

1 **Landslides caught on seismic networks and satellite radars**

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9 **Key Points:**

- 10
- 11 • Seismic data and satellite radar imagery are jointly used to detect and characterize
landslides
 - 12 • The method is validated on a recent sequence of landslides in the Swiss Alps
 - 13 • The operational implementation of our approach can be used to improve the
14 completeness of landslide catalogues
- 15

16 **Abstract**

17 We present a procedure to detect landslide events by jointly analyzing data acquired from
18 regional broadband seismic networks and spaceborne radar imagery. To validate the method, we
19 consider a series of six slope failures associated to the Piz Cengalo rock avalanche recently
20 occurred in the Swiss Alps, a region where we can benefit from high spatial density and quality
21 of seismic data, as well as from the high spatial and temporal resolution of the ESA Copernicus
22 Sentinel-1 radar satellites. The operational implementation of the proposed approach, in
23 combination with the future increase in availability of seismic and satellite data, can offer a new
24 and efficient solution to build and/or expand landslide catalogues based on quantitative
25 measurements, which are the base of hazard assessment and early warning systems at regional
26 scale.

27

28 **Plain Language Summary**

29 Information on when, where and how landslides events occur is the key to build complete
30 catalogues and perform accurate hazard assessments. Despite recent efforts, quantitative datasets
31 are rare. Here we show a procedure that allows to benefit from the increased density of seismic
32 sensors installed on ground for earthquake monitoring, as well as from the unprecedented
33 availability of satellite radar data. We show how the procedure works on a recent sequence of
34 landslide occurred at Piz Cengalo (Swiss Alps) in 2017. The results show that our approach
35 provide important information on the location and magnitude of landslide events, and could be
36 used operationally to build more complete catalogues and eventually improve the accuracy of
37 landslide hazard assessment.

38

39 **1 Introduction**

40 Landslides cause globally fatalities and devastation, with remarkable effects on low-income
41 and/or developing countries (Froude & Petley, 2018). While the spatial occurrence of landslides
42 is related to intrinsic geo-morphological, and climatic characteristics (Stead & Wolter, 2015),
43 catastrophic failures arise when slope materials reach a critical damage state (Petley, 2004). In
44 many cases, the ultimate trigger towards failure events is related to anthropic activities, extreme
45 meteorological events, and earthquakes (Bayer et al., 2018; Huang Mong-Han et al., 2017;
46 Lacroix et al., 2019).

47 Quantitative and accurate data on timing, location and size of landslides events are crucial to
48 study the relationships between local and regional preconditioning factors, to recognize potential
49 causes, as well as to identify the potential effects of climatic forcing. Moreover, efficient early
50 warning systems at regional scale rely on the availability of accurate and complete landslide
51 catalogues (Gariano & Guzzetti, 2016). Despite recent efforts, the knowledge on spatial and
52 temporal landslide distribution is often incomplete. The information about landslide volume,
53 runout, velocity, etc. is usually available only when the events threat life or damage
54 infrastructures, as well as when they are associated with large earthquakes or exceptional
55 meteorological occurrences. These catalogues, however, deliver only a partial picture of the
56 impact of such events on the landscape. In addition, many landslide events are unreported

57 because they occur in remote regions and do not have immediate and/or relevant impacts on
58 human activities. This strongly hinders the completeness of inventories used for hazard
59 assessment and for calibration of early warning systems at regional scales (Guzzetti et al., 2019).

60 In recent years, two methods dominated the panorama of landslide event detection, i.e. satellite
61 remote sensing and seismic data analyses. This is mainly due to the increased availability and
62 quality of these datasets at global scale, as well as to the open data access policies. In particular,
63 Earth Observation (EO) data acquired through different satellite missions are more and more
64 exploited by systematic visual interpretation, as well as supervised and unsupervised automatic
65 classification methodologies, in order to build catalogues of landslide events triggered by large
66 earthquakes and/or extreme meteorological events (Mondini et al., 2019; Tanyaş et al., 2017).
67 Further, despite the identification of signatures of landslide events in seismic networks deployed
68 for earthquake monitoring is not a new observation (Govi et al., 2002; Weichert et al., 1994),
69 advances and diffusion of broadband seismic sensors have increased the possibility to detect and
70 locate also landslide events of small-moderate size at regional scales. Automatic or semi-
71 automatic procedures adapted from earthquake location routines have demonstrated good
72 performances (Chao et al., 2017; Dammeier et al., 2011; Ekstrom, 2006; Fuchs et al., 2018);
73 however, while uncertainties of several km can be tolerated in case of earthquake epicentral
74 locations, landslides are extremely confined phenomena affecting a single slope (or only small
75 portions of it). For this reason, a more accurate location of the events is necessary.

