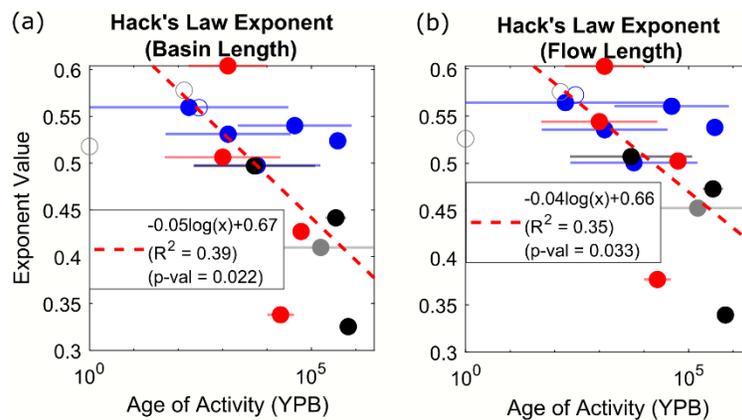


## 1 S1.0 Introduction

2 In the main text, we describe our analyses of drainage development on volcanic edifices, propose a new conceptual  
3 model for edifice degradation, and discuss the complexity of drainage competition on radial landforms. Below, we  
4 provide supplemental information related to the main text, including sensitivity analysis for the drainage density and  
5 Hack's Law relationships described in the main text, metric regression values for linear-mean and most recent  
6 edifice ages, temporal relationships of non-normalized summit basin numbers, and a summary of edifice age and  
7 morphology data.

## 8 S2.0 Hack's Law derivation

9 In the main text, we derive lengths for Hack's power-law relationship using mid-point basin lengths, as opposed to  
10 the flow path length that is typically used. Although this choice is made to remove the effects of channel sinuosity,  
11 Fig. S1 demonstrates that it creates only slightly different exponent values. The exponential regression between the  
12 Hack's Law exponent and time have nearly equal values, and correlation  $R^2$  values are approximately the same.



14 **Figure S1** – Temporal relationships of Hack's Law exponent derived using (a) mid-point basin lengths and (b) flow path lengths.  
15 Symbols and colors described in Figs. 3 and 4. Red-dashed lines are logarithmic regressions (equations described in legends);  
16 open circles are excluded in the regression due to age limitations.

## 17 S3.0 Drainage area thresholds for channelization, and drainage density and Hack's Law sensitivity tests

18 To calculate Hack's Law and drainage density, we first need to make an assumption on basin sizes that allow fluvial  
19 networks to form. We use a common method to determine fluvial basins by assuming basins with an upstream  
20 drainage area greater than some threshold support channelization (Montgomery and Dietrich, 1989). For consistency  
21 across all edifices, we use the same drainage area threshold. To determine the best threshold drainage area, we  
22 conduct an automated slope-area analysis of summit basin longest flow paths. Drainage channels are defined by a  
23 distinct power-law between upstream drainage area and slope that 1) is negatively-correlated, as opposed to  
24 positively-correlated relationships related to hillslopes, and 2) have more negative exponent values (i.e., steeper  
25 slope in log-log) than valley heads and colluvial channels (Montgomery, 2001).

26 Our automated algorithm determines the best-fit drainage area threshold for channelization through a series of  
27 regression analyses. Using 20-pixel steps (0.018 km<sup>2</sup> area for a 30-m grid resolution), the algorithm first performs a

28 power-law regression of the slope-area data from the divide to each step. From this, the algorithm determines the  
 29 extent of the hillslope based on where the power-law exponent changes from positive to negative values.  
 30 Afterwards, the algorithm performs a coupled regression analysis. Moving from the hillslope extent in 20-pixel  
 31 steps, the algorithm conducts a power-law regression on the slope-area data between the pixel step and hillslope  
 32 extent, as well as a power-law regression on the data between the pixel step and the highest drainage area. The goal  
 33 of this is to both maximize the fit of individual regressions, while also minimizing the difference between them. The  
 34 algorithm thus determines the best drainage area threshold by finding the largest  $r'$  value, defined as

