

## Reconstructing the recent failure chronology of a multistage landslide complex using cosmogenic isotope concentrations: St Catherine's Point, UK

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1 **Reconstructing the recent failure chronology of a multistage landslide complex using**  
2 **cosmogenic isotope concentrations: St Catherine's Point, UK**

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7 **ABSTRACT**

8         The pre-existing multistage landslide complex at St Catherine's Point comprises a series  
9 of large rotational and translational failures that form the western section of the Isle of Wight  
10 Undercliff, UK. Cosmogenic beryllium and aluminum concentrations extracted from chert  
11 samples of the Upper Greensand are used to date the most recent sequential failure events. We  
12 use our understanding of the failure mechanics and landslide geomorphology to produce a  
13 cosmogenic exposure model that incorporates pre-failure topography into our shielding  
14 calculations. This method allowed us to date two successive landslides at the site using <sup>10</sup>Be, the  
15 most recent of which occurred  $\sim 1064 \pm 348 (\pm 1 \sigma)$  <sup>10</sup>Be years ago, much more recently than was  
16 previously thought. An earlier failure event is dated at  $\sim 3471 \pm 348$  <sup>10</sup>Be years, supporting the  
17 hypothesis that the St Catherine's Point landslide complex was reactivated by relative sea-level  
18 rise at the end of the Holocene Climatic Optimum period.

19 Key Words: Landslides, Cosmogenic Dating, St Catherine's Point

20 **1. INTRODUCTION**

21         Deep-seated landslide complexes are found throughout the world (e.g. Crozier et al.,  
22 1995; Hutchinson and Bromhead, 2002; Kasai et al., 2009; Della Seta et al., 2013; Young 2015).  
23 Removal of mass through erosional processes, seismic shaking, and fluctuations in ground water

24 hydrology alter the stress environment to which geological materials are exposed, which can lead  
25 to rotational or translational failure across shear surfaces (Petley and Allison, 1997). In coastal  
26 environments, the continual removal of material through marine erosion can often result in  
27 multiple stages of failure through time (e.g. Hutchinson 1988; Rudkin 1990; Della Seta et al.,  
28 2013). An example of this from the UK is St Catherine's Point landslide complex which forms  
29 the westernmost part of the Isle of Wight Undercliff, a pre-existing landslide complex on the  
30 south coast of the Isle of Wight (Fig. 1). Measuring approximately 12 km in length and reaching  
31 up to 0.6 km from crest to toe, the Undercliff represents one of the largest urbanized landslide  
32 complexes in western Europe. The small towns of Ventnor, Bonchurch, St Lawrence and Niton  
33 with a total resident population of 6,000 are located along the Undercliff. (Lee and Moore 1991;  
34 Moore et al., 1995; McInnes 2007; Gillarduzzi et al., 2007; Moore et al., 2010).

35         The litho-stratigraphy of the Undercliff is composed of a sequence of sandstones and  
36 clays overlain by the Lower Chalk formation as shown in Table 1 (Palmer et al., 2007). The  
37 regional dip is to seaward at 1.5° to 2° (White, 1921). However, both the dip and the height of the  
38 strata relative to sea-level are influenced by the St Lawrence syncline, the axis of which runs  
39 through the centre of the Undercliff between St Lawrence and Ventnor (Chandler, 1984;  
40 Hutchinson and Bromhead, 2002). Slope stability along the Undercliff is controlled by shear  
41 surfaces in the weaker stratigraphic layers, most importantly in units 4a and 4b of the Gault  
42 Formation and units 2b and 2d of the Sandrock Formation (Moore et al., 2010; Moore et al.,  
43 2007; Hutchinson and Bromhead, 2002). Currently, the landslides within the complex exist in a  
44 state of dynamic metastable equilibrium with winter groundwater levels resulting in higher  
45 ground motions following periods of high effective stress (Gillarduzzi et al., 2007; Moore et al.,  
46 2010). The landslide complex is thought to have been activated by the erosion of the St

47 Catherine's Deep, a submerged palaeovalley running parallel to the Undercliff approximately 2.8  
48 km offshore, in conjunction with changes in base level and marine erosion associated with sea-  
49 level rise during interglacial periods (Chandler, 1984; Moore et al., 2007).

50 The geomorphology of St Catherine's Point has been thoroughly investigated (e.g.  
51 Hutchinson et al., 1991; Hutchinson and Bromhead, 2002; Hutchinson et al., 2002; McInnes  
52 2007) and is summarized here. Due to its location on the western limb of the St Lawrence  
53 syncline, the base of the Gault Formation is roughly 53m above sea-level and the Sandrock is  
54 roughly at sea-level (Fig. 2A). Shear surfaces within these strata control instability at the site  
55 (Hutchinson et al., 1991). The ground model (Hutchinson et al., 1991) indicates a rapid  
56 multistage failure resulting from marine erosion. The failure mechanics have created three major  
57 morphological features illustrated in Figs. 1 and 2A; a seaward block composed of a sequence of  
58 sandstones and Gault Formation that has been displaced southwards by ~100 m, a landward  
59 block formed by rotational failure of the Upper Greensand and Lower Chalk formations, and a  
60 rear scarp of Upper Greensand and Lower Chalk. To the south, a large debris apron protects the  
61 landslide blocks from marine erosion. The borehole data used to construct the ground model is  
62 also shown in Fig. 2A. These boreholes did not penetrate the entire stratigraphic sequence such  
63 that there is some subjectivity in the model (Hutchinson et al., 1991). Repeat surveys of concrete  
64 markers placed across the landslide complex indicate the seaward block to be moving south at up  
65 to 25 mm/a (Hutchinson et al., 1991). This rate of motion is probably in response to on-going  
66 marine erosion and toe unloading of the debris apron. Movement in the debris apron that fronts  
67 the complex has been measured at 10-20 mm/a in proximity to the St Catherine's Point  
68 lighthouse and is primarily attributed to translational and rotational displacement of the debris  
69 apron (Hutchinson et al., 2002).