76 In this work, we jointly use broadband seismic data and spaceborne radar imagery to show a
77 procedure allowing for a systematic detection and location of landslides, as well as an initial
78 definition of their area of impact, and their magnitude. We present results over the region
79 recently affected by the Piz Cengalo, a steep granitic massive located in the central Alps at the
80 border between Switzerland and Italy (see Figure 1), The area was repeatedly affected by large
81 ($> 1 \text{ Mm}^3$), rock slope failure processes in the past decades, with the main event on August 23,
82 2017, being the largest ($>3 \text{ Mm}^3$) and most catastrophic reported in recent years, causing 8
83 fatalities as well as damages in the range of 50M\$. A detailed description of the event, its
84 preconditioning factors, potential causes, the dynamics of the rock slope failure and the
85 subsequent debris flow reaching the village of Bondo, is beyond the scope of this work. Thus,
86 the readers are referred to the recent literature for more information on these specific topics
87 (Mergili et al., 2019; Walter et al., 2019).

88 **2 Materials and Methods**

89 We consider Piz Cengalo as an exemplary case to demonstrate the potential of the combination
90 of seismic and spaceborne radar data to provide quantitative information on landslide occurrence
91 in an alpine scenario. We benefit from the high spatial density of the AlpArray seismic network
92 (Hetényi et al., 2018) and from the unprecedented spatial and temporal resolution of Sentinel-1
93 Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) imagery (Torres et al., 2012). In the following, we describe the
94 steps to initially define a candidate location region with seismic data, and then apply change
95 detection investigations on Sentinel-1 SAR imagery to refine the location and identify the slope
96 failure event. Hereafter, we will use the term “landquake” to define “landslide events recorded
97 by seismic sensors”, as increasingly proposed in literature (Chen et al., 2013).

98 **2.1 Seismic data processing**

99 We consider a total of six events occurred at Piz Cengalo between August 21 and October 10,
100 2017 (see Table 1). The landquakes are characterized by different magnitude in terms of volumes
101 and runout, and occurred all in the same slope but different stages of the progressive failure
102 process: LQ1 occurred two days before the main failure, three events on August 23, 2017, ,
103 (LQ2-LQ4), while LQ5 about a month later and LQ6 about two months later). Figure 2 shows the
104 distribution of the AlpArray stations and examples of the signals for the LQ2 detected at
105 different distances from the source. The apparent velocities are on the order of 3 km/s, thus
106 compatible with surface waves generated by surficial mass movements (e.g., Dammeier et al.,
107 2011).

108 The Swiss Seismological Service (SED) routinely recognizes landslide phenomena in seismic
109 records of stations located in Switzerland and in the vicinity of the national borders. Despite
110 monitoring procedures are not optimized to detect mass movements, these are systematically
111 reported. After an event detection (at least 3 stations triggered on the SED network), a first order
112 manual solution is obtained by identifying coherent energy at multiple stations, identifying these
113 typically as S-waves, by using a regional 3D velocity model. In general, locations are more
114 accurate when seismic stations are close to the event and there is good azimuthal distribution of
115 observations. For the Piz Cengalo landquake event associated to the largest failure (LQ2), the
116 closest station is at ~ 25 km and the location accuracy has uncertainties on the order of ± 5 km.

