

1 **Earthquake-induced landslides susceptibility evaluation: a case study**
2 **from the Abruzzo Region (Central Italy)**

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13 **Abstract**

14 Landslides are widespread natural phenomena that play an important role in landscape evolution and
15 are responsible for several casualties and damages. Slope instability is linked to the combination of
16 geological, geomorphological, and climatic factors with various triggering mechanisms; among these,
17 seismic shaking can induce relevant changes in the landscape, leading to coseismic and post-seismic
18 phenomena such as landslide events. The Abruzzo Region (Central Italy) is severely affected by
19 Earthquake-Induced Landslides (EILs), linked to the geomorphological dynamics and the severe
20 seismicity of the area. The distribution, mechanisms, and typology of landslides are strictly related to
21 the different physiographic and geological-structural settings. This paper focuses on the realisation
22 of an EILs susceptibility map, following a heuristic approach combined with a statistical analysis,
23 integrated using GIS technology. This approach led to the identification of nine instability factors.

24 These factors were analysed for the construction of thematic maps. Hence, each factor was assigned
25 proper expert-based ranks and weights based on the critical evaluation of literature data as well as on
26 available landslide inventories and combined in a preliminary map wherein high/low numerical
27 values correspond to a high/low propensity of the slope to fail; furthermore, a statistical analysis of
28 these values was performed to derive suitable susceptibility classes. Results presented herein
29 highlight the robustness of the approach; remarkably, the applied methodology is suitable even in
30 areas where a detailed landslide catalogue is lacking, when the same classification and weighting of
31 available parameters is performed. The statistical analyses and the adoption of an absolute scale
32 ranging from minimum to maximum potential values, finally, ensures the comparability of results
33 among different study areas. Finally, this work represents a scientific and multidisciplinary tool for
34 better defining situations that could lead to hazards (such as landslides) following an earthquake to
35 develop sustainable territorial planning, emergency management, and loss-reduction measures.

36

37 *Keywords: earthquake-induced landslides, susceptibility assessment, heuristic method, statistical*
38 *evaluation, cluster analysis, Central Italy*

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Hazard and risk related to landslide events have become a topic of major interest in recent years,
41 given the growing awareness of concomitant socio-economic implications as well as environmental
42 degradation, climatic change, rapid population growth, and improper land use (Aleotti & Chowdhury,
43 1999; Salvati et al., 2010; Konovalov et al., 2019; Nowicki Jessee et al., 2020).

44 It is widely recognised that slope instability is linked to the combination of geological,
45 geomorphological, and climatic factors with triggering mechanisms generally ascribable to extreme
46 weather events, seismic inputs, and anthropic activities (Guzzetti et al., 2005; Carabella et al., 2019,
47 2020; Livio & Ferrario, 2020; Esposito et al., 2021). Among these, seismic shaking can induce
48 relevant changes in the landscape, leading to coseismic and post-seismic phenomena such as landslide

49 events. These can occur with sizes ranging from small, shallow failures in soil to large, deep rock
50 avalanches, along with phenomena responsible for extensive damages and many casualties, as shown
51 by several historical and recent earthquakes (Miccadei et al., 2010; Livio & Ferrario, 2020; Martino
52 et al., 2020; Pace et al., 2020; Oswald et al., 2021). Furthermore, Earthquake-Induced Landslides
53 (EILs) are generally responsible for severe damages and losses, as demonstrated by last decadal
54 records when more than 50% of total worldwide losses due to landslides are associated with coseismic
55 slope failures (Keefer, 1984, 2002; Crescenti et al., 1984; Petley, 2012; Fan et al., 2019; Martino et
56 al., 2020). Remarkably, over the past years, the use of Geographical Information Systems (GIS) and
57 pioneering remote sensing techniques have considerably improved our ability to map earthquake-
58 induced landslides and to schedule activities for land defence, protection, and management
59 (Hasegawa et al., 2009; Bozzano et al., 2010; Marchesini et al., 2014).

60 Landslide susceptibility is identified as the propensity of landslide events to occur in a given area,
61 regardless of whether such events have already taken place or not. In detail, it can be defined as the
62 estimate of the likelihood that a landslide phenomenon happens in a specific area based on local
63 geomorphological conditions, without any statement about when it could happen (Varnes, 1984;
64 Guzzetti et al., 1999; van Westen et al., 2006). A review of the existing literature regarding its
65 evaluation criteria results in several approaches, depending on the final purpose and the scale of
66 analysis, integrated with GIS techniques for the realization of thematic data layers, the computation
67 and integration of controlling factors and data, and the assignment of weights. These various
68 procedures can be generally classified into three main groups: heuristic, statistical, or deterministic
69 methods (Fell et al., 2008; Rapolla et al., 2012; Marsala et al., 2019). Concerning statistical methods,
70 in recent years several approaches have been developed based on multivariate statistics or artificial
71 neural networks, which are becoming increasingly important also in the analysis and prediction of
72 earthquake-induced ground effects and represent a valuable tool since they can provide objective
73 results (Martino et al., 2019; Amato et al., 2021). These studies have been conducted based on either
74 detailed post-earthquake field investigations, aimed at producing comprehensive EILs inventories, or

75 catalogues already available for the analysis, allowing a better evaluation of the role played by
76 predisposing factors on EILs occurrence at different scales.

77 Within this general framework, landslide susceptibility maps exert an undeniable role since, in
78 addition to containing relevant information on the current geomorphological instability condition of
79 an area, depict its tendency to collapse in a probabilistic way (Guzzetti et al., 2006; Cascini, 2008).

80 Areas of interest are usually divided into sectors sharing comparable susceptibility values and labelled
81 according to them. Sometimes, the effort of making the understanding of the map quite immediate
82 for the reader can lead to the identical classification of regions belonging to different areas while
83 having different degrees of susceptibility - e.g., two or more regions can be labelled as "Highly
84 susceptible" for having the highest susceptibility values detected in areas they belong to, regardless
85 of whether or not their actual susceptibility degrees are comparable. Furthermore, for a given area
86 available EILs inventories do not necessarily feature the completeness and the accuracy required for
87 a good-quality statistical susceptibility evaluation.

88 Therefore, it is necessary to develop a repeatable methodology able to produce comparable results
89 over different regions independently of the presence or absence of suitable landslide catalogues.
90 Accordingly, in this paper, a heuristic approach for the assessment of EILs susceptibility is proposed,
91 with the aim of detecting landslide detachment prone sectors and categorising them based on their
92 susceptibility degree. Achieved results are then statistically analysed to provide a meaningful data
93 classification; an example of its application to the Abruzzo Region in Central Italy is therefore
94 presented. The work could constitute an important methodological tool for the implementation of
95 land planning and loss-reduction measures and contribute towards the determination of situations that
96 could lead to hazards (such as landslides) following an earthquake. Finally, it shows that accurate and
97 multidisciplinary methodological approaches can provide important information, readily available for
98 local administrations and decision-makers, for the implementation of sustainable land planning,
99 emergency management, and buildings or structures design.

100 2. Study area

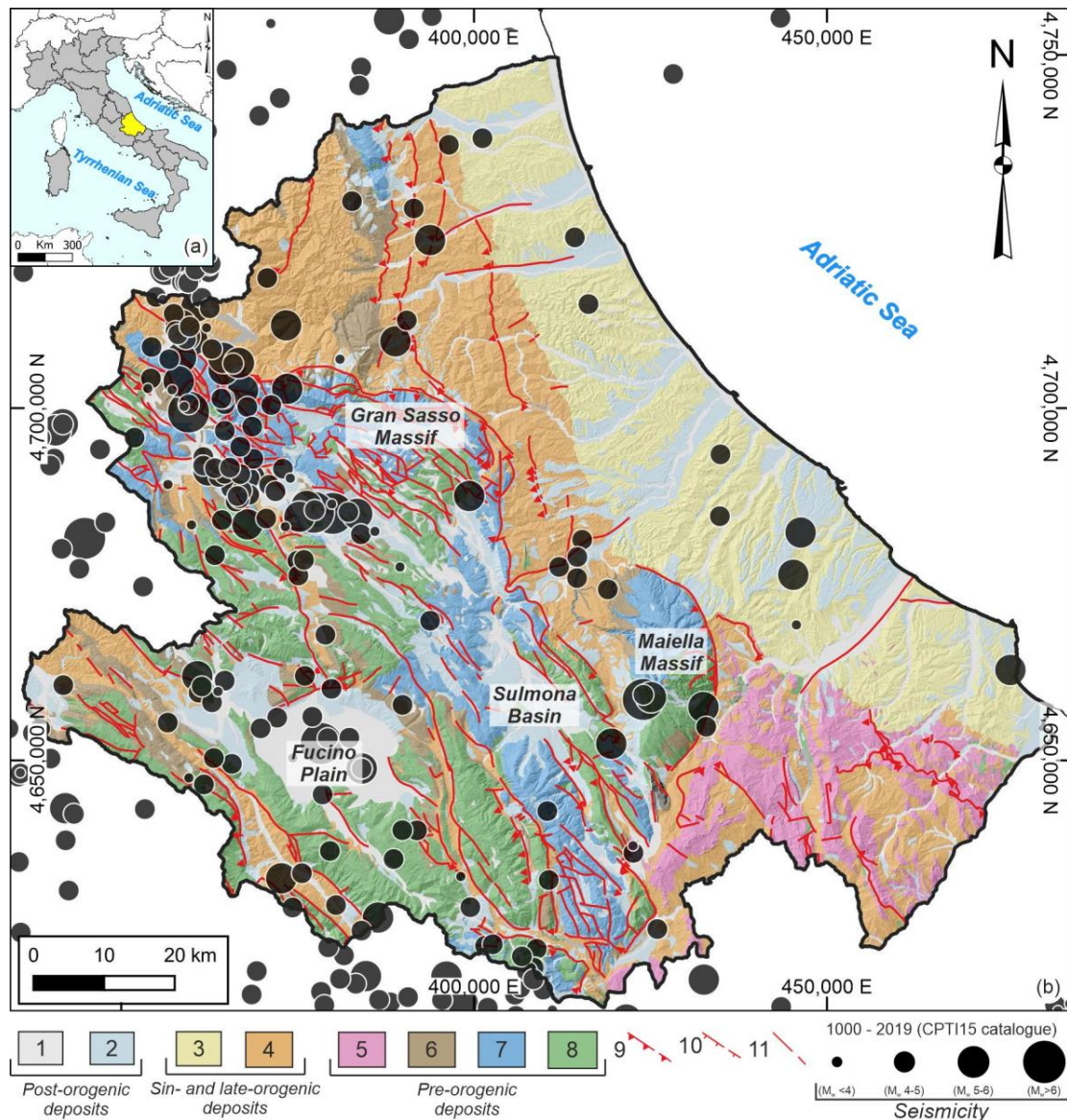
101 2.1 Geological and geomorphological setting

102 The Abruzzo Region is located in the central-eastern part of the Italian peninsula. The landscape is
103 characterised by three main orographic and morphostructural domains: the Apennine chain area, the
104 piedmont area, and the coastal plain (D'Alessandro et al., 2003). The chain area is characterised by a
105 series of mountainous ridges NW-SE aligned with elevations stretching from 1000 to 2900 m above
106 mean sea level (a.m.s.l.); wide valleys and intermontane basins are often interposed (i.e., Fucino
107 Plain, Sulmona Basin). The chain consists of pre-orogenic carbonate lithological sequences relating
108 to different Mesozoic-Cenozoic structural domains comprising sequences with different thicknesses,
109 rheology, and erodibility. The bedrock of the main ridges of the Abruzzo Apennines consists of
110 carbonate shelf, slope, and pelagic basin facies, while pelagic sequences are widespread outcropping
111 in the Molise Apennines consisting of a chaotic assemblage on clayey-marly-limestone units; locally
112 Quaternary continental deposits, consisting of alluvial, marshy, detrital, and eluvial-colluvial deposits
113 occur (Parotto et al., 2004; D'Alessandro et al., 2008; Piacentini & Miccadei, 2014; Miccadei et al.,
114 2017). The chain sharply decreases down to the piedmont area (stretching from ~600 to ~300 m
115 a.m.s.l.), which features a cuesta and mesa landscape gently sloping towards the Adriatic Sea and
116 incised by SW-NE river valleys. It is mainly composed of sin- and late-orogenic deposits constituted
117 by pelitic-arenaceous turbiditic foredeep sequences, which are often covered, with the presence of
118 erosional surfaces, by clay, sand, and sandstone of hemipelagic sequences with conglomerate levels
119 (Ascione et al., 2008; Bigi et al., 2013). The coastal area is characterised by a sub-horizontal clayey-
120 arenaceous-conglomeratic sequence affected by regional uplift, with elevations ranging from 0 to 300
121 m a.m.s.l.; the landscape is constituted by shores (80%) and steep rocky sectors (20%), and is shaped
122 by fluvial, slope, and coastal processes that have combined thus producing a plateau and mesa relief
123 (Figure 1; Calista et al., 2019; Miccadei et al., 2019).