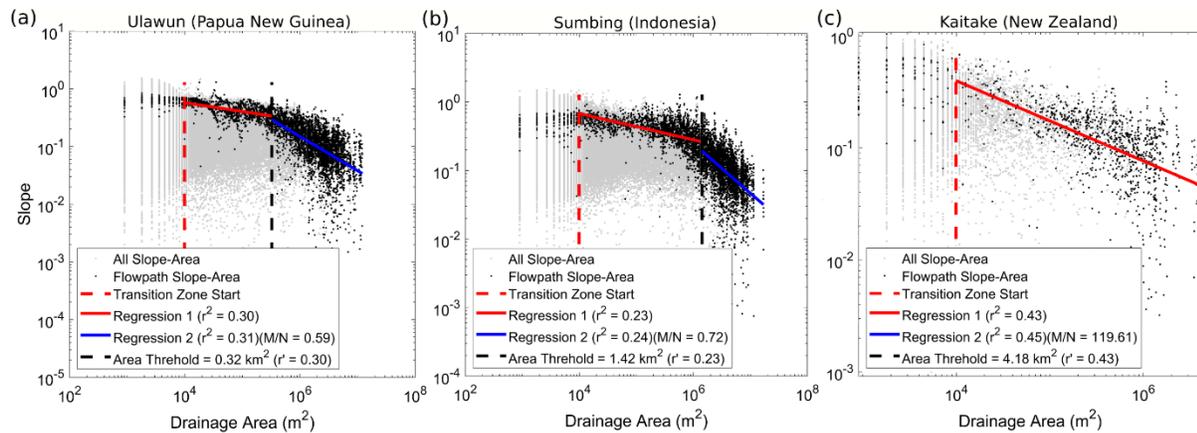
$$35 \quad r' = \frac{\min(r_1, r_2)}{\max(r_1, r_2)} * \frac{r_1 + r_2}{2}, \quad (S1)$$

36 where  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are the  $R^2$  values of both regressions. Equation S1 thus produces a maximum value for  $r'$  of 1.

37 We find automated drainage area thresholds ranging 0.32 – 1.62 km<sup>2</sup>, with a mean value of 0.85 km<sup>2</sup> (Table S1).  
 38 Considering specific examples (Fig. S2a-b), the automated algorithm is able to recognize the break in slope-area  
 39 trends between fluvial and colluvial regimes; however, the algorithm often overestimates the location where this  
 40 break occurs (e.g., Sumbing; Fig. S2b). Furthermore, as shown at Kaitake (Fig. S2c), the assumption that fluvial and  
 41 colluvial regimes have recognizable differences in slope-area is not always true, and the algorithm struggles to find  
 42 an appropriate threshold.

43 **Table S1** – Best-fit drainage area thresholds for edifices in this study, based on automated slope-area regression.  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are  $R^2$   
 44 regression values of determined colluvial and fluvial regimes.  $r'$  is calculated by eq. S1.  $\theta$  is calculated by the linear regression of  
 45 logarithmic slope and area.

<b>Volcano</b>	<b>Best-Fit Area Threshold (km<sup>2</sup>)</b>	<b><math>r_1</math></b>	<b><math>r_2</math></b>	<b><math>r'</math></b>	<b><math>-\theta</math></b>
<b>Acatenango</b>	1.62	0.17	0.17	0.2	0.67
<b>Atitlán</b>	1.58	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.68
<b>Bamus</b>	0.68	0.21	0.21	0.21	0.6
<b>Kaitake</b>	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
<b>Likuruanga</b>	0.35	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.56
<b>Merapi</b>	0.68	0.2	0.2	0.20	0.53
<b>Merbabu</b>	1.24	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.66
<b>Muria</b>	0.46	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.55
<b>Pouakai</b>	0.59	0.2	0.2	0.19	0.55
<b>San Pedro</b>	0.37	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.39
<b>Sumbing</b>	1.42	0.23	0.24	0.23	0.72
<b>Sundoro</b>	1.05	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.51
<b>Taranaki</b>	0.72	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.65
<b>Tolimán</b>	0.68	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.58
<b>Ulawun</b>	0.32	0.3	0.31	0.30	0.59
<b>Ungaran</b>	1.06	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.57
<b>Mean:</b>	<b>0.85</b>				<b>0.59</b>

