

# Improvement of seismic landslide susceptibility assessment through consideration of geological and topographic amplification factors

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**ABSTRACT:** Dynamic modelling of slope stability and seismic response is performed with the ITASCA software packages (UDEC ver. 4.01 and FLAC3D ver. 4.0), which is able to compute deformation and seismic parameters on the basis of discrete elements. Seismic shaking and slope movements have been computed for six long models constructed from real geological profiles of landslide-prone slopes in the Maily-Say Valley, Kyrgyzstan. The seismic response of all models had been studied in the elastic domain. Results of the elasto-dynamic modelling allow us to evaluate the influence of topography and geology on the amplification of Areas Intensity, which is a very important parameter needed for the computation of Newmark displacements using different GIS approaches (Jibson et al., 1998; Miles and Ho, 1999, among others). Curvature has a clear effect on seismic amplification, and also a link between the amplified frequencies and the size of the curved morphology could be established. The changing S-wave velocity of the layers generally has the strongest impact on the amplification potential. Modelling with moving sliding blocks generally shows that elastic amplification either due to topography or to the local geology also enhances shear displacements. The link between frequency content of input signal and resulted displacement value was established based on the results of numerical tests. It was shown that seismic signal of low frequency content results in much higher values of displacement comparing with the signal of higher frequency content when both seismic signals have the same Areas Intensity values. The results of the current study in terms of simplified formulas can easily be used in GIS-based approaches, which finally should make the estimation of landslide susceptibility more reliable and more precise.

**KEYWORSD:** Tien Shan, landslides, dynamic modelling, amplification, Areas Intensity, Newmark displacement.

## 1. Introduction

The Mailuu-Suu River Valley is characterized by a combination of geological and tectonic settings favouring intense landslide activity in this area (Alioshin and Torgoev, 2000; see landslides as dotted light areas in Figure 1). Together with the hazardous environmental situation due to the presence of radioactive tailings close to some active mass movements, landslide activity itself poses significant risk to society. During the last years significant efforts from responsible agencies, such as the Ministry of Emergency Situation, were spent on environmental risk reduction measures. These efforts also take into account the possibility of a regional environmental catastrophe caused by landslide failure, uranium waste tailing destruction and penetration of radioactive material to Mailuu-Suu River flowing to the densely populated Fergana Valley. But, the effectiveness of risk reduction measures strongly depends on results of landslide hazard and risk studies, because some measures, like the removal of radioactive material and its transportation to another site, demand reliable estimation of landslide hazard in any new place of radioactive material disposal.

Nowadays GIS-based methods of landslide susceptibility mapping are widespread because of the relative low costs and the better effectiveness. But, in a lot of cases such kinds of approaches are suffering from over-simplification and need a deeper review of applied techniques. The goal of the current study is to verify the simplified Newmark displacement method developed on the basis of the original Newmark method (Newmark, 1965) and adapted for GIS analyses (Jibson et al., 1998; Miles and Ho, 1999, among others). Numerical simulations are applied to 5 long profiles passing through different landslides to compute seismically induced displacements. These results are compared with those obtained by GIS spatial analysis based on the simplified Newmark approach. Further perspectives include 3D dynamic modelling of a landslide site situated in another study area, the valley of Min-Kush River. This site was investigated by geophysical and seismological methods, which together with ongoing displacement monitoring allow us to compare displacements caused by real seismic events with those obtained by numerical simulations and by

simplified GIS-based approaches. Fig. 1 presents the geological map of the target area in Mailuu-Suu river valley together with profiles indicated on this map.