124 The major tectonic elements are represented by N-S to NW-SE-oriented thrusts, which influenced the
125 chain morphostructural sector from the Late Miocene to the Early Pliocene. This tectonic phase
126 caused the tectonic units' complex superimposition, one above the other and above the syn-orogenic
127 turbiditic sequences. This tectonics phase was followed by strike-slip tectonics characterised by NW-
128 SE to NNW-SSE-oriented faults largely disguised by subsequent extensional tectonics. Subsequently,
129 the orogen underwent regional uplifting since the Early Pleistocene that, in connection with local
130 extensional tectonics affecting the chain area, caused the uplifting of the chain system, the formation
131 of the intermontane basins, and the emersion of the Adriatic Piedmont (Figure 1; D'Agostino et al.,
132 2001; D'Alessandro et al., 2003; Parotto et al., 2004; Patacca et al., 2008; Miccadei et al., 2012;
133 Sembroni et al., 2020).

134 In this context, the geological, structural, and geomorphological setting of the region is the
135 consequence of a complex cyclical evolution that happened in subsequent phases with the leading
136 role of morphostructural features related either to the conflicting tectonic movements and regional
137 uplifting or to drainage network linear down-cutting and slope instability processes (Demangeot,
138 1965; Bigi et al., 1995; Miccadei et al., 2017). In the inner sectors, processes and landforms mainly
139 result from the slope gravity, surface water, karst activity, and litho-structural setting. Slope gravity
140 processes involve the main slopes of ridges, with the formation of debris cones and talus slopes at
141 their feet. Landslide events are widespread, with typologies influenced by the lithological and
142 morphostructural settings: falls, topples, and debris flows along the carbonate ridges; slides and
143 earthflows in areas where terrigenous successions outcrop (D'Alessandro et al., 2003; Carabella et
144 al., 2019; Calista et al., 2020); also karst landforms widely characterise the region, mainly affecting
145 the chain area and its carbonate ridges (Miccadei et al., 2018). Structural landforms (structural
146 surfaces and scarps, ridges alignments, cuestas, hogbacks, etc.), gravitational processes (i.e.,
147 rotational and translational slides, complex landslides), and fluvial landforms (alluvial fans and
148 terraces, badlands, gully erosion) mainly characterise the piedmont area (D'Alessandro et al., 2008;
149 Della Seta et al., 2008; Carabella et al., 2021; Esposito et al., 2021). In the coastal sector, marine

150 landforms prevail with steep cliffs and wide shores interested by intense geomorphological processes
 151 controlled by the morphostructural setting. These processes are primarily represented by erosive
 152 processes, new landslides in correspondence of vertical rocky coasts, and local reactivations of
 153 ancient landslides (Calista et al., 2019; Miccadei et al., 2019).



154 **Figure 1.** (a) Location of the Abruzzo Region in Central Italy; (b) Geological sketch of the Abruzzo Region. Legend:
 155 post-orogenic deposits - (1) actual fluvial deposits (Holocene), (2) old/terraced fluvial and alluvial fan terraced deposits
 156 (Middle-Late Pleistocene); sin- and late-orogenic deposits - (3) clay, sand, and sandstone of hemipelagic sequences with
 157 the presence of conglomerate levels (Late Pliocene-Early Pleistocene), (4) pelitic-arenaceous turbiditic foredeep
 158 sequences (Late Miocene-Early Pliocene); pre-orogenic deposits - (5) clay-marl-limestone of the Molise pelagic
 159 sequences (Oligocene-Miocene), (6) carbonate ramp limestones (Early Miocene- Early Pliocene), (7) slope and pelagic
 160 sequences (Oligocene-Miocene), (8) carbonate ramp limestones (Early Miocene- Early Pliocene), (9) slope and pelagic

161 basin limestones and marls (Cretaceous-Miocene), (8) carbonate platform limestones (Jurassic-Miocene); (9) main thrust
162 (dashed if buried); (10) main normal fault (dashed if buried); (11) main fault with strike-slip or reverse component (dashed
163 if buried); seismicity -CPTI15 (Rovida et al., 2021) catalogue (black circles).

164 *2.2 Seismicity*

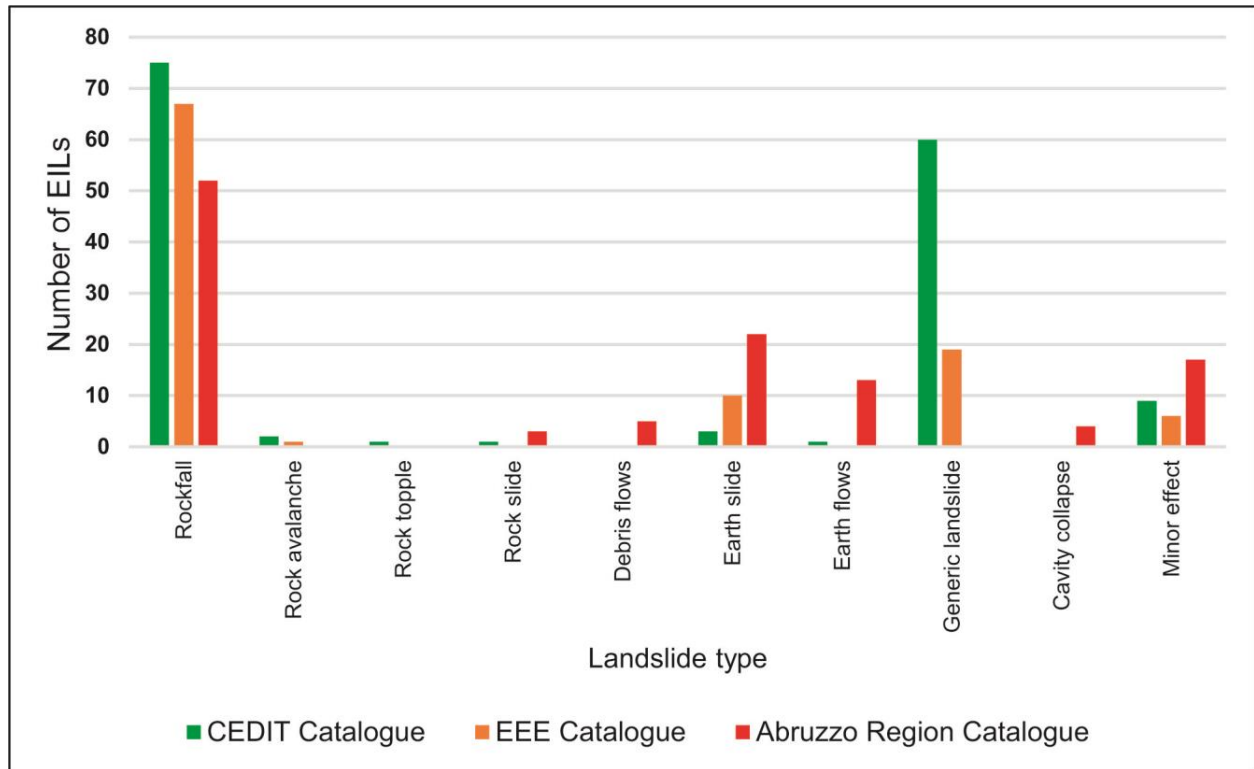
165 The seismicity of the study area must be contextualised in the general framework of the Central
166 Apennines, where several earthquakes are documented by historical sources since the beginning of
167 the 19th century (i.e., Baratta, 1901 and, more recently, Valensise et al., 2020) and listed in the
168 historical and instrumental catalogues (ISIDe Working Group, 2007; CFTI5Med, Guidoboni et al.,
169 2019; CPTI15, Rovida et al., 2021). The seismic activity has been used for defining the
170 seismotectonic framework of the area (i.e., Boncio et al., 2009; Vannoli et al., 2012) while active
171 tectonic studies on the different fault systems allow the identification of the related seismogenic
172 sources (Basili et al., 2008; DISS Working Group, 2018). The present-day tectonic setting is
173 dominated by extension, active in the axial part of the chain (e.g., Carafa et al., 2020), which is also
174 the area characterised by the most intense seismicity and strongest historical earthquakes (up to M
175 7.0; e.g., Majella Massif, 1706; Fucino, 1915; L'Aquila, 2009; Central Italy 2016-2017). Conversely,
176 the Adriatic piedmont and the offshore area are characterised by moderate seismicity in a
177 compressional domain on the outer thrust fronts of the central Apennines belt and along E-W shear
178 zone cutting through the Adriatic lower plate crust (Figure 1; Fracassi and Valensise, 2007; Di Bucci
179 & Angeloni, 2013; Kastelic et al., 2013; DISS Working Group, 2018).

180 According to this seismotectonic framework, the Abruzzo Region suffers mainly the shaking effects
181 induced by strong earthquakes that enucleate along the axial zone of the Apennines and in
182 neighbouring areas of Central Apennines, as clearly observed during the 2016-2017 Central Italy
183 seismic sequence (e.g., Luzi et al., 2017). However, in the Adriatic piedmont also lower magnitude
184 and shallower earthquakes may locally induce high shakings (see, for example, the 2002 Molise
185 earthquake; Gorini et al., 2004).

186 2.2.1 *Earthquake-Induced Landslides (EILs)*

187 In the last decades, detailed geomorphological analyses have shown that the Abruzzo Region is
188 severely affected by EILs, linked to the extreme dynamics of the area. The distribution, mechanisms,
189 and typology of mass movements are strictly related to the different physiographic and geological-
190 structural settings. In detail, EILs in the chain area are mainly comprised of rockfalls, occurring
191 especially on calcareous slopes, and minor earth slides, debris and earthflows, snow avalanches, and
192 cavity collapses; in piedmont or coastal areas, on the other side, they are mainly comprised of
193 rockfalls on scarps set on Quaternary clayey-sandy and conglomeratic deposits, by earth slides/flows,
194 and by anthropogenic sinkholes collapse, occurring especially in urban areas (Blumetti et al., 2009;
195 Miccadei et al., 2010; Piacentini et al., 2013, 2020; EMERGEO Working Group et al., 2016).

196 The analysis of available catalogues of earthquake-induced effects allowed the reconstruction of their
197 spatial and temporal distribution in the Abruzzo Region; in particular, the CEDIT catalogue (Italian
198 catalogue of earthquake-induced ground failures - Fortunato et al., 2012; Caprari et al., 2018) contains
199 more than 150 earthquakes and about 2000 earthquake-induced effects, which affected almost 1100
200 locations; this catalogue was recently updated with the Central Italy seismic sequence which occurred
201 in 2016-2017. The catalogue is created on the basis of a detailed investigation of historical documents
202 as well as on the analysis of numerous scientific papers. The analysis of documented earthquake-
203 induced effects reveals that most of them concern landslides, being about half of the total incidents
204 (44%). The EEE catalogue (Earthquake Environmental Effects catalogue - Guerrieri, 2015) aims to
205 collect the wealth of information of geological and environmental effects caused by seismic events;
206 it is composed of tables with information at site of each EEE, especially ground effects features. This
207 database was updated with the 2016-2017 Central Italy seismic sequence, too. Finally, the landslide
208 inventory map of the Abruzzo Region (Abruzzo Region, 2011) includes the definition, recognition,
209 and detailed cartography of different types of landslides. It contains several EILs, most of which
210 consequent to the L'Aquila seismic event of April 6, 2009. A total of 446 EILs were extracted from
211 the analysis of the catalogues and categorised according to the landslide kinematics (Figure 2).



212
 213 **Figure 2.** Bar chart showing the distribution of the type of EILs for each analysed catalogue (Abruzzo Region, 2011;
 214 Fortunato et al., 2012; Caprari et al., 2018; Guerrieri, 2015) over the Abruzzo Region.