70           While this work has succeeded in developing an understanding of landslide morpho-  
71 dynamics at the site, the chronology of mass movement during the Holocene remains poorly  
72 constrained. Previous landslide dating at St Catherine's Point has relied on radiocarbon dating of  
73 woody material found within the stratigraphy of the debris apron (Preece, 1986; Hutchinson,  
74 1987; Hutchinson et al., 1991; Hutchinson and Bromhead, 2002). The debris apron is composed  
75 of two layers of blocky landslide debris predominantly derived from Lower Chalk and Upper  
76 Greensand separated by a middle layer of soils and woody debris. Preece (1986), dated organic  
77 material taken from the middle layer at the cliff edge of the debris apron approximately 200 m to  
78 the west of the lighthouse (Fig. 1). The samples, neither of which were obtained from an in situ  
79 stump, were dated to  $4490 \pm 40$  years and  $3960 \pm 50$   $^{14}\text{C}$  years. The older sample was found  
80 within a thicker section of the soil layer and was higher in the stratigraphy indicating either  
81 ground deformation or a more complex depositional history. The younger sample was found in a  
82 deposit of compressed woody debris (Preece, 1986). Based on the radiocarbon dates and the  
83 stratigraphy of the debris apron, Hutchinson et al. (1991) interpreted a reactivation of the  
84 landslide during the Holocene in response to sea-level rise. During the Pleistocene, periglacial  
85 processes would have been in operation at the site and are likely to have deposited Chalk debris  
86 across the coastal slope (Hutchinson, 1987). Either wave action or seepage erosion and  
87 landsliding would have removed these deposits and eroded the base of what is now the seaward  
88 block. Landslides and solifluction deposited the lower portion of the debris apron and based on  
89 the radiocarbon dates this occurred prior to  $\sim 4500$   $^{14}\text{C}$  years (Hutchinson and Bromhead, 2002).  
90 Following a period of inactivity during which a soil layer developed on the debris apron, a  
91 second major event occurred depositing the upper layer of the debris apron. Finally, the most  
92 recent failure event involving rotational and translational failure resulted in the seaward block

93 moving southward causing large scale deformation of the debris apron. Based on weak  
94 archaeological evidence, Hutchinson and Bromhead (2002) suggested that this most recent  
95 failure event occurred prior to the Iron Age (~800BC - 43AD).

96 In order to further constrain the chronology of ground instability at the St Catherine's  
97 Point landslide complex, we use cosmogenic  $^{26}\text{Al}$  and  $^{10}\text{Be}$  from samples of chert in the Upper  
98 Greensand formation. Establishing the exposure age of rock based on the concentration of  
99 cosmogenic nuclides (CN) is a well-established method of geochronology (e.g. Lal, 1991; Gosse  
100 and Phillips, 2001; Dunai, 2010) and the use of CN in landslide dating has proven successful  
101 within the research literature. For example, Ballantyne and Stone (2004) made use of  
102 cosmogenic  $^{10}\text{Be}$  in sandstone to date the Beinn Alligin rock avalanche in north-western  
103 Scotland. After scaling production rates for topographic shielding and altitude, samples obtained  
104 from boulders at the centre of the deposition zone indicated an exposure age of  $3950 \pm 320$   $^{10}\text{Be}$   
105 years. Ivy-Ochs et al. (2009) used a combination of cosmogenic  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  to date scarps and  
106 boulders from the Flims landslide complex in Switzerland. Their model addressed a complex  
107 system, with snowfall and glacial processes adding uncertainty to the exposure model. Several  
108 stages of instability in the La Clapière landslide complex in south-east France have also been  
109 successfully dated using  $^{10}\text{Be}$  on a series of scarps (Bigot-Cormier et al., 2005). These previous  
110 uses of in situ cosmogenic dating methods on landslides have assumed sample shielding from  
111 topographic obstacles to be constant. Such studies have typically involved dating a discrete  
112 landslide event or have dated sequential failure events from the same source area but deposited  
113 proximal to one another (e.g. Sturzenegger et al., 2014).

114 This research represents the first use of a reconstructed topography to modify topographic  
115 shielding calculations and therefore improve estimates of CN production rate through time. The

116 methods outlined here are directly transferrable to any site where geomorphological events have  
117 altered the topography in such a way that pre-event reconstruction is possible. Establishing the  
118 past behaviour of geomorphic systems in this way is useful in understanding environmental  
119 forcing and in making predictions regarding future behaviour.

