

SURFACE FAULTING AND GROUND DEFORMATION: CONSIDERATIONS ON THEIR LOWER DETECTABLE LIMIT AND ON FDHA FOR NUCLEAR INSTALLATIONS.

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Abstract

We performed a review of a representative dataset on coseismic surface deformation, derived from both InSAR imaging and from traditional field survey of surface faulting. This analysis indicates a minimum threshold value of M_w 5.4 - 5.5 for earthquake-induced ground deformation and faulting, with an inherently lower limit of detection that makes hard to recognize surface deformation caused by $M_w < 4.5 - 5.0$ events. Significant exceptions are represented by shallow (i.e., less than ca. 5 km) events that occur in volcano-tectonic settings, where surface deformation and dislocation are clearly detectable also for M_w ca. 4.0. Furthermore, a statistically significant regression between the areal extent of surface deformation and maximum slip at surface is proposed. This correlation is discussed in relation to the Fault Displacement Hazard Analysis (FDHA) for nuclear power plants. In particular, the deformation area is used in order to find a potential solution for the second and the third criterion for defining a capable fault, *sensu* IAEA SSG-9, 2010.

1. INTRODUCTION

Recently, remote sensing (i.e., RADAR interferometry – InSAR, differential LiDAR, optical imagery correlation) greatly improved the detecting possibilities for surface faulting and ground deformation and changed the analytical approach to earthquake-induced ground deformation. InSAR imaging allows to measure the regional permanent ground deformation induced by earthquakes, down to a cm-scale resolution, over areas of hundreds of square kilometers. The observed coseismic deformation fields can be inverted to derive the parameters of the seismogenic source, similarly to what is usually done with geodetic and strong motion data. Such an approach is informative for moderate and larger earthquakes and, since the late 1990's, it expanded earthquake geology knowledge.

So far, systematic databases of earthquake-induced ground ruptures result in well-accepted scaling relations between earthquake size (i.e., usually expressed as moment magnitude M_w) and dimensions of the seismogenic structure (i.e., area, length, max. displacement). Accordingly, recent works (e.g., Livio et al., 2017; Gürpınar et al., 2017) pointed out a similar close relationship between the areal extent and amount of surface deformation, as measured through InSAR imaging, and earthquake size.

35 Still, a new issue arises on the lower limit of detection for surface faulting and ground
36 deformation, based on both traditional survey and InSAR-derived displacement fields. These
37 two sources of information need to be integrated into comprehensive databases, as underlined
38 by scientific working groups on this issue (e.g., surface rupture database – SURE,
39 <http://www.earthquakegeology.com/index.php?page=surface&s=4>). The published databases
40 of observations of surface faulting are relatively poor in the region of low Mw earthquakes,
41 and some doubts are arising on their completeness and on possible epistemic uncertainties
42 deriving from biased datasets (e.g., Stirling et al. 2002).

43 In this paper we: i) review the lower Mw limit for surface faulting according to published
44 databases; ii) inspect the lower limit of detection for ground deformation from InSAR imaging;
45 iii) discuss the relationship between the ground deformation and the potential for surface
46 faulting (fault capability) in relation to FDHA and, in particular, as it relates to nuclear power
47 plant safety.

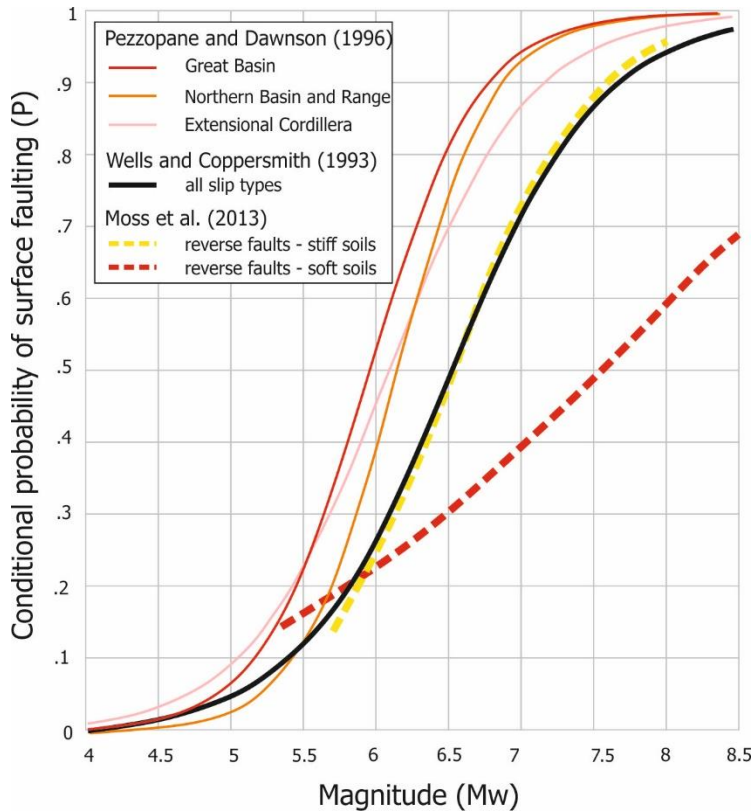
48 2. AN ANALYSIS OF THE SURFACE FAULTING VS MW REGRESSION 49 CURVES AND A POTENTIAL INFERENCE ON THE LOWER LIMIT OF 50 MW FOR SURFACE FAULTING

51 In the present practice of fault displacement hazard analysis (FDHA; ANSI/ANS-2.30,
52 2015), the possibility that an earthquake of given magnitude will result in surface faulting is
53 considered using empirical relationships which are mainly based on field observations of past
54 ground ruptures.

55 Statistical analysis is performed as a regression of conditional probability of occurrence (P)
56 on datasets of past historical and instrumental events. Results from some of the most accepted
57 works in literature are reported in **Errore. L'origine riferimento non è stata trovata.**,
58 showing that for normal and strike-slip faulting events, P increases above $M_w \geq 5.5$ and results
59 in a ca. 95% probability of occurrence for earthquakes $M_w 7.0$. The studies here reported
60 considered a dataset of 100 events between $M_w 4.5$ and 7.6 , mainly representing the $M_w 5.5$
61 to 7.0 interval. It is important, therefore, to recall that the calculated probabilities are sample-
62 dependent and prone to change when sample size and characteristics are altered.

63 Such studies show a correlation in the proposed regressions, generally assuming a log-
64 linear relationship between M_w and rupture characteristics (i.e., length, area, displacement
65 etc.). It is implicit in the logarithmic nature of the calculated regressions, that progressively

66 lower values of rupture length and displacements are expected for decreasing M_w , resulting in
67 considerably small values, when extrapolated for low M_w ranges (i.e., $M_w \leq 4.5$).