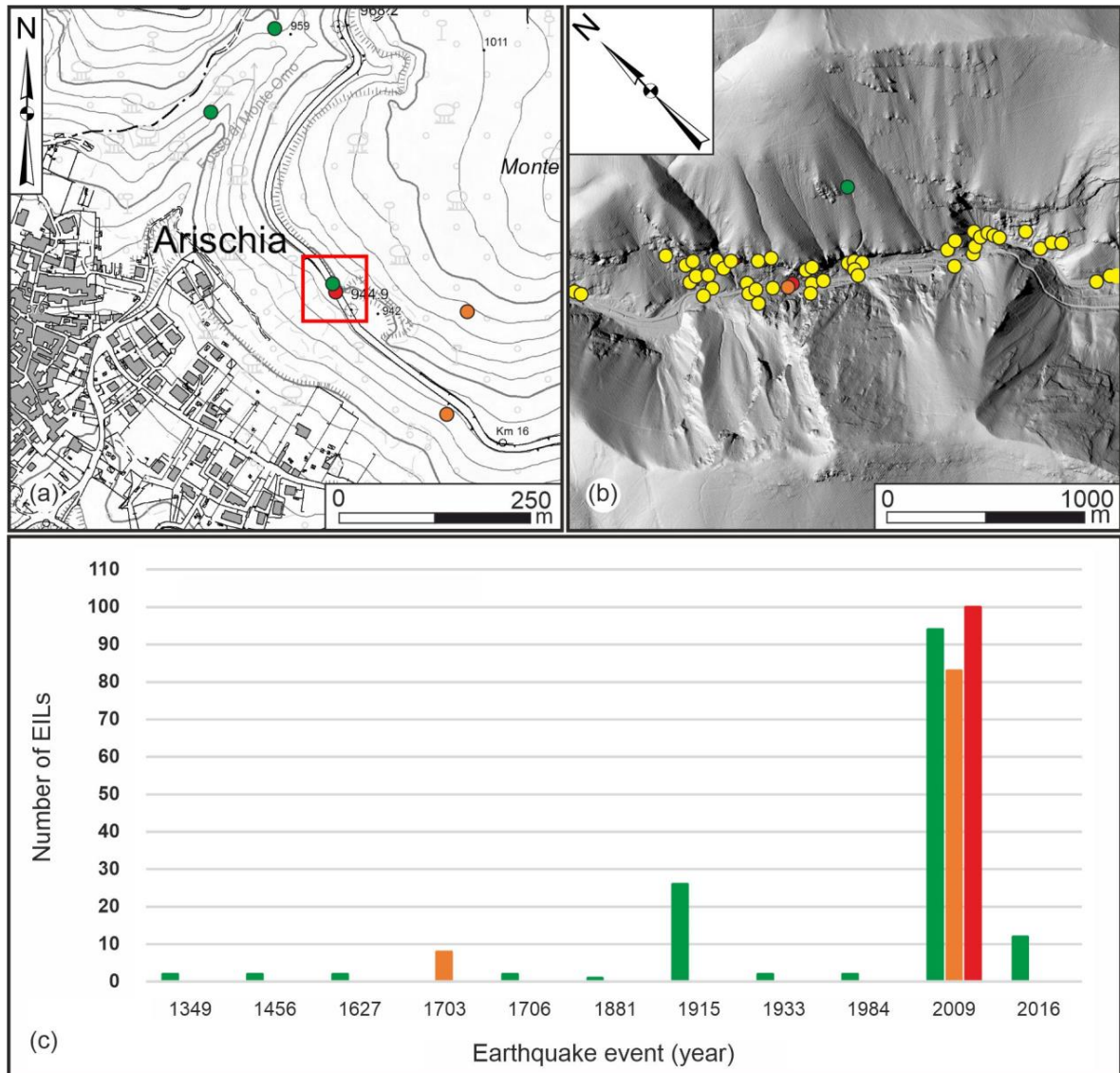
215 3. Materials and methods

216 Earthquake-Induced Landslides (EILs) susceptibility analysis was performed through an integrated
 217 approach based on the combination of morphometric, geological, and geomorphological parameters
 218 derived from literature and field-based data, along with the critical evaluation of existing EILs
 219 catalogues, supported by multidisciplinary analyses and GIS-based techniques. In particular, a
 220 heuristic approach was applied in order to assess a preliminary EILs susceptibility map with a cell
 221 size of 10 m; resulting values were then statistically analysed to ensure a meaningful susceptibility
 222 classes definition.

223 3.1 Landslide-triggering parameters: detection and analysis

224 Statistical methods aimed at landslide susceptibility assessment require wide, complete, and
 225 temporally extended landslide inventories (Xu, 2015). Regrettably, with respect to the aim of this
 226 work, catalogues available for the study area feature substantial limitations, which make a statistical

227 evaluation actually unfeasible. First and foremost, events localization is not accurate enough to
228 distinguish sectors with different susceptibility degrees at this scale of analysis. Events such as
229 rockfalls, though occurred and detected recently, are often mapped in correspondence of
230 accumulation areas instead of detachment zones (Figure 3a). In the case of statistical analysis, this
231 would result in a misleading sectors classification, with detachment and accumulation areas given,
232 respectively, a lower and a higher susceptibility degree with respect to their actual one, in strict
233 contrast with the purpose of this study. It should be stressed that smaller-scale studies, however, could
234 be effectively conducted following this approach, since the spatial difference between detachment
235 and accumulation zones would not affect the final result (Amato et al., 2021). Another aspect to
236 consider is that different landslides are sometimes mapped as a single event when occurring in a small
237 area, with a subsequent wrong susceptibility degree evaluation (Figure 3b). Finally, detailed data of
238 non-recent events are definitively missing, with mapped EILs often featuring poor geographical and
239 chronological constraints (Figure 3c).



240

241 **Figure 3.** EILs events reported on CEDIT (green dots and bars; Caprari et al., 2018), EEE (orange dots and bars; Guerrieri,
 242 2015), and Abruzzo Region (red dots and bars; Abruzzo Region, 2011) catalogues. Yellow dots refer to earthquake-
 243 triggered rockfall blocks in the area of San Venanzio gorges (Raiano, AQ) according to Piacentini et al., 2013. (a) Example
 244 of events mapped in correspondence of accumulation areas (roads) instead of detachment zones (red box); (b) example
 245 of multiple events mapped as a single event; (c) number of EILs per event showing a clear lack of available data for non-
 246 recent earthquakes.

247 For these reasons, given the available data, in this study a heuristic approach appears to be highly
 248 preferable to a statistical one. Heuristic methods require the combination of several parameters that
 249 contribute to slope instability. Each of these parameters and their spatial variability, represented
 250 through thematic maps, are, in turn, analysed and subdivided into a suitable number of classes.

251 Subsequently, each of these parameters is given a certain weight, based on expert judgment, and
252 according to the influence exerted on landslide susceptibility derived by critically analysing literature
253 data and available EILs catalogues (Abruzzo Region, 2011; Guerrieri, 2015; Caprari et al., 2018).
254 From the algebraic sum of the weights associated with individual parameters, a final map is
255 constructed wherein high/low numerical values correspond to a high/low propensity of the slope to
256 fail (Ruff & Czurda, 2008; Magliulo et al., 2009; Pourghasemi et al., 2018; Reichenbach et al., 2018).
257 The selection of factors strictly depends on available data concerning the object and the aims of the
258 study. In this paper, each factor described in the following paragraphs was chosen to better match the
259 variability of the data source and to outline its role in the landslide mechanism in the geological,
260 structural, and geomorphological framework of the region. The nine different factors considered for
261 the present landslide susceptibility analysis are: slope, aspect, topographic curvature, outcropping
262 lithofacies, degree of rock fracturing, karst incidence, distance from active faults, distance from
263 earthquake epicentres, and presence of anthropogenic sinkholes. The choice of these parameters was
264 also dictated by the scale of analysis, since for studies of higher detail the integration of local-scale
265 factors both of natural and anthropogenic origin is advisable (e.g., slopes undercutting by erosion or
266 artificial excavation; Chigira & Yagi, 2006; Martino et al., 2019). Finally, although Peak Ground
267 Acceleration (PGA) values are available for the study area through the MPS04 seismic hazard map
268 of Italy (Stucchi et al., 2004), they were not considered to not overestimate the contribution of seismic
269 parameters, already implemented by accounting for distances from active faults and earthquake
270 epicentres.

271 Morphometric parameters, i.e., slope, aspect, and topographic curvature, are all derived from a 10 m
272 resolution Digital Terrain Model (DTM) available at the opendata.regione.abruzzo.it web page, by
273 means of ESRI ArcGIS™ 10.6 tools.

274 **Slope**, expressed as an angle [°] to the horizontal, is commonly used in landslide susceptibility
275 analysis. An increase in its gradient usually corresponds to an increase in hillside instability (Çevik
276 & Topal, 2003; Yalcin et al., 2011).

277 **Topographic curvature**, expressed in [m^{-1}], is computed along the direction of the maximum slope.
278 The parameter is taken into account in terms of the control it exerts on ground shaking; in particular,
279 a convex surface leads to a focusing of seismic waves, which increases acceleration; a concave surface
280 induces the dispersion of waves and, consequently, an acceleration decrease (Pischiutta et al., 2017;
281 Maufroy et al., 2018). In this work, topographic curvature (T_c) values are divided into three ranges,
282 $T_c \leq -0.5$, $-0.5 < T_c \leq 0.5$, and $T_c > 0.5$, indicating, respectively, concave, planar, and convex
283 surfaces (Pham et al., 2017).

284 **Aspect**, expressed as a cardinal direction, is considered less important compared to other parameters
285 (Carrara et al., 1991; Çevik & Topal, 2003); nevertheless, it is generally taken into account due to its
286 connection to the microclimate acting on slopes and the consequent weathering (Komac, 2006;
287 Shahabi et al., 2014). According to many authors, it is assumed that such processes act more
288 effectively on south-facing slopes due to pronounced temperature variations and higher humidity
289 (Capitani et al., 2013; Pham et al., 2017).

290 **Lithology** has a great influence on landslide susceptibility (Carrara et al., 1991; Çevik & Topal, 2003;
291 Shahabi et al., 2014; Esposito et al., 2021). A Lithofacies map of the Abruzzo Region was hence
292 created through digitisation of the 1:250.000 scale Lithofacies map of Latium-Abruzzo and
293 neighbouring areas (Accordi & Carbone, 1988). Missing sectors were included after analysis and re-
294 adaptation of the 1:100.000 scale Geological map of Abruzzo (Vezzani & Ghisetti, 1998) and the
295 1:50.000 scale Geological sheets of the CARG Project available for the study area (ISPRA, 2017).
296 Units resulting from this process were joined into 17 lithological units based on the sedimentation
297 environment and the lithological features of the outcrops. The impact on landslide susceptibility of
298 each group is assessed by analysing the distribution of the main landslides (ISPRA, 2007; Abruzzo
299 Region, 2019). It was also based on EILs density, which was computed for each lithological unit by
300 accounting for inventoried events (Abruzzo Region, 2011; Caprari et al., 2018; Guerrieri, 2015).

301 The **degree of rock fracturing** results from the interaction between the lithological features of
302 outcrops and the regional tectonics (ISRM, 1978; Sperrevik et al., 2002; Molnar et al., 2007). This

303 parameter exerts a clear influence on landslide susceptibility, and it is often used to detect failure
304 mechanisms and define the landslide geometry, showing higher values linked to a greater slope
305 instability (ISRM, 1978; Barisone et al., 1994).

306 **Karst** phenomena deeply affect rock mechanical properties by inducing the calcium carbonate
307 dissolution and the subsequent formation of natural caves prone to collapse in response to seismic
308 shaking (Santo et al., 2007; Pace et al., 2020). Different sectors were distinguished based on their
309 lithological features, the presence of natural caves (Abruzzo Region, 2011), and the karst state of
310 activity. A higher karstification degree is associated with a greater landslide susceptibility.

311 The **distance from active faults** exerts a major control on earthquake-induced landslide susceptibility
312 of a region, as empirically shown by the rapid decrease of EILs events moving away from the surface
313 traces of faults connected to the attenuation of the seismic input (Xu & Xu, 2014; Shao et al., 2019).
314 Detection and digitisation of faults were based on the ITHACA catalogue (ITaly HAZard from
315 CApable faults - Michetti et al., 2000; ITHACA Working Group, 2019) implemented with Boncio et
316 al. (2004). Areas located at different distances from faults traces are detected using the Buffer tool
317 implemented in ArcGIS™ 10.6. Hanging walls and footwalls were differentiated, given the higher
318 density of EILs usually occurring above the fault plane (Martino et al., 2014); consequently, two
319 different rasters were created. In this paper, fault systems located in neighbouring regions are also
320 considered, given their contribution to the landslide instability of the Abruzzo Region (Villani et al.,
321 2018).

322 By analysing landslide movements in the first years after an earthquake, many authors detected a
323 close correlation between the number of mass movements and the proximity to epicentral zones
324 (Martino et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2017; Shao et al., 2019). The **distance from**
325 **epicentres** was therefore computed using the Euclidean distance tool implemented in ArcGIS™ 10.6.
326 Only events with a $4.0 < M_w < 6$ were considered in the analysis since lower magnitudes rarely
327 trigger landslides (Keefer, 1984), whereas higher magnitudes refer to infrequent events that are
328 unrepresentative of the actual seismicity of the area (Rovida et al., 2021). It is widely recognised that

329 an increase of the magnitude corresponds to an increase in the area prone to EILs (Keefer, 2002). For
 330 a correct assessment of landslide susceptibility related to the epicentral distance, seismic events were
 331 thus divided into four equally spaced classes based on related Mw; consequently, four different
 332 thematic maps were created. Each class is also corrected by a factor stating the epicentres density
 333 using the Kernel density tool with a radius of 10 km. As for the distance from active faults, epicentres
 334 falling into neighbouring regions are taken into consideration. Weights are were then assigned based
 335 on literature-accepted relations between epicentral distances of landslides and earthquake magnitudes
 336 (Keefer, 1984, 2002).

