

1 | ~~Of reliable~~ ILandslide forecasting and factors influencing
2 predictability

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9 **ABSTRACT**

10 Forecasting a catastrophic collapse is a key element in landslide risk reduction, but also a very
11 difficult task, owing to the scientific difficulties in predicting a complex natural event and also to
12 the severe social repercussions caused by a false or a missed alarm. A prediction is always
13 affected by a certain error, however when this error can imply evacuations or other severe
14 consequences a high reliability in the forecast is, at least, desirable.

15 In order to increase the confidence of predictions, a new methodology is ~~here~~-presented ~~here~~.
16 Differently from traditional approaches, it iteratively applies several forecasting methods based
17 on displacement data and, also thanks to an innovative data representation, gives a valuation
18 ~~about the reliability of~~ ~~of how the~~ ~~the~~ prediction ~~is reliable~~. This approach has been employed to
19 back-analyse 15 landslide collapses. By introducing a predictability index, this study also
20 contributes to the understanding of how geology and other factors influence the possibility to
21 forecast a slope failure. The results showed how kinematics, and all the factors influencing it
22 such as geomechanics, rainfall and other external agents, ~~is the key feature~~~~are the key when~~
23 concerning landslide predictability.

24 *Keywords: landslides; forecasting; geomechanics; early warning; time of failure; slope failure*

25
26 **INTRODUCTION**

27 Natural disaster forecasting for early warning purposes is a field of study that drew the media
28 attention after events such as the 26th December 2004 tsunami of Sumatra. Predicting landslides,
29 with respect to other natural hazards, is a complex task due to the influence of many factors like
30 geomechanical properties, rainfall, ground saturation, topography, earthquakes and many others.
31 So far, few empirical landslide forecasting methods exist (Azimi et al., 1988; Fukuzono, 1985a;
32 Mufundirwa et al., 2010; Saito, 1969; Voight et al., 1988) and none furnishes a reliability degree
33 about the prediction, making them unsuitable for decision making. In particular, when
34 mentioning geomechanics, ~~the reference is~~ ~~we particularly refer~~ to the study of the behaviour of a
35 landslide concerning its deformation with relation to the applied stress, with ~~special particular~~
36 reference to its post-rupture conditions.

37 In ~~our~~ ~~the present paper~~ research ~~we present~~ an approach to perform probabilistic forecasting of
38 landslide collapse ~~is presented~~. This has been achieved by reiterating several predictions using
39 more forecasting methods at the same time on multiple time series. This approach may have
40 important applications to civil protection purposes as it provides the decision makers with a level
41 of confidence about the prediction. Furthermore, this study, performed on 15 different case
42 studies, shows how the possibility or not to forecast the time of collapse of a landslide is affected
43 by geomechanical or geomorphological features as much as by circumstantial conditions.

44 **The inverse velocity forecasting method**

45 Forecasting activity can be considered the fulcrum of early warning systems (Intrieri et al.,
46 2013), i.e. cost-effective tools for mitigating risks by moving the elements at risk away. For
47 many natural phenomena forecasting is common practice (for example for hurricanes;
48 Willoughby et al., 2007), while for others is, at present, impossible (earthquakes; Jordan et al.,
49 2011). Landslides lie in between. Their prediction can be performed through rainfall thresholds
50 (Baum and Godt, 2010), but a more reliable approach should make use of direct measures of
51 potential instability, such as displacements (Lacasse and Nadim, 2010; Blikra, 2008). A first
52 issue is that only a small percentage of landslides in the world is appropriately monitored, that
53 often monitoring is carried out for short periods not encompassing the final pre-failure stages, or
54 may have been carried out with a too low temporal frequency that does not permit to follow the

55 displacement trend. This also causes an insufficient knowledge of the geomechanical processes
56 leading to failure (here meant as the collapse following a sudden acceleration, either a first
57 movement or a reactivation), which is another responsible for our deficiencies in predicting
58 landslides.