The northern slopes of the Maily-Say Valley are mainly made up of Paleozoic and partly of Jurassic rocks (Formations CALI and JUCLA in Figure 1) while the foothills in the south are formed by Tertiary sedimentary rocks. The central part of the valley hosting the town of Maily-Say shows a series of folds. The cores of the open anticlines are made of soft siltstone and sandstone (Cretaceous rocks: formations RED, LIGH and SALM) overlain by alternating by Paleogene to Neogene claystone and limestone (Formation LIM, PURP and MAIL in Figure 1). On the basis of a new geological map, the slope instability distribution in the Maily-Say Valley was compared with the geologic setting. The comparison indicates that the highest landslide density is observed for the Purp Formation made of Paleogene claystone. The directly underlying LIM Formation made of Paleogene limestone is the second most susceptible formation to landslide processes. Field observations confirmed that landslides are generally located within soft sediments composed of clay material or loess overlying the limestone layers. The fieldwork revealed that many slope instabilities have their head-scarsps in the limestone layers. This means that they were initiated there, but affected mostly material of the adjacent units. Landslide occurrence also spatially correlates with structural and morphological factors, such as strike-and-dip of the limestone layers, the slope aspect, slope angle, and curvature.

The landscape in the Maily-Say Valley is continuously changing owing to the high landslide activity. The extent of this potentially dangerous evolution was quantified statistically. The total area affected by landslides increased from 1.0 % (~ 1.2 km<sup>2</sup>) in 1962 to 3.3 % in 1984, 4.5 % in 1996, 4.3 % in 2002 and 5.6 % (~ 6.5 km<sup>2</sup>) in 2007 compared to the entire investigated area along the Maily-Say Valley. Landslide size is quite variable; it ranges from 335 m<sup>2</sup> for the smallest detected landslide to 348425 m<sup>2</sup> for the largest one in 2007. Further, the results indicate that the absolute number of large and very large landslides increases over time while the absolute number of small landslides decreases.

In this area, only a few co-seismically triggered landslides are known. However, several post-seismic landslides are likely to be related to partial co-seismic slope failure. Indeed, one of the largest landslides called 'Tektonik' first failed massively in 1992, seven weeks after a local  $M_s=6.2$  earthquake. Another, small landslide was monitored during several years and fracture opening of several tens of centimetres during a distant  $M_s=5.9$  earthquake could be proved at the end of the 90'. In 2005, this slope finally failed to produce a 700 m-long earthflow made of loess.

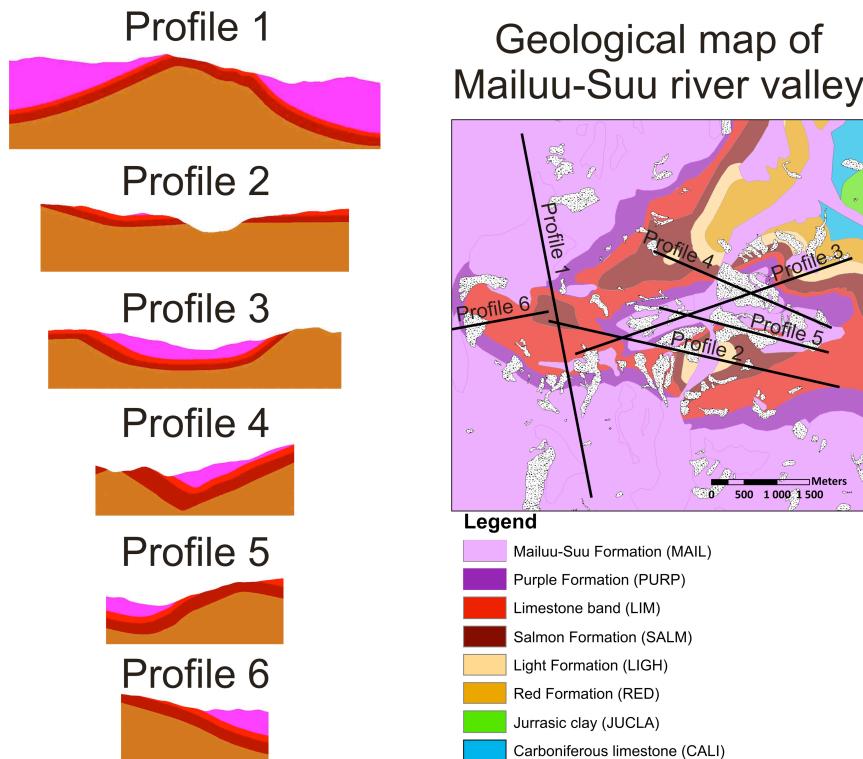


Figure 1. Geological map of Mailuu-Suu river valley with landslides and profiles indicated.