337 Finally, **anthropogenic sinkholes** were considered. They have a consistent role in arising the EILs
 338 hazard, given their presence in areas often heavily urbanised (Fiore & Lanzini, 2007; Nisio et al.,
 339 2007). Their detection and digitisation were based on the Geohydrological Plan (Abruzzo Region,
 340 2011), properly integrated with the ISPRA Sinkhole catalogue (ISPRA, 2020). Areas of attention
 341 were defined by setting a buffer zone around mapped sinkholes with a radius of 500 m.
 342 The above listed parameters were therefore classified following a heuristic approach and given proper
 343 weight, based on literature data as well as on the critical evaluation of available EILs inventories
 344 (Table 1).

345 **Table 1.** Parameters analysed in EILs susceptibility assessment and assigned weights.

Parameter #	Parameter	Source	Class	Weight
1	Slope [°]	DTM	0-20	0
			20-30	1
			30-35	2
			35-40	3
			40-45	5
			45-60	7
			60-70	9
			70-80	11
2	Topographic curvature	DTM	80-90	12
			Concave	0
			Planar	2
3	Aspect [°]	DTM	Convex	7
			Plain	0
			337.5-22.5 - N	0
			22.5-67.5 - NE	0
			67.5-112.5 - E	1
			112.5-157.5 - SE	2
			157.5-202.5 - S	3
			202.5-247.5 - SW	2
247.5-292.5 - W	1			
292.5-337.5 - NW	0			

4	Outcropping lithofacies	Literature (Accordi & Carbone, 1988; Vezzani & Ghisetti, 1998)	Eluvial and colluvial deposits	2
			Sandy shore deposits	0
			Recent fluvial-lacustrine deposits	0
			Travertine deposits	7
			Moraine deposits	7
			Old fluvial-lacustrine deposits	2
			Conglomerate deposits	7
			Clay-sand deposits	3
			Sand turbidites	7
			Pelite turbidites	3
			Limestone deposits in conglomeratic and calcarenitic facies	6
			Allochthonous pelagic deposits	3
			Limestones in carbonate ramp facies	10
			Limestones and marls in basin facies	7
5	Degree of rock fracturing	Field data and literature (Pasculli et al., 2014)	Not susceptible to fracturation	0
			Low	4
			Medium	5
			High	7
			Very high	12
6	Karst incidence	Field data and literature (Pasculli et al., 2014)	Null	0
			Inactive	1
			Low	2
			Medium	5
7	Distance from active faults [km] Hanging wall	Literature (Michetti et al., 2000; Boncio et al., 2004)	High	10
			0 - 5	12
			5 - 10	9
			10 - 15	8
			15 - 20	7
			20 - 25	6
			25 - 35	5
	35 - 45	4		
	45 - 60	3		
	60 - 70	2		
	Distance from active faults [km] Footwall	Literature (Michetti et al., 2000; Boncio et al., 2004)	0 - 5	9
			5 - 10	7
			10 - 15	5
			15 - 20	4
20 - 25			3	
25 - 35			2	
35 - 45			1	
> 45	0			
8	Distance from epicentres $4 \leq M_w < 4.5$	Literature (Rovida et al., 2021)	0 - 3	9
			> 3	0
	Distance from epicentres $4.5 \leq M_w < 5$	Literature (Rovida et al., 2021)	0 - 3	64
			3 - 6	15
			6 - 10	6
			10 - 12	3
	Distance from epicentres $5 \leq M_w < 5.5$	Literature (Rovida et al., 2021)	> 12	0
			0 - 3	291
			3 - 6	68
			6 - 10	27
			10 - 15	14
			15 - 20	8
			20 - 25	5
	25 - 30	4		
	> 30	0		
	Distance from epicentres $5.5 \leq M_w < 6$	Literature (Rovida et al., 2021)	0 - 3	1000
3 - 6			232	
6 - 10			93	
10 - 15			47	
15 - 20			27	
20 - 25			19	
25 - 30			14	
30 - 40			11	
40 - 50			7	
50 - 60			6	
60 - 80	4			
> 80	0			

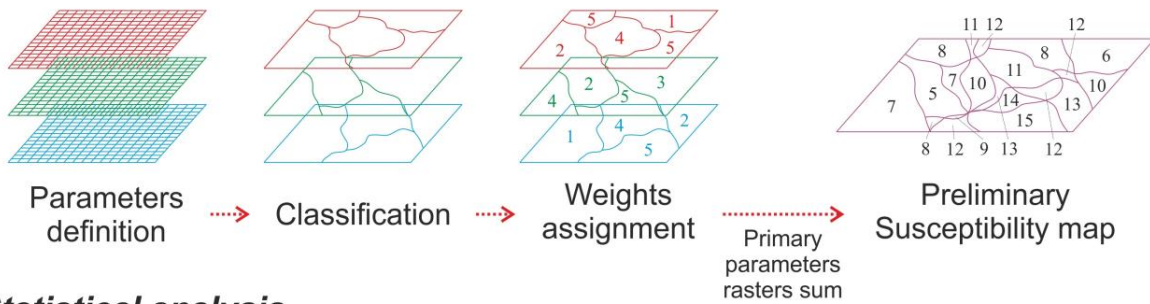
9	Anthropogenic sinkholes	Field data and literature (Abruzzo Region, 2011; ISPRA, 2020)	Buffer zone (radius = 500 m)	5
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346

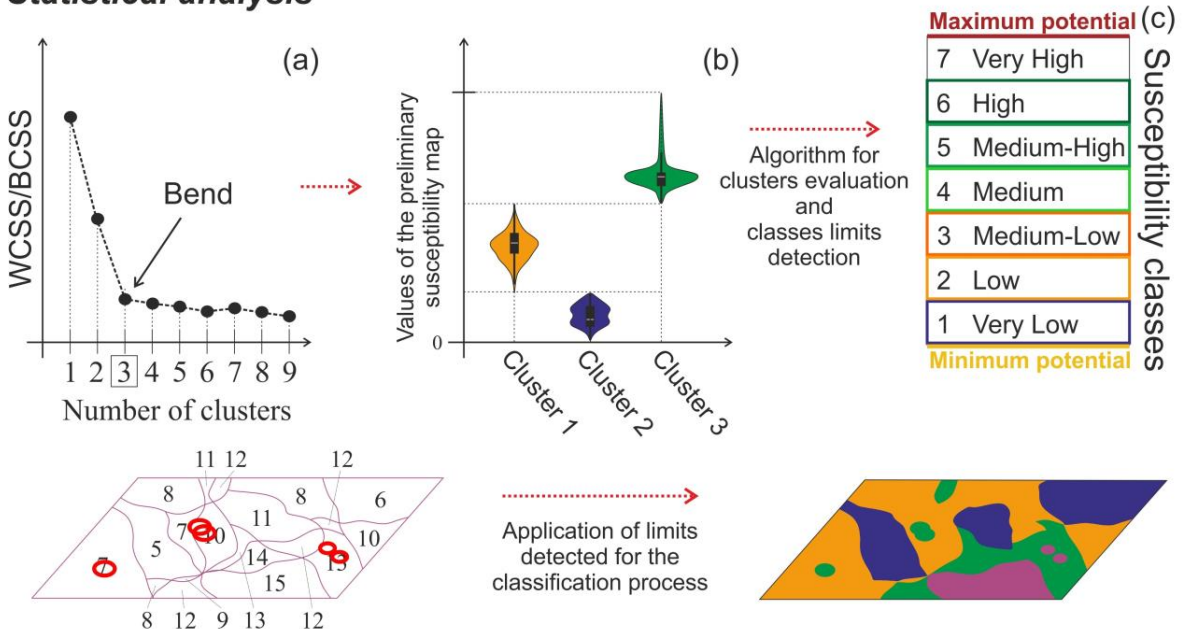
347 The listed parameters were then subdivided into primary and secondary, based on the extension of
 348 the area they affect. In this paper, only Anthropogenic sinkholes are categorised as the latter since
 349 they influence a percentage of the regional territory much less than other parameters.

350 Subsequently, using the Raster Calculator tool implemented in ArcGIS™ 10.6, thematic maps
 351 depicting the distance from the epicentres are all summed cell by cell, and resulting values are
 352 expressed on a scale from 1 to 10 to ensure comparability with other parameters; the resulting map is
 353 then summed cell by cell to weighted rasters of other primary parameters. A preliminary EILs
 354 susceptibility map is thus obtained using GIS technology (*Heuristic analysis*, Figure 4).

Heuristic analysis



Statistical analysis



Integration of secondary parameters in the Preliminary Susceptibility map

Susceptibility map

355
 356 **Figure 4.** Workflow of the applied methodology. In the Heuristic analysis, the steps followed to get the Preliminary
 357 Susceptibility map from rasters of primary parameters are shown. In the Statistical analysis, the Elbow method, the
 358 analysis of cluster values by means of violin plot diagrams, and the detection of limits of susceptibility classes - with
 359 respect to an absolute scale and after application of the algorithm shown in Figure 5 - are presented. Finally, the integration
 360 of secondary parameters in the Preliminary Susceptibility map and the creation of the final Susceptibility map are shown.

3.2 Unsupervised classification, susceptibility classes definition, and map creation

362 Statistical analysis was performed after the preliminary landslide susceptibility analysis to divide the
 363 study area into an optimal number of susceptibility classes, a number that is actually beforehand
 364 unknown. In order to define it, an unsupervised classification is executed by means of kmeans R[®]
 365 routine (Forgy, 1965) on the preliminary map resulting from the heuristic analysis. The process
 366 groups together pixels sharing similar statistical properties into a user-specified number of distinct

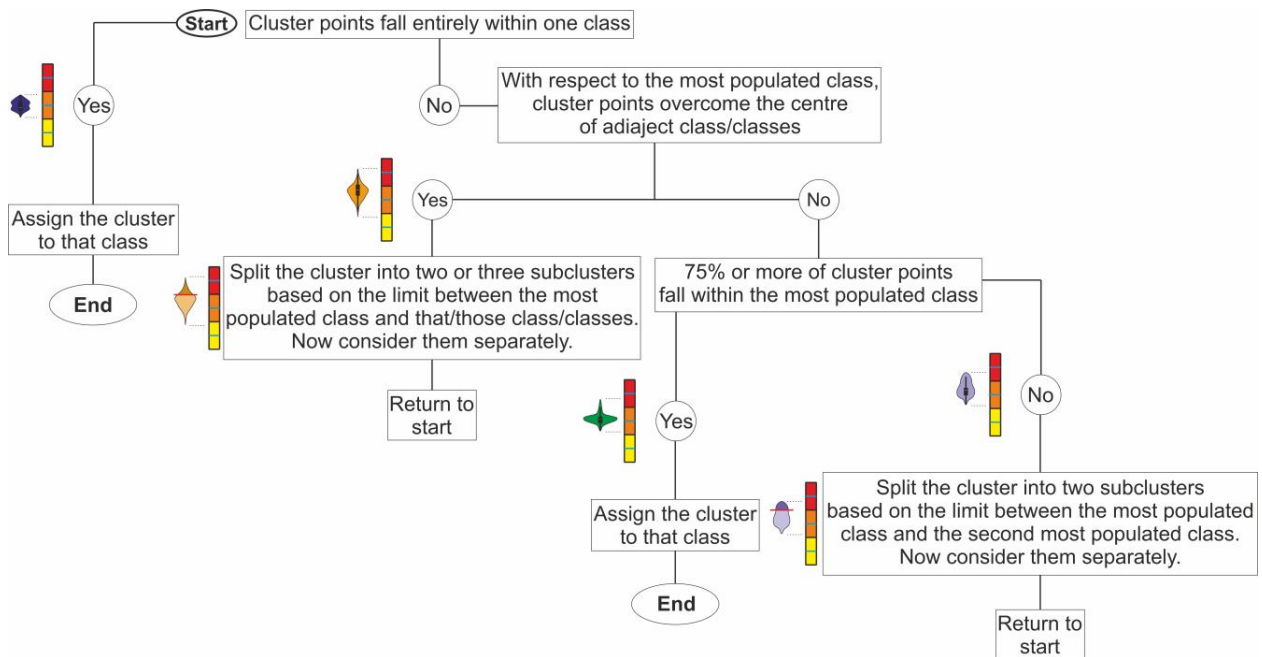
367 clusters. For each cluster, it also returns relevant statistics, including the central value, the number of
368 cells, and the Within Cluster Sum of Squares and, for each group of clusters, the total Within Clusters
369 Sum of Squares (WCSS) and the Between Clusters Sum of Squares (BCSS). The preliminary
370 susceptibility raster is hence classified into a number of groups ranging from 2 up to 7. The optimal
371 number is finally defined through the elbow method by plotting the WCSS/BCSS ratios against the
372 number of clusters. A bend in the plot occurs indicating the minimum number of clusters such that
373 the total intra-cluster variation is minimised and the between-clusters variation is maximised (Tripathi
374 et al., 2018; Mascioli et al., 2021; Figure 4a).