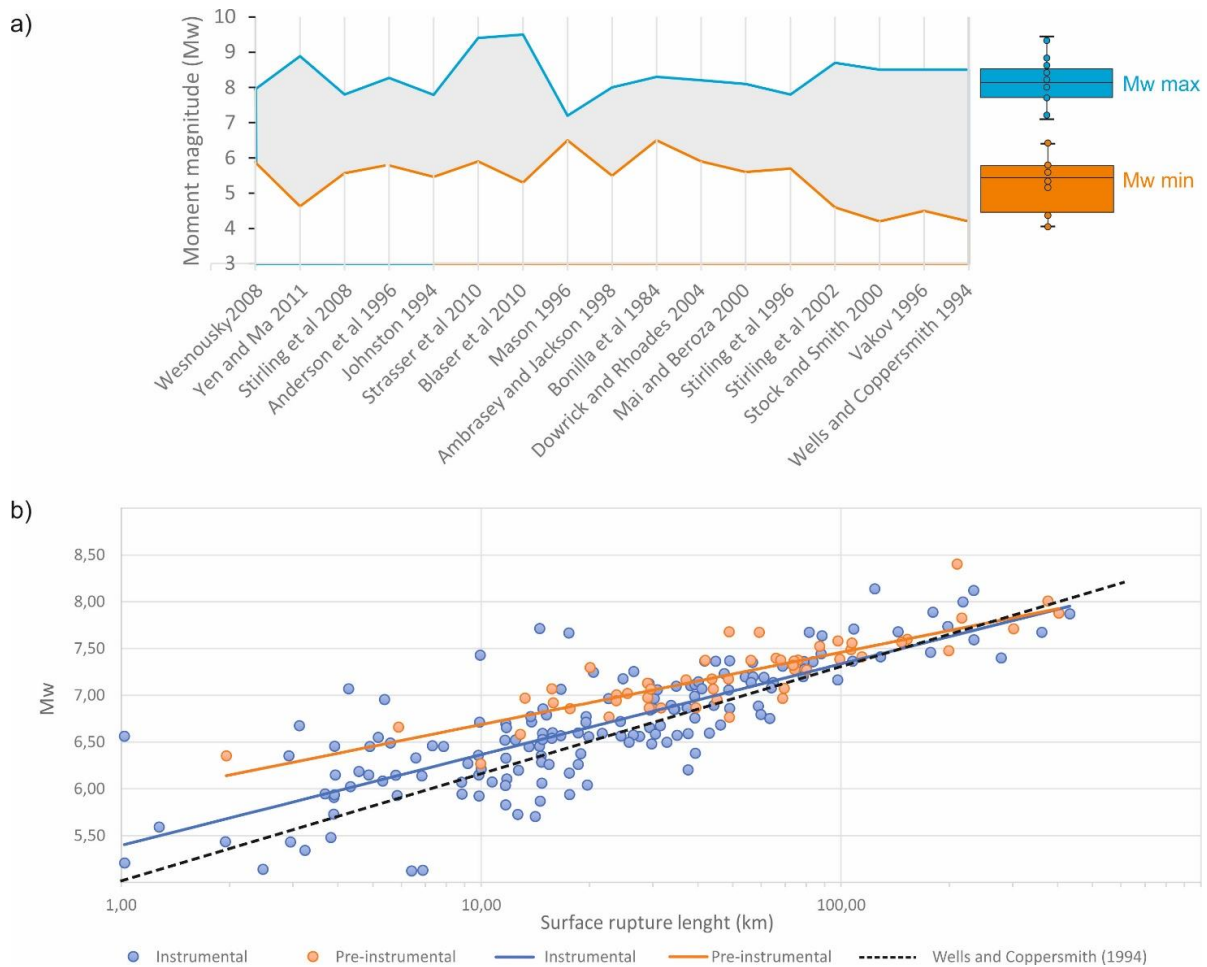
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69 **Figure 1.** Conditional probability curves for primary surface faulting in relation to different earthquakes
70 magnitudes and kinematics.

71 Below, we summarize our analysis on the state of the art of these regressions and highlight
72 some of the shortcomings, as recognized by previous analytical works.

73 *Data completeness.* Wells and Coppersmith (1994) published empirical relationships,
74 considering a dataset of the 244 worldwide earthquakes available at the time. The authors
75 provide a range of M_w for the applicability of each calculated regression and consider both the
76 entire dataset or subsets of events according to earthquake kinematics but the dataset was
77 analyzed with insufficient consideration on the data accuracy (i.e., instrumental vs pre-
78 instrumental earthquakes) and with the restriction $M_w \geq 4.5$ (Stirling et al., 2002). Other
79 regressions have been later published and a complete summary of these is provided by Stirling
80 et al. (2013) who reviewed 72 models that are available in literature, grouping them by different
81 tectonic regimes and style of faulting and ranking them according to performance and
82 reliability.

83 Data completeness is questioned by the M_w range of the considered earthquakes. In fact,
84 the M_w lower bound of these datasets (i.e., median M_w 5.6; Figure 2a) is close to the M_w
85 value at which the conditional probability of surface faulting occurrence starts to increase (cfr.
86 Figure 1).

87 *Data reliability.* It is noteworthy to recall that Stirling et al. (2002) observed that estimates
88 of surface rupture displacement and magnitude for crustal earthquakes from the pre-
89 instrumental era (pre-1900) tend to be greater than the corresponding estimates derived from
90 modern scaling relations (Figure 2b). They used an expanded and updated version of the
91 earthquake dataset of Wells and Coppersmith (1994) including pre-instrumental (orange dots
92 and line in Figure 2b) and instrumental data (blue dots and line in Figure 2b) and data originally
93 excluded from the Wells and Coppersmith (1994) dataset. Updated regressions reduce but do
94 not remove the differences. Instead, the remaining differences appear to be due to natural
95 censoring of the traces of earthquakes with short surface rupture lengths and small
96 displacements from the pre-instrumental record, due to scarp degradation processes.

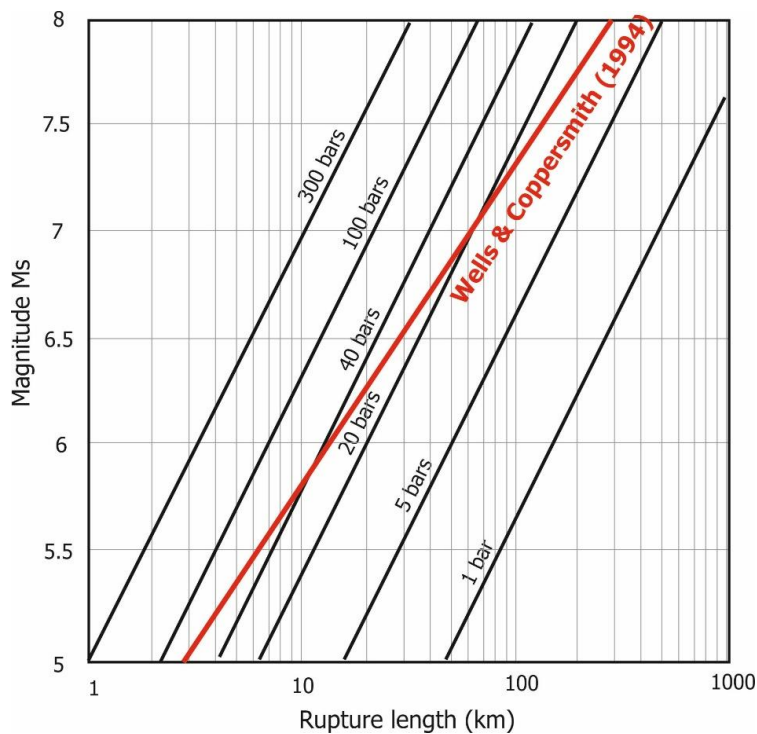


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Figure 2. (a) Range of Mw used in the datasets of several published empirical regressions (for a comprehensive analysis see Stirling, 2013, from where the data were derived), boxplots summarize the value distribution for upper and lower limit of datasets; (b) regressions of magnitude versus surface rupture length (modified after Stirling et al., 2002); regression from Wells and Coppersmith (1994) is also reported, note the substantially diverging predictions for the lower values of Mw, close to the lower limit of the dataset.

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Earthquake dynamics and kinematics. When determining maximum magnitude on faults using these regression equations, the earthquake dynamics and kinematics are generally neglected, with some notable exceptions. Anderson et al. (1996) included the fault slip rate as a variable in empirical regressions, obtaining more accurate predictions. Mohammadioun and Serva (2001) proposed a theoretical relationship between earthquake size (M_s) and rupture length, including stress drop as an additional parameter (**Errore. L'origine riferimento non è stata trovata.**). The rupture length expected for any given M_s , will depend on the assumed stress drop, a value closely related to the seismotectonic environment.

