

1 **Landscape analysis for multi-hazard prevention in Orco and Soana valleys, North-Western**
2 **Italy**

3
4 Laura Turconi¹, Domenico Tropeano¹, G. Savio², Sunil Kumar De^{3*}, P. J. Mason⁴

5
6 ¹Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Istituto per la Protezione Idrogeologica, CNR-IRPI UOS
7 Torino. Strada delle Cacce 73, 10135 Torino (Italy). E-mail: laura.turconi@irpi.cnr.it;
8 marmot1972@libero.it;

9 ²CNR-IRPI Collaborator E-mail: g_savio@libero.it

10 ^{3*}Department of Geography, North-Eastern Hill University, NEHU Campus, Shillong - 793022,
11 Meghalaya, India; E-mail: desunil@gmail.com

12 ⁴Imperial College, Department of Earth Science and Engineering, London, Department of Earth
13 Science & Engineering - Royal School of Mines. Imperial College, Prince Consort Road, London
14 SW7 2AZ; E-mail: p.j.mason@imperial.ac.uk

15 *Corresponding Author (E-mail: desunil@yahoo.com, Phone: +91 364 2723205, Fax: +91 364 255
16 0076) .

17
18 **Abstract**

19 The study area (600 km²), consisting of Orco and Soana Valleys in the Western Italian Alps,
20 experienced different types of natural hazards, typical of the whole Alpine environment. Some of
21 the Authors have been requested to draw a Civil Protection Plan for such mountainous region. This
22 offered special opportunity 1) to draw a lot of unpublished historical data, dating back several
23 centuries mostly concerning natural hazard processes and related damages, 2) to develop original
24 detailed geo-morphological studies in a region still poorly known, 3) to prepare detailed thematic
25 maps illustrating landscape components related to natural conditions and hazards, 4) to check
26 thoroughly in the area present-day situations compared to the effects of past events and 5) to find
27 adequate natural hazard scenarios for all sites exposed to risk. Method of work has been essentially
28 to compare archival findings with field evidences in order to assess natural hazard processes, their
29 occurrence and magnitude, and to arrange all such elements in a database for GIS-supported
30 thematic maps. Several types of natural hazards, such as, landslides, rockfalls, debris flows,
31 streamfloods, snow avalanches cause huge damage to lives and properties (housings, roads, tourist
32 sites). A feedback of newly-acquired knowledge in a large area still poorly understood and easy to
33 interpret products as natural risk maps are further results.

34
35 **1. Introduction**

36 Several physical processes of the Alpine environment can be considered dangerous to human lives
37 and their properties (e.g. torrential floods, landslides, snow avalanches, wildfire, earthquakes) and
38 they are commonly referred to as “natural hazards”. Those hazards have been investigated and
39 mapped with a view to constructing a GIS database for the widest possible range of events expected

40 in the valleys already mentioned. They are a part of the oldest natural park in Italy (Gran Paradiso
41 National Park) and attracts several thousand tourists every year. However they possess a long
42 history of instability and have incurred hundreds of casualties and extensive damage by avalanches,
43 rock falls, soil slips, debris flows and flooding. Still recently (May 2013) a rockfall (250 m³
44 approx.) has occurred in the vicinity of a settled area (Locana) that has once more confirmed the
45 sensitivity of the territory. The geomorphological evolution of the area can be visualised through
46 the gigantic landslide systems (Gravitational Slope Deformations), which have been triggered by
47 post-glacial remodelling. The aim of the present study: 1) ameliorating knowledge, both on
48 historical basis and through detailed onsite investigations, of natural hazards affecting a
49 mountainous district in the Orco and Soana Valleys (Western Italian Alps, Fig. 1); 2) to collect any
50 kind of information about physiography, geo-morphology, land use and especially unstable
51 elements in the landscape, in order to prepare informatics tools to arrange a Civil Protection Plan
52 for Communities forming part of the valleys above.

53 Forest management in the Orco and Soana Valleys began in the 1900s, even on slopes which are
54 difficult to manage and unsuitable for rapid root establishment. On 7th September 1925, the
55 National Forestry Corporation began a general restoration programme to prevent slope degradation
56 and flooding in several sub-catchments of the region. Such work continued up to and after the
57 Second World War, but ceased in the early 1970s (according to CNR-IRPI archives). For example,
58 the Rio Frera catchment, which was widely populated by larches until a half century ago, still
59 appears in fairly good condition with regard to plant health, in spite of wildfire damage (Fig. 2).

60
61 In order to know natural sources of danger and prevent future risks, local communities in the
62 aforesaid valleys have decided to develop a Civil Protection Plan (CPP). Some of the present
63 authors have, thus, been involved in carrying out the studies on past and present natural hazards
64 and to prepare hazard maps on behalf of the CNR-IRPI Institute. From such study it is found that
65 till today about 85 km² (about 15% of territory) is affected by large, deep-seated landslides,
66 involving up to several millions m³ each and about 19 km² is affected by shallow slides, which are
67 often part of larger slope collapses. Field investigations of stream deposits (geomorphological,
68 stratigraphical and dendro-chronological), supported by historical records, have revealed that almost
69 the entire stream network is prone to debris-flows, even in quiescent conditions. In some cases,
70 channels are insufficient to contain the maximum discharge capacity. Like for all kinds of
71 'geologic' and 'geomorphological' hazard, attention has also been paid to the "wildfire" hazard, for
72 which an algorithm was developed specifically to highlight the hazard-prone areas; forest cover,
73 being somewhat protective against some gravity-driven accidents (e.g. snow avalanches, rockfalls),

74 when fire-destroyed of course it losses efficiency. In addition, the troublesome issue of coping with
75 natural hazard in an area, where potential hazard and sustainable development are perennially
76 interacting, have been raised through the comparison of past events and past protection works; all
77 information have been collected from the archival documents (e.g. technical relations, pictures) of
78 several technical bodies. Since the early Seventies the CNR-IRPI was involved in a careful search
79 for old documents throughout northern Italy, mainly in public technical Offices, Libraries, in order
80 to build a data base for natural hazards. Documents relating to the area here in study were integrated
81 with other sources found in local communities. Taking into account the potential for tourism in a
82 large portion of the area, the entire road network has also been mapped according to hazards. The
83 work is concerned with the analysis of relevant physiographic characteristics of the landscape
84 having extremely variable topography and geomorphological processes. Thousands of data
85 (physiography, geology, landslide-debris flow-flood events, snow avalanche, wildfire) as well as
86 digital maps (involving overlay and comparison of several GIS layers) have been analyzed and
87 cross-correlated to find out the details of the natural hazard events. Thus, the present area has been
88 selected for such multi-hazard research in which several natural processes have been investigated,
89 concerning their damaging effects on exposed elements over the land. Due to hazardous events at
90 least 250 deaths have been recorded in the area up to now.