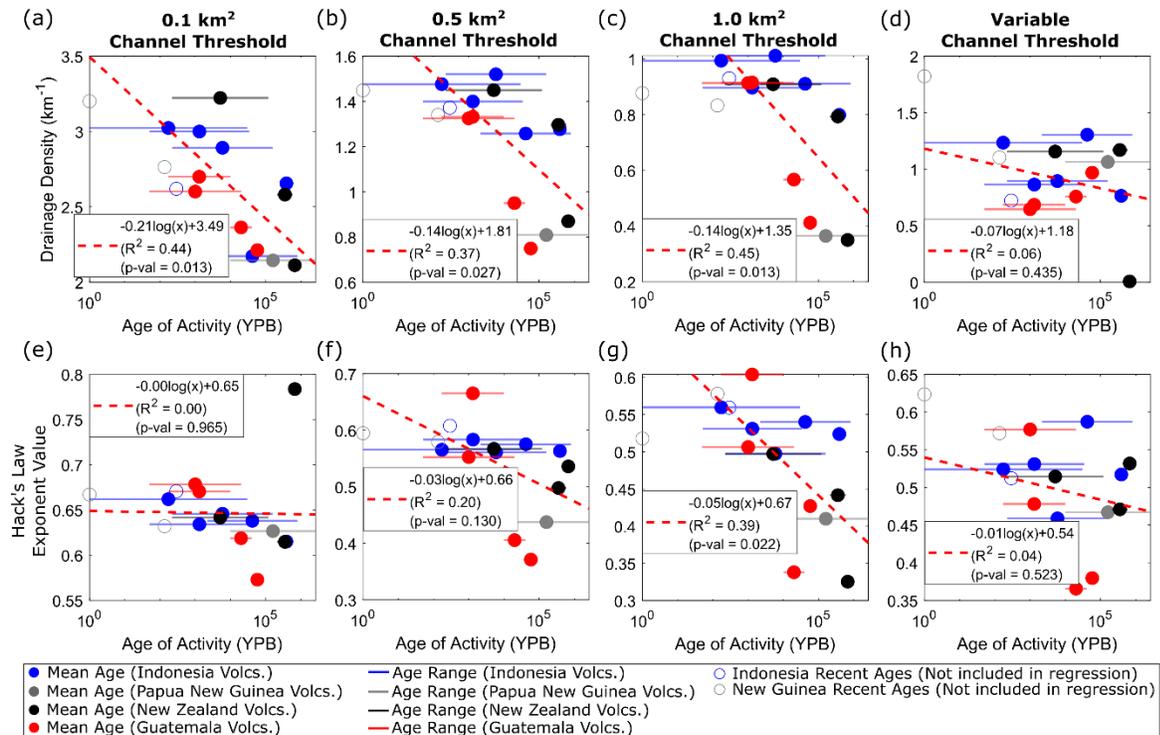


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 48 **Figure S2** – Slope-area regression results for (a) Ulawun, (b) Sumbing, and (c) Kaitake edifice summit basins. Gray dots are all  
 49 summit basin slope-area values; black lines are slope-area values of only the longest basin flow paths. Red and blue lines  
 50 distinguish determined colluvial and fluvial regimes, respectively. Red-dashed line is transition zone between hillslopes and  
 51 colluvial regime, black-dashed line is determined threshold for channelization.

52 Our automated algorithm suggests the mean drainage area threshold for channelization across all edifices is 0.85  
 53 km<sup>2</sup>; however, for simplicity, we round this value up to 1.0 km<sup>2</sup>. Thus, basins that are used for the Hack’s Law  
 54 analysis and flowpaths that are used for the drainage density analysis are only those that have an upstream drainage  
 55 area greater than 1.0 km<sup>2</sup>. We test the impact of this threshold on our results through a sensitivity test. To do this,  
 56 DrainageVolc is ran for all edifice sets from Indonesia, New Guinea, and New Zealand (Fig. 1) with different  
 57 drainage area thresholds of 0.1 km<sup>2</sup>, 0.5 km<sup>2</sup>, and 1.0 km<sup>2</sup>, as well as the best-fit channelization threshold for each  
 58 edifice. We then fit logarithmic regressions to the relationships between Hack’s Law exponent, drainage density,  
 59 and log-mean edifice age.

60 Fig. S3 shows the results of this analysis. Regardless of channelization threshold, drainage density always  
 61 experiences a temporally-decreasing trend. Furthermore, considering the constant drainage area threshold  
 62 (Fig. S3a-c), drainage density consistently decreases with increasing thresholds. This is not surprising, as increasing  
 63 drainage area threshold removes basin interfluves from the analysis, thus generating lower cumulative channel  
 64 lengths. R<sup>2</sup> range 0.35 – 0.45 for all thresholds. In the case of variable drainage area threshold (Fig. S3d), both  
 65 drainage density and regression values are similar to using a constant 1.0 km<sup>2</sup> area threshold; however, R<sup>2</sup> values are  
 66 significantly lower (0.06), suggesting this relationship becomes weaker.

67 Temporal trends with the Hack’s Law exponent are much more sensitive to the channelization threshold (Fig. S3e-  
 68 h). Using only basins defined by an upstream drainage area of 0.1 km<sup>2</sup>, or letting the automatized algorithm choose  
 69 the best-fitting channelization threshold for each edifice, produces no correlation with edifice age; whereas upstream  
 70 drainage area thresholds of 1.0 km<sup>2</sup> produces the strongest relationship. These differences between drainage area  
 71 threshold and temporal correlation are indicative of smaller drainage area thresholds incorporating more non-fluvial  
 72 basin within the analysis that can significantly alter the Hack’s Law regression (e.g., Figs. 2b, 9a, c).

