-like features were only found East of Desertas, SE and NE of Porto Santo and  
396 NNW of Madeira (Figure 7). They can be classified into three main types according to their  
397 setting: (1) wave fields associated to depositional lobes as in the cases of the major landslides of  
398 NNW Madeira, E of Desertas, and SE and NE of Porto Santo; (2) wave fields downstream of the



399 gullies and channels system E of Desertas and; (3) wave fields inside channels, N of Porto Santo  
400 (indicated by arrows in Figure 7). These bedforms generally have wave heights over 9 m (and up  
401 to 94 m) and wave lengths exceeding 600 m (and up to 4000 m).

402         Undulated bedforms are normally generated by bottom currents, either from downslope-  
403 flowing turbidity currents or from alongslope-flowing currents (Wynn and Stow, 2002). They  
404 can also be formed by soft sediment deformation (e.g. extensional faults or creep folds, Wynn  
405 and Stow, 2002). Most of these bedforms occur seaward of the large landslides and are could be  
406 compressional features of their debris avalanche deposits, forming poorly-defined depositional  
407 distal lobes. In order to distinguish the processes involved in bedform formation, high-resolution  
408 seismic reflection and bathymetric data as well as sediment sampling would be required (Wynn  
409 and Stow, 2002). However, only high-resolution bathymetry is available for this study, which  
410 precludes an interpretation of the wave-forming process. Nevertheless, bedforms with these  
411 characteristics (over 6 m height and 300 m wave lengths) are considered large sediment waves,  
412 typically located in relatively unconfined settings and composed of fine-grained sediment  
413 (Symons et al., 2016). In Madeira Archipelago these features share common characteristics; (1)  
414 they occur within the same depth range (3000-4300m); (2) their crest-lines are always roughly  
415 perpendicular to the maximum slope direction; (3) most of them are located where the channel  
416 systems end; and, (4) they are located where the seafloor gradients significantly decrease to 0.5°-  
417 3°. Thus, the wave fields were probably generated at the base of the island flanks by deeper  
418 unconfined turbidity currents. In addition, the sinuous morphologies are normally found on  
419 bedforms generated by flows rather than slope failures (Wynn and Stow, 2002; Symons et al.,  
420 2016). These flows were probably initially constrained within the gullies and channels but  
421 rapidly became unconfined downslope where the drainage systems open, spreading out over

422 wide areas. Where channel systems are well developed, the flows are confined, and sediment  
423 waves do not form (e.g., N and S of Madeira). Wave fields with similar characteristics (wave  
424 height and lengths) have been found in other volcanic environments such as the Aeolian  
425 (Casalbore et al., 2014), Canaries (Wynn et al., 2000a), Cape Verde (Masson et al., 2008),  
426 Selvagens (Wynn et al., 2000b), and Reunion islands (Mazuel et al., 2016), and were mostly  
427 interpreted to have a similar origin. Bedforms with such wave heights and wave lengths are  
428 believed to be the result of cyclic steps formed by turbidity currents. Deposition occurs  
429 predominantly on the upslope flank and erosion on the downslope flank, resulting in the up-  
430 current migration of the bedform crests (Cartigny et al., 2011). The reduction of slope gradients  
431 at -3000 to -4300 m would probably force the flow to pass the hydraulic jump, during which its  
432 velocity would be reduced significantly and deposition would occur, favouring the development  
433 of these bedforms. Other wave fields found in the South Sandwich (Leat et al., 2010) and  
434 Bismarck volcanic arcs (Hoffmann et al., 2008; Hoffmann et al., 2011) were interpreted as  
435 formed by both mechanisms (turbidity currents and seafloor deformation). Thus, our preference  
436 for the turbidite hypothesis is not strongly supported at this stage without further data.