## 120 **2. METHODS**

121 At St Catherine's Point, the mechanism of failure and the bedrock geology are both  
122 amenable to cosmogenic dating. The geometry of the rotated block establishes the pre-failure  
123 shielding of the backscarp (Fig. 2), an assumption that often proves problematic in the  
124 cosmogenic dating of landslides (Dunai, 2010). We assume that the ~20 m of overlying material  
125 provided shielding from muogenic accumulation prior to failure. In the case of multistage  
126 failures, ground motion is causing topographic changes to both the source areas as well as to  
127 deposited material resulting in changes to topographic shielding during the exposure history of a  
128 sample. However, where the failure mechanics of the landslide is well constrained, such as at St  
129 Catherine's Point, this can be used to reconstruct the pre-failure topography based on current  
130 block geometries. This allows for the modification of topographic shielding effects such that  
131 multiple failure stages can be reconstructed. Concentrations of both  $^{26}\text{Al}$  and  $^{10}\text{Be}$  were measured  
132 from samples taken from chert beds located in the Upper Greensand as illustrated in Figs. 1 and  
133 2. Samples taken from an exposure on the backscarp were used to date the most recent failure.  
134 Exposure of the relict backscarp on the south face of the landward block and large boulders  
135 sitting on top of the seaward block is thought to be contemporaneous and associated with a major  
136 landslide event involving material overlying the Gault Formation on the seaward block as  
137 illustrated in Fig. 2. Samples taken from both are used to date a previous failure stage.

### 138 *2.1 Sample preparation*

139 Samples were prepared at the NERC Cosmogenic Isotope Analysis Facility (CIAF) in the  
140 Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre (SUERC). Quartz was separated from  
141 other minerals by mechanical (crushing, grinding, magnetic separation using a Frantz machine)  
142 and chemical (hexafluorosilicic acid treatment and repetitive hydrofluoric acid leaching)  
143 procedures. The quartz purity was assayed with ICP-OES. Quartz was dissolved in 40% HF and  
144 spiked with 220  $\mu\text{g}$   $^9\text{Be}$  carrier. Natural Al content in the quartz was between 720-1142 ppm,  
145 therefore no Al spike was added to the samples.

146  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{26}\text{Al}$  were extracted and mixed BeO-Nb and AlO-Ag targets were prepared  
147 following procedures adapted from Kohl and Nishiizumi (1992). The  $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$  and  $^{27}\text{Al}/^{26}\text{Al}$   
148 ratios were measured with the 5 MV NEC Pelletron accelerator mass spectrometer (AMS) at  
149 SUERC (Xu et al., 2010). AMS primary Standards NIST SRM4325 and PRIME Z92-0222, with  
150  $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$  nominal ratios of  $2.79\text{E}^{-11}$  and  $4.11\text{E}^{-11}$   $^{26}\text{Al}/^{27}\text{Al}$  respectively, were used for the  
151 measurements (Freeman et al., 2004). These ratios agree well with the secondary standards  
152 prepared by Nishiizumi et al. (2007). The  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{26}\text{Al}$  ratios were subsequently converted to  
153 nuclide concentrations in quartz. The processed blank  $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$  ratio was between 26-65% of the  
154 sample  $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$  ratios and was subtracted from the measured ratios; no blank correction was  
155 needed for  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{27}\text{Al}$  ratios. Details of samples and the analytical data related to each of them are  
156 given in Table 2.

## 157 2.2 Exposure ages

158 The analytical data and the surface exposure ages for each sample are given in Table 3.  
159 The exposure ages were calculated using the Cronus-Earth online calculator v. 2.2  
160 (<http://hess.ess.washington.edu/>). The  $^{10}\text{Be}$  ages were calculated using a  $^{10}\text{Be}$  half-life of 1.36 Ma  
161 and the SHLH spallation production rate of  $4.39 \pm 0.37$  atoms  $\text{g}^{-1}\text{-a}^{-1}$  (Lm scaling) obtained from



162 age-constrained calibration measurements (Balco et al., 2008). The  $^{26}\text{Al}$  half-life of 705 ka was  
163 used in the calculations (Nishiizumi, 2004). The calculated age uncertainties are expressed as  $1\sigma$   
164 (Table 3). Corrections for sample thickness (4-6.9 cm) assume an exponential depth decrease of  
165 in situ production rate and an attenuation length of  $160\text{ g cm}^{-2}$ .

### 166 *2.3 Shielding*

167 Topographic shielding was calculated by generating a series of azimuth and elevation  
168 measurements in order to define the sky view at each site (Dunne et al., 1999; Balco et al., 2008).  
169 Sample locations were used in conjunction with high-resolution digital elevation model (DEM)  
170 data to create the sky view. These data were augmented with field measurements for samples  
171 taken close to very steep slopes in order to address the limitations of DEM data in reproducing  
172 these features (e.g. Zhou and Liu, 2004). We altered our shielding calculations to account for the  
173 changes in the surface morphology due to landsliding at the site as indicated in Table 3. For  
174 samples taken from the relict scarp face on the landward block, the DEM data were amended by  
175 rotating the current morphology  $15^\circ$  around an axis running parallel to the base of slope as  
176 illustrated in Fig. 3A. In addition to the changes in topographic shielding, the change in  
177 cosmogenic dose due to elevation (Stone, 2000; Gosse and Stone, 2009) was assessed by  
178 increasing the elevation of the sample sites by 58 m to their pre-failure values. The changes this  
179 has on the sky view at the two sample sites on this feature are shown in Fig. 3B. As is evident,  
180 shielding due to the seaward block is no longer present and the steeper slopes cause greater  
181 shielding to the north. Changes to shielding on the seaward block were estimated by maintaining  
182 the elevation of the sample points and moving them 100 m in land. The exposure model assumes  
183 negligible surface erosion on the chert due to its high strength properties and insoluble nature. In

184 order to test this assumption, an analysis of  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  vs  $^{10}\text{Be}$  was undertaken (e.g. Lal, 1991;  
185 Gosse and Phillips, 2001; Dunai, 2010).