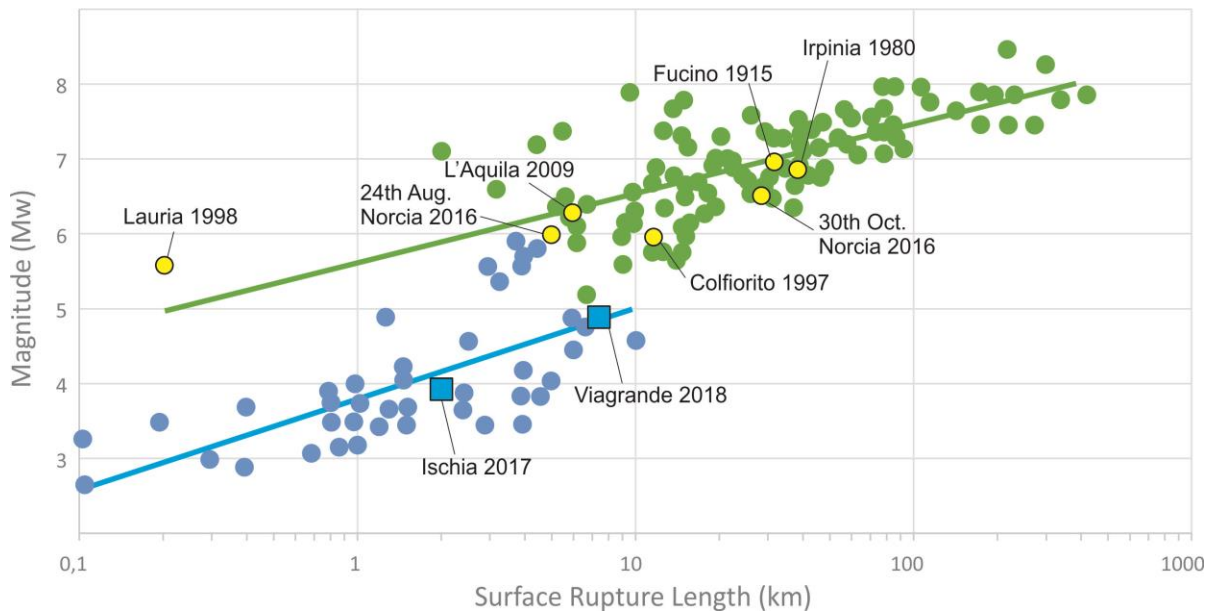


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113 **Figure 3.** Scaling law for various levels of stress drop (in bars), showing the relationship between
 114 surface-wave magnitude (M_s) and rupture length (black solid lines); the empirical relationship after
 115 Wells and Coppersmith (1994) is shown (red solid line) as a reference (redrawn after Mohammadioun
 116 and Serva, 2001).

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Seismotectonic setting. Stirling et al. (2013) review discuss the indiscriminate aggregation
 118 of seismogenic sources taken from very diverse geological settings, by using these regressions
 119 with little consideration of the regional seismotectonic environment. Mohammadioun and
 120 Serva (2001) discussed such inconsistencies, considering an earthquake database of shallow
 121 volcano-tectonic events collected in the Etna volcano area (data after Azzaro et al., 2000,
 122 Figure 4).



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125 **Figure 4.** Empirical regression of surface rupture length vs Mw for a dataset of volcano-tectonic
 126 earthquakes in the Mt. Etna area (blue dots and line for best fit; data after Azzaro et al., 2000) compared
 127 with data from Wells and Coppersmith (1994) (green dots and line) and Apennines earthquakes
 128 (yellow dots; data after Michetti et al. 1996; Vittori et al., 2000; Blumetti et al., 2002; Vittori et al.,
 129 2011; Livio et al., 2016; Civico et al., 2018). We included also two recent and well-documented
 130 volcano-tectonic Italian earthquakes (blue squares): the Aug. 21, 2017, Ischia earthquake - Mw 3.9 ,
 131 focal depth 1.2 km (Nappi et al., 2018), and the Dec. 26, 2018 Viagrande earthquake - Mw 4.9, focal
 132 depth < 1 km (EMERGEO Working Group, 2019). Note the good fitting of these two events with the
 133 database reported in Mohammadioun and Serva (2001).

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135 So far, we can conclude that, for crustal earthquakes not related to a volcano-tectonic
 136 environment, published statistical models indicate a Mw close to 5.5 as the lower limit for
 137 surface faulting with an associated rupture length, derived from empirical regressions, on the
 138 order of a few kilometers. The extrapolation of calculated regressions in the region of smaller
 139 Mw is not currently supported by an adequate dataset. One of the main sources of uncertainty
 140 in the present datasets comes from the heterogeneity of the tectonic settings and from the
 141 objective limits posed by traditional geologic mapping accuracy and/or biased sampling during
 142 field data collection. Similarly, it is a fact that no surface faulting has been documented, until
 143 present, for crustal earthquakes below Mw 5.0. This is because either the data based on field
 144 observations are insufficient or because smaller magnitudes do not produce surface faulting.
 145 In order to investigate the two possibilities, in the next chapter we will discuss the data coming
 from InSAR imaging on the earthquake-induced surface deformation.

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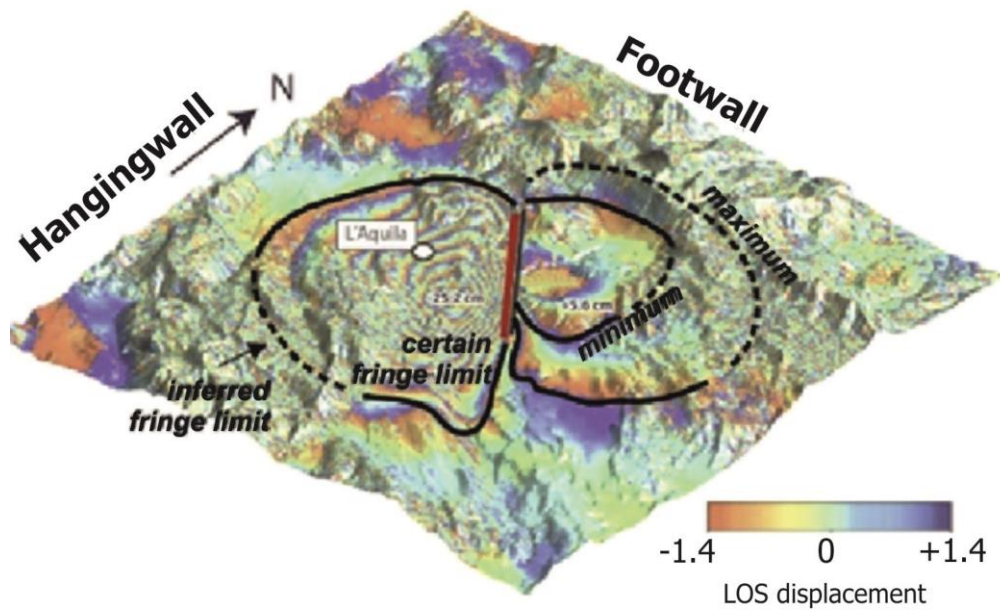
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3. LOWER LIMIT OF MW FOR EARTHQUAKE-INDUCED GROUND DEFORMATION: INSIGHTS FORM INSAR IMAGING.

149 The above discussion indicates an apparent lower limit of M_w for earthquake-induced
150 ground deformation, based on the analysis of empirical datasets of surface faulting. A similar
151 approach has been recently used for the regression of the areal extent of earthquake-induced
152 ground deformation against M_w (e.g., Livio et al., 2017; Gurpinar et al., 2017). We here update
153 that regression, including some recent earthquakes and adopting the same methods, as
154 summarized below.

155 In a GIS environment, we measured the areal extent (square kilometers) of coseismic ground
156 deformation for selected earthquakes of different M_w . We mapped the area enclosed by certain
157 fringes (i.e., coherent and continuous signal) from InSAR imaging (Figure 5).



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159 **Figure 5.** Assumed method for area calculation: typical observed versus inferred fringe limits and
160 uncertainties in the locations of the most external coherent fringes are indicated (modified after Livio
161 et al., 2017).

162 In Table 1 we listed the earthquakes used for this correlation and the measured values. We
163 selected the most significant earthquakes worldwide imaged through InSAR in order to
164 represent different kinematics, depths (km 2 – 30) and magnitude intervals (M_w 4.2 – 9.0).
165 Part of these (31 events) have already been presented in a previous paper (Livio et al., 2017).