Table 1. Geotechnical settings of different material types used in dynamic modelling.

Material code	Geological code	Cohesion, MPa	Friction angle, deg	Density, kg/m <sup>3</sup>	V <sub>p</sub> , m/sec	V <sub>s</sub> , m/sec	Bulk modulus, MPa	Shear modulus, MPa
Mat1	Purp, Mail (paleogene-neogene loose sediments)	0.04	26	2200	1000	500	1467	550
Mat2	Lim (limestone layer with average thickness of 100 m)	0.1	30	2400	4000	2200	22912	11616
Mat3	Salm (cretaceous loose sediments with average thickness of 155 m)	0.03	30	2200	1500	800	3073	1408
Mat4	Ligh, Red (cretaceous bedrock)	0.08	30	2200	2500	1300	9592	4056

## 2. Dynamical modelling settings

Modelling was performed with the UDEC software (version 4.01) combining computation with discrete elements (allowing for detachment or sliding of blocks along joints) and finite difference zones (filling the blocks and allowing for elastic or elasto-plastic deformation of the bulk material).

Topographic settings of constructed models were defined using DEM with cell size 20x20 m, obtained from SPOT satellite imagery in target area (Schlogel et al., 2010). Geological and tectonic settings were defined using a geological map of scale 1:10000 together with 3D geological model of central part of area (Schlogel et al., 2010). In many cases, initial profiles were extended to a distance of 3-5 km to avoid boundary effects during dynamic modelling. The upper parts of all models with a depth down to 300-500 m were filled with FD-zones using an edge length of 7.5 m, while zones in the lower parts of models have an edge length of 15 m. All external boundaries, besides the surface, were designed to have viscous damping in x- and y-directions to avoid refraction effects during dynamic loading. The materials used in the models were those presented by the geological map and the 3D geological model. Some of the geological layers were integrated into one group according to the similarity of the geotechnical properties (Table 1). Dynamic properties of internal contacts (joint normal stiffness and joint shear stiffness) were assigned on the basis of the shear modulus of the upper layer in contact. At the beginning, all constructed profiles were cycled to obtain an unbalanced force value of less than  $10^{-5}$  N. The stabilized profiles were subjected to dynamic loading using a Ricker wavelet as vertically (from the model base) propagated input signal. The maximum value of acceleration of the input signal was about 1.44 m/sec<sup>2</sup> (0.15 g) and the spectral range of the input signal was between 0.3 Hz and 9.0 Hz. The duration of dynamic loading was 15 sec – within this period of time the recording of different dynamic properties (acceleration, velocity and displacement of ground motion) was recorded by several receivers situated along the surface of model. Obtained recordings were analysed to compute the values of Areas intensity (Ia) recorded in those points. All models were analysed using two different cases – the case of unique material all over the model and the case of varying (real) geological materials. The first case was used to analyse pure topographic effects on the seismic amplification (with respect to a receiver on a flat hard rock site) of Areas intensity (At), while the second case presented the mixed effects of geology and topography on the seismic amplification of this parameter (Atg). Later, obtained values of seismic amplification were analysed to link this value with topographic parameters (curvature, slope angle, elevation) and geological settings. Five long profiles were analysed with a total length of 18.23 km and 101 receivers providing recordings of physical parameters.

## 3. Analyses of Area Intensity amplification factor

### 3.1 Topographic effect

There were some research attempts used to study effect of topography and geology on amplification of input seismic signal (Geli et.al., 1988, Jibson et.al., 1998, Miles and Ho, 1999, Peng et.al, 2009) – the results of these activities inspired some attempt of our research. Pure topographic amplification factors (At) for each receiver were obtained by dividing the Ia value in this point by the one obtained for the point situated close to the model basis (from which the ground motion was propagated). Some receiver points were not taken into consideration due to artificial shaking effects generated along layer contacts and external boundaries.