91

92 **2. The Study Area**

93 The Orco and Soana Valleys of Torino Province cover an area of about 618 km² and comprise 12
94 Communes inhabited by 6000 persons, rising up to about 10,000 in the Summer. Most of the people
95 lives concentrated in vicinity of the major watercourses, along which the most destructive natural
96 events took place historically. The area is bounded by the regional Piemonte/Aosta border and by
97 the NW Italy and SE France border (Fig. 1). The highest peak of the Gran Paradiso massif reaches
98 4061 m above sea level and is surrounded by glaciers, about 10 km² in extent. The area is sub-
99 divided into numerous sub-catchments, but in the whole only 50 minor streams strongly influence
100 the torrential activity of the main stream.

101 Meteorological measurements have been extremely variable between recording stations because of
102 varying local topography and elevation. During winter air temperature fluctuates between strongly
103 positive and negative values; the average extreme ranges between 22.6 °C and -6.2 °C (Mercalli and
104 Cat Berro, 2005). These fluctuating temperatures, also inducing freezing-thawing cycles, contribute
105 to the physical weathering of rocks and thereby to the delivery of debris and other degradational
106 slope processes.

107 Geologically, the area is dominated by the Upper Penninic unit of the *Gran Paradiso nappe*, a unit
108 mainly composed of coarse-textured gneiss and para-schist. Gneissic rocks are the framework of the
109 massif, whence the highest peaks and the water divide between Orco and Aosta Valley draw their
110 origin. The *Gran Paradiso nappe* consists of tectonic elements of the *Dominio Piemontese*, which
111 are mainly of marine origin. The lithologies in these units possess strong contrasting competencies
112 those are reflected in their morphological features. Ophiolite masses and calcareous-dolomitic
113 elements appear as the more resistant units, whereas the calc-schists are less resistant and more
114 prone to erosion. To the north-west of the *Gran Paradiso* massif, internal Penninic structural units
115 of the *Gran San Bernardo* unit form the *Valsavarenche-Grand Nomenon* massif is found, which is
116 composed of grano-dioritic gneiss and granite. The protoliths consist of Permian magmatic bodies
117 and their surrounding “country” rocks, i.e. Permo-Carboniferous poly-metamorphic schists. The
118 Penninic units outcropping in this area overlie the *Dominio Piemontese* units and the *Gran San*
119 *Bernardo* unit appears to be folded and back-thrusted on calc-schist.

120 Generally, the study area is characterized by typical U-shaped glaciated valleys, molded during the
121 Pleistocene and preserved above 2000 m, where the fluvial Holocene degradational processes (slope
122 instability and stream activity) have been less destructive. The present day morphology causes the
123 super-position and inter-digitations of deposits produced by glaciations, slope instability and fluvial
124 erosion over the course of time. The glacial deposits are usually found at the heads of main and
125 second order river incisions, and on the flanks of the minor “suspended” valleys at mid-high
126 elevations (above 1500 m). They consist of pebbles and boulders in a sandy matrix and are prone to
127 slope collapses. The transition zone between the very steep slopes and the valley bottoms is often
128 marked by large but discontinuous talus. On the flanks and the bottom of recently glaciated valley
129 heads, typically striated and smoothed surfaces are appearing. Other glacial features, e.g. cirques,
130 are frequent and occasionally bear small lakes, which are generally not yet filled with debris.

131 Freezing-thawing and persistent snow cover may often lead to rock stream and solifluction
132 processes, which typically produce lobate accretionary deposits. These are usually located just
133 above the ‘tree-line’ and carry the material gradually downward by meltwater. Couloirs
134 (preferential paths for avalanches) are common and usually develop along the lines of structural
135 weaknesses, which may be enlarged by erosional (mainly torrential) processes. Deep-seated large
136 gravitational bodies, typically but not exclusively Gravitational Slope Deformations (GSD), are
137 revealed by scarp slopes (often tectonically-induced) and by the presence of discontinuities. The
138 lowering (by undercutting) of valley bottoms and solicitations on slopes by glacial activity, stream

139 erosion, climatic history, as well by tectonic stresses and very rarely seismic shocks can be
140 considered as the preparatory causes of gravitational processes.

141 The stream network (density, alignment and development) is clearly controlled by structural
142 discontinuities (faults and joints) and the average drainage density is usually about 3 km/km². It
143 occasionally exceeds to 4 km/km². In some cases neotectonic fault systems also affect the
144 Quaternary deposits (Malaroda, 2004).

145

146 **3. Methodology**

147 The work mainly consisted in a twice aspect: search of data and cartographic analysis. The
148 preparatory work made by Authors involved essentially 1) historical research in CNR-IRPI's
149 archives and local Communities archives about gravity-driven and streamflow processes and effects
150 (a lot of papery data issued from documents and bibliography) 2) field geomorphological surveys
151 and 3) interpretation of aerial photographs at a scale of 1:15000, which have been acquired in eight
152 years intervals over a period of 50 years (1954 to 2005). Based on several on-site recognitions, also
153 suggested by old archival reports dealing with past destructive landslide or debris flow and flood
154 events, numerous unstable sites or stripes of land have been identified, both on slopes and across the
155 drainage network. Then various data analysis approaches have been adopted in the present study
156 (both sequential and collective).

157 During the course of the project, hazard scenarios for avalanches, landslides and stream erosion
158 have been developed. Continuous comparisons among those events have been done with the help of
159 such historical evidences, and reliable scenarios were drawn. For each type of hazard, a range of
160 potential effects (danger for humans and assets) has been evaluated in terms of their likely
161 consequence on small settlements (housings) and major infra-structures (road network). Detailed
162 rainfall values compilation for a period of 82 years (1920-2002) has been done to evaluate the
163 critical range of rainfall volumes (cumulative rainfall depth; rainfall intensity; both recognized on
164 historical basis as threshold values, able to set in motion portions of slopes) that lead to instability
165 and trigger slope failures. Analytical hydrological models (Kirpich and Fréchet formulae) have been
166 used to simulate flood waves and to model (Flo 2D software) debris flow magnitude, outflow
167 direction and depositional extent in the flood affected built-up areas due to debris flow. This allows
168 better estimation and quantification of the expected effects. To identify the optimum methodology
169 we have ensured the reliability of our systematic search, collection, selection and critical validation
170 of existing data and documentation. Different kinds of documents (mainly technical reports arised
171 from different archival sources) were compared in between and checked onsite for their reliability.

172 Special care have been taken to collect existing material, to normalize data appropriately in view of
173 necessary cartographic transposition and to choice a meaningful map scale (1:5 000). In terms of
174 geology and geomorphology the studies by AEM (Hydro-Electric Power Supply Agency of Turin,
175 that manages hydro-electric power plants in the Orco valley) have been followed. . Also the
176 “technical annexes” (i.e. the geo-morphological studies, descriptions and maps draft by
177 practitioners) of the Piano Regolatore Generale Comunale (PRGC) related to the town-planning
178 within Communes has been used for this work. The approval and subsequent adoption of the PRGC
179 by Communal Administrations constitutes an official and responsible realization of the natural
180 hazards posed by slope instabilities throughout the region. It also represents an acknowledgement of
181 the hazard classes and inherent restrictions imposed by recent rules, especially after the disastrous
182 flooding events of 1993 and 2000. The intrinsic limit for such annexes is the scale (1:10 000) and
183 built-up area centric, not the whole region.