186 With regard to the exposure model proposed, down-slope displacement of the seaward  
187 block may have impacted upon the topographic shielding at the sampling sites. If post-event  
188 block motion is a function of apron erosion, this suggests such rates would have been lower in  
189 the past. The current geometry is such that the highest inclination angle to the horizon is  $\sim 32^\circ$ .  
190 Given that topographic shielding at this inclination angle is minimal, resultant changes to  
191 production rates due to small scale movement within the blocks is unlikely to be a significant  
192 source of experimental error and this is not considered in our exposure model (e.g. Dunne et al.,  
193 1999).

### 194 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

195 Parameters and results of the cosmogenic dating are shown in Tables 2 and 3. Sample  
196 testing indicated high natural concentrations of  $^{27}\text{Al}$  (720-1142 ppm) such that  $^{26}\text{Al}$  results are  
197 considered unreliable (Dunai, 2010). An indication of this can be seen in the  $^{10}\text{Be}/^{26}\text{Al}$  ratio in  
198 table 2. Theoretically, this should be 6.75 for samples that have experienced minimal erosion.  
199 However, all but two of our samples are higher than this value and one is significantly lower. To  
200 further evaluate this relationship, a plot of  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  vs  $^{10}\text{Be}$  is shown in Fig. 4. The plot indicates  
201 the erosional history of a sample where measured concentrations for the differing samples can be  
202 compared to theoretical concentrations based on the production ratio, the isotope half-life, and  
203 burial history (Lal, 1991; Gosse and Phillips, 2001). Samples with a simple burial history should  
204 plot between the upper two curves which has been termed the “steady-state erosion island” (Lal,  
205 1991). The uppermost of these curves represents steady-state erosion for a sample that has never  
206 been buried and the curve plotting below this represents a surface exposure evolving with zero

207 erosion. From left to right the steady–state curve plots decreasing erosion rates while the zero  
208 erosion curve plots increasing exposure duration (Dunai, 2010). Samples that plot above the  
209 steady-state erosion island are theoretically impossible and indicate either sample contamination  
210 or a measurement error while those that plot below indicate burial of the sample (Gosse and  
211 Phillips, 2001). Half of our samples plot within  $1\sigma$  of the zero erosion curve (Fig. 4). Of the three  
212 that do not meet this criterion, SCARP2 and SB2 plot above the steady-state erosion island and  
213 are therefore considered to reflect measurement errors as a consequence of the high natural  $^{27}\text{Al}$   
214 content. Sample LB2 is indicative of rapid burial for  $\sim 1.5$  Ma which is not possible at this site.  
215 This sample is interpreted as having a complex exposure history and is therefore not used in our  
216 exposure model. Discounting these three samples, the  $^{26}\text{Al}$  data indicate the most recent failure  
217 occurred  $1243 \pm 395$  ( $\pm 1\sigma$ )  $^{26}\text{Al}$  years ago. The mean estimate of the samples from the landward  
218 and seaward blocks indicates the previous failure occurred  $3761 \pm 464$   $^{26}\text{Al}$  years ago.

219 As a consequence of the uncertainty around the  $^{26}\text{Al}$  results, our interpretation relies  
220 solely on  $^{10}\text{Be}$  data. Based on the samples from the backscarp, the most recent failure at the site  
221 is dated to  $1064 \pm 348$   $^{10}\text{Be}$  years. Dating of the Upper Greensand blocks falls within  $1\sigma$  of the  
222 exposure age of the relict scarp face on the landward block confirming these blocks were  
223 deposited at the same time as the exposure of this feature. This suggests that the boulders were  
224 deposited along the top of the seaward block during the same event that exposed the relict scarp  
225 face at  $3471 \pm 366$   $^{10}\text{Be}$  years. The upper layer of the debris apron would also have been  
226 deposited from this event. The boulders on top of the seaward block would then have been  
227 entrained when it moved down slope during the most recent failure dated at  $1064 \pm 348$   $^{10}\text{Be}$   
228 years. This sequence of events is in agreement with that suggested by Hutchinson et al. (1991)  
229 and is shown graphically in Fig. 2. The main source of error with  $^{10}\text{Be}$  in diagenetic silica (chert)

230 is meteoric contamination of the samples (Zerathe et al., 2013). However, given the broad  
231 agreement of our results with usable  $^{26}\text{Al}$  data and the radiocarbon dates reported by Preece  
232 (1986) it is unlikely that this is a significant source of error.