117 To perform our back analysis on the Piz Cengalo sequence, we define a temporal window of 10
118 minutes centered on the date and time provided by SED with the manual procedure described
119 above. We consider the waveforms recorded by all the AlpArray broadband stations available for
120 each event and focused on the HHZ channel (i.e., the vertical velocity component of high broad
121 band sampled at or above 80Hz, generally 100 or 200 Hz). The choice of the HHZ channel is
122 justified by previous studies showing that such component usually entails the largest energy in
123 case of landquakes (e.g., Dammeier et al., 2011). We apply a STA/LTA detection (see details
124 and parameters in the Supporting Information, table S1) to find the onset time of the event at
125 each station. Then, we compute the time delay between the first triggered station, assumed to be
126 the closest to the event, and all the other stations identifying an event in the same temporal
127 window. The resulting values are interpolated on a regular grid of 0.25×0.25 degrees, spatially
128 smoothed with an average filter (3x3 kernel), and then normalized to obtain a new function
129 defined here as “Likelihood of Landquake Location” (LLL). The candidate region of interest
130 (ROI) potentially affected by a landquake is defined by considering $LLL > 0.95$, and to target the
131 change detection processing on a spatial subset of available Sentinel-1 radar scenes.

132

133 **2.2 Sentinel-1 SAR data processing**

134 We adopt the change detection processing proposed in (Mondini, 2017), here specifically
135 modified to tackle single events instead of populations of landslides. The analysis is performed
136 to identify potential variations of surface backscattering occurred between the pre- and post-
137 event images, over the area with $LLL > 0.95$ (projected into SAR coordinates). After data
138 acquisition, pre-processing of the radar imagery includes radiometric, and geometric corrections,
139 multi-looking, and filtering of the intensity values to obtain the radar brightness coefficient (Beta
140 Nought, β_0) with a cell resolution of about 14 m x 14 m. Changes of β_0 have demonstrated to be

141 a suitable indicator for the detection of landslide events of different size and occurred in different
142 geographic scenarios (Mondini et al., 2019). In the maps of β_0 changes, landslides appear as
143 clusters of similar values in a bulk of speckles. The β_0 changes map is then segmented using a
144 parametric watershed approach (Roerdink & Meijster, 2000) in which the scale level and the
145 moving window kernel size parameters of the intensity algorithm are automatically assigned
146 minimizing a cost function (Mondini, 2017). The segmentation process is aimed at identifying in
147 the candidate area $LLL > 0.95$ a unique segment (i.e., the largest, potentially delineating changes
148 associated to the landquake) and a number of small segments intercepting the speckle-like effect
149 present in the β_0 changes map. Thus, the landquake is recognized as an outlier in the segment's
150 distribution of the areas. The boundaries of the outlier segment, re-projected from SAR to ground
151 coordinates, provide the potential location of the landquake.

152

153 **3 Results**

154 Figure 3 shows the exemplary results obtained by analyzing the seismic data available for the
155 LQ2 event. This is the largest landquake, and its seismic signature was detected by tens of
156 stations up to ~ 500 km distance from the source. The computed LLL function is approximately
157 centered on Piz Cengalo massive. The area within $LLL > 0.95$ is in the order of $10,000 \text{ km}^2$, i.e.
158 $\sim 1\%$ of the entire seismic network considered (the AlpArray covers ~ 1 Million km^2). However,
159 this is still very large for an accurate identification of a slope failure event affecting an area of
160 about 1 km^2 (Walter et al., 2019).

161 The initial candidate region defined by the LLL function is used to first identify the available
162 Sentinel-1 imagery in terms of time of acquisition and orbit. In this specific case, the suitable
163 Sentinel-1 orbits are the T015, ascending, and T066, descending, respectively. Then, the change
164 detection processing is not applied to the entire image, but only to the area with $LLL > 0.95$,
165 which is 20% of the acquired SAR scene. Figure 4 shows the best results of the change detection
166 analysis obtained on the ascending T015 imagery (see Supporting Information, Table S2). Due to
167 the temporal proximity of the LQ1-LQ4 sequence (occurred within two days, see Table 1), the
168 LQ2 event cannot be singularly discriminated, because the Sentinel-1 constellation revisit time is
169 of six days. The LQ2, however, has been certainly the main cause of the surface changes, and for
170 this reason we refer hereafter mainly to this event. The outlier segment that identified covers an
171 area of $\sim 0.9 \text{ km}^2$, about two orders of magnitude larger than the average areas of the segment's
172 distribution. The footprint and the dimensions of this segment are in very good agreement with
173 the area affected by the rock avalanche (Walter et al., 2019). The events LQ5 and LQ6 are
174 smaller in magnitude, and the changes on the SAR image cannot be univocally defined as for the
175 LQ2 (see Supporting Information, Figure S2 and S3). Nevertheless, the location of the largest
176 segments identified within the Bondasca valley fall very near to the area affected by the Piz
177 Cengalo landquake sequence.