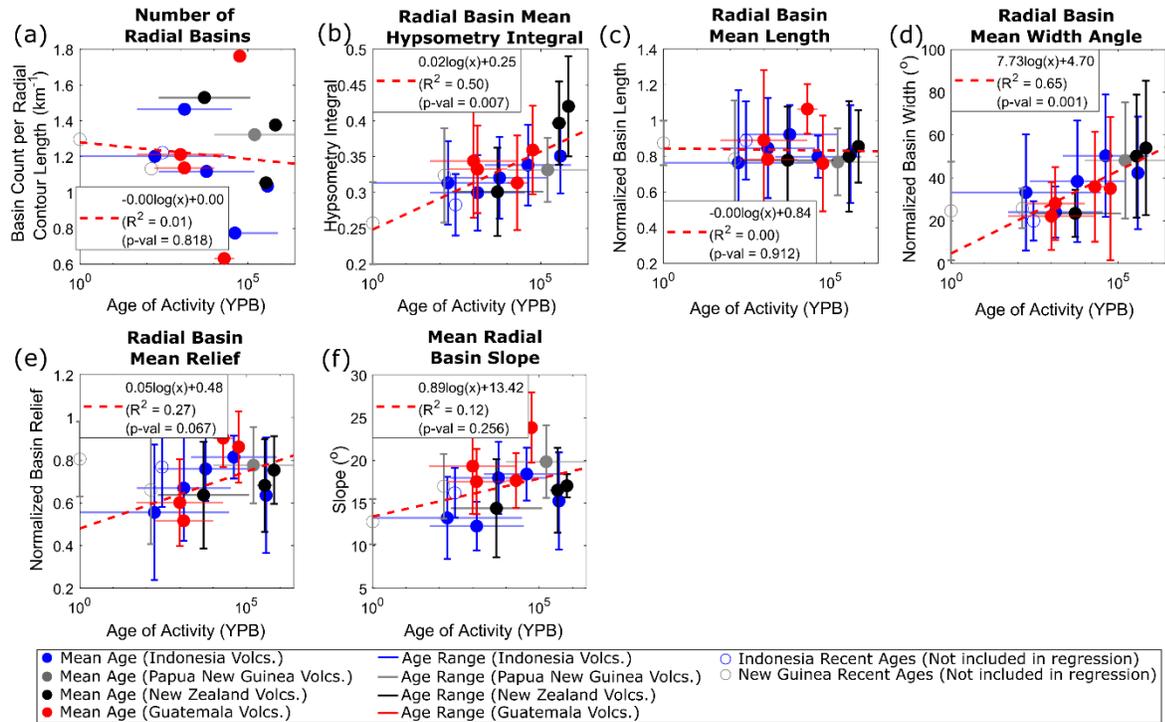


73  
 74 **Figure S3** – (a-d) Drainage density and (e-h) Hack's Law relationships with log-mean edifice age for different values of the  
 75 upstream drainage area threshold for channelization. Symbols and colors described in bottom legend. Red-dashed lines are  
 76 logarithmic regressions (equations described in legends); open circles are excluded in the regression due to age limitations.

77 **S4.0 Characteristic basins defined by radial distance**

78 Our analysis of basin geometries through time assumes that the larger basins that exist on an edifice are most  
 79 characteristic of overall basin morphology and evolution. In the main text, we define these characteristic basins as  
 80 those that reach the upper 30% of the edifice's height. However, characteristic basins may also be defined as those  
 81 that are within some distance from the edifice's peak. We test the impact of our elevation-based definition of  
 82 characteristic basins to a distance-based definition by conducting a regression analysis similar to that in the main  
 83 text. For this, we transform the Cartesian DEM grid into radial coordinates relative to the edifice's highest  
 84 topography, and normalize these values by the maximum radial distance to the boundary. Following the process  
 85 described in Section 3.2 of the main text, we then isolate basins that extend to within 30% normalized distance of  
 86 the edifice's peak and analyze their geometries. Fig. S4 shows the temporal regression results of these characteristic  
 87 basin morphologies.