233         The data indicate a failure chronology for the St Catherine's Point landslide complex in  
234 relation to the Holocene transgression as illustrated in Fig. 5. Our data support the sequence of  
235 events given by Hutchinson et al. (1991) and Hutchinson and Bromhead (2002) although the  
236 most recent failure is much younger than was previously estimated. Relative sea-level rise  
237 associated with the Holocene Transgression stabilized between 7500 and 5000 years BP as  
238 illustrated in Fig. 5 (Shennan and Horton, 2002). Based on tidal data from the gauge at Sandown  
239 Pier (13.3 km NE), maximum tide height is +2.54 m above ordinance datum. Tidal water would  
240 therefore have been within reach of current mean sea-level ~ 5000 years ago. With regard to  
241 radiocarbon dating reported by Preece (1986), the sample dated to  $3960 \pm 50$   $^{14}\text{C}$  years is roughly  
242 in agreement with our results for the major landsliding event forming the relict backscarp. The  
243 sample dated  $4490 \pm 40$   $^{14}\text{C}$  years is more difficult to interpret. The main problem with using the  
244 dates of deposited woody debris to reconstruct landslide activity is the assumption that tree death  
245 is contemporaneous with landsliding and deposition which may not be the case with this sample.  
246 The study area would have been undergoing significant changes during the mid-Holocene due to  
247 both ground instability and sea-level rise. The age of this sample can be linked to the inundation  
248 of the near shore due to sea-level rise and an examination of the Mollusca present within the soil  
249 column at the sea cliff indicates a shaded environment (Preece,1986). It is therefore likely that  
250 the coastal slope was forested prior to inundation by rising sea-levels and landsliding in the mid  
251 Holocene. This tree was likely felled due to the previous landslide stage forming the lower strata

252 of the debris apron or sea water inundation. However, the sample suggests that the lower  
253 landslide deposits of the debris apron were in place prior to  $4490 \pm 40$   $^{14}\text{C}$  years ago.

254         Based on the timing of relative sea-level rise and the radiocarbon data provided by Preece  
255 (1986), it is likely that initial reactivation of the landslide complex at St Catherine's point  
256 occurred between ~5000 and ~4500 years ago. Following this initial failure, we date the next  
257 event at  $3471 \pm 366$   $^{10}\text{Be}$  years based on the exposure ages of the relict scarp face on the  
258 landward block and the boulders located on top of the seaward block. The data therefore suggest  
259 that the period immediately following the resumption of marine erosion at the site was very  
260 active with two major events within ~1500 years. The debris apron would then have acted to  
261 protect the site from marine erosion, with ~2500 years passing before the most recent failure  
262 (Fig. 5).

#### 263 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

264         Our results indicate that the current morphology of St Catherine's Point was formed by a  
265 landslide event  $1064 \pm 348$   $^{10}\text{Be}$  years ago. This was the most recent of at least two major  
266 landslide events which have occurred at the site since sea-levels stabilized in the mid-Holocene.  
267 We date a previous event to  $3471 \pm 366$   $^{10}\text{Be}$  years, or roughly 1500 years after sea-level  
268 stabilization. Radiocarbon dating of a tree log in the debris apron (Preece, 1986) and the  
269 stratigraphy of the debris apron suggests there may have been another major failure at the site  
270 immediately following the stabilization of relative sea-level 5000 years ago. Based on these  
271 results, the system shows high sensitivity to marine erosion. However, landslide deposits such as  
272 the debris apron act as a negative feedback to this process as they both defend the base of slope  
273 from erosion and provide confining stress to the blocks. Erosion of the debris apron is therefore  
274 identified as a major trigger for landsliding at the site. Management decisions pertaining to slope

275 instability along the Isle of Wight Undercliff and the ~6000 people that dwell upon it requires  
276 accurate information about the past behaviour of the complex (Hutchinson et al., 1991). Our data  
277 indicate a strong empirical relationship between sea-level and past major landslide events at the  
278 site. Over the next century, the south coast of the Isle of Wight is predicted to experience sea-  
279 level rise of between 20 and 84 cm and extreme sea-level events are predicted to be 10 to 20  
280 times more frequent (Moore et al., 2010). The resulting increases to erosion and toe unloading of  
281 the debris apron represents a significant potential trigger for future instability at St Catherine's  
282 Point and elsewhere in the Undercliff.

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Table 1: Litho-stratigraphy of the Isle of Wight Undercliff at Ventnor (Palmer et al., 2007).

Stage	Formation	Unit	~ Thickness (m)
Cenomanian	Lower Chalk	6b	15-31.4
		6a	3.1-3.4
Upper Albion	Upper Greensand	5c	6-8
		5b	20.5-22
		5a	2.1-6.3
	Gault	4b	36-42
Lower Albion	Carstone	4a	3.1-8.5
		3	4.1-9.2
	Sandrock	2e	8.5-10.1
		2d	2.3-2.6
		2c	20.0-21.3
		2b	8.3-9.3
Upper Aptian	Sandrock	2a	3.6-4.6
		1c	>11.4
Lower Aptian	Ferruginous Sands	1c	>11.4

402 Table 2: Sample locations and details - Items in brackets indicate parameters prior to the most  
 403 recent landslide event.  
 404

Sample	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°W)	Altitude (m)	Thickness (cm)	Density (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	Shielding* (factor)
SCARP1	50.5811	-1.301	142	4.4	2.65	0.668
SCARP2	50.5811	-1.301	142	4.0	2.65	0.807
LB1	50.5798	-1.3017	86 (142)	5.6	2.65	0.976 (0.884)
LB2	50.5798	-1.3017	85 (141)	6.0	2.65	0.898 (0.843)
SB1	50.5793	-1.30	95 (95)	9.9	2.65	0.967 (0.967)
SB2	50.5793	-1.30	95 (95)	6.9	2.65	0.979 (0.965)

405 \* Shielding computed after Dunne et al. (1999) and Balco et al. (2008).  
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410 Table 3: Analytical details and exposure ages of the sampled surfaces