178

179 **4 Discussion and Conclusions**

180 Seismic data are capable to provide an indirect evidence of the time of landslide occurrence also
181 in inaccessible locations, but independent validation is necessary for event confirmation and
182 classification (Ekström & Stark, 2013). On the other hand, remote sensing data can deliver direct
183 evidence of the areas hit by landslide events, but independent observations are necessary to
184 identify the exact time of occurrence (Guzzetti et al., 2012). We propose an approach exploiting
185 seismic and remote sensing (specifically, space borne SAR data), which is suitable for the
186 development of automatic pipelines aimed at a systematic identification, location and first
187 evaluation of landslides. We have shown as an exemplary case the application to a sequence of
188 events recently occurred in the Swiss Alps. Our results provide several hints on the potential
189 application of this approach in operational scenarios.

190 We have applied a STA/LTA approach for the identification of the event on a arbitrary
191 constrained temporal window. The STA/LTA method has shown to be suitable for the automatic
192 detection of mass movements in continuous seismic records also for early warning purposes,
193 although specific calibration of the parameters used is necessary and depend on the sensors, the
194 network configuration, and local conditions (Coviello et al., 2019). One of the main argument
195 against the use of the STA/LTA approach in the detection of mass movement signals lies in the
196 inaccuracy for the determination of the event's onset, which might cause errors on the
197 subsequent location procedures (Fuchs et al., 2018). Since we refine the location using the
198 remote sensing imagery, the STA/LTA approach is sufficient to initially constrain the candidate
199 region for the change detection task. Inaccuracies up to seconds of the STA/LTA detection that
200 would cause dramatic inaccuracies in location routines based on seismic data only, would cause
201 only negligible changes on the LLL function. Despite the candidate location is identified with a
202 basic proximity approach, the source region is already reasonably well constrained for all six LQ
203 events considered (see also Supporting Information, Figure S1). This result is possible only when
204 a relatively high spatial density of seismic sensors is available, such as the AlpArray network.
205 More advanced location routines can be applied, but homogenization of procedures across large
206 areas like entire alpine chain is not straightforward. In addition, an increased level of complexity
207 would not correspond to an obvious increase of accuracies for landslide location.

208 Another important issue after detection is the distinction and/or classification of the signals
209 recorded in continuous seismic waveforms (e.g., earthquakes, explosion, mass movements,
210 anthropic sources, etc.). Several authors proposed empirical based relationships, signal
211 processing and/or machine learning strategies, achieving good performances (Dammeier et al.,
212 2016; Hibert et al., 2019; Moore et al., 2017). Here we considered the method proposed in
213 (Manconi et al., 2016) based on the ratio between the local magnitude and the duration
214 magnitude, to distinguish between local earthquakes and landquakes. The results show that with
215 this approach the Piz Cengalo sequence could have been automatically classified as landquakes
216 (see Table 1). This strategy, including the empirical evaluation of the rockslide volumes based on
217 the empirical relationship observed with the duration magnitude, has been recently implemented
218 in an operational regional system in Taiwan showing encouraging results (Chang et al., 2020).