88 Normalized basin lengths and the number of radial basins normalized by the radial distance contour show no  
 89 correlation with edifice age. This lack of correlation is expected as the definition for choosing these basins already  
 90 incorporates a distance normalization, and thus these metrics become irrelevant. The temporal correlation with mean  
 91 basin relief and slope becomes stronger ( $R^2 = 0.27$  and  $0.12$ , respectively) for radial distance-based characteristic  
 92 basins compared to elevation-based (Fig. 3). However, mean basin hypsometry integral and normalized basin widths  
 93 still experience strong correlations with time ( $R^2 = 0.50$  and  $0.65$ , respectively), suggesting that these metrics are  
 94 moderately insensitive to characteristic basin definition, further demonstrating that these geometries are strong  
 95 indicators for the edifice's erosional maturity.



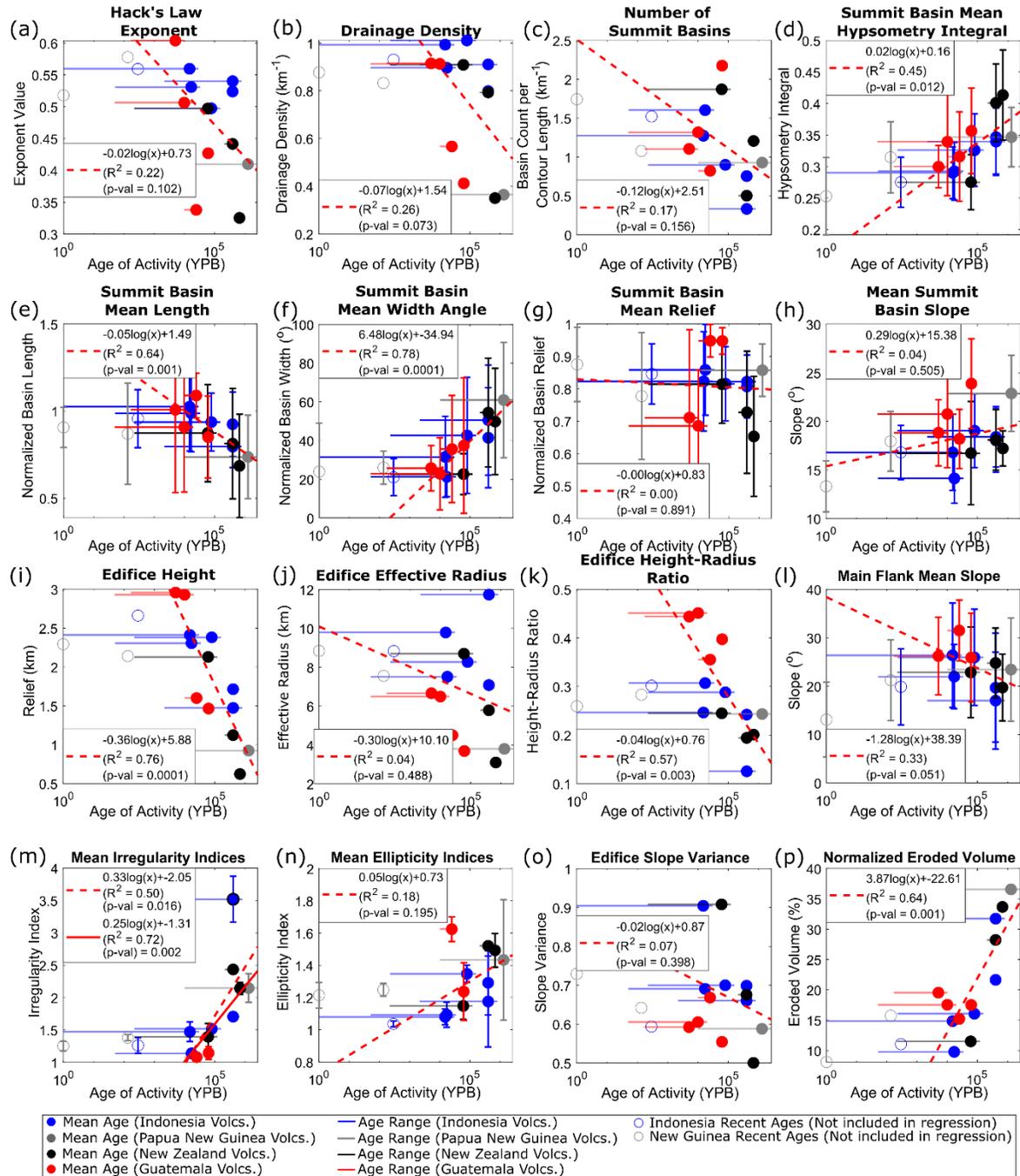
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97 **Figure S4** - Temporal relationships of basin morphology metrics using a radial distance-based definition for characteristic basins.  
 98 Symbols and colors described in legend. Vertical lines represent standard deviations of values (where appropriate). Red-dashed  
 99 lines are logarithmic regressions (equations described in legends); open circles are excluded in the regression due to age  
 100 limitations.