184 The hazard damage database have been generated from old and recent bibliographic sources,
185 newspaper articles, pictures (e.g Fig. 3), unpublished documents of CNR-IRPI and several public
186 archives, included Communes of the Orco valley and from the online archives of Regione
187 Piemonte. A systematic attempt has been made to examine the historical evidence of instabilities
188 (largely from field and aerial photographs) and to verify numerous descriptions of ancient slope
189 failures (many of which date back to the middle of the 17th Century). It includes old nomenclature
190 of stream channels that might have changed in morphology and description of protection works
191 (Fig. 2). To analyze the effects of the events we have exploited the detailed historical research of
192 the CNR-IRPI and other researchers, from documents in national archives, libraries and other public
193 bodies, and correlated them through interviews with local residents and eye-witnesses. A substantial
194 chronology (unpublished) of the events which have produced damaging effects since 1030 AD in
195 the region of the western Alps (including the Orco Valley) has also been produced. All natural
196 hazard events of the last forty years have been regularly surveyed and published by the authors.
197 Surveys aimed to find and describe causes, processes and effects of landslides, debris flow and
198 flood events and their magnitude in relation to historical events in a given area (Tropeano and
199 Turconi, 2004). On-site measurements for rainfall, discharges, streamflood deposits were
200 complementary in such studies; comprehensive reports were then provided (e.g. Tropeano and
201 others, 1999; Tropeano, Luino and Turconi, 2006).

202 For preparing land use maps, special attention has been paid to the forest cover, taking into account:
203 1) the key role exerted by vegetation on slope stability conditions and 2) the potential threat of
204 wildfire in the area under study. We have taken help from the unpublished forest maps, drawn by

205 IPLA (Institute for the Study of Trees and Environment) for preparing such map. Specific GIS-
206 based applications have been followed to identify the wildfire-prone areas. Weather, wind
207 characteristics, slope aspect, vegetation and elevation have also been considered and combined in a
208 original algorithm.

209 Field recognition represents a further step towards the integration and testing of information drawn
210 from historical reports, other sources and photo-interpretation. Special attention has been paid to
211 onsite surveys for detailed analysis of geomorphology of the slopes and sub-catchments liable to
212 sudden sediment removal and transport. Recognition of present-day morphodynamic processes in
213 relation to their location and initial conditions has been done with utmost care. Debris flow source
214 areas have been identified and quantified, in addition to depositional frozen lobes, levees, terraces
215 and paths of previous channel flows on the fan areas. Care has been taken in assessing the
216 contribution of depositional forms to instability processes, either directly by stream activity or by
217 other conditioning causes, which may later lead to failure. Depositional forms recognized in the
218 field have been, in some cases, ascribed to recent processes surveyed between 1977 and the present.
219 In some cases older forms have been dated by accurate descriptions in historical documents. In case
220 of inaccessibility field evidence has been correlated with dendro-geomorphological data. The same
221 sampling method has been found useful to define the stratigraphic relationships between
222 depositional sequences along watercourses, and in the timing of debris discharged by slope failures
223 and stream incisions. The torrential deposits caused by extraordinary events of the last two centuries
224 have been identified in this way. Old oaks are widespread, allowing the reliable derivation of tree
225 ring ages despite the fact that oaks are less suitable than conifers for this purpose (Bollschweiler and
226 Stoffel, 2009).

227 Through structural analysis and evaluation of the spatial distribution of rock discontinuities, we
228 have assessed the importance of debris-source areas and preferential routes for the passage of debris
229 flows.

230 The data layers have been created through transposition at 1: 5000 scale of all surface elements,
231 acknowledged by field recognitions, aerial imagery, photo interpretation and documents (geology,
232 geomorphology, land use, gravity-driven processes, debris flow and flood-prone areas, snow
233 avalanches) combined to topographic basis (contour lines, stream network, built-up areas, roads).
234 The work has been conceived as a digital database and a series of map layouts using ArcGIS 9.1.
235 Many surveys could not be completed in whole detail because of inaccessibility at some sites, either
236 through deterioration of tracks and footpaths or because of erosion, rockfall and/or dense
237 vegetation. Attention has been given on the processes potentially affecting settlements (permanently

238 or temporarily occupied), roads, and recreational structures. Morphometric parameters of drainage
239 network have been assessed in order to determine the elements concurring to express the magnitude
240 possible, based on the formula proposed by the authors (Tropeano and Turconi, 2000; 2003) to
241 evaluate the maximum volume of debris and sediments, which should be carried downward in case
242 of paroxysmal events. Such formula is expressed as:

$$243 \quad V = (0.542 AE + 0.0151) * 0.019 h * tgs$$

244

245 where: V (m^3) is the total displaced volume estimated, AE (m^2) is the effective catchment area, h
246 (m) is the estimated mean depth (by field assessment) of the removable layer of sediment involved
247 in motion, tgs is the average catchment slope.

248 It is generally accepted that a fully vegetated catchment may significantly reduce the likelihood of
249 flooding. It has also been demonstrated, through experiments carried out in the 1980s (e.g. Caroni
250 and Tropeano, 1981), that forest cover acts as an interceptor of prolonged, high intensity rainfall
251 (i.e. >10 mm/hr) and restricts runoff value up to 0.1-0.2 times, in comparison with bare soils. Forest
252 soils can also retain large volumes of shallow groundwater compared to bare or shrub-covered
253 surfaces. Lastly, forest management practices help to ensure that woody debris is not discharged
254 into incised stream channels. Prevention from wildfire being important under this regard (ensuring
255 maintenance of the vegetal cover thus reducing rush waters and soil erosion), the Authors also
256 prepared maps showing different aptitudes of the wooded slopes to accidental burnings.

257 Summarizing, in order to find materials on which a sound technical support to CCP should be
258 based, elaboration of already available multi-source data and documentation, historical studies,
259 photo-interpretation and field measurements were purposely carried out by Authors of the present
260 article over years since 2001. The objective of all these analyses was to find and to furnish useful
261 elements of knowledge to fulfill the CCP. Such bulk of data, vital body of CCP, has greatly
262 improved knowledge in an area where the occurrence of natural hazards is still poorly understood.
263 A further step made by Authors was to translate all data and related elaborations in graphical GIS
264 support, as already established procedure (e.g. Turconi et al., 2014). Such efforts mean a) new
265 insights into the geology, geomorphology, natural processes and event scenarios; and b) the
266 development of a ready-to-use informatics product which allows integration and comparison of
267 significant elements. Natural risk maps so draft have become a on line product, also accessible
268 lexically and structurally to technicians poorly experienced in applied geology.