166 First, we verified the published regression using, as a validation dataset, 18 more
167 earthquakes which occurred in the period 2016-2018. It is noteworthy that almost all the
168 earthquakes of this validation dataset lie within the 95% confidence interval of the proposed
169 regression (Figure 6).

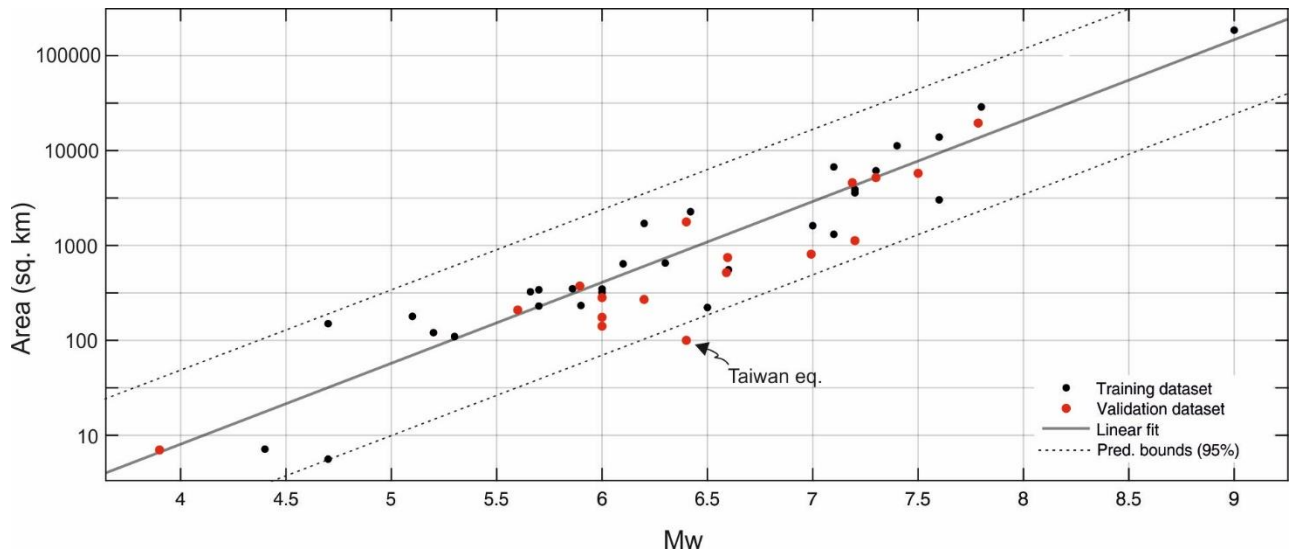
Table 1. Earthquakes used for regression analysis. Legend: Mw, moment magnitude; Kin., prevailing earthquake kinematics (N, normal faulting; TH, thrust faulting; S, strike-slip faulting); Ref., reference for earthquake InSAR imaging.

**Dataset after
Livio et al.
(2017)**

<i>Date (dd/mm/yyyy)</i>	Earthquake	Mw	Depth (km)	Kin.	Area (sq. km)	Ref.
28/06/1992	Landers	7.30	1.09	S	6130	Massonnet et al. (1993)
17/05/1993	Eureka Valley	6.10	13	N	640	Peltzer & Rosen (1995)
24/02/1994	Sefidabeh	6.20	9	TH	1706	Parsons et al. (2006)
08/11/1997	Mainji	7.60	22	S	13866	Funning et al. (1997)
30/04/1999	Zagros	5.30	4	TH	109.8	Lohman & Simons, (2005)
17/08/1999	Izmit	7.40	17	S	11230	Delouis et al. (2002)
07/09/1999	Athens	5.90	10	N	233	Baumont et al. (2004)
16/10/1999	Hector Mine	7.10	14	S	6715	Simons et al. (2002)
12/11/1999	Duzce	7.20	14	S	3888	Burgmann et al. (2002)
22/12/1999	Ain Temouchent	5.70	5	TH	230	Belabbes et al. (2009)
06/06/2000	Orta- Çankırı	6.00	8	N	321	Taymaz et al. (2007)
26/12/2003	Bam	6.60	10	S	554	Fialko et al. (2005)
24/02/2004	Al Hoceima	6.50	13	S	222	Cakir et al. (2006)
20/07/2005	Hatanbulag	5.20	6	TH	120.53	Amarjargal et al. (2013)
21/09/2005	Kalannie	4.40	1	S	7.14	Dawson et al. (2008)
08/10/2005	Kashmir	7.60	10	TH	3021	Pathier et al. (2006)
10/10/2007	Katanning	4.70	1	S	5.61	Dawson et al. (2008)
19/01/2008	Busiin Gol	5.10	8	N	179	Amarjargal et al. (2012)
25/04/2008	Reno-Mogul	4.70	2	S	150	Bell et al. (2012)
06/04/2009	L'Aquila	6.30	8.8	N	652	Walters et al. (2009)
19/05/2009	Harrat Lunayyr	5.70	8	N	341	Pallister et al. (2010)
12/01/2010	Haiti	7.00	13	S	1616	Lepinay et al. (2011)
22/02/2011	Christchurch	6.42	5	S	2269	Elliott et al. (2012)

<i>11/03/2011</i>	Tohoku	9.00	30	TH	185581	Kobayashi et al. (2011)
<i>23/10/2011</i>	Van	7.10	7.2	TH	1310	Dogan & Karakas (2013)
<i>20/05/2012</i>	Emilia 1	5.86	5	TH	350	Bignami et al. (2012)
<i>29/05/2012</i>	Emilia 2	5.66	9.6	TH	325	Bignami et al. (2012)
<i>24/08/2014</i>	Napa Valley	6.00	10	S	348	http://aria.jpl.nasa.gov/node/39
<i>25/04/2015</i>	Nepal	7.8	15	TH	28831	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic150429-index.html
<i>07/12/2015</i>	Tajikistan	7.20	26	TH	3580	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic160115-index-e.html
<i>New dataset (this study)</i>						
<i>Date (dd/mm/yyyy)</i>	Earthquake	Mw	Depth (km)	Kinematics (*)	Area (sq. km)	Ref.
<i>18/09/2004</i>	Mono lake	5.60	3	S	209	Lee et al. (2017)
<i>16/04/2016</i>	Kunamoto	7.00	10	S	813	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic160428-index-e.html
<i>24/08/2016</i>	Amatrice	6.20	4	N	270	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic160826-index-e.html
<i>21/10/2016</i>	Tottori	6.60	10	S	513	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic161027-index-e.html
<i>26/10/2016</i>	Visso	5.90	8	N	367	Cheloni et al. (2017)
<i>30/10/2016</i>	Norcia	6.60	9	N	719	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic161108-index-e.html
<i>13/11/2016</i>	Kaikoura - New Zealand	7.80	15	S	18682	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic161027-index-e.html
<i>12/01/2017</i>	Iran	6.00	9	TH	175	http://sarviews-hazards.alaska.edu/Event/41/
<i>21/08/2017</i>	Ischia	3.90	3	N	7	http://www.irea.cnr.it/en/index.php?option=com_k2&view=item&id=589
<i>12/11/2017</i>	Iraq	7.30	19	TH	5184	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic171115-index-e.html
<i>17/11/2017</i>	Nyingchi - China	6.40	8	TH	1772	http://sarviews-hazards.alaska.edu/Event/40/
<i>12/12/2017</i>	Kerman - Iran	6.00	10	TH	141	http://sarviews-hazards.alaska.edu/Event/45/
<i>06/02/2018</i>	Taiwan	6.40	17	S	100	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic180209-index-e.html
<i>16/02/2018</i>	Oaxaca - Mexico	7.20	22	TH	1124	https://disasters.nasa.gov/oaxaca-mexico-earthquake-2018
<i>16/02/2018</i>	Pinotepa de Don Luis - Mexico	7.20	43	TH	4321	http://sarviews-hazards.alaska.edu/Event/61/

<i>25/02/2018</i>	Papua New Guinea	7.50	25	TH	5761	http://www.gsi.go.jp/cais/topic180301-index-e.html
<i>01/11/2018</i>	Pyu - Burma	6.00	10	TH	282	http://sarviews-hazards.alaska.edu/Event/52/



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Figure 6. Comparison of the regression of deformed area vs M_w , as proposed in Livio et al. (2017), tested over a dataset ($n = 10$) of earthquakes occurred: almost all the earthquakes lies in the 95% bounds of the proposed regression.