375 Statistics of clusters are analysed by plotting values of each group on violin plot diagrams, which are
376 a combination of a box plot and a probability density function plot. They explicitly show the median,
377 the interquartile range, the upper and lower adjacent values, and the kernel probability density of the
378 data at different values (Wei et al., 2012; Figure 4b).

379 An absolute susceptibility scale is then introduced with values ranging from the minimum to the
380 maximum potential values of the area, computed by summing the minimum and the maximum
381 potential values of all primary parameters. By dividing the resulting range into a fixed number of
382 equally spaced intervals, a series of meaningful classes are detected. This procedure ensures the
383 comparability of results obtained in different areas when maximum and minimum potential values of
384 parameters are used to build the scale (e.g. if slope values of a region range from 20 to 50°, upper and
385 lower limits of the absolute scale should be computed by accounting also for weights associated to 0-
386 20 and 50-90° slope classes). The application of the algorithm presented in Figure 5, i.e. the critical
387 comparison between clusters statistics and classes of the absolute susceptibility scale, allows the
388 definition of proper numerical limits for the final classification (Figure 4c).

389 The last phase of the analysis is the creation of the final Susceptibility map. In this phase, secondary
390 parameters - previously set aside - are taken into consideration. In this work, the raster depicting the
391 Anthropogenic Sinkholes is summed cell by cell to the preliminary susceptibility map. The resulting

392 raster is then classified based on limits detected through the statistical steps. Values eventually
 393 exceeding the absolute susceptibility scale are assigned to the highest level susceptibility class.



394
 395 **Figure 5.** Flowchart showing the logical process for class detection. Steps are designed to achieve the best differentiation
 396 among classes and overcome limits intrinsic to the stand-alone unsupervised classification, such as the grouping of values
 397 representative of clearly different susceptibility degrees.

398 4. Results

399 4.1 Morphometric maps

400 4.1.1 Slope map

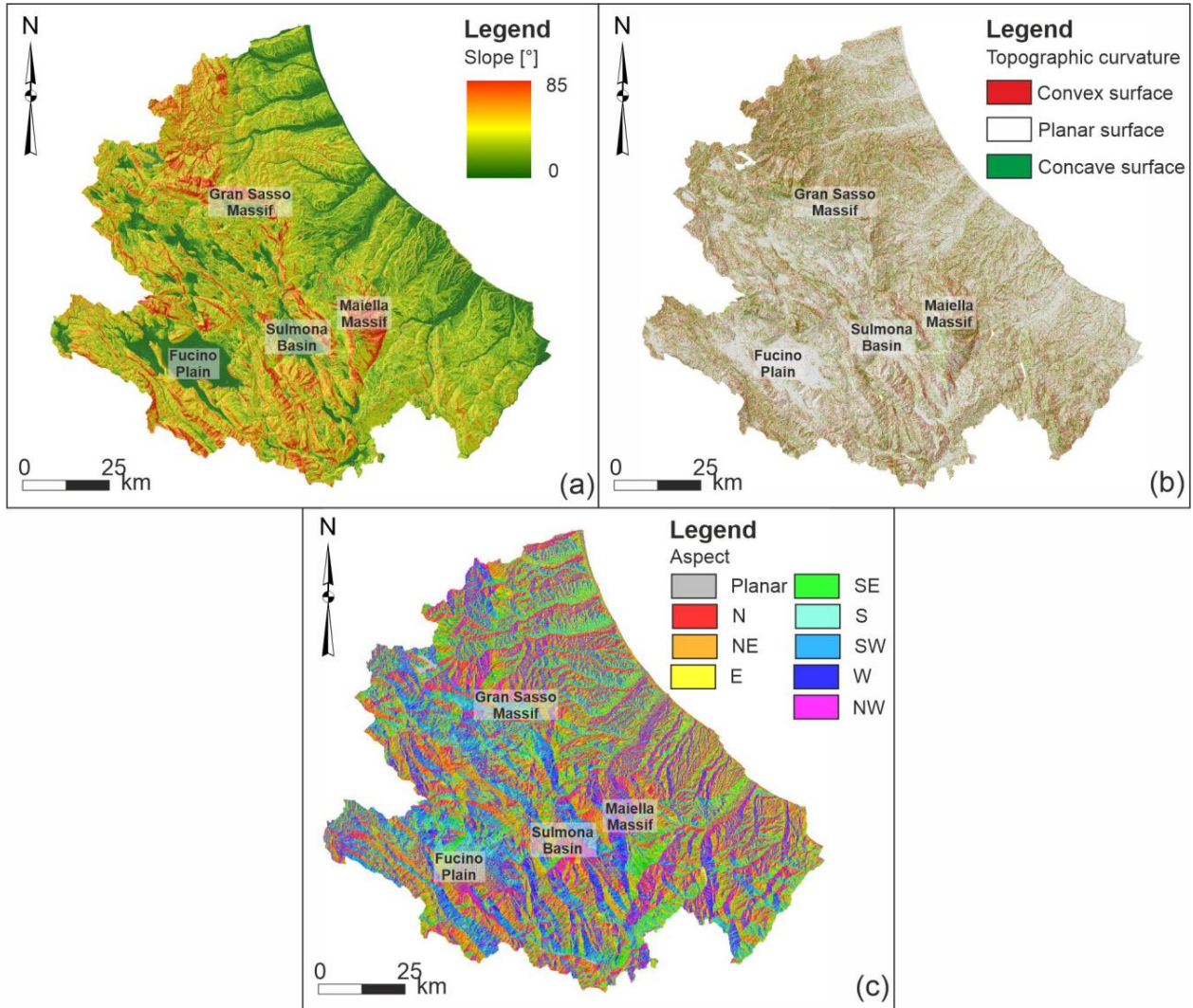
401 The study area shows slope values ranging from 0 up to approximately 90° (Figure 6a). Values
 402 between 0 and 5° are detected in coastal areas, alluvial valleys of piedmont areas, and intermontane
 403 basins (such as Fucino Plain and Sulmona Basin), as well as basins with a minor areal extension.
 404 Low-to-medium values (ranging from 5 to 20°) are found in the whole piedmont area and along
 405 narrow sectors surrounding the intermontane basins. Finally, values ranging from 20 to 40°
 406 characterise the chain sector corresponding to the main ridges interrupted by longitudinal and
 407 transversal valleys; slope values above 50° are mostly detected on Maiella and Gran Sasso massifs,
 408 although narrow steep sectors are locally found in ridges, gorges, and minor valleys.

409 *4.1.2 Topographic curvature map*

410 The surface curvature of the study area is characterised by well-defined planar surfaces,
411 characterising coastal sectors, the main alluvial plains in the piedmont area, and the intermontane
412 basins (i.e., Fucino Plain and Sulmona basin; Figure 6b). On the other hand, convex and concave
413 surfaces alternate almost regularly across the study area, depicting a mountainous and hilly landscape
414 dominated by ridges, isolated reliefs, and longitudinal and transversal river valleys.

415 *4.1.3 Aspect map*

416 The study area shows a clear differentiation between the chain and the piedmont/coastal sectors
417 (Figure 6c). The former is characterised by mainly NW-SE oriented slopes, in accordance with the
418 vergence of the Central Apennine chain. The latter shows an average SW-NE direction in close
419 relationship with the development of the drainage network, characterised by main fluvial valleys and
420 the small tributary catchments of main rivers and those incising the coastal slope.



421
422 **Figure 6.** Morphometric maps of Abruzzo Region. (a) Slope map; (b) Topographic curvature map; (c) Aspect map.

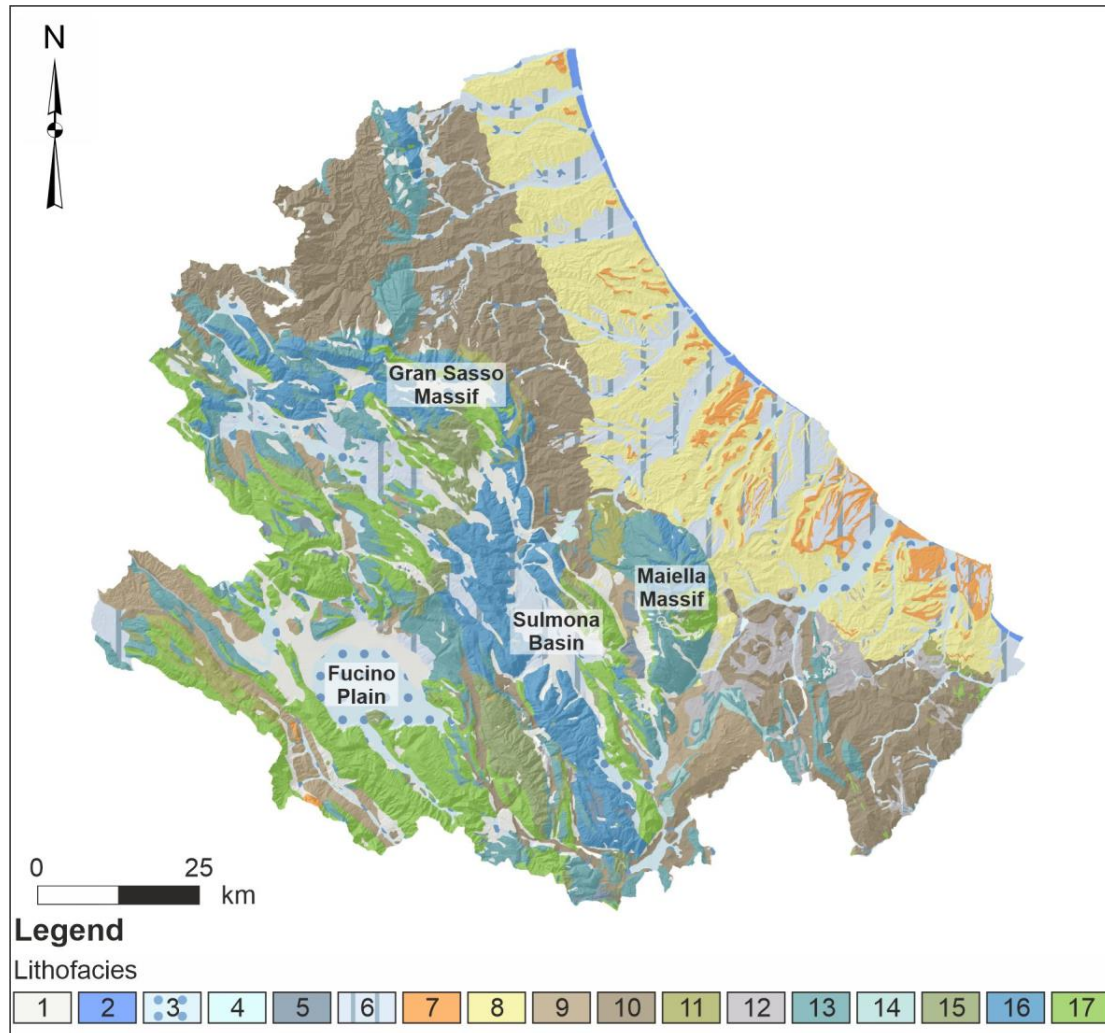
423

4.2 Geothematic maps

424

4.2.1 Lithofacies map

425 From a lithological standpoint, limestones in carbonate shelf facies, limestones in slope facies,
426 limestone and marls in basin facies characterise the major ridges of the Abruzzo Apennines (i.e., Gran
427 Sasso Massif and Maiella Massif). Allochthonous pelagic deposits are widely outcropping in the
428 southern areas showing a chaotic assemblage on clayey-marly-limestone units. Bedrock lithologies
429 in the piedmont sector pertain to sand-pelite turbidites and marine clay-sand and conglomerate
430 deposits (Figure 7). Quaternary continental deposits are extensively outcropping in the intermontane
431 basins, alluvial valleys, and coastal sectors. They pertain to fluvial-lacustrine, travertine, sandy shore,
432 and eluvial and colluvial deposits.



433
434 **Figure 7.** Lithofacies map of the Abruzzo Region (modified from Accordi et al., 1988; Vezzani & Ghisetti, 1998; ISPRA,
435 2017; Esposito et al., 2021). 1) Eluvial and colluvial deposits; 2) Sandy shore deposits; 3) Recent fluvial-lacustrine
436 deposits; 4) Travertine deposits; 5) Moraine deposits; 6) Old fluvial-lacustrine deposits; 7) Conglomerate deposits; 8)
437 Clay-sand deposits; 9) Sand turbidites; 10) Pelite turbidites; 11) Limestone deposits in conglomerate and calcarenite
438 facies; 12) Allochthonous pelagic deposits; 13) Limestones in carbonate ramp facies; 14) Limestones and marls in basin
439 facies; 15) Limestones in slope facies; 16) Limestones in open carbonate shelf-edge facies; 17) Limestones and dolomites
440 in carbonate shelf facies.