101 **S5.0 Edifice Age**

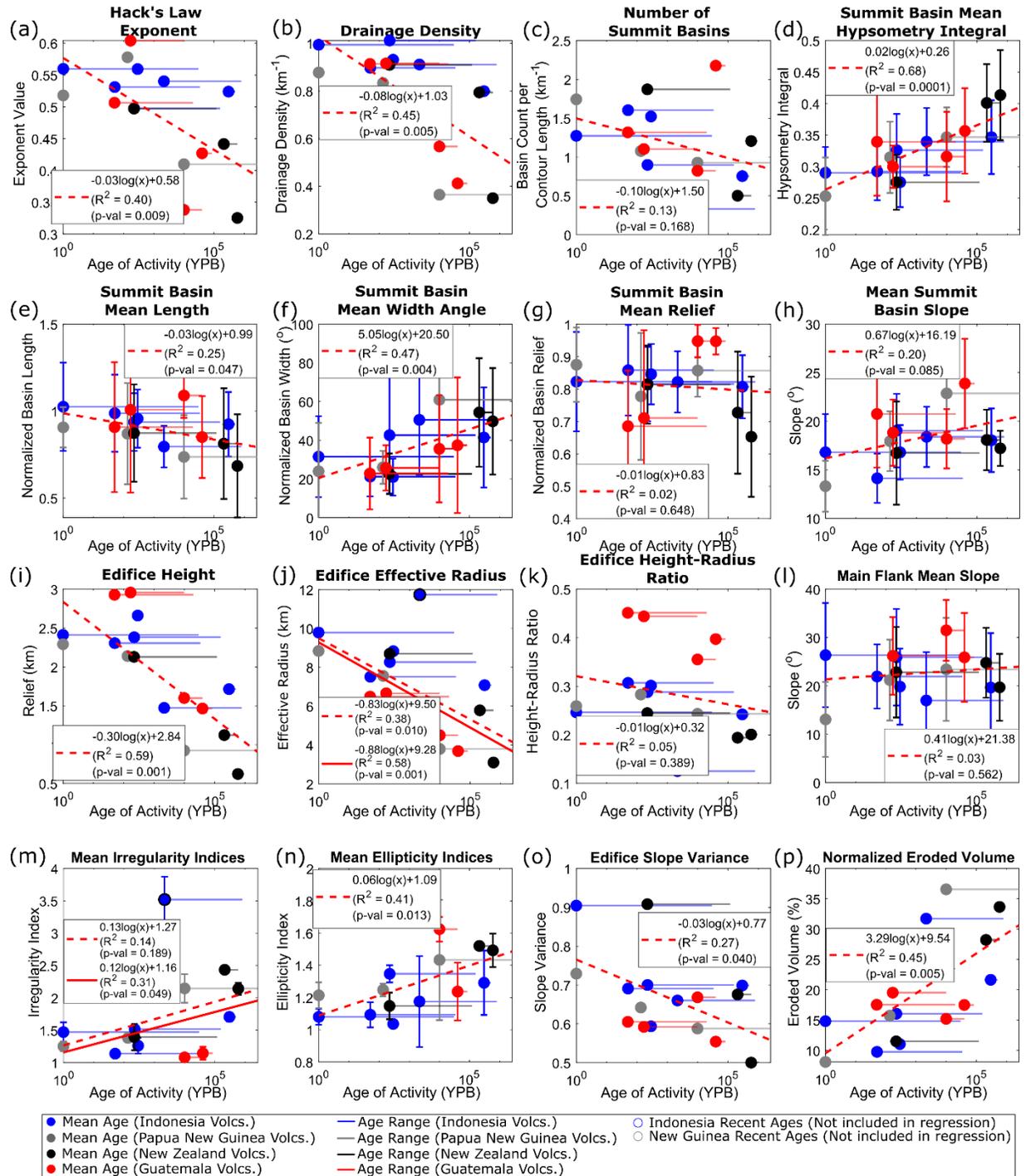
102 Within the main text, we analyzed the temporal relationships of edifice basin geometries. In order to account for the  
 103 large temporal span of events that can alter edifice morphology (short-term volcanic episodes and long-term  
 104 degradation processes) within a single value, we quantified the edifice's age as the log-mean value between its  
 105 known most recent eruption and age of initiation. To verify that this selection does not impact our results, we also  
 106 present the logarithmic regressions of the basin metrics using the linear mean age of the edifice. Fig. S5 shows that  
 107 the linear mean ages create overall similar regression values as the log-mean ages. Normalized number of summit  
 108 basins, normalized mean summit basin length, normalized mean summit basin width, height-width ratio, mean main  
 109 flank slope, mean irregularity index, and eroded volume percentages all have better regression fits when using linear  
 110 mean ages.