219 As far as the change detection analysis on the Sentinel-1 SAR data is concerned, the location of
220 landquakes as the LQ2 (i.e. in this case the LQ1-LQ4 sequence) is straightforward. The event is
221 large and causes a relevant drop of the backscattering coefficient in the post event image,
222 spatially over sizing the surrounding random changes always present in SAR images (speckling-
223 like effect). Furthermore, other environmental changes in the area are not relevant, and in this

224 specific case, mostly in the direction of an increase of the backscattering coefficient. The results
225 of the segmentation are unambiguous in all the images whatever the acquisition mode and the
226 polarization are, even if the final segments can be slightly different. Additionally, post
227 processing, like smoothing or gap-filling filtering, can also change partially the final shape of the
228 segment and the identified area. On the contrary, the identification of the LQ5 and LQ6 events
229 shows more complexity and it is not nonambiguous. According to seismic data, their sizes are
230 smaller compared to LQ2, and then corresponding changes of the backscattering coefficient are
231 expected to be less prominent in the bulk of random speckles. When the signs left on the SAR
232 image amplitude have a size comparable the speckling-like segments, landslides cannot be
233 univocally recognized. Regarding LQ5, the entire area of investigation is also affected by
234 distributed environmental changes dropping the backscattering coefficient, which can be affected
235 by snow and/or other atmospheric disturbances. Only a supervised post processing (further
236 filtering) over the valley, which facilitated the segmentation, allowed to highlight a potential
237 cluster of interest. For LQ6, a small but clear signal is present in the catchment, along the slope,
238 but is not the largest in size considering the entire distribution of segments. There are other
239 signals present in the neighboring valleys that could mislead the analysis. For LQ5 and LQ6, the
240 signals emerge only in the ascending imagery with VH polarization, another possible indication
241 of the change of roughness along the slope (Sung & Holzer, 1976). A potential adaption for the
242 operational implementation of our approach could be running the change detection task on
243 progressively increasing LLL thresholds (e.g., 0.95, 0.975, etc.). This could provide additional
244 hints on possible hot-spots, which can be verified with subsequent SAR acquisitions and/or
245 supplementary remote sensing imagery (space-borne or air-borne).

246 The key message of this study is to show how the systematic combination of seismic and remote
247 sensig data can be useful for identification and mapping of landslide events. The use of Sentinel-
248 1 SAR satellites shows the advantages of all weather, day and night, and systematic acquisitions
249 at global scale. When available, optical imagery and/or SAR imagery acquired with different
250 bands, full polarimetric, or with higher spatial resolution can eventually contribute to an increase
251 the quality and the quantity of the information.

252 We conclude remarking that our approach is not intended to be used for early recognition of
253 landslides or as early warning tool. The main goal of an operational implementation could be to
254 systematically populate landslide catalogues relying on quantitative and accurate information on
255 timing, magnitude, and frequency also in remote areas. Improved catalogue completeness is very
256 important for the calibration of regional early warning systems based on rainfall thresholds, as
257 well as on regional hazard assessments (Guzzetti et al., 2019). The availability of remote sensing
258 imagery with daily or sub-daily revisit times could lead to an employment in early detection of
259 landslide events and possibly also in disaster response scenarios, but these potential applications
260 have to be evaluated in future studies.