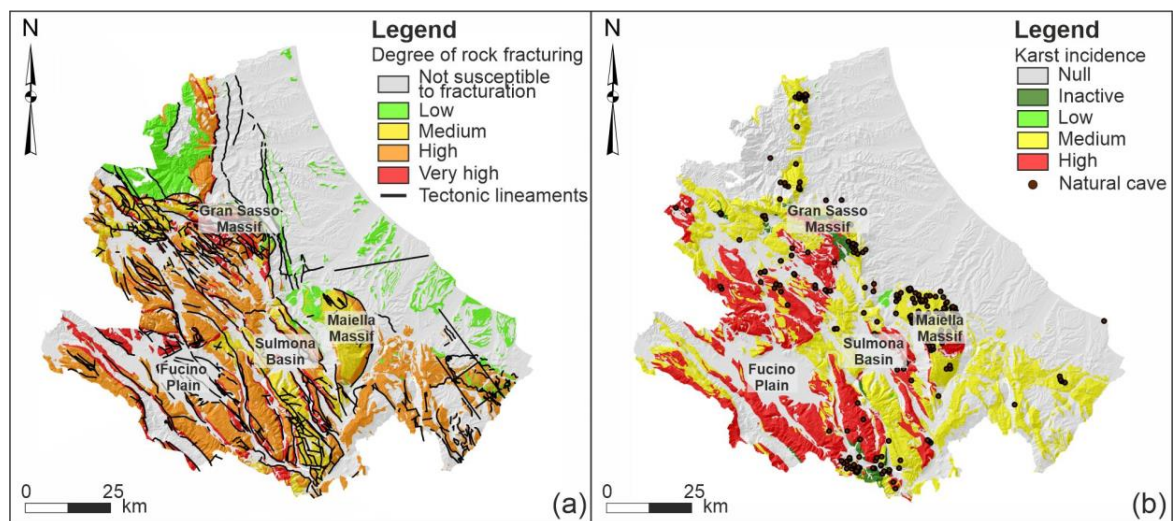
441 4.2.2 Degree of rock fracturing map

442 Fractures, faults, and their patterns exert a fundamental influence on the mechanical and transport
443 properties of rocks. According to its physiographic and geological-structural setting, the Abruzzo
444 Region shows a heterogeneous spatial arrangement of fracture arrays. Piedmont and coastal sectors,
445 as well as intermontane basins, are characterised by lithologies that do not have a large effect on

446 fracture attribute distributions. Nevertheless, there are episodic and localized slope instability
 447 processes related to morphostructural setting in weak rock hills (e.g., hog-back relief, mesa relief
 448 affected by intersecting major joints) and cliff recession processes combined with wavecut and slope
 449 gravity processes widely controlled by main joints in the coastal area (Calista et al., 2019; Miccadei
 450 et al., 2019). In these areas, outcropping weak rocks are classified as not susceptible to fracturation
 451 (Figure 8a). In detail, areas showing a low degree of fracturation are detected towards NW and in
 452 narrow sectors of the piedmont. Medium values are found along the slopes of the Maiella Massif and
 453 the Gran Sasso ridge. High and very high values, finally, characterise the carbonate sectors of the
 454 westernmost sectors of the Abruzzo Region in accordance with a general NW-SE trend of tectonic
 455 lineaments.

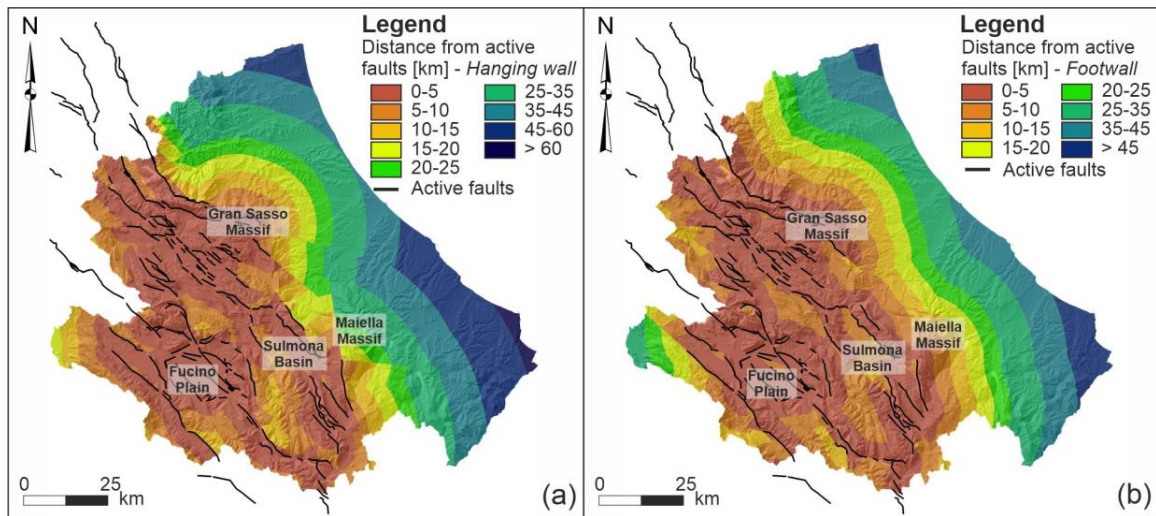
456 4.2.3 Karst incidence map

457 According to the lithological framework, karst incidence is completely absent in the piedmont sector
 458 and in intermontane basins (Figure 8b). Karst morphogenesis widely affects carbonate rocks
 459 outcropping in the chain area, showing the highest values on carbonate shelf successions and low-to-
 460 medium values on limestones in carbonate ramp and basin facies. Finally, inactive karst processes
 461 characterise the limestones in open carbonate shelf-edge facies, locally widespread in central and
 462 southern sectors of the region.



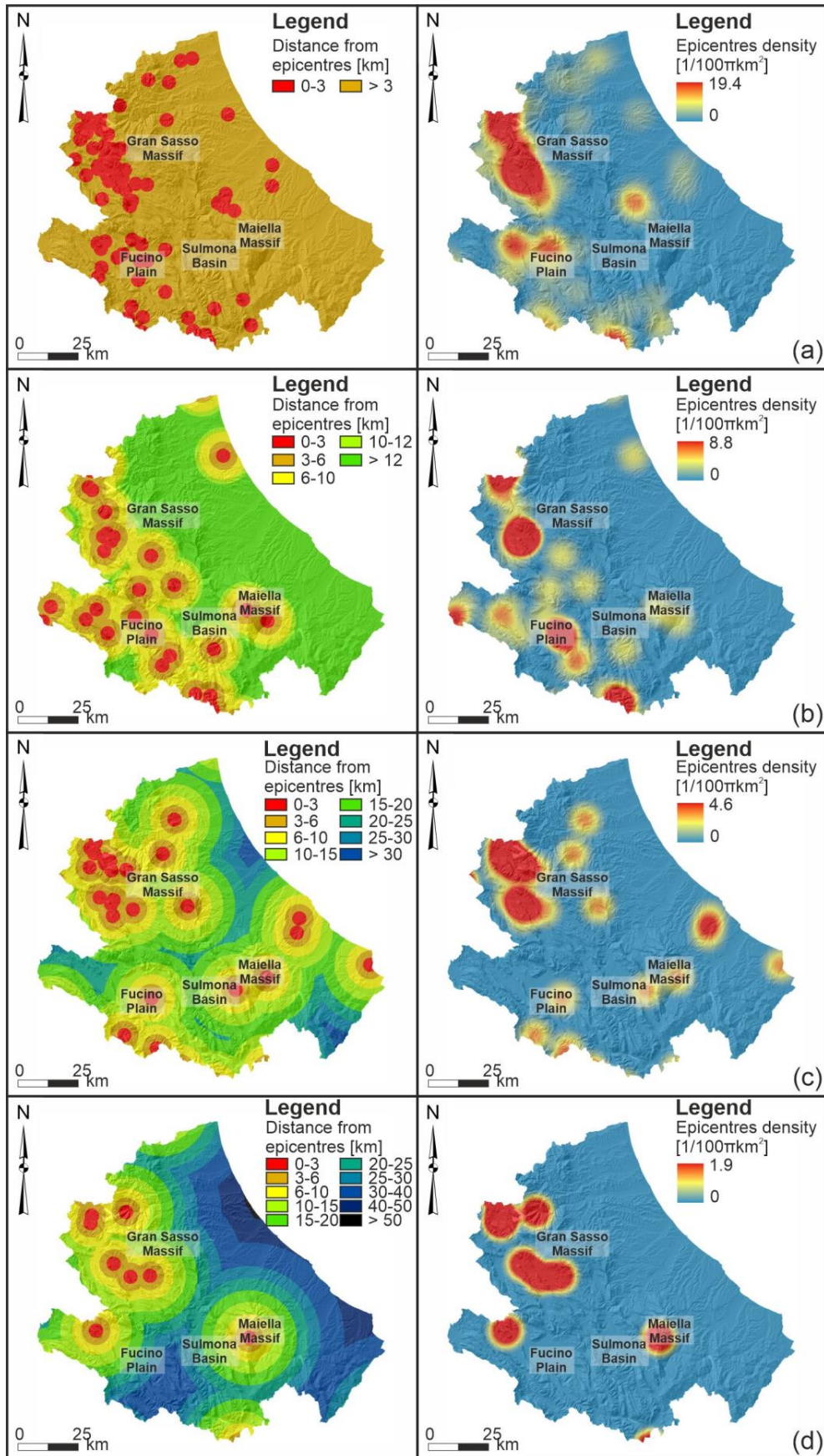
463
 464 **Figure 8.** (a) Degree of rock fracturing and (b) Karst incidence maps (modified from Pasculli et al., 2014).

465 *4.2.4 Distance from active faults maps*
 466 Thematic maps depicting the distance from active faults show values ranging from 0 up to
 467 approximately 60 km, with slight differences between hanging walls/footwalls-related maps (Figure
 468 9). Minimum distances are detected in the chain sector according to the spatial arrangement of fault
 469 systems derived and implemented from Boncio et al. (2004) and the ITHACA Working Group (2019).
 470 Active fault systems located in neighbouring regions are also considered, taking into account their
 471 contribution to landslide instability of the Abruzzo Region as clearly observed during the 2016-2017
 472 Central Italy seismic sequence. Maximum values are found in the external piedmont sector and along
 473 the coastal one.



474 **Figure 9.** Distance from active faults maps: (a) hanging wall and (b) footwall.
 475

476 *4.2.5 Distance from epicentres and epicentres density maps*
 477 Maps depicting the distance from epicentres show values ranging from 0 to approximately 50 km,
 478 depending on the magnitude range (Figure 10, left column). The spatial distribution of epicentres
 479 reflects the tectonic setting of the Abruzzo Region, characterised by both historical and recent strong
 480 seismicity. The majority of epicentres related to events with $4 \leq M_w < 4.5$ falls into the chain sector,
 481 with rare events located in the central and northern piedmont/coastal area (Figure 10a, left column).

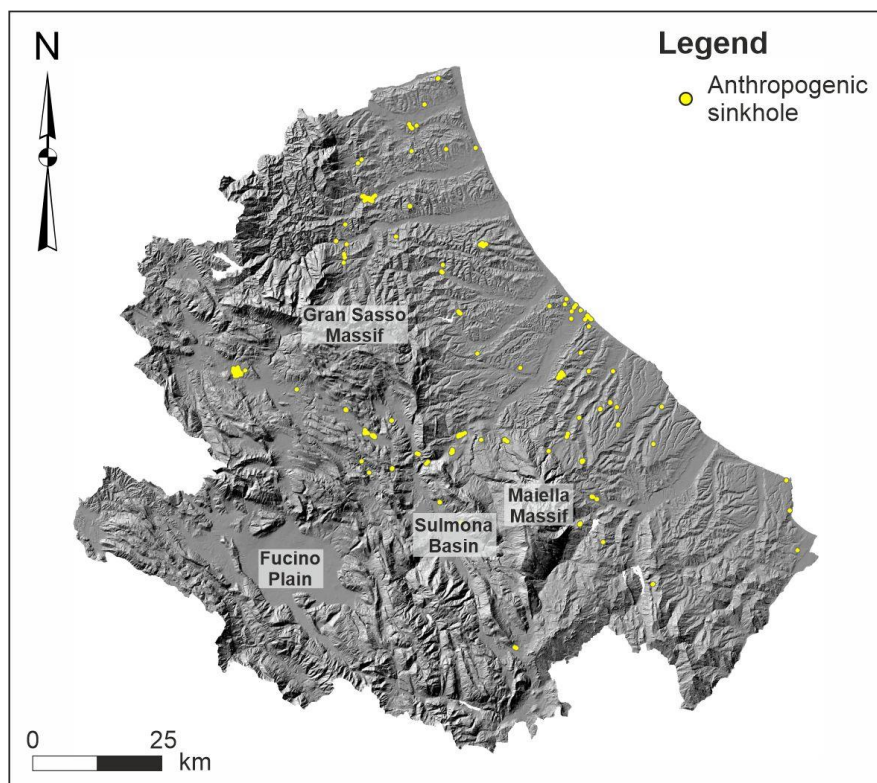


482
 483 **Figure 10.** Thematic maps depicting distance from epicentres (left column) and epicentres density (right column) for
 484 earthquakes with a) $4 \leq M_w < 4.5$, b) $4.5 \leq M_w < 5$, c) $5 \leq M_w < 5.5$, and d) $5.5 \leq M_w < 6$.