59 In spite of this, few empirical methods for predicting the time of failure based on movement
60 monitoring data have been developed (Azimi et al., 1988; Fukuzono, 1985a; Mufundirwa et al.,
61 2010; Saito, 1969) and further investigated on a physical basis (Voight et al., 1988). They are all
62 based on the hypothesis that if a landslide follows a peculiar time-dependant geomechanical
63 behaviour (called creep; Dusseault and Fordham, 1994), it will display a hyperbolic acceleration
64 of displacements before failure; by extrapolating this trend from a displacement time series
65 through empirical arguments, it is possible to obtain the predicted time of failure. However such
66 methods do not always produce good results. In fact, other than the limitation of working only
67 with creep behaviours, sometimes the tertiary creep can evolve such rapidly that a sufficient lead
68 time for evacuation is simply not possible (IEEIRP, 2015). In other cases natural or instrumental
69 noise can hamper the predictions and require further data treatment post-processing to allow for
70 effective warnings (more details on the types and effects of noise can be found in Carlà et al.,
71 2016). Other authors also contributed to methodologies to exploit such and optimize the classic
72 forecasting methods (Crosta and Agliardi, 2003; Dick et al., 2015; Manconi and Giordan, 2015).
73 One of the most famous methods is Fukuzono's (1985a), which derives from Saito's (1969),
74 from here on simply called F and S method, respectively. It requires that during the acceleration
75 typical of the final stage of the creep (tertiary creep), the inverse of displacement velocity (v^{-1})
76 decreases with time. The collapse is forecasted to occur when the extrapolated line reaches the
77 abscissa axis (corresponding to a theoretical infinite velocity). Such line may either be convex,
78 straight or concave (Fukuzono, 1985a). When it is straight this phenomenon is sometimes
79 referred to as Saito effect (Petley et al., 2008).

80 The possibility to find landslides showing the Saito effect has been related to the mechanical
81 properties of the sliding mass. However there is no general consensus on this issue.
82 According to some authors (Petley, 2004; Petley et al., 2002), in order to display the Saito effect,
83 landslides need to display a brittle behaviour (which indicates a drop from peak strength to
84 residual strength value, deformation which is concentrated along a well defined shear surface,
85 sudden movements and catastrophic failure, usually associated with crack formation in strong
86 rocks); furthermore only brittle, intact rocks evolve in catastrophic landslides and therefore can
87 be predicted; for others (Rose and Hungr, 2007), on the opposite, landslides displaying the Saito
88 effect must have ductile failures in order to be forecasted (i.e. slower, indefinite deformation
89 along a shear zone and under a constant stress, typical of sliding on pre-existing surfaces of soft
90 rocks), as brittleness is characterized by sudden, impossible to anticipate, ruptures.

91 This complex subject is made even more difficult due to the influence of external factors
92 (rainfall, earthquakes, excavations), structural constraints (joints, faults, contacts with different
93 lithologies) and sometimes unknown elements within the mass (the conditions of the shear
94 surface, the history of the landslide, the presence of rock bridges). Therefore it is often hard to
95 establish the mechanical behaviour and even more to find an exact correlation between the
96 mechanical behaviour of a landslide and the possibility to predict its failure.

97 **The concept of predictability**

98 Before assessing the influence of geomechanics on the predictability of a landslide it is first
99 necessary to address the concept of predictability.

100 In literature (Azimi et al., 1988; Hutchinson, 2001; Mufundirwa et al., 2010; Rose and Hungr,
101 2007) there are papers that deal with “predictions” made in retrospect, that is thorough post-
102 event analyses showing the signs of a critical pre-collapse acceleration; however whether such
103 signs would have been unambiguous or would have granted a sufficient lead time is often
104 neglected.

105 On the other hand in ~~our this~~ research ~~we consider~~ an operational definition of predictability is
106 considered (integrating the one of early warning system; UNISDR, 2009) as the feature
107 possessed by a landslide which allows one to forecast its collapse with reasonable confidence
108 and sufficiently in advance, permitting the dispatch of meaningful warning information to enable
109 individuals, communities and organizations threatened by the hazard to prepare and to act
110 appropriately and in sufficient time to reduce the possibility of harm or loss. Therefore,
111 displaying the Saito effect is not the only prerequisite for an operational prediction, there is also
112 the need for repeated time of failure forecasts fluctuating around a constant time value placed not
113 too close in the future. This has been achieved through the reiterative approach and the graphical
114 representation described in the following paragraph. Finally a semi-quantitative parameter called
115 Prediction Index is defined in order to address the success of the predictions.