#### 437 5.4 Scours

438 All these features occur within the same depth range (3000-4300m) and seafloor  
439 gradients ( $0.5^{\circ}$ - $3^{\circ}$ ). There are however some differences in their setting. East of Desertas they are  
440 located immediately downslope of the channel systems and upslope of the sediment wave fields.  
441 Around Porto Santo they normally lay downslope of the channel systems. Given that the  
442 sediment wave fields are hypothesized to be formed by hydraulic jumps driven by significant  
443 reduction of seafloor gradients, it is likely that the scours have a similar origin. Unconfined  
444 turbidity currents suffer the first significant hydraulic jump due to the reduction of slope

445 gradients, promoting erosion of the seafloor sediment cover (Mutti and Normark, 1987). Scours  
446 were also found W, SW, and S of Madeira where no channels exist or in ridges between  
447 channels. These are normally the largest scours, suggesting that in places where the turbidity  
448 currents have no constrain, they have a higher erosive power. Similar features have been found  
449 in other volcanic environments such as the Bismarck volcanic arc (Hoffmann et al., 2011), South  
450 Sandwich volcanic arc (Leat et al., 2010) and Reunion islands (Saint-Ange et al., 2013) where  
451 they are also attributed to the action of turbidity currents.

452

## 453 **6 Conclusions**

454       Once built, the submarine flanks of volcanic ocean islands are shaped by a variety of  
455 physical processes that leads to the establishment of large submarine tributary systems that  
456 extend to the abyssal plains. These gravitational, erosional, and depositional processes, however,  
457 are still poorly understood, and so are many of the morphologies associated to such tributary  
458 systems. In particular, it is still not clear how distinct morpho-climatic conditions of individual  
459 volcanic islands influence erosion and deposition in their submarine. To address this problem,  
460 we performed a comprehensive overlook at the gravitational, erosional, and depositional  
461 processes affecting the submarine flanks of an entire archipelago, using a high-resolution dataset  
462 covering from the nearshore to the abyssal plains. This study is therefore one of the few to offer  
463 a comprehensive source-to-sink approach in the study of submarine tributary systems, linking  
464 different island subaerial morphologies and physiographic conditions with near-shore shelf,  
465 slope, and far-field abyssal features. Additionally to being the first morphological description of  
466 the seafloor around Madeira, Porto Santo, and Desertas Islands, this study allowed a comparison

467 with other archipelagos, showing how distinct island characteristics promote diverse submarine  
468 evolutions.

469       Especially outstanding is the finding of landslide scars and respective deposits produced  
470 by huge subaerial and submarine flank collapses, with dimensions comparable to some of the  
471 large landslides in Hawaii or the Canary Islands. As proposed to other archipelagos, a clear  
472 relationship between island size and landslide areas was shown to exist, but an obvious link  
473 between island height and landslide areas proved more elusive. The integration of the subaerial  
474 and submarine data also allowed a discussion of their ages, pointing at least to a few kyrs.

475       A widespread submarine tributary system that initiates at the shelf edge of the islands  
476 revealed how sediments are dislodged and transported downslope to form volcanoclastic aprons.  
477 At Madeira Island, sediments reach the shelf edge by hyperpycnal flows to induce mass-wasting,  
478 showing the importance of such process on highly-dissected edifices subjected to high riverine  
479 discharge, as it also happens in Réunion Island. In Desertas and Porto Santo, sediments are more  
480 likely transported offshore during storms. Some of these tributary systems develop on top of the  
481 large landslide scars and paths reinforcing that these slides are older features.

482       The presence of scours and sediment waves show that, as sediments reach the lower  
483 slopes of the islands, the sudden gradient decrease promotes hydraulic jumps that first, causes the  
484 formation of scours, and second, of wave fields. Sediment waves appear mostly in the  
485 depositional lobes of the landslides and seaward of poorly-developed channel systems. Where  
486 channel systems are well developed and/or protruding rocky outcrops exist, sediment wave fields  
487 are absent. The largest scours are only present in areas without channel systems, showing that in  
488 these places the hydraulic jump produced by unconstrained turbidite currents is enhanced. Our  
489 data strongly supports the general conclusion that high and rainy islands tend to form well-

490 developed and confined volcanoclastic turbidite systems, whilst on low and dry islands  
491 unconfined and smaller turbidite systems predominate, favouring the development of scours and  
492 sediment wave fields.

493

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503

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676 **Figure 1.** Upper-right inset shows the location of Madeira Archipelago (GF – Gloria Fault) and  
677 main panel shows the sources of the different bathymetric datasets. Black areas represent the  
678 continental and island landmasses. Coloured areas represent the bathymetric sources: yellow,  
679 data from coastal management projects; light-blue, from SEDMAR; dark blue, from EMEPC;  
680 and orange, from EMODnet projects. This map and the following have UTM 28N coordinate  
681 system.