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Then, we considered the entire and updated dataset and performed a bivariate regression analysis including also other variables. Depth is positively but not strongly correlated with the deformed area (i.e., adjusted R-square 0.3795) and with M_w (i.e., adjusted R-square 0.4447), as expected if we consider that dimensions of seismogenic structures rupturing the upper crust scale with M_w . So, consistently with Livio et al. (2017), depth can be ignored in further analysis. Furthermore, earthquake kinematics is not strongly influencing our regression and a similar data distribution is common for normal, reverse or strike slip modes. So, the stronger dependency of the deformed area is observed on earthquake M_w .

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A simple log-linear regression of the deformed areas with M_w has been tested in the following form:

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$$\text{Log}_{10} A = a(M_w) + b \quad (1)$$

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where A is the deformed area (in square km), M_w is the moment magnitude, a and b are parameters (Figure 7). Best fit parameters and intervals for 95% confidence bounds are reported in Table 2 and regression scores in Table 3.

192 **Table 2.** Best fit parameters for linear regression analysis.

Parameter	Best fit	95% confidence interval
<i>a</i>	0.8401	0.7378, 0.9424
<i>b</i>	-2.506	-3.167, -1.844

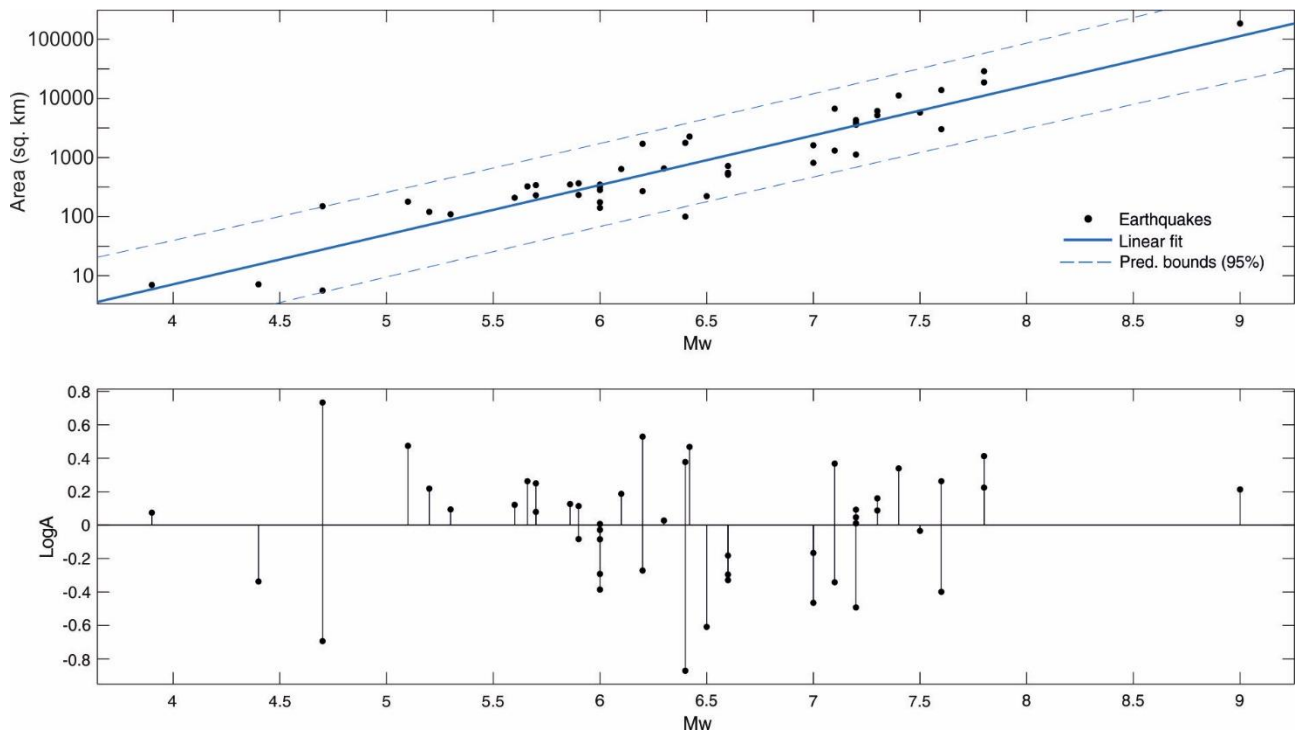
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194 **Table 3.** Scores of the best fit linear regression.

Goodness of fit:	
SSE (Log A)	5.352
R-square	0.8587
Adjusted R-square	0.8556
RMSE (Log A):	0.3449

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Figure 7. a) Calculated linear regression between deformed area and earthquake magnitude (Mw) and b) residuals plot.

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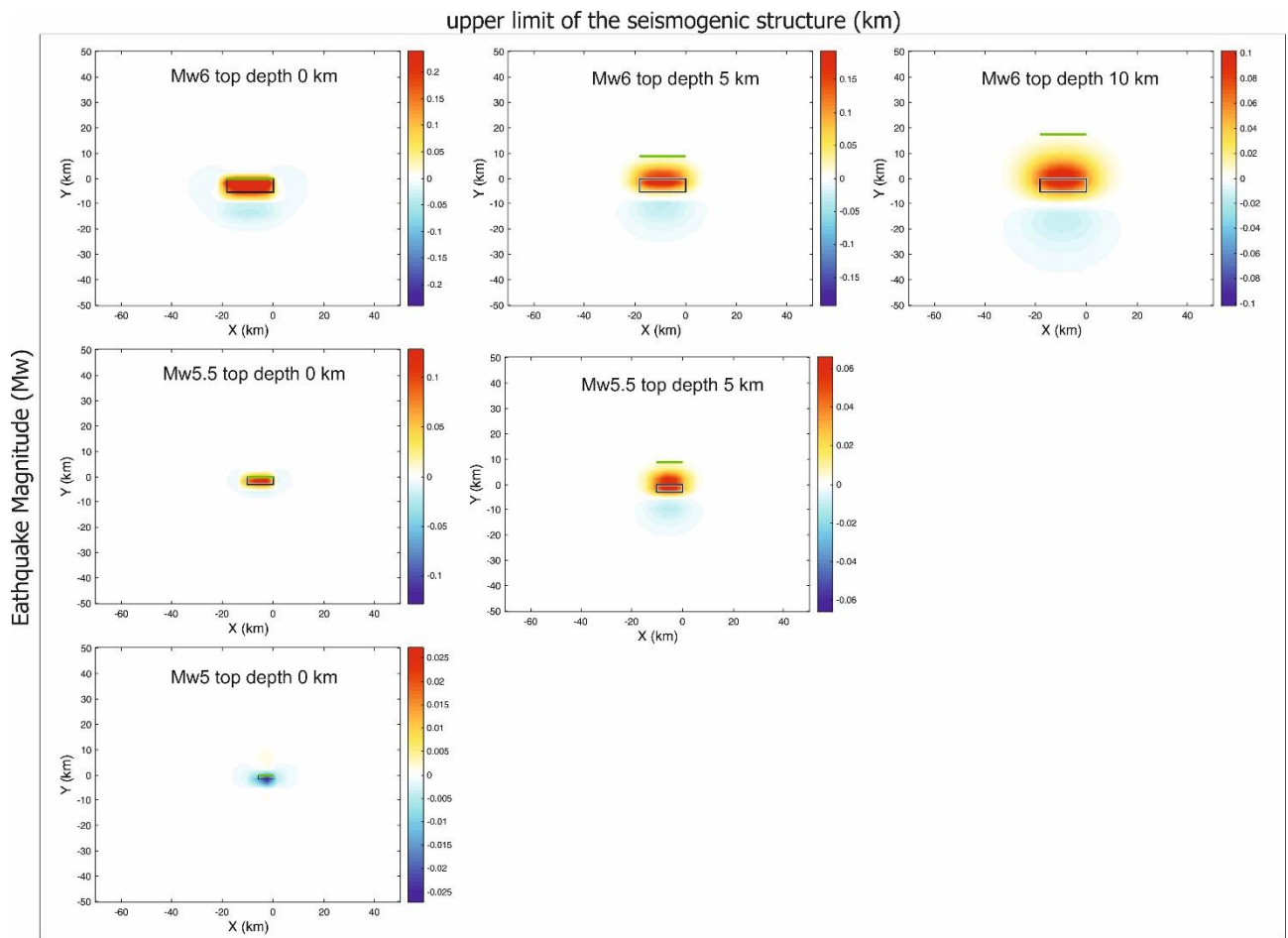
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In order to test the expected deformation at surface, we explored different scenarios based on a pure thrust seismogenic structure (Figure 8), according to elastic dislocation models (i.e. Okada, 1985). For modeling, we adopted a uniform slip model on the fault (dip = 30°) and considered the following general parameters: $3.2 \cdot 10^5$ bar for the Young's modulus, 0.25 for the Poisson's ratio, 0.6 for the coefficient of friction. We explored a magnitude (Mw) range between 6.0 and 4.5 and changed the top of the rupture between 0 and 10 km below surface.