Sample	$^{10}\text{Be}$ atoms/g *	$^{10}\text{Be}$ years **	$^{26}\text{Al}$ atoms/g	$^{26}\text{Al}$ years ***	Al/Be
SCARP1	4025±1961	1147±559(568)	30188±3163	1243±395(410)	7.5 ± 1.61
SCARP2	4259±1838	1011±436(445)	68151±6534	2357±529(567)	16.00 ± 3.55
LB1	12259±2976	2700±656(697)	116687±17395	3743±751(819)	9.52 ± 5.84
LB2	18847±4529	4364±1050(1116)	66854±8798	2269±522(558)	3.55 ± 1.94
SB1	18575±2646	4068±580(679)	117178±10998	3773±591(676)	6.31 ± 4.16
SB2	15248±3011	3268±646(706)	115863±15189	3608±698(765)	7.60 ± 5.04

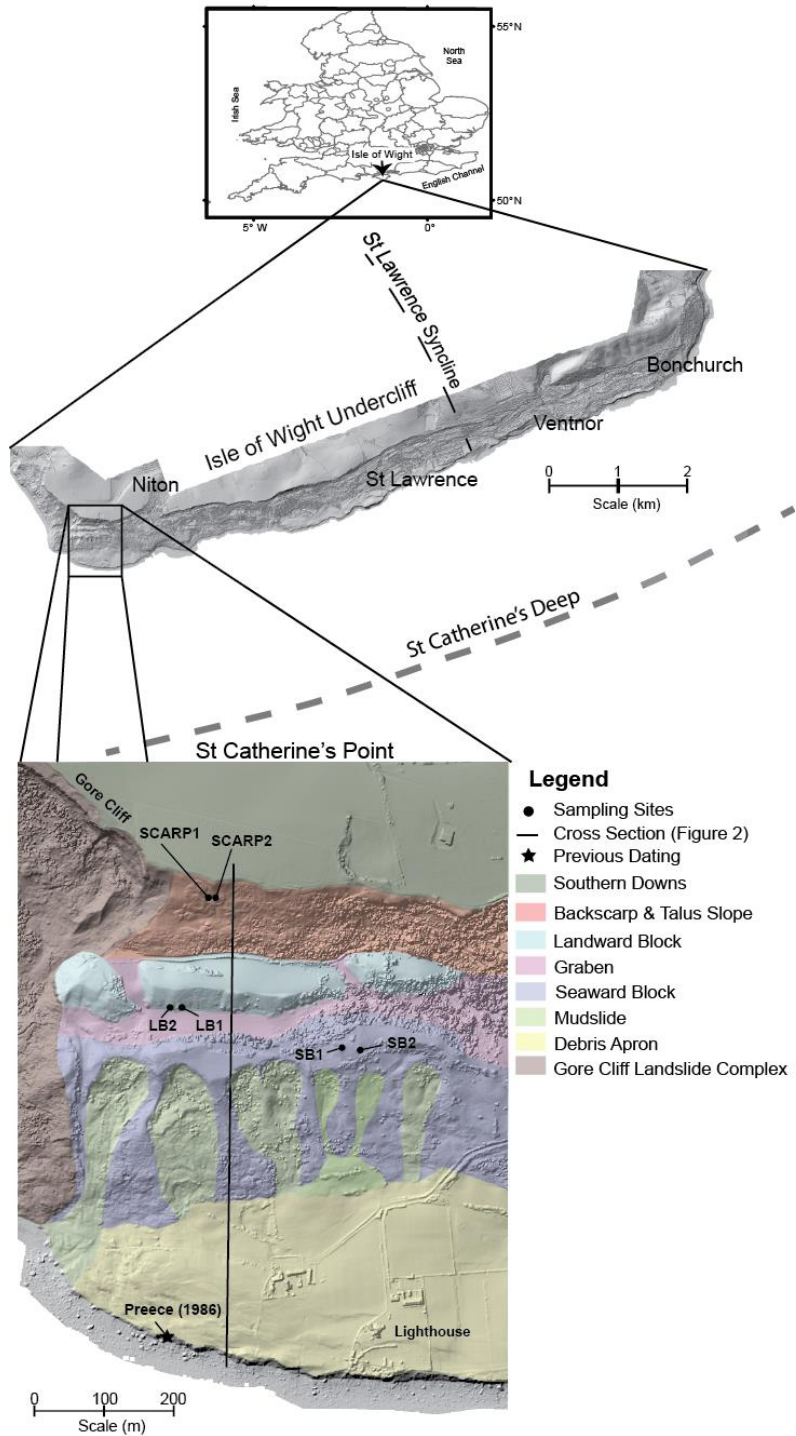
411 \*  $^{10}\text{Be}$  concentrations.  $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$  ratios measured against NIST SRM 4325 with nominal value of  
 412  $2.79 \times 10^{-11}$ .  $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$  ratios were corrected by a full chemistry procedural blank that yielded 26-  
 413 65% of the number of  $^{10}\text{Be}$  atoms in the samples;

414 \*\* Exposure ages calculated using Cronus-Earth  $^{10}\text{Be} - ^{26}\text{Al}$  exposure age calculator v. 2.2  
 415 (<http://hess.ess.washington.edu/>). They assume zero erosion, scaling factors according to Stone  
 416 (2000) and a spallation production rate of  $4.49 \pm 0.39$  atom  $(\text{g SiO}_2)^{-1} \text{a}^{-1}$  (Balco et al., 2008).  
 417 Exposure ages are presented with the internal uncertainties (external uncertainties in brackets).