682 **Figure 2.** Shaded relief images of the subaerial topography of the islands of Madeira (1), Porto  
683 Santo (2) and Desertas (3). Data is from Direção de Serviços de Informação Geográfica e  
684 Cadastro do Governo Regional da Madeira.

685 **Figure 3.** Shaded relief image derived from the bathymetric compilation. Squares locate high  
686 resolution sub-sets of this bathymetric compilation.

687 **Figure 4.** Acoustic backscatter mosaic with low values in black and high values in white (-70 dB  
688 to 10 dB).

689 **Figure 5.** Interpreted submarine topography: light blue lines represent the headwall scars of the  
690 landslides, black lines represent the gullies, dark blue lines represent the channels and dotted red  
691 lines represent the depositional lobes of the landslides' debris avalanches. Annotations 1 to 8  
692 correspond to the numbering of the different landslides referred in the text. Arrow over lobe 1  
693 locates shot 2350 of seismic profile Torem060. The other arrow SW of Desertas points to the  
694 landslide area nº 5.

695 **Figure 6.** Seismic profile Torem060 crossing the NE Madeira sector and showing a downslope  
696 gradation from almost undeformed slide-blocks located near the headscarp, to a debris avalanche  
697 characterized by chaotic facies. The central and thicker part of the debris avalanche is incised by  
698 V-shaped channels. The sediments of the toe area seem to be slightly folded suggesting the  
699 occurrence of some compressional deformation when the debris avalanche stopped. A chaotic  
700 facies body with pinch-out and overlapped by stratified pelagic sediments can be seen in the SW  
701 sector of the seismic line suggesting the presence of a past debris flow.

702 **Figure 7.** Interpreted submarine topography: red lines represent the wave crests of the bedforms,  
703 annotation with prefix bf\* represent the defined bedform fields listed in Table2, arrows point to  
704 wave fields inside channels, black straight lines and numbers next to them locate the topographic  
705 profiles of Figure 8, dark blue lines represent the headwall of the scours, and dotted black lines  
706 represent the depositional lobes of the interpreted landslides' debris avalanches.

707 **Figure 8.** Topographic profiles of the sedimentary wave-fields.

708

**Table 1.** Approximate dimensions of large landslides in Madeira Archipelago

Number	Name	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Length (km)	Width (km)	Type
1	NW Madeira	1700	85	25	Debris Flow
2	NNW Madeira	550	47	15	Debris Flow
3	NE Madeira	500	35	20	Debris Flow
4	SE Madeira	4000	110	45	Debris Flow
5	SW Desertas	100	20	5	Debris Flow
6	SE Desertas	780	45	20	Debris Flow
7	S Porto Santo	570	50	12	Debris Flow
8	N Porto Santo	700	42	23	Debris Flow

**Table 2.** Synthesis of the main morphological features of the different sediment wave fields around the islands of Madeira, Porto Santo and Desertas.

	Seafloor				Cross-section	Wave crests	Comments
	Wave length (m)	Wave height (m)	Gradient (°)	Depth range (m)			
bf1_shallow	1350-1700	25-35	3.7	3000-3800	downslope asymmetrical	Very sinuous	debris avalanche deposi
bf1_deep	800-3300	9-42	0.6-2	3800-4300	upslope asymmetrical	Less sinous	debris avalanche deposi
bf2_shallow	1500-2000	16-32	2.9	3000-3600	upslope asymmetrical	Very sinuous	unconfined flows
bf2_deep	1900-4800	9-42	0.6-1.3	3600-4300	upslope asymmetrical	Less sinous	unconfined flows
bf3	1100-4000	11-94	0.9-2.4	3400-4000	downslope asymmetrical	Less sinous	debris avalanche deposi
bf4	1300-2400	4-16	1.4	3300-3600	downslope asymmetrical	crescentic upslope	debris avalanche deposi
bf5	600-1200	2-17	1.2-1.9	3000-3500	both	crescentic downslope	inside channels
bf6	1200-3000	9-30	0.8-1.9	3400-3700	upslope asymmetrical	Less sinous	debris avalanche deposi