269

270 **4. Results and Discussion**

271 In the light of new regulations issued by the National and Regional Government on Civil
272 Protection, awareness has been raised towards the fact that Civil Protection should not be limited to
273 the emergency management, but in view of the need for hazard assessment and mitigation should
274 also a) provide knowledge of the phenomena to which a given area is exposed and b) deal with the
275 dispersal of information and results. Acquired knowledge on the processes operated in this region,
276 must be translated into hazard scenarios. It should, therefore, be specified that the concept of
277 “scenario” implies a series of evolutionary hypotheses about an active and growing, or potential
278 phenomenon, with increasing damaging effects in the surrounding area of the process. For that
279 reason several (upto 3) steps of hazard levels have been stated and translated onto GIS layers (e.g.
280 stream processes). On the basis of the various potential hazards, it is in the opinion of the Authors
281 that a further development of research into probabilistic analysis through the timely application of
282 analytical models should be necessary.

283 From statistical analyses using the landslide inventory, about 60 types of landforms have been
284 detected, with an estimated surface area between 0.05 and 19 km²; the latter value refers to the
285 uninterrupted series of coalescent landslide bodies and constitute the entire right slope of the lower
286 Orco Valley. In the middle reaches of the Orco valley, two other important collapses have been
287 found on the right and left valley slope respectively, i.e. downslope of the Locana village (9.3 km²)
288 and Rosone locality (5.1 km²). A fourth gigantic landslide occupies the left slope of the lower
289 reaches of the Soana Valley (covering ca 5.9 km²). The majority of historical and present-day
290 instabilities involve much smaller volumes and occur in the middle reaches of the Orco Valley; e.g.
291 out of the damaging events reported in the *Banca Dati Geologica* of the *Regione Piemonte*, 96 cases
292 occurred between 1628 and 1997 and one third of these have been involved in torrential activity,
293 while the remainder involved in slope failures.

294 Careful, long-lasting search for historical data has been done in public Bodies through reading and
295 selection of archival documents (technical relations, manuscripts, maps...), biblio references and
296 other sources, as explained above. It reveals that natural hazard events (snow avalanches,
297 landslides, rock falls and stream flood) in the Orco and Soana Valleys have occurred at least 480
298 times over 600 years. Attention has been paid to the interpretation of events affecting the low-order
299 drainage network and tributaries, which have been coded as an inverse function of their recurrence
300 interval, thus expressing the hazard. The exceptional rainfall events, still affect this area,
301 (September 1993, October 2000) indicate that the most hazardous conditions (which may lead to the
302 loss of life) are often related to rapidly or very rapidly-evolving processes, rather than stream

303 processes. By “very rapid processes” we refer to rock falls, shallow slides (soil slips) and stony
304 debris flows.

305 A previous study focusing on stream hazard in the Orco Valley has been widened to include all
306 situations (e.g. valley bottom, alluvial fan), where past channel changes and/or stream overflows
307 have been documented over time. Small tributaries mixed with sedimentary forms, possibly
308 connected to reciprocal flow interchanges, are likely to have occurred in the past, over the alluvial
309 fans or even above the fans themselves. The latter occurrence is more hazardous, as seen recently in
310 the Aosta Valley on October 2000, where 6 people died (Tropeano and Turconi, 2003). Another
311 source of hazard arises due to the sudden deposition of coarse sediments by minor tributaries that
312 substantially impacts on the flow dynamics by temporary blockage or diversion of the main stream.
313 One out of the thematic maps, drawn from GIS layers cited below, has been prepared to illustrate
314 the stretches of transport networks (roads and footpaths) affected by past, recent (and future)
315 instability phenomena. Road (or footpath) stretches cover about 72 km; the sources of hazard
316 mainly pertain to low-order streams (50.2%) and major streams, using Horton’s hierarchical index
317 equal to 4 or above (47.3%). Landslide and snow avalanche hazards account for 1.2 % and 1.3 %
318 respectively. This relatively low value may be misleading, since after more than 37 years of fairly
319 scarce snowfalls, the winter of 2008-2009 saw huge snow fall on almost all valley slopes to a depth
320 up to above 10 m at 2296 m a.s.l. (Arpa, 2009). Huge avalanches affected several sites on the main
321 valley road; the largest of these severely disrupted the Regional road for a distance of almost 250 m.
322 Differentiations into the mosaic of physiographic elements (natural and anthropogenic) composing
323 the landscape here concerned led to a logical articulation which required about 90 layers; they have
324 been prepared in the GIS-based inventory (Figs. 4: a, b, c). The slopes close to settled areas of
325 landslide events have been mapped without dividing the initiation, transition and accumulation
326 zones. Four groups of slope instability have been identified, which have been suffixed by “a” or
327 “q”, to denote their *active* or *quiescent* states respectively:

- 328 • Rock falls (of both block and coarse detritus);
- 329 • Deep-seated landslides and/or GSD;
- 330 • Shallow slides (earth flow, soil-slip);
- 331 • ‘Complex’ slides, including a wide range of instability processes of different origin (e.g.
332 post-glacial slides) and different kinematic type (rotational-translational, flow, slide) (Figs. 5, 6, 7,
333 8).
- 334 • Manifold processes inside the incisions, which cannot be discriminated by aerial mapping;

335 • Talus deposits of different origin, with large blocks, and part of glacial deposits, which
336 should be (re)set in motion by complex but not remote start- up conditions.

337

338 The term “Sackung” (Zischinsky, 1969) refers to local subsidence or slope collapse, gravitational
339 expansion or gravitational slope deformation with a deep sliding base (Schwab and Kirk, 2002;
340 Ehret et al., 2005; McCalpin, 2005). Kinematically it is akin to deep *creep*, i.e. reciprocal or
341 independent displacement by blocks (Brückl and Parotidis, 2005). In terms of dimensions, the most
342 significant slope dynamic processes are the impressive and widespread *sackung* and/or GSD, which
343 often affect entire valley sections over a vertical extent of more than a kilometer and over an area
344 usually in excess of a square kilometer (locally in the region of $> 5 \text{ km}^2$). Such failures can reach
345 about 100 m in depth and tens of millions m^3 by volume.

346 In this context, and recalling what already said, it is important to explain the concept of “scenario”
347 as an increasing series of evolutionary hypothesis of a given process (active or potential), and to
348 further develop in a degenerative sense the varying stability and safety conditions within a given
349 area.

350 Previously published studies on this subject agree on the difficulties associated with making
351 accurate forecasts of such events, despite the fact that they are supported by reliable precognitive
352 technologies (such as detailed survey, geognostic and petrographic analysis, monitoring equipment
353 and modeling). On the basis of similar situations in the Orco and Soana Valleys, it seems logical to
354 propose, as an unequivocal evolutionary scenario for such instabilities, the hypothesis of block
355 sliding involves the full valley width and formation of a temporary damming lake. Owing to the
356 difficulty of definition, even with reasonable approximation, of the possible evolutionary phases of
357 such sequential processes, it seems more logical and realistic to define the upper envelope of
358 dormant instability processes, which can be seen in the field or in aerial photographs.