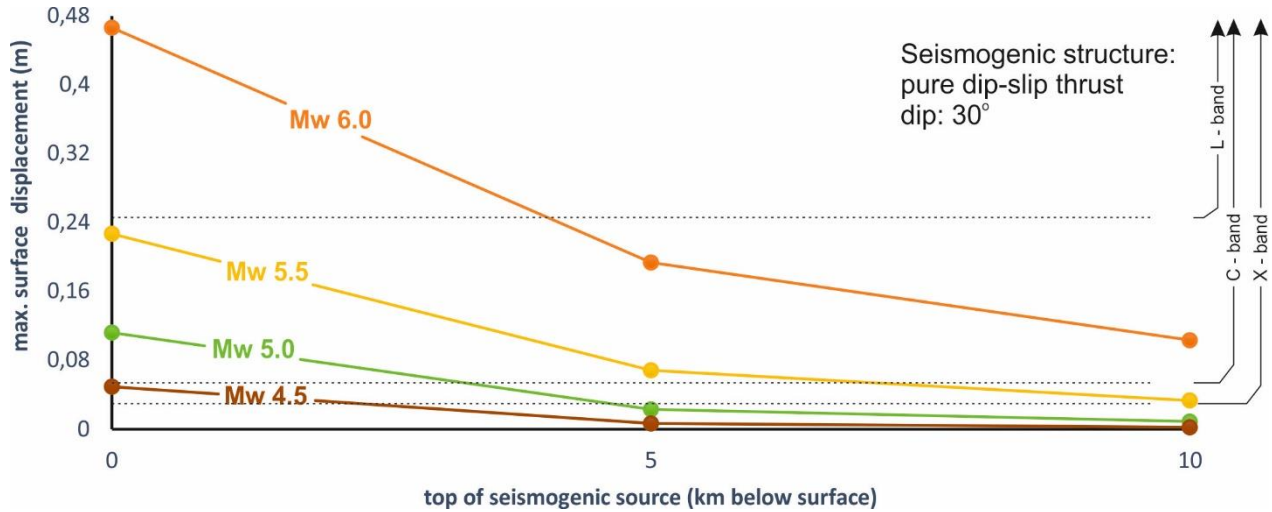
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Figure 8. Examples of calculated vertical displacement fields, at surface, at variable earthquake magnitude (Mw) and depth of the top of the seismogenic source for a thrust earthquake: seismogenic source dimensions and slip are determined from earthquake Mw, according to scalar relationships (Wells and Coppersmith, 1994); values of vertical uplift in meters.

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We scaled the dimensions and slip on the seismogenic structure according to empirical regressions from Wells and Coppersmith (1994) using equations for thrust faults. Calculations were then performed in Coulomb 3.3 (Toda et al., 2011) obtaining the dislocation components (i.e., D_x , D_y and D_z) of crustal displacement. Since the limit of detection of the InSAR observations is strongly dependent on the observation geometry (LOS distance), we conservatively considered that the observer would be able to measure the real maximum displacement at surface. So, for every considered scenario we calculated the maximum displacement at surface. Results are shown in Figure 9. Our results, are consistent with those discussed in Dawson and Tregoning (2007) on the lower limit of detection through InSAR imaging, and show that below Mw 5.5 only shallow earthquakes (i.e., focal depth < ca. 5 km) can accurately be detected (i.e., with a phase difference \geq ca. $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 the sensor wavelength). In fact, the recent Ischia (Mw 3.9) and Valgrande volcano-tectonic earthquakes (Mw 4.9) have

223 been fully imaged through InSAR, thanks to their shallow hypocentral depth (ca. 1.2 km and
 224 < 1 km respectively).



225 **Figure 9.** Maximum expected surface displacement according to elastic dislocation models (i.e., Okada,
 226 1985) for a pure dip thrust structure (see the text for details of the modeling parameters); horizontal
 227 dashed lines indicate 1 wavelength of different SAR bands, as a possible indicator of lower limit of
 228 detection.
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230 Conversely, the direct detection of surface faulting or localized deformation through InSAR
 231 imaging is inherently limited by the sensor characteristics and deformation gradients greater
 232 than 10^{-5} (X-band) – 10^{-3} (C or L band) result in loss of coherence. Consequently, the direct
 233 imaging of surface rupture or near surface blind localized deformation usually results in a linear
 234 interruption of the interferogram fringes.

235 From the discussion above, it emerges that the lack of data below Mw ca. 4.5 is due to an
 236 inherent limit of the detection technique. However, as for surface faulting, the expected value
 237 of surface deformation is so small that it is unlikely that surface faulting can be detected below
 238 this value for crustal earthquakes, not related to volcano-tectonic environment.

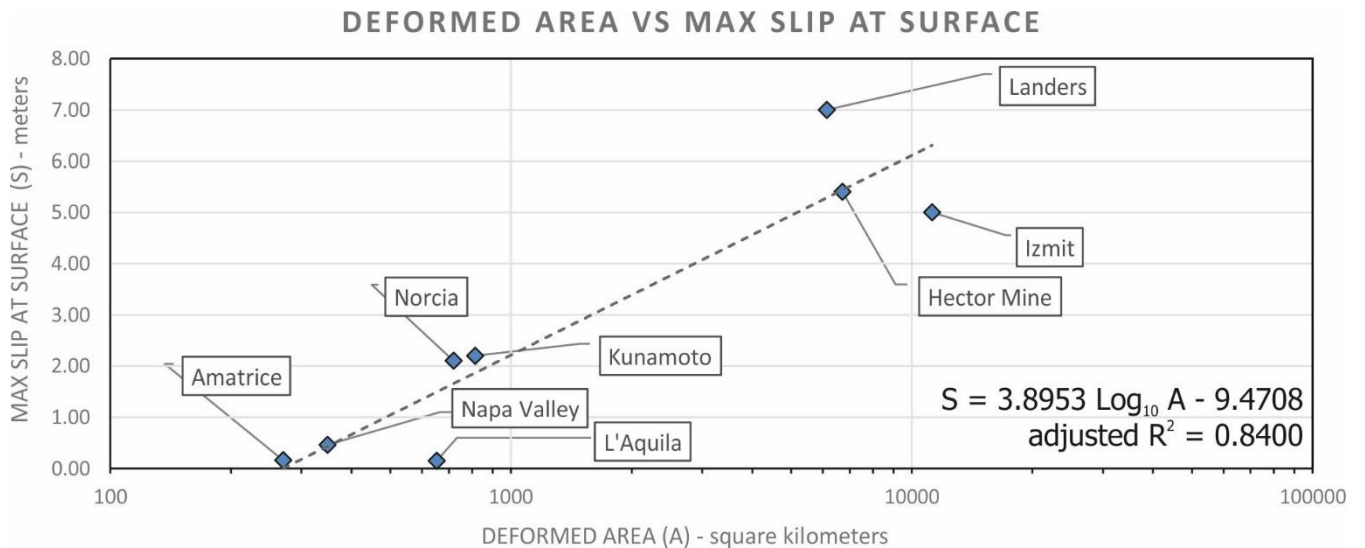
239 The same observation arises from the comparison between the areal extent of earthquake-
 240 induced deformation at surface, as derived from InSAR datasets, and maximum slip at surface.
 241 We selected 8 recent moderate-to-strong earthquakes and tested a regression between the two
 242 variables (Table 4 and Figure 10).