485 Epicentres of earthquakes with $4.5 \leq M_w < 5$ are all located in the chain sector, except for sporadic
486 events found in the northern piedmont/coastal area (Figure 10b, left column). Events with $5 \leq M_w <$
487 5.5 , on the other hand, are concentrated in the north-western sector and, secondarily, in the Fucino
488 plain and Maiella areas as well as in the central-southern piedmont/coastal sector (Figure 10c, left
489 column). Finally, epicentres of earthquakes with $5.5 \leq M_w < 6$ are absent in the piedmont/coastal
490 area, being mostly located in the north-western sector of the region (Figure 10d, left column).
491 Epicentres density is graphically shown in thematic maps of Figure 10 (right column). This analysis
492 was performed by dividing seismic events into four equally spaced classes based on related M_w ,
493 according to the georeferenced location of epicentres. Relevant values decrease is observed as related
494 magnitude increases; the highest values, however, are always detected in the chain sector.

495 4.2.6 Anthropogenic sinkholes map

496 Anthropogenic sinkholes present a high concentration in the external sector of the chain and the
497 piedmont/coastal area, greater in major urban areas (Figure 11).

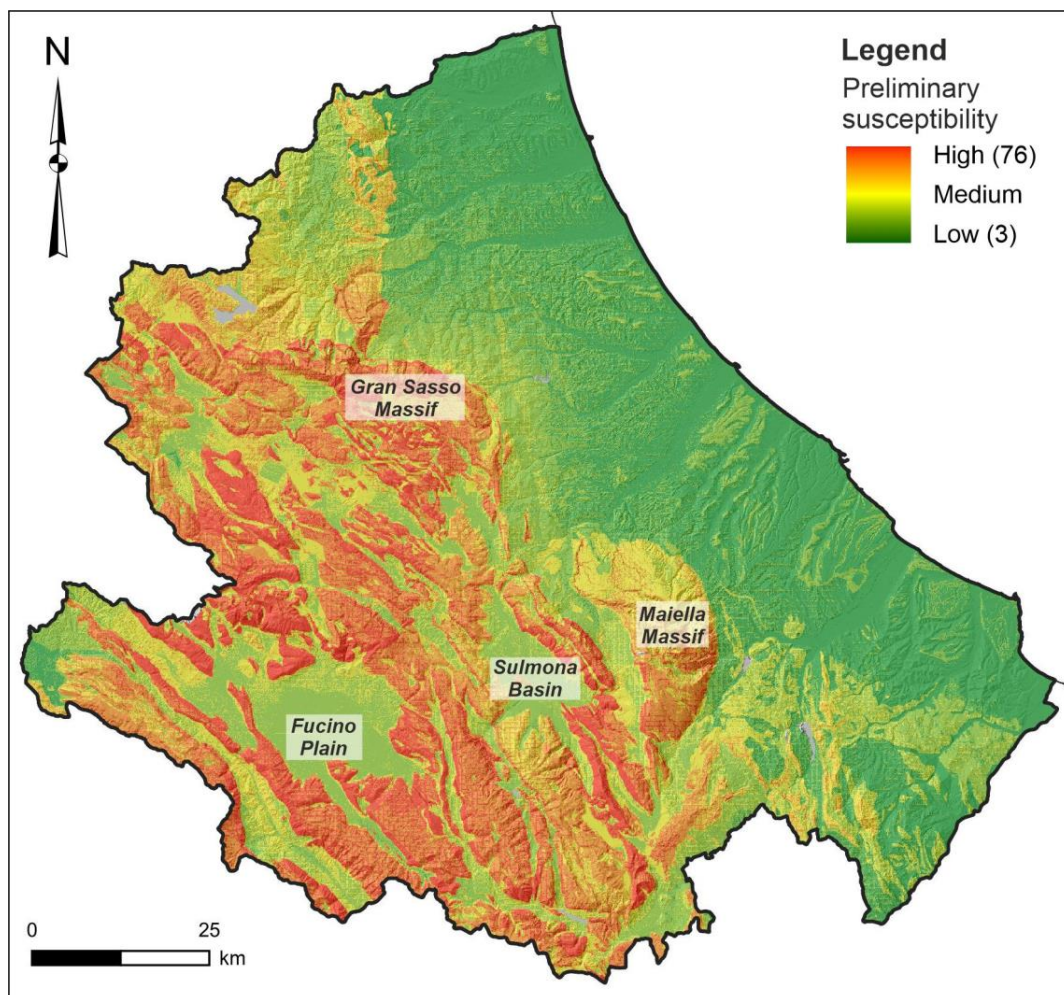


498 **Figure 11.** Anthropogenic sinkholes map.
499

500 4.3 Susceptibility map

501 4.3.1 Preliminary susceptibility map

502 The Preliminary susceptibility map shows values generally increasing moving from the coastal sector
503 towards the piedmont and the chain ones (Figure 12). In the current analysis, different regions
504 featuring low, medium, and high landslide susceptibility were identified. More specifically, areas
505 characterised by low values are located in the external portion of the piedmont sector and along the
506 coastal area. Medium values are mainly detected in the inner piedmont and intermontane basins. The
507 highest values are located in correspondence with reliefs in the inner chain sector and the incision of
508 main rivers. Local areas without class values present no landslide susceptibility and mostly
509 correspond to lake surfaces.

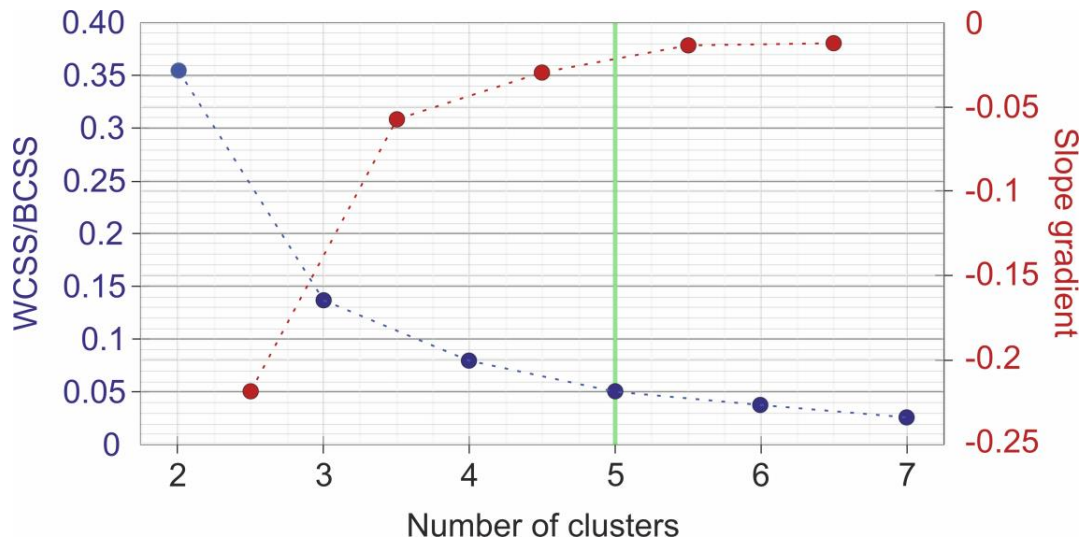


510
511

Figure 12. Preliminary susceptibility map.

512 4.3.2 Clusters determination, statistics, and susceptibility classes definition

513 The ratio between the total Within Clusters Sum of Squares (WCSS) and the Between Clusters Sum
 514 of Squares (BCSS) suddenly decreases, moving from 2 to 5 clusters and almost stabilises after this
 515 number. Accordingly, the related curve nearly flattens after this value, with a slope gradient
 516 progressively closer to zero (Figure 13).



517 **Figure 13.** Plot of the WCSS/BCSS ratios (blue dotted line) against the number of clusters and related slope gradient (red
 518 dotted line). The solid green line indicates the optimal number of clusters identified through the elbow method.
 519

520 From the above, five turns out to be the optimal number of clusters since an increase in this value
 521 does not result in a finer data clustering. Consequently, points of the Preliminary susceptibility raster
 522 are clustered into five groups.

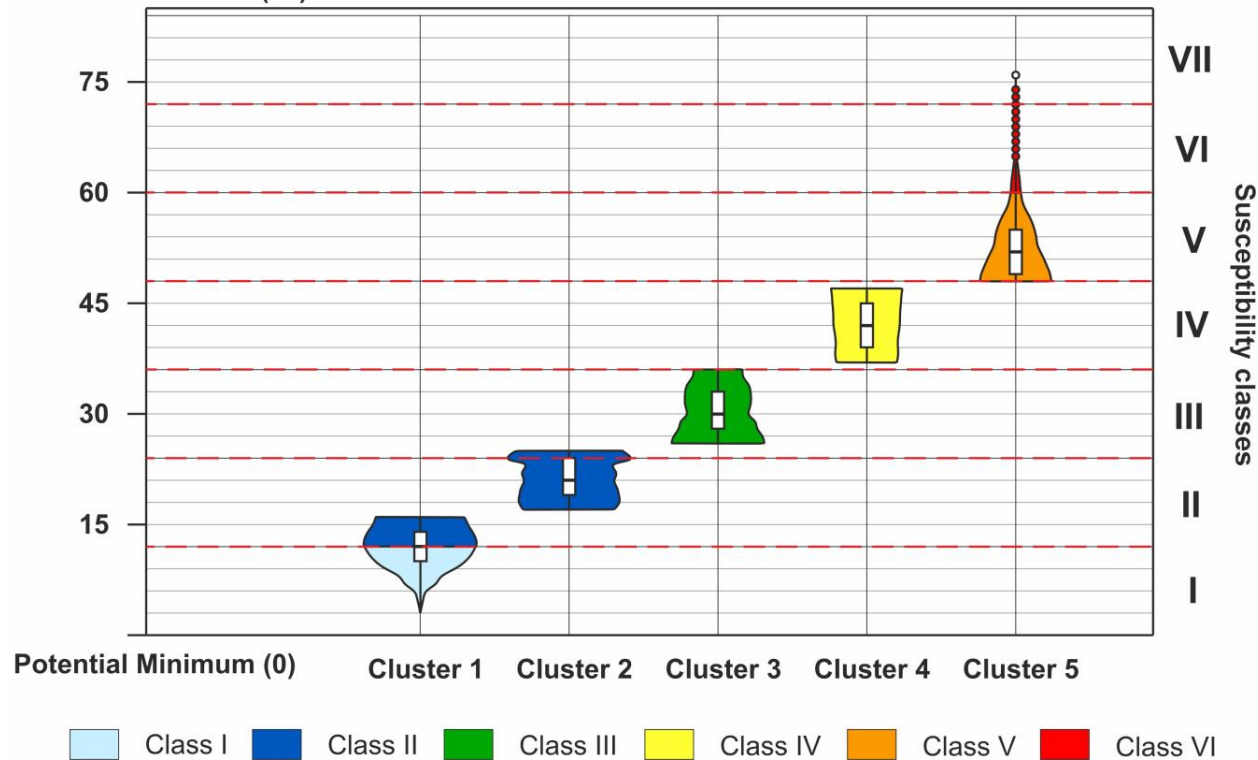
523 From the analysis of values distribution within each cluster, it results that Cluster 3 contains the
 524 greatest volume of data, Cluster 5 the smallest one (Table 2); clusters 2 and 5 present, respectively,
 525 the narrowest and the widest extensions. Mean and median values are fairly near in each cluster; mode
 526 values slightly deviate from these. Cluster 2 shows the lowest standard deviation, while Cluster 5 the
 527 highest one. Finally, the InterQuartile Range (IQR) extensions of all clusters are rather comparable.

528 **Table 2.** Statistic of clusters.

Cluster #	Number of data-%	Values range	Mean-Median-Mode values	Standard deviation	IQR
1	22707492-21.2	3-16	12-12-12	2.64	10-14
2	23776539-22.1	17-25	21.1-21-24	2.62	19-24
3	25171384-23.4	26-36	30.4-30-26	3.15	28-33
4	20324367-18.9	37-47	42.2-42-47	3.16	39-45
5	15477554-14.4	48-76	52.6-52-48	3.83	49-55
Whole dataset	107457336-100	3-76	29.9-28-24	14.01	18-42

529
 530 By comparing cluster statistics to classes of the absolute susceptibility scale of Figure 4 and by
 531 applying the workflow of Figure 5, six susceptibility classes result ranging from I to VI out of VII
 532 (Figure 14).