418 \*\*\*  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{27}\text{Al}$  ratios measured against PRIME-Z92-0222 with nominal value of  $4.11\text{E}-11$ . No  
 419 blank correction was needed for  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{27}\text{Al}$  ratios.

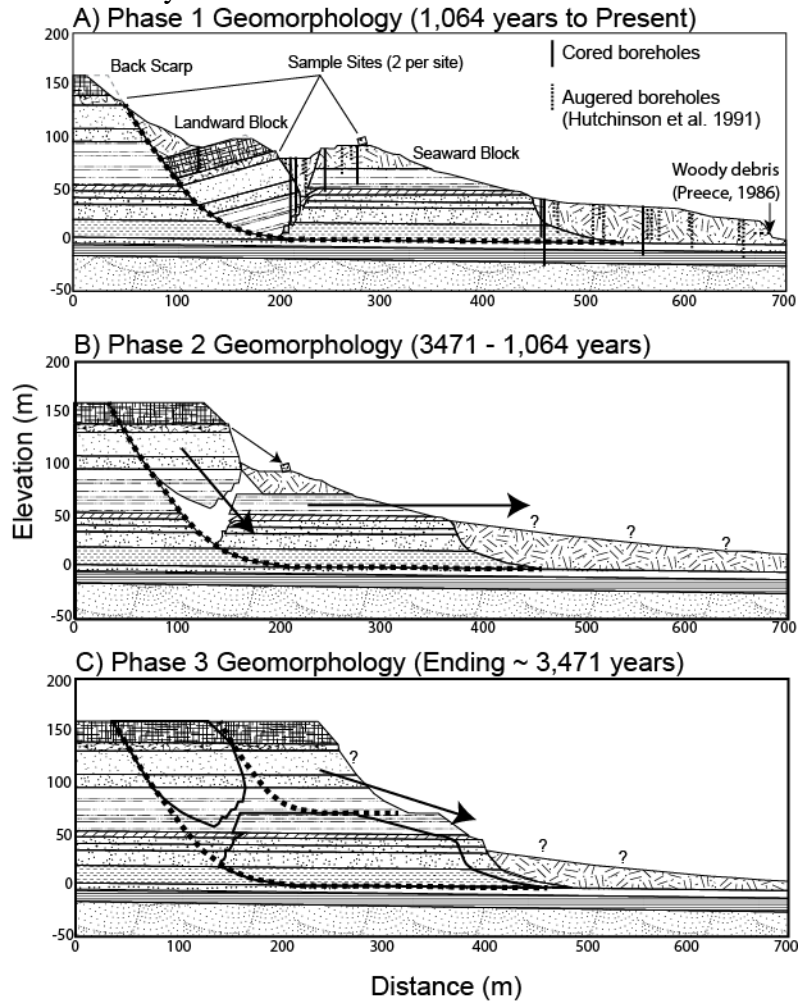
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422 Fig. 1. Site location. Shaded relief map of the Isle of Wight Undercliff and St Catherine's Point  
 423 provided at larger scales with main geomorphological features and sampling sites indicated.  
 424 Dashed line indicates cross sectional transect (Fig. 2). Topographic data courtesy of the Channel  
 425 Coastal Observatory.



426 Fig. 2. Cross-sectional diagram showing the failure chronology of St Catherine's Point landslide complex. A) Current geomorphology. (after Hutchinson et al, 1991); B) Intermediary

429 geomorphology dated from 3471 -1064 <sup>10</sup>Be years; C) Geomorphology prior to failure dated at  
 430 ~3471 <sup>10</sup>Be years.



**Legend**

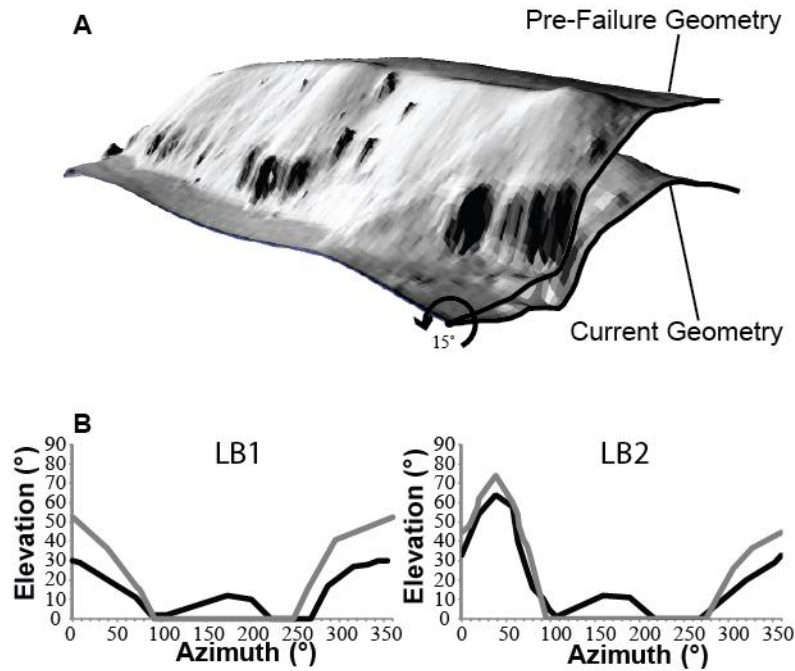
- |  |                           |  |                                 |
|--|---------------------------|--|---------------------------------|
|  | Lower Chalk               |  | Carstone                        |
|  | Cherts of Upper Greensand |  | Sandrock (Clays)                |
|  | Sandstone                 |  | Clay Strata in Ferruginous Beds |
|  | Gault Clay                |  | Debris                          |
|  | Main Shear Surfaces       |  | Block Motion                    |