359 Almost all stream hazards that can be seen here have been mapped for all stream orders from the 1st
360 order to the main stream flows. Such ‘hazards’, principally, range from processes of debris flow to
361 bank erosion, channel overloading (by huge sediment deposition) , overflow. The total length of the
362 channel system accounts for 4200 km, which corresponds to an average drainage density of 6.8
363 km/km^2 . In terms of natural hazards this implies that the efficiency of channel conditions
364 (maintenance without constrictions of full-discharge section) during floods is important, especially
365 when interfering with man-made structures (e.g. channel narrowing by bridges, embankments, road
366 walls...). Attention was focused on the geometric definition of the morphological units recognized
367 and especially of the sedimentary processes (alluvial fans) through interpretation of the topographic

368 maps at 1:5 000 scale (year should be mentioned), and validated through careful examination of
369 stereo-aerial photographs.

370 For analysing the main streams in the area, the present-day channel has been reconstructed, digitally
371 captured and georeferenced from recent aerial photographs. From the geomorphological map a
372 fairly complex pattern of processes can be seen, from which a simplified *map of geomorphologic-*
373 *hydraulic hazard* has been drawn. This synthesis is a product of the original on-site analysis and of
374 the complex revision and standardisation of technical documents provided by Communes under the
375 URP (Urban Regulating Maps or PRGC in Italy). This strategy is necessitated both by current
376 regulations and by the need for a final document acceptable to land administrators. By this way, a
377 document which otherwise should be merely useful for bureaucracy and administration, has resulted
378 in an “act” of identification and acceptance of the critical nature of situations in the area under
379 consideration. The hazard map focuses and reports on the following elements:

380

381 **4.1 Stream hazard**

382 This has been sub-divided into three classes (TR1, TR2 and TR3) according to their increasing
383 probability of occurrence. Processes involved are channel overdeepening, bank erosion and
384 especially debris flows; an examples is provided in Fig. 9.

385 TR1 represents a conservative delineation, based on topographic and geomorphologic criteria, from
386 contour lines of a strip of land close to the channel courses, which has a high probability of lateral
387 erosion, deposit-widening and channel-deepening. Such a strip is established for homogeneity in a
388 zone of few tens of meters wide on both banks of the stream. The width of this zone is in some
389 cases overestimated for the easiness of reading, but it may also be underestimated where channels
390 are poorly incised and in the intermediate and lower stretches of the channel network. Such zones
391 have conventionally been defined, by geomorphological and topographic criteria, as the length as
392 far as the fan apex the present-day preferential flow direction is also outlined on each fan.

393 TR2 is a pejorative class, drawn from interpolation between the flow path directions in the fan areas
394 that can be acknowledged as elongated depressions radiating from the fan apex; such interpolation
395 should result in the delineation of an area which is still below the largest event magnitude expected.

396 TR3 represents the whole fan area. There is a fairly good probability that in case of a paroxysmal
397 flood or abnormally huge debris flow, the physical invasion area of flows in extreme conditions
398 should invade the whole fan surface. In the absence of specific simulation models (fitted to each
399 catchment scale and characteristics, and based on suitably validated entry parameters) to
400 corroborate such a hypothesis, we refer to this extreme class.

401 **4.2 Flood hazard**

402 This refers to flood dynamics in valley bottoms and two classes are identified (FR1 and FR2) in
403 reference to the expected flood occurrence; a) flood hazard assessment is simply based on
404 geomorphological criteria, and b) on direct field survey and stereo aerial photo-interpretation. FR1
405 roughly corresponds to the present day channels in the main drainage network, while FR2 refers to
406 a large inundation area. FR2 is drawn by the interpolation (when data are available) between
407 extreme limits of the valley bottom expansion, as dramatically illustrated by the heaviest flooding
408 surveyed by the authors in 1993 and 2000. This area was deduced by geo-morphological photo-
409 interpretation of detailed aerial imagery.

410

411 **4.3 Landslide hazard**

412 The slope failures shown in the geomorphologic map (described in section 4) have been grouped
413 into two large classes (LR1 and LR2) reflecting the failure mechanism and the different hazard
414 types caused in settled areas (in terms of intensity and rate of evolution). In the LR1 class (higher
415 hazard) we have grouped rockfall, earth flow, soil slip, combined channelized processes, debris
416 talus and unstable glacial deposits. 99 debris masses of potential instability have been detected,
417 extending over the whole area of over 19 km². In the LR2 class we have grouped deep-seated
418 landslides and complex slides, combining 65 detrital bodies with a total area of 85 km². The value
419 above does not refer to the whole basin area, but only to slope instability processes in proximity to
420 settled areas or those directly interacting with settled areas.

421 The triggering factor of stream floods and most landslides are considered here as “exceptional
422 rainfall events”. This may sound vague but it is accepted that, in general, such a definition applies to
423 meteorological and hydrological events which cause damaging effects on the landscape.

424 Our research finds that events of a given magnitude and process may recur periodically in the same
425 localities and with the same physical behaviour and points to long-term instability. The most
426 important variable is the colonization by humans, the effects of which may result in increasing
427 potential damage or hazard. Back-analyses to accompany the maps illustrated here are intended to
428 be both descriptive of past events and predictive of future hazard occurrences.

429

430 **5. Conclusions**

431 Joining together several sources found in the course of the study (bibliography, unpublished reports,
432 old manuscripts...) the Authors have acquired historic knowledge on past hazardous events and
433 related damages in the Orco and Soana valleys. The most striking result is that, due to the severe

434 hazardous processes, many lives have been lost in the area: at least 250 deaths have been recorded
435 since 18th Century, in the occasion of 36 different dates/processes events. Victims by snow
436 avalanche accounts for 59%, by stream floods for 21%; debris flows and rock falls are responsible
437 for 12% and 8% of deadly events, respectively.

438 The CPP should be viewed as the framework of a generic procedure of substantiated up-to-date
439 predictions, on the basis of geographical, geomorphological and historical knowledge of past events
440 (Tropeano and Turconi, 2004). This work represents the first attempt of an overview of the
441 physiographic characteristics of the whole valley system incorporating and interfacing the safety
442 conditions of slopes and streams with anthropogenic activities. The scope of the CPP may be
443 limited, in that it cannot be relied upon to provide categorical prevention measures (which may be
444 obtained only through far-sighted urban policy), but it allows very useful conclusions to be drawn
445 on the variable susceptibility of different land units of sudden and catastrophic events. No reliable
446 results raised from comparison between rainfall data series and possible magnitude of the hazardous
447 events (specifically shallow slides, soil slips and debris flows) in predicting their occurrence by
448 evenly-distributed rainstorms, being too scattered over the territory rainfall records of historical
449 significance. Concerning the most recent extreme flood events (1993 and 2000) covering largely-
450 distributed areas in the area under study, we roughly can say that they were generated by threshold
451 rainfall amounts equal or greater than 500 mm in the antecedent four days and for hourly rain
452 intensity equal or greater than 20 mm.

453 This work allows a detailed classification of the entire area (at a scale of 1:5,000) as a function of
454 the historical hazard conditions of any locality and time and verified present-day natural and
455 anthropogenic conditions. Fieldwork has been involved in the exploration of archives and eye-
456 witness accounts, and the progress of this work has been discussed and explained, step by step, with
457 local communities and groups (stakeholders). As a consequence, the end-product of this work, i.e.
458 the CPP, represents a unique collaborative effort between authors, administrators and local
459 residents; few examples of such kind elsewhere in the Alps are reported (e.g. Gamper, 2008).