Potential Maximum (85)



533
 534 **Figure 14.** Violin plots of clusters data. Cluster 1 data greater than 12 constitute 35% of the group and are consequently
 535 assigned to Class II. Cluster 5 data mostly fall into Class V but partially overcome the central value of the adjacent higher
 536 class; consequently, values greater than 60 are assigned to Class VI. Concerning box-plots, lower and upper limits of

537 boxes represent the first (Q1) and the third (Q3) quartile of clusters data, lines inside the boxes the median values, whiskers
538 the values greater than $Q1 - 1.5 \cdot IQR$ and smaller than $Q1$ or greater than $Q3$ and smaller than $Q3 + 1.5 \cdot IQR$ with $IQR =$
539 $Q3 - Q1$. Circles represent the outliers, i.e., values smaller than $Q1 - 1.5 \cdot IQR$ or greater than $Q3 + 1.5 \cdot IQR$.

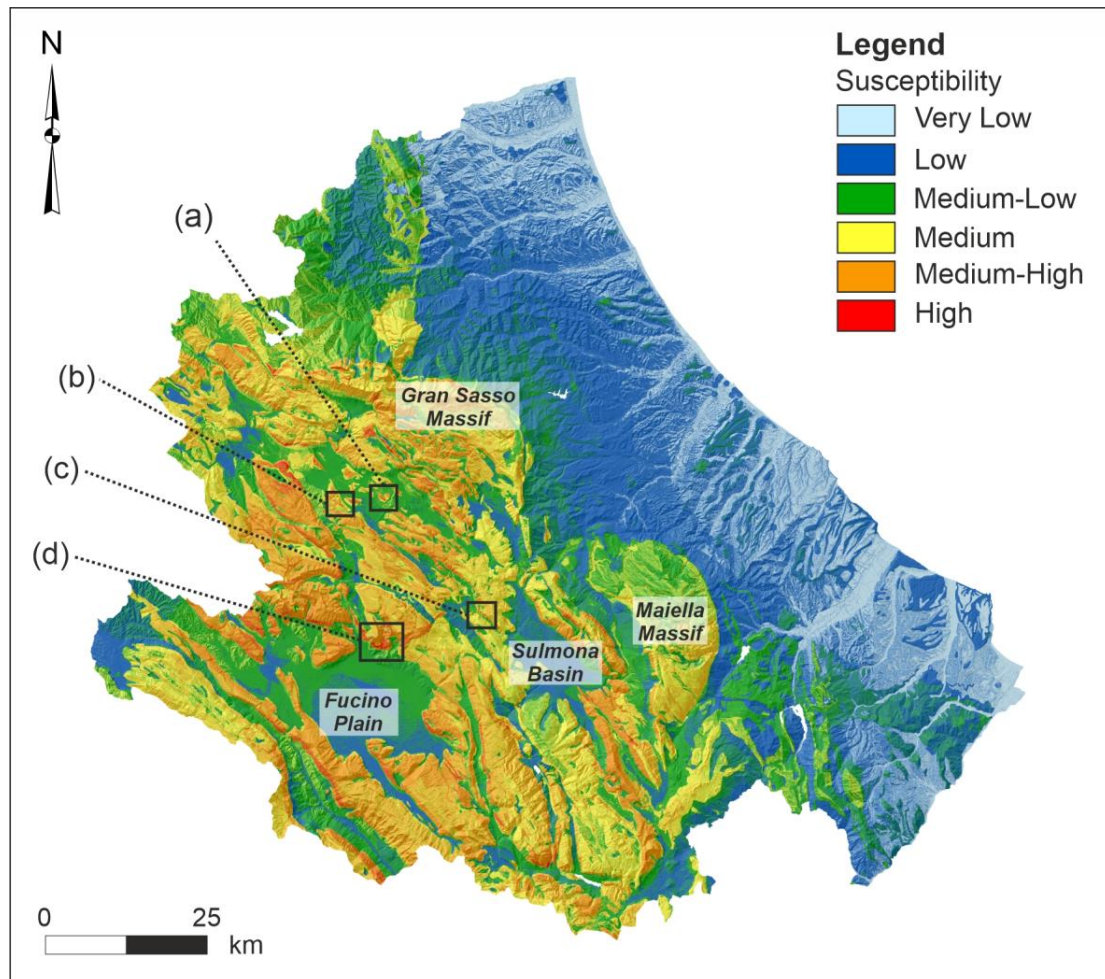
540 *4.3.3 Earthquake-induced landslides susceptibility map of the Abruzzo Region*

541 The refinement of the susceptibility map results in the final detection of six susceptibility classes,
542 ranging from I-Very Low to VI-High out of a maximum of VII (Figure 15).

543 Coastal areas are mostly characterised by Very Low susceptibility values. Low values are locally
544 spotted in correspondence with high coasts and areas featuring the presence of anthropogenic
545 sinkholes.

546 The piedmont area presents Very Low values, progressively increasing to Medium moving towards
547 the chain sector. Fluvial plains are clearly distinguished from adjacent areas, having Very Low
548 susceptibilities.

549 The chain sector, finally, presents values ranging from Medium-Low to High. In detail, the major
550 intermontane basins (i.e., Fucino Plain and Sulmona Basin) are well described by Low and Medium-
551 Low values; these last also characterise the northern portion of the Maiella massif. Medium and
552 Medium-High susceptibilities are detected in correspondence of reliefs, moving to High values in
553 correspondence of steep slopes, mostly on south-western flanks of ridges.



554 **Figure 15.** Earthquake-Induced Landslides (EILs) Susceptibility map of the Abruzzo Region. Black polygons indicate
 555 sectors presenting recorded EILs events; a detailed cartographic representation, supported by photo documentation, for
 556 each site is shown in Figure 16.
 557

558 **5. Discussions and conclusions**

559 In this study, an expert-based approach followed by a statistical classification of resulting values is
 560 tested in order to evaluate the EILs susceptibility of the Abruzzo Region.

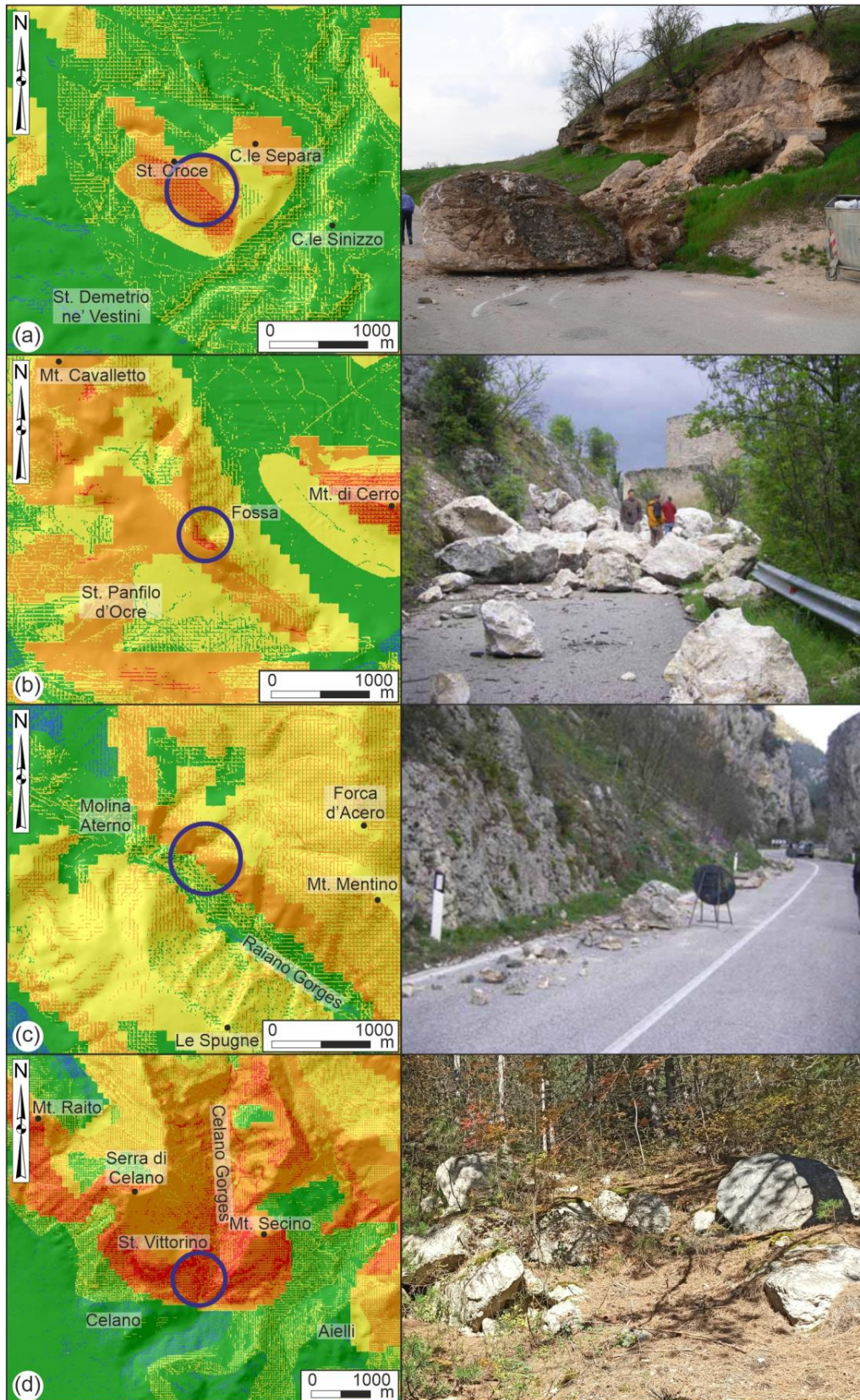
561 The comparison between sectors falling into different susceptibility classes and the geomorphological
 562 features of investigated areas highlight the quality of achieved results. The method, indeed, proves to
 563 be highly effective in distinguishing regions featuring different stability degrees, with well-known
 564 EILs detachments zones actually falling into Medium-High and High classes (Figure 16). Very Low
 565 to Medium values, on the other hand, mostly identify stable areas.

566 It is beyond question that the availability of good-quality data deeply affects the outcomes and that
567 the accuracy of results increases as the number and the suitability of parameters increases. In this
568 work, their choice and classification/weighting is performed by expert judgment, based on the critical
569 analysis of literature data as well as of inventoried landslide events; the combination of nine
570 morphometric and geothematic features turns out to be highly proper.

571 In the case of parameters affecting limited sectors of the study area and here referred to as secondary
572 ones, it is advisable not to consider their contribution in the definition of the minimum/maximum
573 potential values in order to avoid the relative scale compaction with respect to the absolute one and
574 the subsequent lowering of detected susceptibility degrees. Their impact is to be assessed in a second
575 phase. The question is here managed by excluding the *Anthropogenic sinkholes* factor in the heuristic
576 analysis to later sum their associated weight to the Susceptibility map right before the final
577 classification step.

578 The analysis of variance performed on clusters resulting from Forgy's Kmeans algorithm allows the
579 detection of the most suitable number of data groups actually present in the study area. Nevertheless,
580 a statistical analysis of these data groups is required, given their variable extension, in order to assign
581 them the appropriate susceptibility class. A correction of limits detected through the process is
582 opportune and desirable in cases of clustered values encompassing too wide ranges or a relevant
583 percentage of data falling into a class different from the most populated one. The workflow presented
584 in this paper proves to be highly effective in this regard.

585



586
 587 **Figure 16.** Photo documentation of recorded EILs events over Abruzzo Region; for site locations and legend, see Figure
 588 15. On the left, magnification the resulting landslide susceptibility map (Figure 15) for each site: a) San Demetrio ne'

589 Vestini (AQ), b) Fossa (AQ), c) Raiano (AQ), d) Celano (AQ); on the right, photo documentation of selected EILs events
590 (Figure 16b and c are modified from Blumetti et al., 2009). Blue circles indicate detachments areas.

591 In conclusion, an accurate EILs susceptibility evaluation of the Abruzzo region is achieved by joining
592 expert-based heuristic and statistical analyses. Results here presented highlight the robustness of the
593 approach; remarkably, the applied methodology overcomes limits eventually intrinsic to catalogues,
594 making the approach a valuable tool in the development of territorial planning, emergency
595 management, and loss-reduction measures, readily applicable even in areas where fairly detailed EILs
596 data are missing. The statistical analyses and the adoption of an absolute scale ranging from minimum
597 to maximum potential values, finally, ensures the comparability of results among different study
598 areas, if the same classification and weighting of parameters here used are applied.

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