The remaining majority of points were used to relate At with topographic parameters, like curvature, slope angle and elevation.

Figure 2 presents correlations between these topographic features and pure topographic amplification factors obtained through numerical modelling. As it can be seen from Figure 2a, concave topography favours to deamplification of Areas Intensity down to 60% of initial values of Ia, while convex topography amplifies initial Ia values up to 80%. Flat topography does not bring any effect on Ia amplification, which means At=1. Fig. 2b indicates that steeper slope angles favour deamplification of Ia, which generally was also found by former related research (Havenith and Bourdeau, 2010, Danneels et. al., 2008, Geli et al., 1988). These three topographic parameters were used to obtain predicted values of pure topographic amplification of Areas Intensity (Atcalc). The correlation coefficient between At and Atcalc was 0.87, which indicates a good prediction for this relationship. Figure 3 presents the comparison between At and Atcalc.

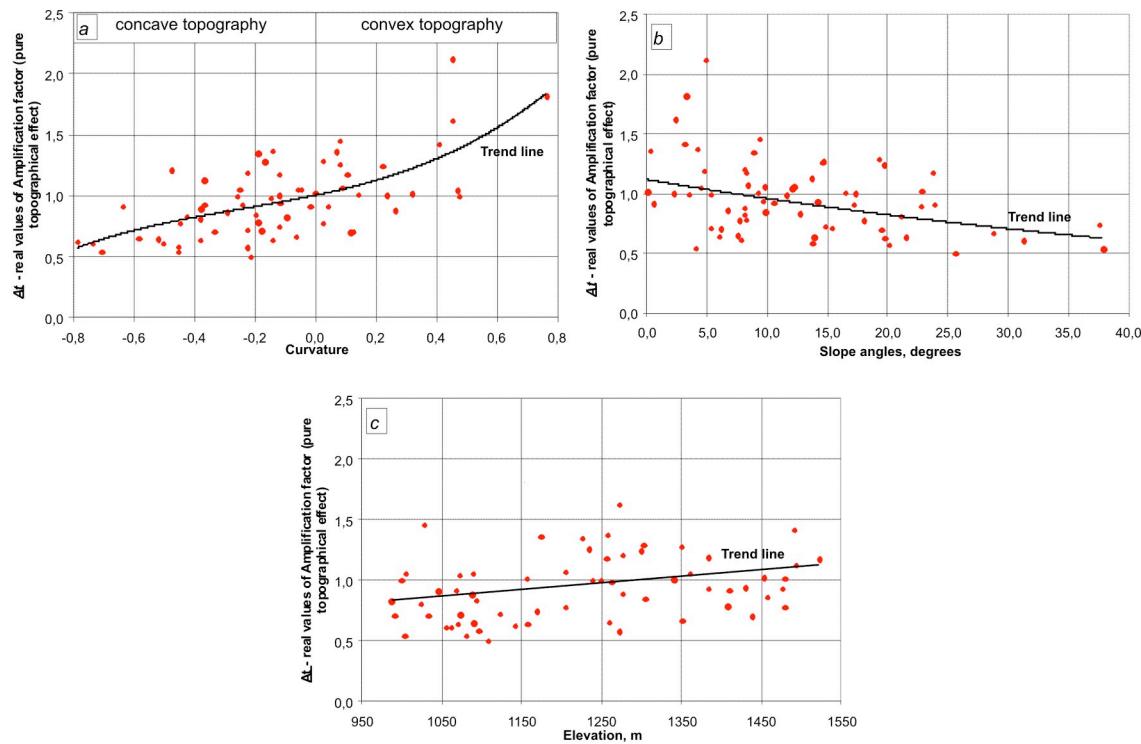


Figure 2. The plots of real values of amplification factors (At) versus: a – curvature; b – slope angle; c – elevation