460 Many research topics remain to be developed, especially those concerning a) the time period during
461 which natural events of a given intensity may recur, and b) the improvement of techniques and
462 knowledge, at the highest possible detail and in relation to anthropogenic activities. Finally, in
463 social terms, we find that the residents of such changeable and potentially hazardous mountain
464 environments should be made fully aware of the hazards, since they have to live with them in order
465 to make optimum of use the land.

466

467 **References**

- 468 Agenzia Regionale per l'Ambiente (Arpa Piemonte): Rendiconto nivometrico stagione invernale
469 2008-2009,
470 http://www.arpa.piemonte.it/upload/dl/Servizi_online/Rendiconti_nivometrici/rendiconto_niv
471 [o2008-09_parte1_2.pdf](http://www.arpa.piemonte.it/upload/dl/Servizi_online/Rendiconti_nivometrici/rendiconto_niv_o2008-09_parte1_2.pdf) [Accessed 18 January 2010], 2009.
- 472 Bollschweiler, M., Stoffel, M.: Jahrringe und Naturgefahren. Wie und wo können Bäume bei der
473 Gefahrenbeurteilung helfen? Wildbach- und Lawinenverbau 73, 160, pp. 40-52, 2009.
- 474 Brückl, E., Parotidis, M.: Predictions on slope instabilities due to deep-seated gravitational creep.
475 Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences 5, pp. 155-172, 2005.
- 476 Caroni, E., Tropeano, D.: Rate of erosion processes on experimental areas in the Marchiazza basin
477 (northwestern Italy). International Symposium on 'Erosion and sediment transport
478 measurement', Florence, 22-25 June 1981, International Association of Hydrological Sciences
479 133, pp. 457-466, 1981.
- 480 Ehret, D., Rohn, J., Moser, M.: Grossräumige Massenbewegungen in der Weltkulturerberegion
481 Hallstatt-Dachstein (Oberösterreich). Tagung für Ingenieurgeologie Erlangen 15, pp. 1-6,
482 2005.
- 483 Gamper, C.D.: The political economy of public participation in natural hazard decisions – a
484 theoretical review and an exemplary case of the decision framework of Austrian hazard zone
485 mapping, Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci., 8, 233–241, 2008, [www.nat-hazards-earth-syst-](http://www.nat-hazards-earth-syst-sci.net/8/233/2008/)
486 [sci.net/8/233/2008/](http://www.nat-hazards-earth-syst-sci.net/8/233/2008/) © Author(s) 2008.
- 487 Malaroda, R.: Geomorphology and neotectonics of the Valle Sacra in the Alto Canavese (Western
488 Alps, Piedmont, Italy): an explanatory note to the Carta geomorfologica e neotettonica della
489 Valle Sacra (1:12.500). Geografia Fisica e Dinamica Quaternaria 27, pp. 131-138, 2004.
- 490 McCalpin, J.: Gravitational Spreading (sackung) studies at GEO-HAZ
491 <http://www.geohaz.com/GravSpread4.htm> [Accessed 21 March 2006], 2005.
- 492 Mercalli, L., Cat Berro, D.: Climi, acque e ghiacciai tra Gran Paradiso e Canavese, Collana
493 'Memorie dell' Atmosfera' (4), Società Meteorologica Subalpina, pp. 1-755., 2005.
- 494 Ribitsch, R., Hermann, S.: Georisikokartierungen im Rahmen der Gefahrenzonenplanung –
495 Beispiele aus der Gemeinde Gasen, Oststeiermark. Wildbach- und Lawinenverbau 73, 160,
496 pp. 72-82, 2009.
- 497 Schwab, JW., Kirk, M.: Sackungen on a Forested Slope, Kitnayakwa River. Forest Sciences Prince
498 Rupert Forest Region, Extension Note No. 47, pp. 1-6, 2002.

- 499 Tropeano D., Govi M., Mortara G., Turitto O., Sorzana P., Negrini G., Arattano M.: Eventi
500 alluvionali e frane nell'Italia Settentrionale. Periodo 1975-1981. CNR IRPI-GNDICI, Pubbl. n.
501 1927, pp.1-279, 1999. [ebook <http://www.irpi.to.cnr.it/documenti/eventi7581.pdf>]
- 502 Tropeano D., Luino F., Turconi L.: Eventi di piena e frana in Italia Settentrionale nel periodo 2002-
503 2004. CNR IRPI-GNDICI, Pubbl. N. 2911, 2006. [ebook
504 <http://www.irpi.to.cnr.it/documenti/volume20022004.pdf>]
- 505 Tropeano, D., Turconi, L.: Predictability of the mass transport of sediments in alpine catchments.
506 The case study of T. Thuras (NW Italy). Internationales Symposium Interpraevent 2000,
507 Villach/Osterreich 3, pp. 321-333, 2000.
- 508 Tropeano, D., Turconi, L.: Geomorphic classification of alpine catchments for debris-flow hazard
509 reduction, Debris-Flow Hazards Mitigation: Mechanics, Prediction and Assessment, Davos
510 10-12 September 2003, Rickenmann & Chen (Eds), Millpress, Rotterdam, pp. 1221-1232,
511 2003.
- 512 Tropeano, D., Turconi, L.: Using historical documents in landslide, debris flow and stream flood
513 prevention. Applications in Northern Italy, Natural Hazards 31, pp. 663–679, 2004.
- 514 Turconi, L., Nigrelli, G., Conte, R.: Historical datum as a basis for a new GIS application to support
515 civil protection services in NW Italy”, Computer and Geosciences, 2014 (DOI:
516 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cageo.2013.12.008>).
- 517 Zischinsky, Ü.: Über Sackungen. Rock Mechanics 1, 1, pp.30-52, 1969.

518

519 **Figure captions**

520 **Fig. 1** Sketch map of the study area (with main torrents and lakes).

521 **Fig. 2** Frontal view of a minor catchment left to the Orco stream in which slope instability processes
522 can be seen towards right; these have been re-activated in October 2000. In the foreground,
523 mountain birches can be seen, on the left side of the catchment, in a 75-year old reforested area
524 (Photo 25 February 2005).

525 **Fig. 3** A village in the high Orco basin: very coarse deposits in the main channel as depicted in an
526 old photograph (year 1952).

527 **Fig. 4** Demonstrative synoptic maps, obtained by combination of 90 layers at original 1:5 000 scale,
528 draft for the CPP of the Orco and Soana valleys. **4a** – Geomorphological setup. 1=detritus deposits,
529 2=glacial deposits, Fa1=active rockfall, Fa8=active GSD, Fq8=quiescentic GSD, Fa9=recent soil
530 slip, Fq9=historical soil slip, Fa10=active, complex landslide, Fq10=quiescentic, composite
531 landslide. **4b** – Multi-temporal occurrence of snow avalanches. 1=road network, 2=snow avalanche

532 track, 3=slope areas exposed to avalanches, 4=areas provided with protective works, 5=minor
533 avalanches, 6=avalanche-prone impluvia and minor catchments. **4c** – Wildfire-related risk classes,
534 drawn by a purposely-developed algorithm (see text-section 3), for low, medium and high risk (1,
535 2, 3 respectively).