261 **Acknowledgments**

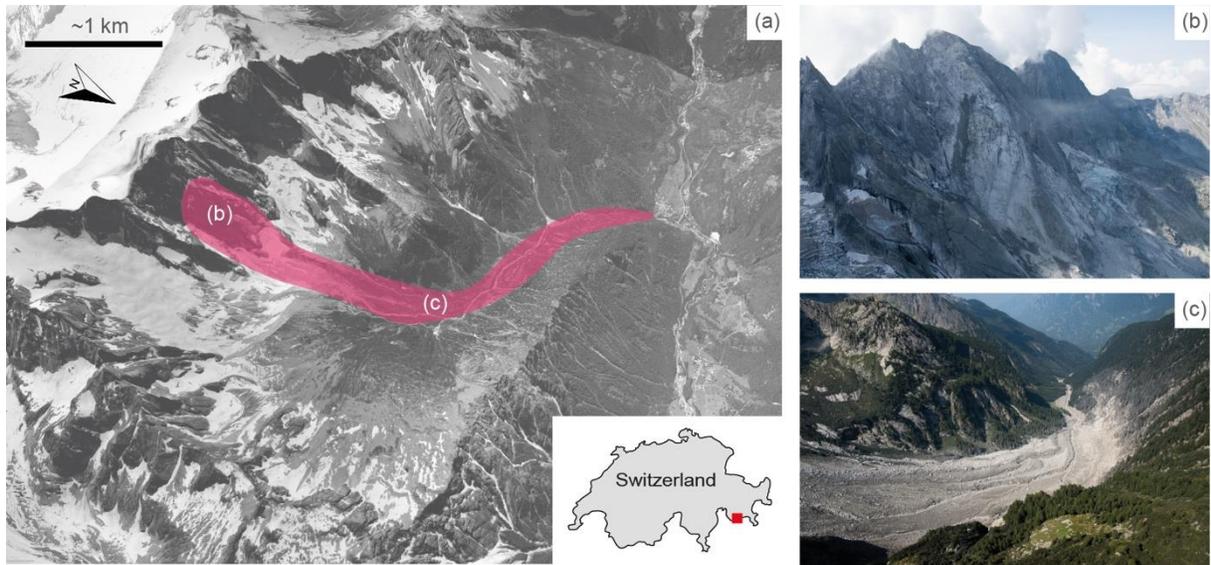
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263 The AlpArray working group (update 23 january, 2021) is listed in the Supporting Information.
264 More information can be found at <http://www.alparray.ethz.ch/>)
265