243 **Table 4.** Earthquake parameters for some surface faulting events, used for comparison between
 244 maximum slip at surface and the area of InSAR-derived surface deformation (Figure 10).
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Date (dd/mm/yyyy)	Earthquake	Mw	Depth (km)	Kinematics (*)	Area (sq. km)	Log A	Max slip at surface (m)	Ref.
28/06/1992	Landers	7.30	1.09	SR	6130	3.79	7.00	Rymer (1992)

17/08/1999	Izmit	7.40	17	SR	11230	4.05	5.00	Gulen et al. (2002)
16/10/1999	Hector Mine	7.10	14	SR	6715	3.83	5.40	Treiman et al. (2002)
06/04/2009	L'Aquila	6.30	8.8	N	652	2.81	0.15	Vittori et al. (2011)
24/08/2014	Napa Valley	6.00	10	SR	348	2.54	0.46	Brocher et al. (2015)
16/04/2016	Kunamoto	7.00	10	SS	813	2.91	2.20	Shirahama et al. (2016)
24/08/2016	Amatrice	6.00	4	N	270	2.43	0.16	Pucci et al. (2017)
30/10/2016	Norcia	6.50	9	N	719	2.86	2.10	Ferrario et al. (2018)

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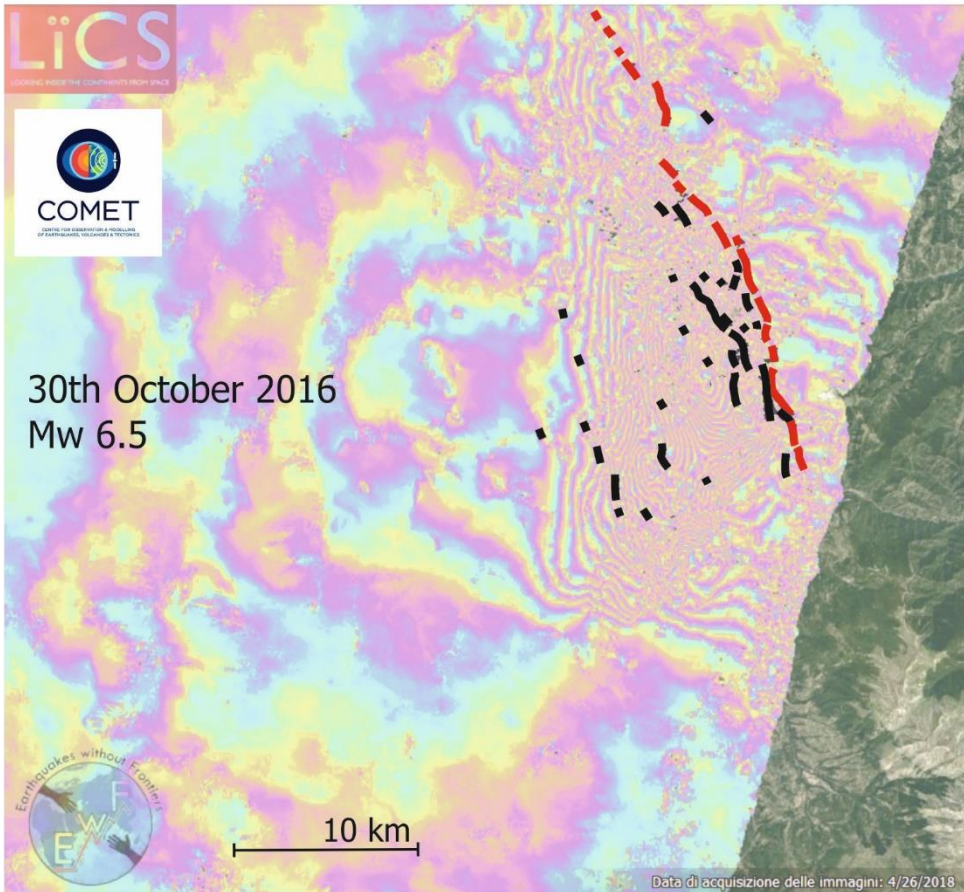
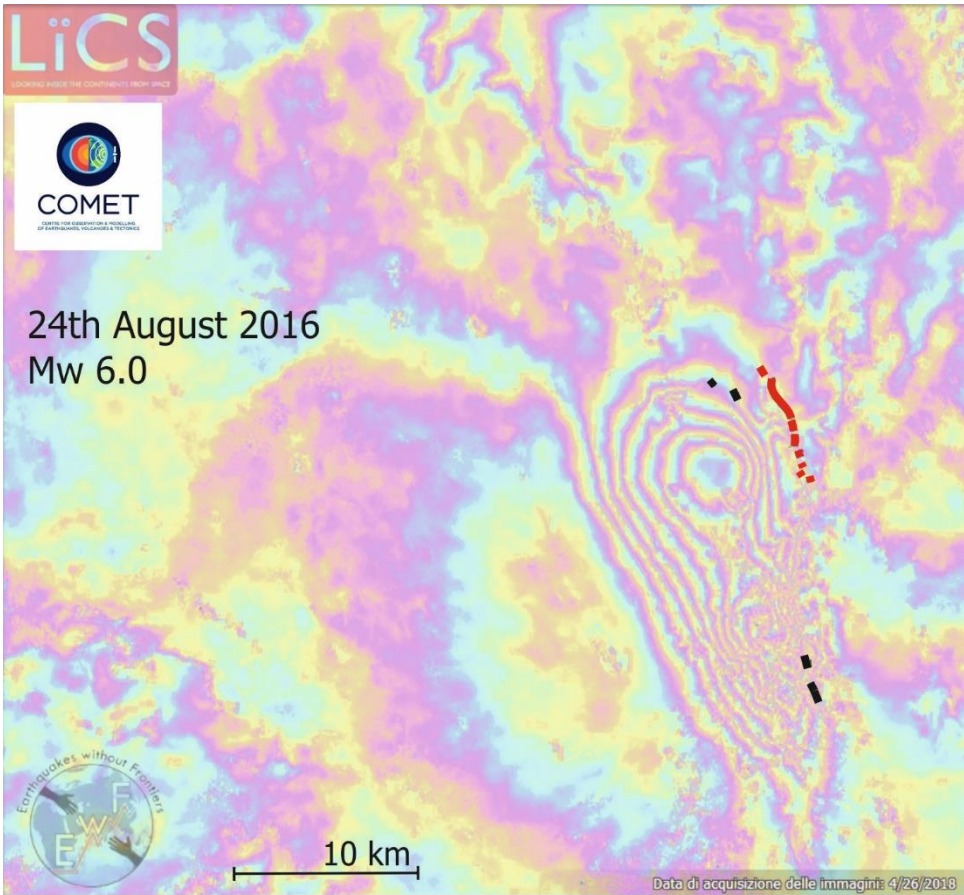


248
249

250 **Figure 10.** Relationship between maximum slip at surface and InSAR-derived coseismically deformed
251 area; see Table 4 for the sources used as references for surface faulting.