536 **Fig. 5** Right slope of a major catchment in the Orco valley, near the stream head: a rock fall/soil slip
537 process triggered by the extreme rainfall event of October 2000. The matrix-dominated nature of
538 the materials is noteworthy and is connected to weathering products of the bedrock (Photo 11 June
539 2004).

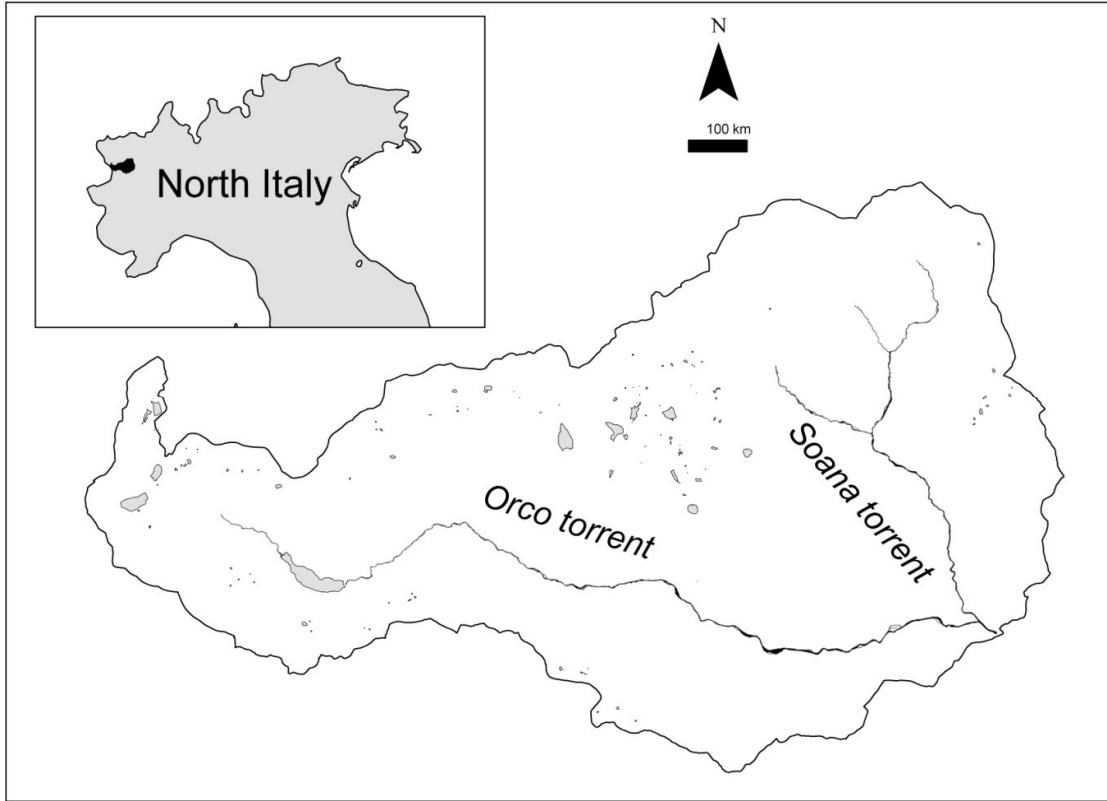
540 **Fig. 6** In a steep-sloping sub-catchment in the upper Orco valley, the right slope, affected by a deep-
541 seated gravitational process, is underlain by disjointed earth blocks and extremely uneven ground
542 surface (Photo 12 July 2004).

543 **Fig. 7** An example of the huge, disjointed stony blocks outcropping on the left slope of the Orco
544 Valley, behind a settled area few hundreds meters downslope (Photo 21 July 2004).

545 **Fig. 8** Watershed of tributary of the Soana stream, incised in a deep-seated slope collapse deposit;
546 typical features include trenches and counterslope surfaces, often with emergent water (Photo 31
547 July 2003).

548 **Fig. 9** Residual deposit of a debris flow (October 2000), which shows typical inverse gradation,
549 along a left tributary of the Soana stream (Photo 8 August 2003).