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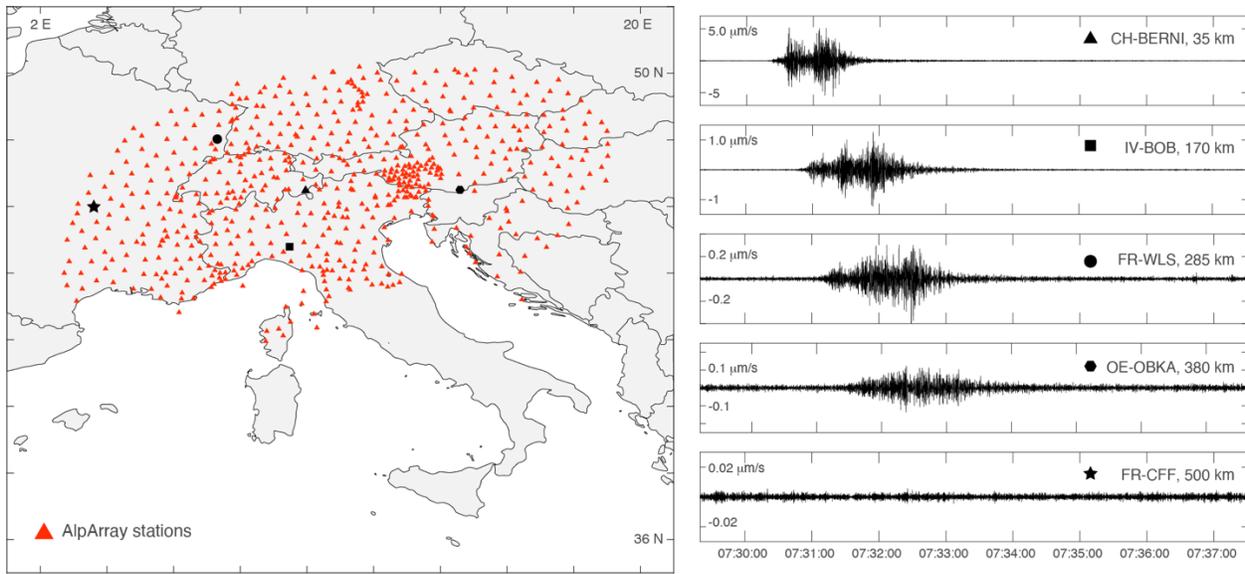
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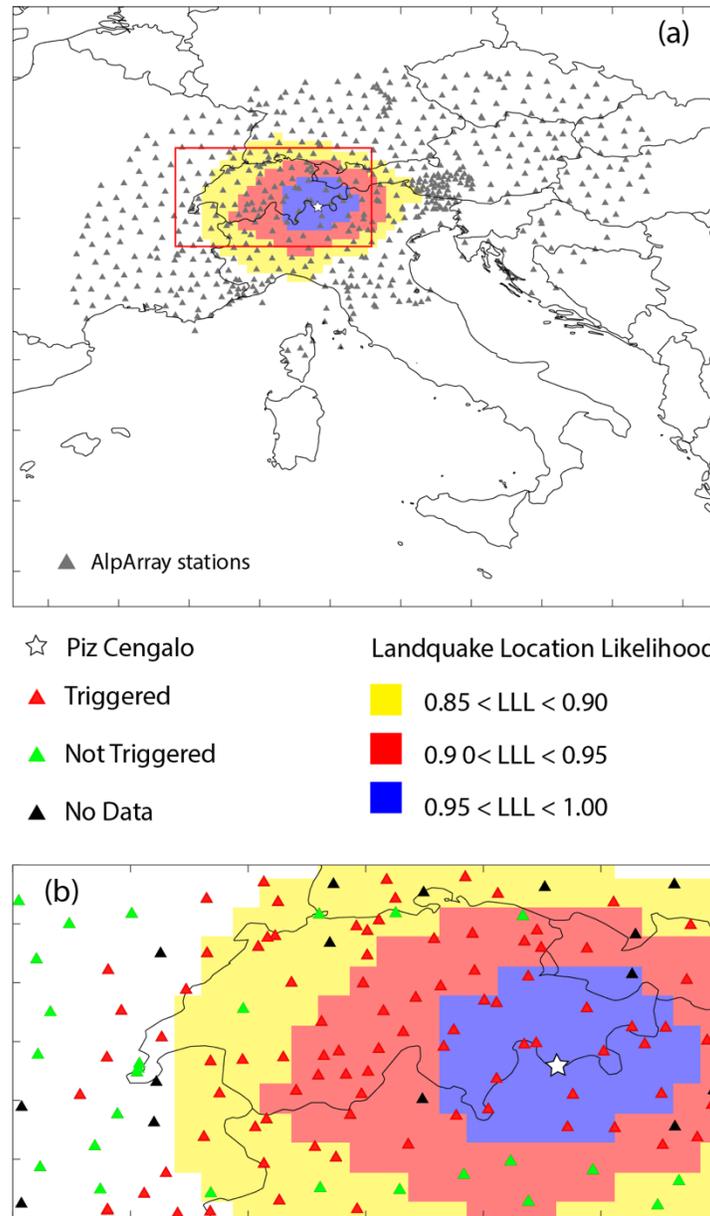
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Figure 1. Overview of the area of investigation. (a) Google Earth© view of the Val Bondasca, with approximate outline of the area affected by the Piz Cengalo (46.29475° N, 9.602056° E) rock avalanche and subsequent debris flows; (b) Detail of the release area, August 25, 2017; (c) Detail of the deposits, August 30 2017. © Photos VBS swisstopo Flugdienst.