111 As more recent volcanic activity can have significant effects on edifice and basin morphologies (e.g., the 1980 Mt.  
 112 St. Helens eruption), Fig. S6 demonstrates logarithmic regressions between the analyzed metrics and most recent  
 113 eruption. Here, Hack's Law exponent, normalized number of summit basins, mean summit basin hypsometry, mean  
 114 summit basin slope, edifice radius, and slope variance all produce higher regression  $R^2$  values when using the most  
 115 recent age of activity.



116

117 **Figure S5** – Temporal relationships of morphology metrics using linear mean edifice ages. Symbols and colors described in  
 118 legend. Vertical lines represent standard deviations of values (where appropriate). Red-dashed lines are logarithmic regressions  
 119 (equations described in legends); open circles are excluded in the regression due to age limitations.



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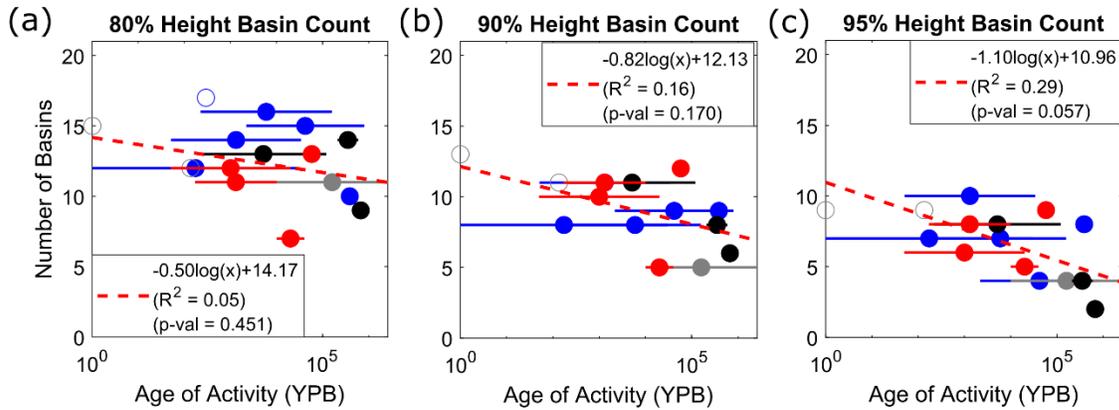
121 **Figure S6** – Temporal relationships of morphology metrics using minimum edifice ages. Symbols and colors described in legend.  
 122 Vertical lines represent standard deviations of values (where appropriate). Red-dashed lines are logarithmic regressions  
 123 (equations described in legends).

124 **S6.0 Summit and Radial-Distance Basin Numbers**

125 Fig. S7 shows the non-normalized number of summit basins for different summit designations (upper 20%, 10%,  
 126 and 5% of relief) discussed in the main text. Weak or no correlations exist between number of summit basins and

127 time when considering basins that exist in the upper 30% - 10% of the edifice's height (Figs. 7b, S5-6); however, a  
 128 higher correlation ( $R^2 = 0.29$ ) does exist when considering the strictest summit designation (upper 5% of edifice  
 129 height).

130 In comparison, the number of basins at normalized radial distances from the edifice's peak (Fig. S8) shows strong  
 131 correlations with time for all considered distances (20%, 50%, and 70%), with higher basin counts occurring at  
 132 larger distances.