252 The two variables show a strong positive correlation and suggest that expected maximum slip
253 at surface becomes negligible (i.e., close to zero) for deformed areas under ca. 250 square
254 kilometers (Figure 10), that is a Mw 5.4 – 5.5, according to the previously discussed
255 relationship.

256 The close spatial relationship between crustal deformation and surface faulting is also
257 underlined in Figure 10, where the traces of the ground ruptures mapped after the Oct. 30th,
258 2016 Norcia earthquake (Mw 6.5) are mapped on the InSAR-derived coseismic ground
259 deformation. All the mapped fault strands are enclosed in the area interested by coseismic
260 permanent ground deformation, suggesting that crustal strain and static stress transfer played a
261 predominant role, in respect to dynamic triggering, in promoting distributed faulting. This
262 observation, if taken as an assumption, opens the possibility to use the output of simple elastic
263 dislocation models as an input parameter for the assessment of fault capability (*sensu* IAEA,
264 2010), as will be discussed below.



266 **Figure 11.** Comparison between the extent of InSAR-derived coseismic ground deformation and
267 traces of primary (red) and distributed (black) surface faulting for two mainshocks of the 2016 Central
268 Italy seismic sequence. Fault traces after Livio et al. (2016) and Civico et al. (2018) and InSAR
269 images after Foulmelis (2016) and Brcic (2016) for the Aug. 26th and Oct. 30th event respectively.

270

271

4. IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FAULT CAPABILITY ASSESSMENT

272 The strong correlation between the surface faulting and the earthquake-induced crustal
273 deformation at the surface, as discussed previously, can impact on the assessment of the
274 potential for surface faulting and, in particular, on fault capability, sensu IAEA, 2010: a crucial
275 aspect of the seismic hazard evaluation and feasibility of nuclear power plants.

276 In particular, as stated in the IAEA SSG-9 (2010):

277

278 *“On the basis of geological, geophysical, geodetic or seismological data, a fault should be*
279 *considered capable if the following conditions apply:*

280 *(a) If it shows evidence of past movement or movements (such as significant*
281 *deformations and/or dislocations) of a recurring nature within such a period that it is*
282 *reasonable to conclude that further movements at or near the surface may occur. In highly*
283 *active areas, where both earthquake data and geological data consistently reveal short*
284 *earthquake recurrence intervals, periods of the order of tens of thousands of years (e.g. Upper*
285 *Pleistocene–Holocene, i.e. the present) may be appropriate for the assessment of capable*
286 *faults. In less active areas, it is likely that much longer periods (e.g. Pliocene–Quaternary, i.e.*
287 *the present) are appropriate.*

288 *(b) If a structural relationship with a known capable fault has been demonstrated such*
289 *that movement of the one fault may cause movement of the other at or near the surface.*

290 *(c) If the maximum potential magnitude associated with a seismogenic structure [...],*
291 *is sufficiently large and at such a depth that it is reasonable to conclude that, in the current*
292 *tectonic setting of the plant, movement at or near the surface may occur.”*

293 While point a) of the quoted text is the main criterion for fault capability and extensively
294 discussed between the involved experts, the conditions expressed in (b) and (c), in our view,
295 are less well understood. These conditions are affected by the correlation between the
296 deformation of the crust and the probability and characteristics of surface faulting.

297 In fact, when capability, as defined in point a), cannot be assessed because reliable dating is
298 not possible by any available method, including the more updated geochronological dating
299 methods, the fault is considered capable if:

300 (1) it could be linked with a known capable fault. (i.e. has been demonstrated that a movement
301 of the capable fault may cause movement of such a fault);

302 (2) - the maximum potential magnitude associated with a seismogenic structure, is sufficiently
303 large and at such a depth that it is reasonable to conclude that, because of the significant crustal
304 deformation produced by the event also in the site vicinity area of the NPP, surface faulting
305 can occur also on faults here located.

306 Point (1) indicates the capability of an undated fault if it has a structural relationship with a
307 known capable fault. In many cases, this structural relationship may be questionable, therefore
308 an important step forward for a reliable assessment could be the following.

309 A quantitative approach can rely on the modeling of Coulomb stress transfer between faults (e.g.,
310 Stein, 1999): a valuable tool to assess the likelihood of reactivation of preexisting faults, given a
311 primary fault movement. Nevertheless, to accurately model fault reactivation, one must have an
312 *a priori* knowledge of the geometries of the receiving faults, as well as the primary fault itself. In
313 many cases, such detailed information is lacking, and usually only primary fault geometry is well
314 known. Therefore, to predict the probability of a fault to be triggered by another one, a model
315 based solely on primary fault geometry and slip would be needed. We here consider the
316 possibility that triggered faulting could preferentially occur in those sectors where greater strain
317 is induced by co-seismic deformation, that is in those sectors permanently deformed by coseismic
318 ground deformation.

319 First, it is necessary to identify the deformed area due to the maximum earthquake that may be
320 produced by the capable fault considered, using regressions in Figure 6. In case the deformed
321 area includes the fault under investigation, its potential capability becomes more significant.
322 On the other hand, it becomes less significant in the case the fault is outside the deformed area.

323 Point (2) indicates a situation where the maximum potential earthquake associated with a
324 seismogenic structure, not necessarily close to the fault under investigation for capability,
325 could produce deformation affecting also the area where this fault is located. To verify this
326 situation, it is proposed to calculate the deformed area using the correlation given in Figure 1
327 and, if it includes the fault under investigation, it would be necessary to consider this possibility
328 which may lead to an *ad hoc* FDHA.

329 In point (2) the case of an earthquake of such M_w that surface faulting is expected but there
330 are no geological and geophysical data that could indicate to which structure this earthquake
331 can be associated. In other words, the only source of information would be from the
332 seismological catalogue. In this case, the earthquake should be located near the epicenter given
333 by the seismological database or in its vicinity where potential geological structures exist.
334 Then, the potential deformed area can be calculated, and the process as described above may
335 be followed.

336 Uncertainties in the various steps provided above should be considered and special emphasis
337 should be given also to the position of the fault under investigation inside the deformed area.
338 In any case, the size of the deformed area would need to be considered with its associated
339 uncertainties calculated by the empirical analysis as outlined above. In treating these
340 uncertainties, the more pessimistic interpretations would need to be considered for fault
341 capability evaluation to comply with the conservative approach used in nuclear industry
342 practices.

343 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

344 In this work, we updated some previously published regressions between coseismically
345 deformed area and earthquake magnitude (M_w), with some recent events. We tested our
346 observations and regressions in the low magnitude range, observing that both crustal
347 deformation and surface faulting show a consistent lower value threshold for detectable surface
348 effects (i.e., M_w 5.4 – 5.5). Interferometric techniques show similar results, with an inherently
349 lower limit of detection that makes hard to recognize surface deformation caused by $M_w < 4.5$
350 - 5.0 events. Significant exceptions are represented by events that occur in volcano-tectonic
351 settings, where surface deformation and dislocation is clearly detectable also for M_w as low as
352 ca. M_w 4.0. Furthermore, a correlation between the extent of surface deformation maximum
353 slip at surface is highlighted suggesting surface faulting is close to zero for those earthquakes
354 causing less than ca. 250 square kilometers of surface deformation extent.

355 We then discuss a potential use of the strong correlation between the surface faulting and the
356 deformation of the crust at the surface in term of the fault displacement hazard assessment
357 (FDHA) for Nuclear Power Plants.

358 On the basis of the above results coming from the present surface faulting database and the
359 amount of crustal deformation, it will be easier to confirm that, for crustal earthquakes, the
360 lower limit for surface faulting would be approximately Mw 5.5.

361 While the IAEA Safety Guide SSG-9 provides recommendations related to fault displacement
362 hazards for nuclear installations, the actual application of these recommendations to concrete
363 cases (in particular b) and c) conditions) needs a more quantitative framework. The previous
364 papers by the authors (Livio et al., 2017 and Gürpınar et al., 2017) and the present work
365 constitute an attempt in this direction.

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