374

375 **Figure 2.** Seismic network and data (left) The AlpArray network of broad band stations. (right)
 376 Selected signals (vertical component HHZ) recorded by AlpArray stations located at different
 377 distances from event LQ2 (see table 1), occurred on August 23, 2017 (i.e., the main Piz Cengalo
 378 rock avalanche event).
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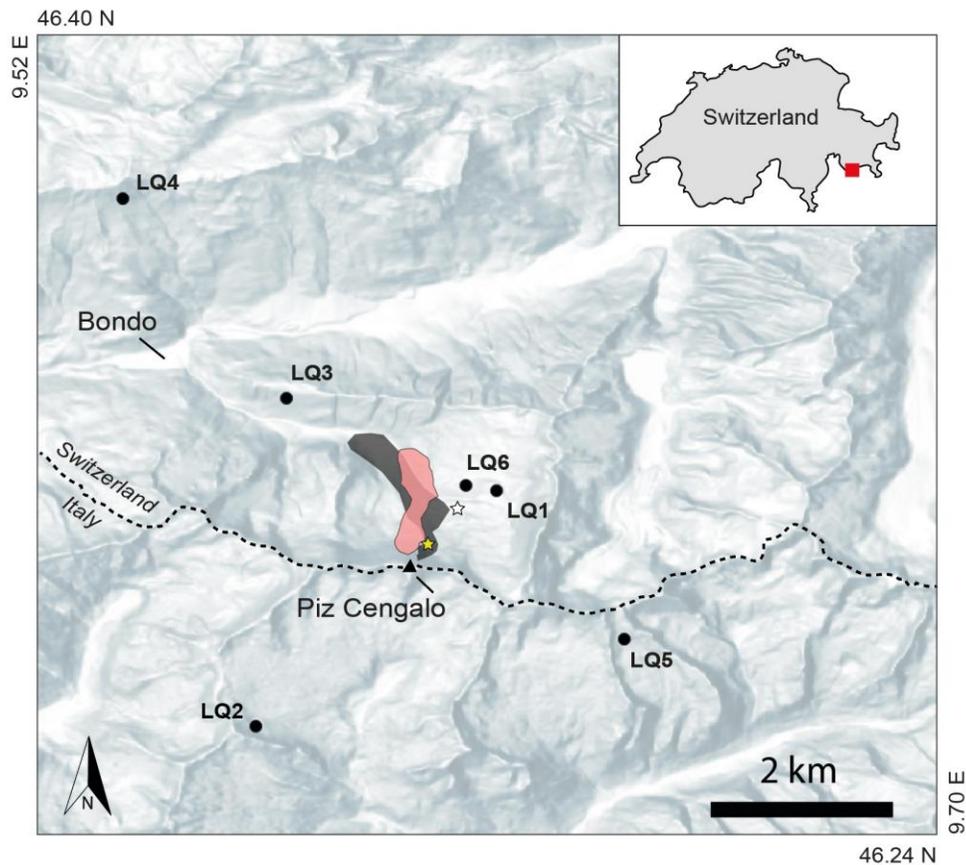


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382 **Figure 3.** Likelihood of Landquake Location (LLL) based on the arrival time of seismic signals
 383 recorded by AlpArray stations. This basic analysis of the seismic data is used to constrain the
 384 approximate location where a landslide event has occurred. (a) LLL over the entire AlpArray
 385 network (b) Zoom on the areas with high likelihood. The area $0.95 < LLL < 1.0$ is used to confine
 386 the change detection analysis. True location of the Piz Cengalo event (white star) is also shown.
 387

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390 **Figure 4.** Results of the change detection analysis. The red polygon shows the area identified as
 391 potential landquake location for the main Landquake event (i.e., LQ1-LQ4) identified by
 392 processing the Sentinel-1 pre- and post-event, while the gray polygon is the area hit by the rock
 393 avalanche (cf. Walter et al., 2019). The white star and the yellow star show the locations of the
 394 largest segments for LQ5 and LQ6, respectively, identified within the Bondasca valley. The black
 395 dots show the epicentral locations provided by SED (see Table 1).
 396

397

Event ID	Date/Time (UTC)	ML	MD*	ML/MD	Vol (Mm3)
LQ1	2017-08-21T09:29:09	2.3	3.03	0.75	0.078 - 0.167
LQ2	2017-08-23T07:30:27	3.0	3.71	0.80	1.65 - 2.61
LQ3	2017-08-23T09:03:57	1.3	2.86	0.45	0.02 - 0.14
LQ4	2017-08-23T09:36:16	2.1	3.22	0.65	0.12 - 0.50
LQ5	2017-09-15T20:04:36	2.3	3.26	0.70	0.23 - 0.41
LQ6	2017-10-10T02:58:41	1.1	2.65	0.41	0.014 - 0.035

398 **Table 1.** Summary of the landquakes analyzed in this study and associated to the Piz Cengalo
399 slope failure. ML are estimated by SED, while average magnitude duration (MD) and volumes
400 are computed following Manconi et al., 2016, by considering the event duration on all triggered
401 AlpArray stations. Note that all LQ events have ML/MD have ML/MD less or equal to 0.8, i.e.
402 they can be discerned from earthquake events which typically have ML/MD ~ 1.