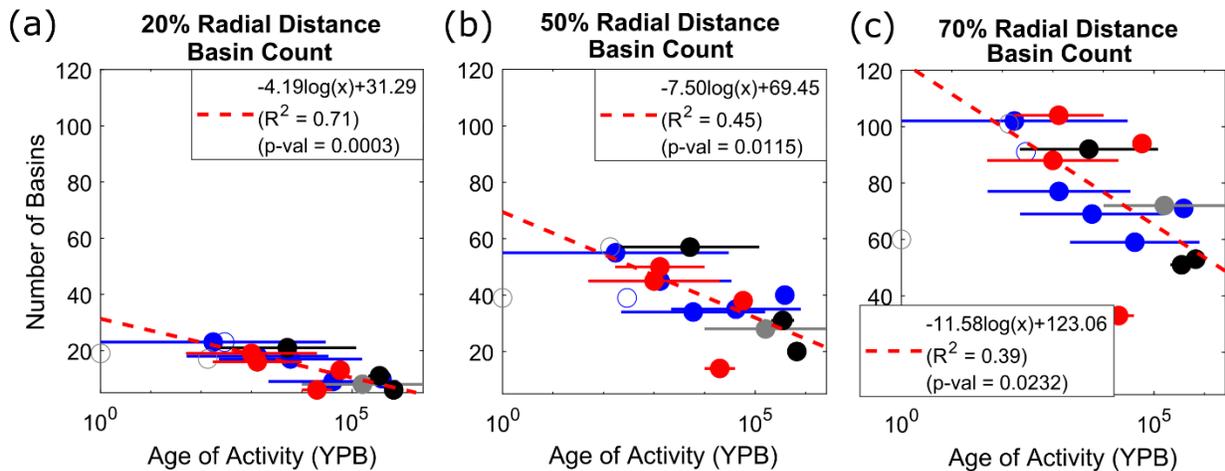


133

134 **Figure S7** – Temporal relationships of the raw number of summit basins for upper (a) 20%, (b) 10%, and (c) 5% of edifice relief.  
 135 Symbols and colors described in legend of Fig. 3. Red-dashed lines are logarithmic regressions (equations described in legends);  
 136 open circles are excluded in the regression due to age limitations.

137

138



139

140 **Figure S8** – Temporal relationships of the raw number of basins for (a) 20%, (b) 50%, and (c) 70% of normalized distance from  
 141 edifice peak. Symbols and colors described in legend of Fig. 3. Red-dashed lines are logarithmic regressions (equations described  
 142 in legends); open circles are excluded in the regression due to age limitations.

143

144 **S7.0 Edifice Age Data**

145 Supplementary Table T3 gives a compilation of known minimum and maximum ages of volcanic activity for the  
 146 analyzed volcanoes, their associated references, and a summary of morphologic data from DrainageVolc and  
 147 MorVolc presented here. The supplementary shapefile provides the same information, as well as the XY data of  
 148 edifice boundaries. Table S2 below is a shortened version of Table T3 providing edifice ages and their sources.

149 **Table S2 – Age data and references for the edifices analyzed in the main text.**

<b><u>Region</u></b>	<b><u>Volcano</u></b>	<b><u>Minimum Known Age of Activity (YBP)</u></b>	<b><u>Maximum Known Age of Activity (YBP)</u></b>	<b><u>Log-Mean Activity Age (YBP)</u></b>	<b><u>References</u></b>
<b>Guatemala</b>	Acatenango	50	20,000	1,000	Vallance et al. (2001); Global Volcanism Program, (2013);
<b>Guatemala</b>	Atitlán	170	10,000	1,304	Vallance and Calvert (2003); Haapala et al. (2005); Global Volcanism Program (2013)
<b>Guatemala</b>	San_Pedro	40,000	84,000	57,966	Vallance and Calvert, (2003)
<b>Guatemala</b>	Tolimán	10,000	40,000	20,000	Vallance and Calvert (2003); Haapala et al. (2005)
<b>Indonesia</b>	Merapi	1	30,000	173	Gertisser et al. (2012); Global Volcanism Program (2013)
<b>Indonesia</b>	Merbabu	224	158,000	5,949	Gomez et al. (2010); Global Volcanism Program, (2013)
<b>Indonesia</b>	Ungaran	300,000	500,000	387,298	Kohno (2006)
<b>Indonesia</b>	Muria	2,181	800,000	41,771	McBirney et al. (2003); Global Volcanism Program (2013)
<b>Indonesia</b>	Sumbing	292	N/A	N/A	Global Volcanism Program (2013)
<b>Indonesia</b>	Sundoro	51	34,000	1,317	Prambada et al. (2016); Global Volcanism Program (2013)
<b>New Guinea</b>	Bamus	135	N/A	N/A	Global Volcanism Program (2013)
<b>New Guinea</b>	Ulawun	1	N/A	N/A	Global Volcanism Program (2013)
<b>New Guinea</b>	Likuruanga*	10,000	2,580,000	160,624	Global Volcanism Program (2013)
<b>New Zealand</b>	Taranaki	221	120,000	5,150	Neall (1979); Locke et al. (1993)
<b>New Zealand</b>	Pouakai	210,000	590,000	351,994	Neall (1979); Gaylord and Neall (2012)
<b>New Zealand</b>	Kaitake	590,000	760,000	669,627	Neall (1979); Gaylord & Neall (2012)

150 \* Relative age (non-radiometric). For consistency, log-mean Pleistocene age is used for regression in main text  
 151 (Figs. 3-8).

152

153

154 **S8.0 References**

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