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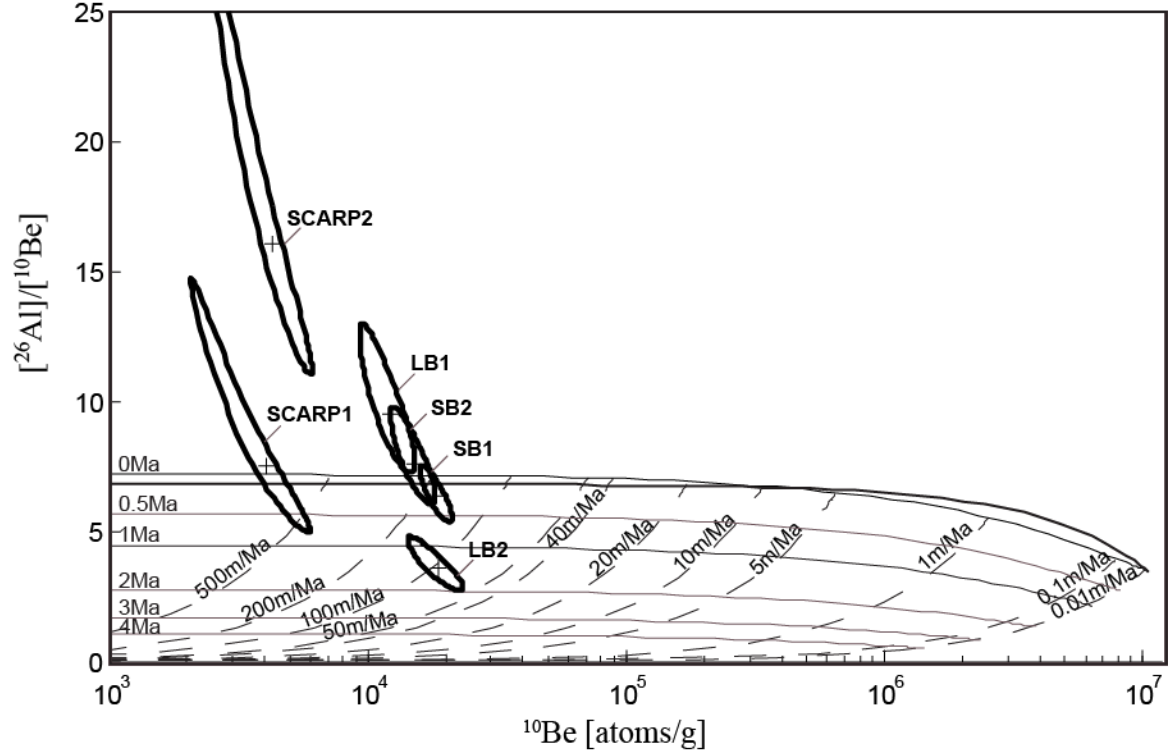
Fig. 3: Topographic shielding effects of rotating the landward block 15°. A) Graphic showing block morphology pre- and post-failure. B) Changes in sky view resulting from the rotation and elevation of the block. Black line indicates current sky view, grey line indicates pre-failure sky view.



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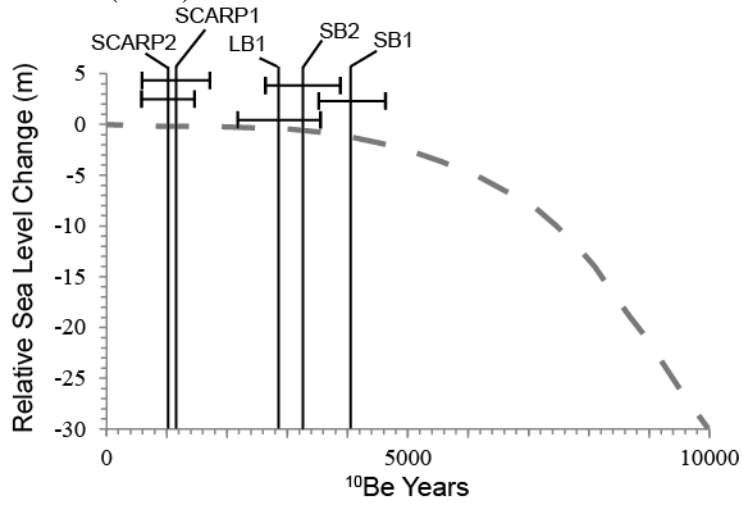
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Fig. 4: Plot of  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  vs.  $^{10}\text{Be}$ . Black line indicates the zero erosion curve. Error ellipses indicate  $1\sigma$ .



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445 Fig. 5. Failure chronology of the St Catherine's Point landslide complex plotted with change in  
446 relative sea-level during the Holocene. Error bars indicate  $1 \sigma$ . Sea-level curve after Shennan and  
447 Horton (2002).



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