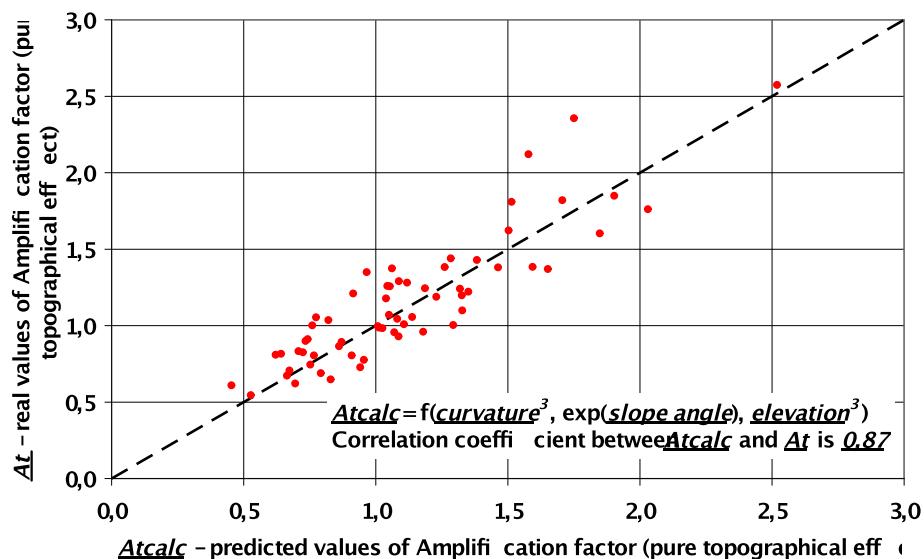


Figure 3. The plot of real values of amplification factors (At) versus predicted values of amplification factor (Atcalc) for pure topographic effect

### 3.2 The effect of geology

Pure geological amplification factor (Ag) was obtained by subdividing of amplification values gained for combined effect of geology and topography (Atg) on ones for pure topographic case (At). In the analyses of Ag there were around 50 % of points filtered out owing to different artificial effects caused along contacts and boundaries in the model. Remaining points were used to calculate predicted amplification factors purely affected by the material type (Agcalc). Table 2 presents the results of Agcalc estimation. As it can be seen from this Table, the highest values of Ia amplification are presented by material 3 (mean value – 2.86), which is explained by the structural and geomechanic characteristics of this layer. In general, this layer of soft, low-velocity material is “sandwiched” between two hard layers, which normally leads to wave focusing and consequently to high values of Areas Intensity. Material 1 also has comparatively high values of Ag (1.73), which can be explained by the fact that this layer is the softest one. However, along all profiles it is located above the hard limestone that may have some “screen” effect on wave propagation, reflecting waves back into material 3, Salm. Therefore, this layer made of the softest material 1 does not present the highest amplification. Pure geological deamplification in the material 2 is caused by the presence of high-velocity material between two low-velocity ones. Material 4 in our modeling was considered to be the bedrock and there is slight, but not significant amplification in this layer.

Table 2. Predicted values of amplification factors (Agcalc) purely affected by material type.

Material code	Mean value of predicted amplification factor	Standard deviation for predicted amplification factor	Number of receivers analysed
Mat1	1.73	0.43	22
Mat2	0.81	0.25	9
Mat3	2.86	0.67	14
Mat4	1.19	0.15	5

### 3.3 Combined effect of topography and geology

Predicted values of combined amplification factor affected by both topography and geology (Atgcalc) were calculated as multiplication of topographic amplification factor (Atcalc) by geological one (Agcalc). Real values of combined amplification factor (Atg) have a correlation coefficient 0.75 with predicted values of this parameter (Atgcalc). This still indicates a good relationship between constructed relationship and observed values of this parameter. Figure 4 presents the plot of Atg versus Atgcalc.