550



551

552 Fig. 1

553

554



555

556 Fig. 2

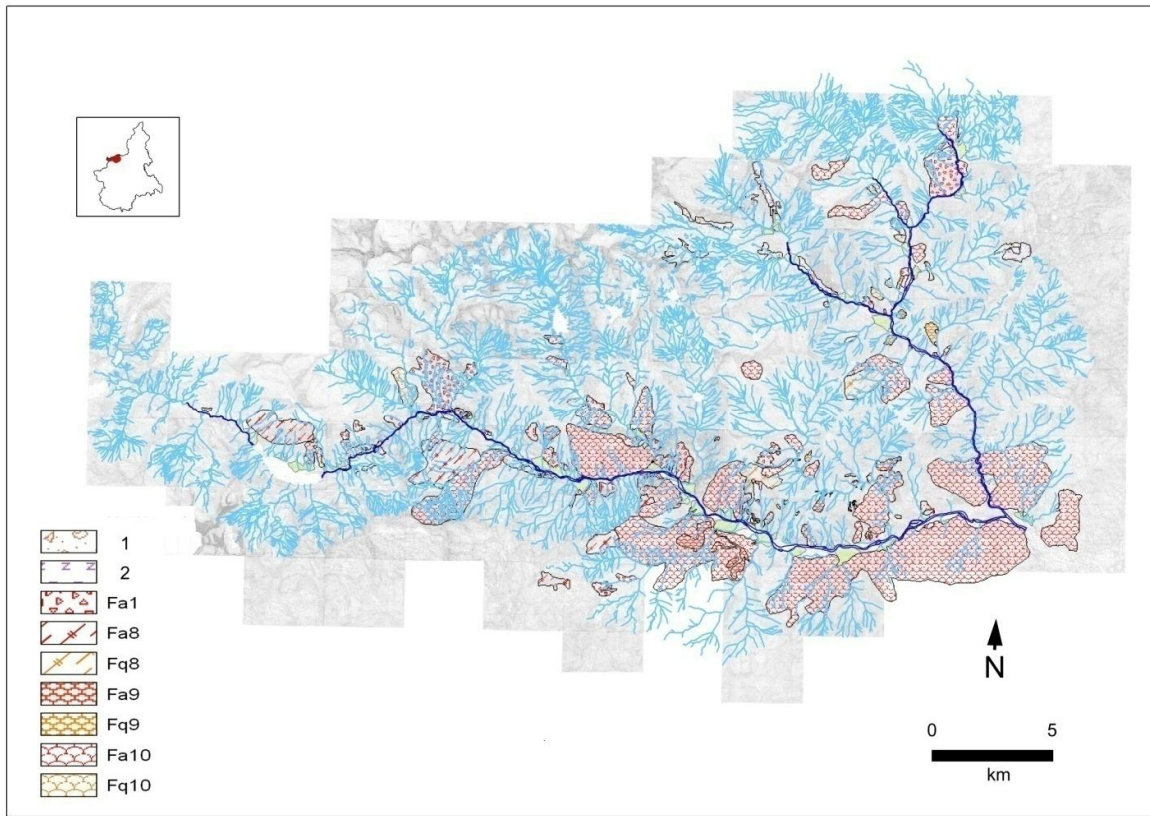
557



558

559 Fig. 3

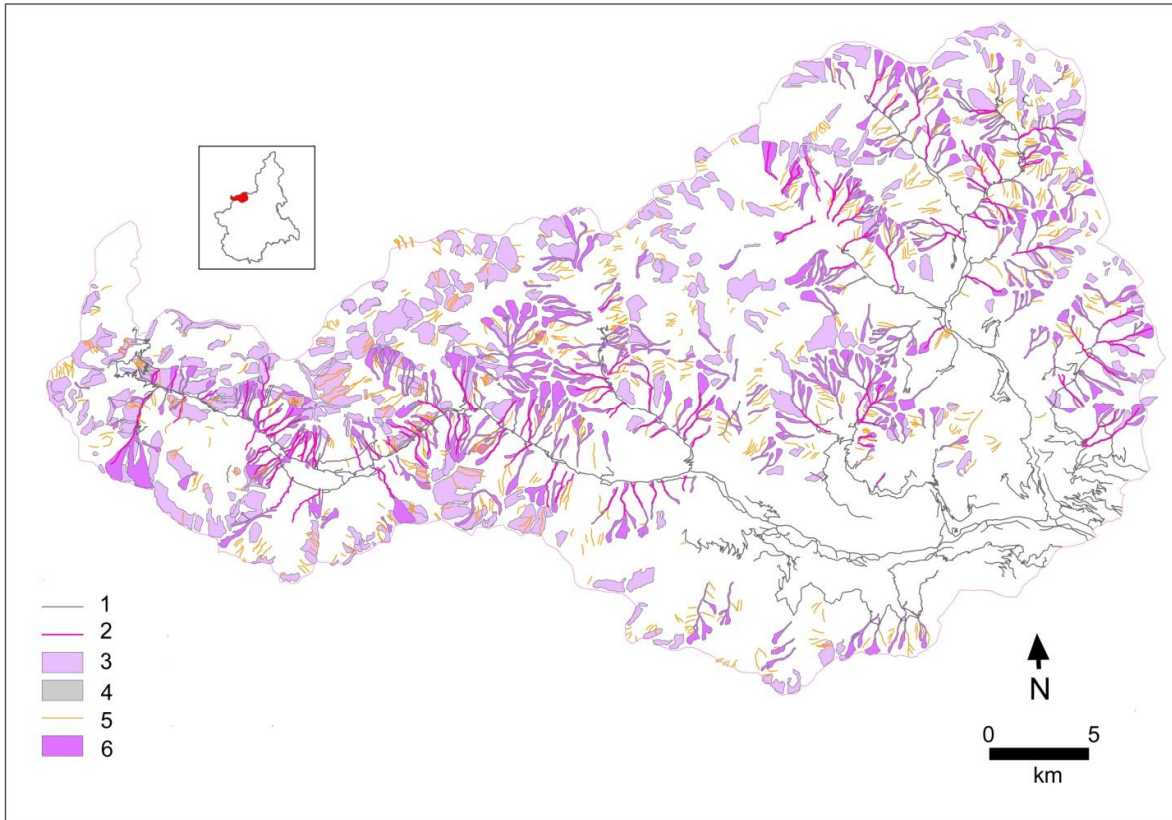
560



561

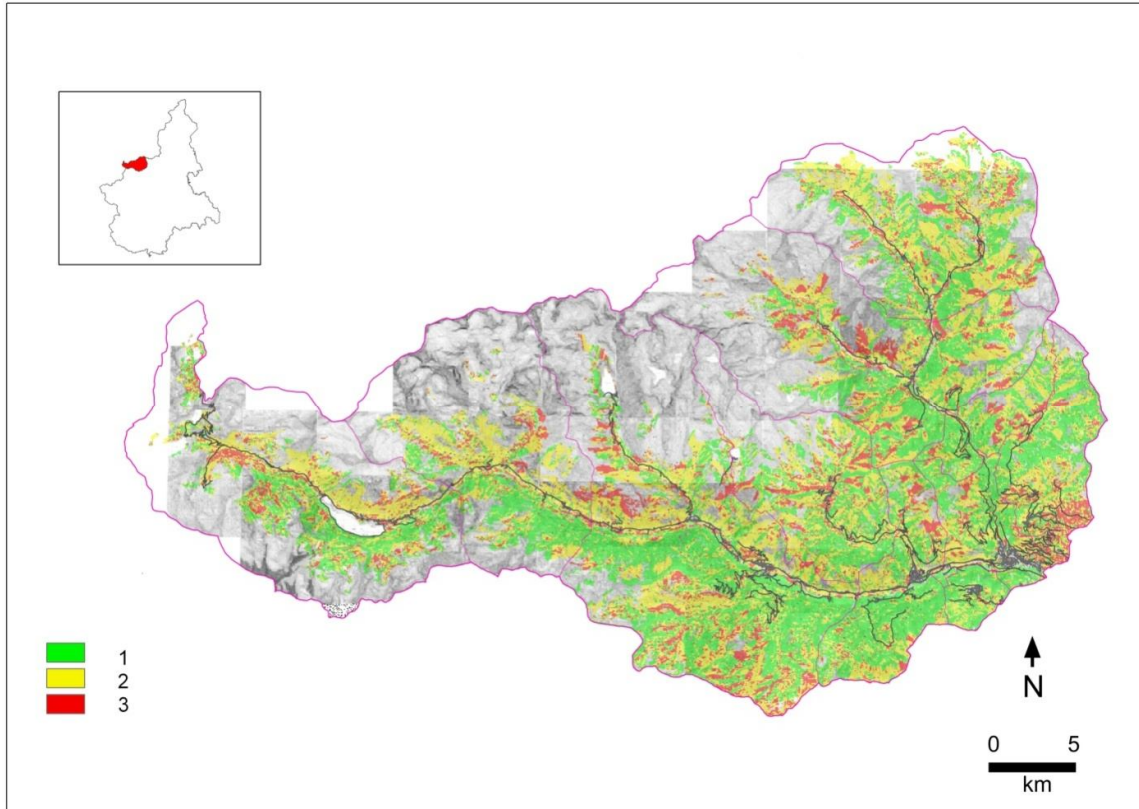
562 Fig. 4a

563



564
565
566
567

Fig. 4b



568
569
570
571
572

Fig. 4c



573

574 Fig. 5

575



576

577 Fig. 6

578



579

580 Fig. 7

581



582

583

584 Fig. 8

585



586

587 Fig. 9

588