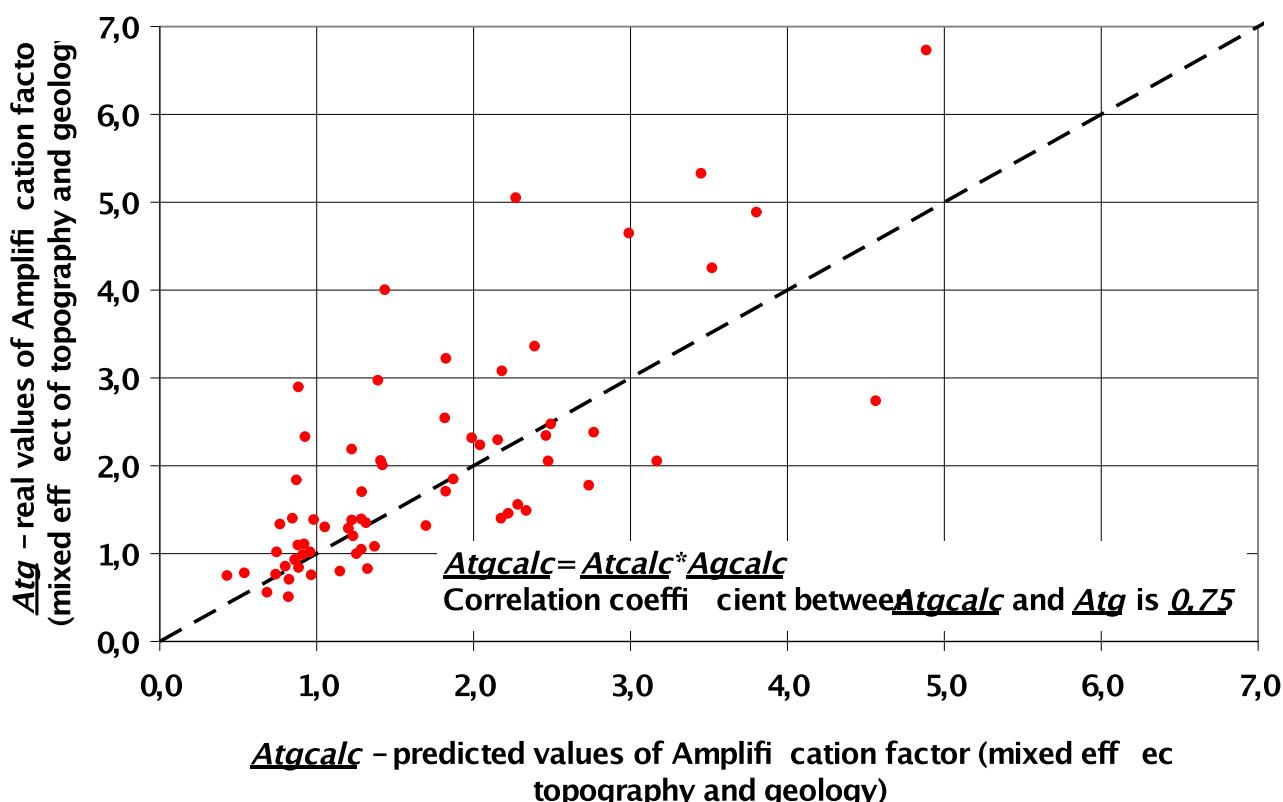


Figure 4. The plot of real values of combined amplification factors (Atg) versus predicted values of amplification factor (Atgcalc) for combined effect of topography and geology.

#### 4. Conclusions and perspectives

The goal of this study is to integrate the results concerning the Arias Intensity and its amplification factors into the calculation of Newmark displacement. At present, the various modified Newmark approaches consider only regionally varying Ia values (due to seismic wave attenuation from the epicenter). Such kind of prediction of amplification factor of Ia (here called ‘Atgcalc’) can easily be integrated into the widely used GIS-based analyses of seismic landslide susceptibility mapping. To be able to do so, the perspectives of our current activity involve more extended numerical studies in the target area both in the elastic and elasto-plastic domain. Elasto-plastic dynamic modelling allows us to compare obtained values of displacements with those calculated with the Newmark displacement method (some preliminary tests have been started). Another perspective of the current activity also includes 3D dynamic numerical modelling of a target site situated in another area, where real seismic events caused certain amount of displacement in different parts of the landslide. This site was also studied from seismological and geophysical points of view, which finally give more reliable estimates of input parameters and provide good verification of obtained results. Final results of current study should make the Newmark displacement method more reliable in the mapping of landslide susceptibility in different parts of the world.

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