116 METHODS

117 The usual way to apply landslide forecasting methods based on displacements, is to obtain a
118 single predicted time of failure (t_f) and to update such prediction as soon as new data are
119 gathered (Rose and Hungr, 2007). This is a deterministic approach, since the real time of failure
120 (T_f) is predicted through a single inference. ~~At most~~Even if sometimes more predictions ~~can~~
121 ~~beare~~ made ~~in the future~~together with new data, but usually only one (the most recent) is used.

122 On the other hand, in order to account for the uncertainty of the methods and complexity of the
123 phenomena, predictions should have a certain confidence. Confidence may be quantitatively
124 assessed by using the standard deviation of the forecasts t_f as a proxy. In fact the standard
125 deviation furnishes the dispersion (i.e. the precision) of the predictions, which may be used to
126 calculate a time window within which the collapse is more likely to occur. Therefore the lower
127 the standard deviation of a set of forecasts, the higher would be their reliability and the
128 confidence~~(for example given by the standard deviation of t_f)~~. This is especially important for
129 operative early warning systems. ~~We achieved~~This probabilistic approach is achieved by
130 reiterating the equations from Saito (1969), Fukuzono (1985a) and Mufundirwa et al. (2010) (the
131 latter method will be called M method from here on) for finding t_f , using continuously new data
132 and enabling the calculation of the standard deviation.

133 The predictions are plotted versus the time when they have been made (time of prediction, t_p).
134 We call these diagrams prediction plots (Figure 1). A prediction is considered reliable when the
135 inferences oscillate around the same t_f . Figure 1 also shows that since reliable predictions usually
136 display an oscillatory trend, the most updated one is not necessarily the most accurate, contrarily
137 to what is usually believed (Rose and Hungr, 2007) in fact, the length of the dataset is more
138 important, from which T_f can be estimated through simple statistical analyses (like mean and
139 standard deviation).

140 Since in some cases a single forecasting method can fail to give satisfactory results, in order to
141 improve even more the confidence in the predictions, a multi-model approach is adopted together
142 with the probabilistic approach. In fact, according to the Diversity Prediction Theorem (Page,
143 2007; Hong and Page, 2008), diversity in predictive models reduces collective error. The highest
144 confidence, of course, is reached when all the employed method independently converge towards
145 the same result.

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146 | On the other hand, confidence it may also be considered as a qualitative increase in the
147 | awareness of the decision makers that can estimate the time of failure of a landslide by
148 | evaluating a large set of different predictions and their dispersions.

149 | -For this research ~~we confronted~~ the results from S and F methods have been confronted and
150 | from the method by Mufundirwa et al. (2010). The equations used for the iteration are obtained
151 | from the respective authors and are:

$$152 \quad t_r = \frac{t_2^2 - (t_1 \cdot t_3)}{2t_2 - (t_1 + t_3)}, (1)$$

153 | for S method, where t_1, t_2, t_3 are times taken so that the displacement occurred between t_1 and t_2
154 | is the same as between t_2 and t_3 .

$$155 \quad t_r = \frac{t_2 \frac{1}{v_1} - t_1 \frac{1}{v_2}}{\frac{1}{v_1} - \frac{1}{v_2}}, (2)$$

156 | for F method, where v_1 and v_2 are the velocities at arbitrary times t_1 and t_2 .

$$157 \quad t \frac{dD}{dt} = t_r \frac{dD}{dt} - B, (3)$$

158 | for M method, where D is the displacement and t_r is the angular coefficient of the line

159 | represented in a $t \frac{dD}{dt} = f \left(\frac{dD}{dt} \right)$ space having B as the intercept. For the purposes of this paper t_r
160 | expressed in all these equations is equivalent to t_f .

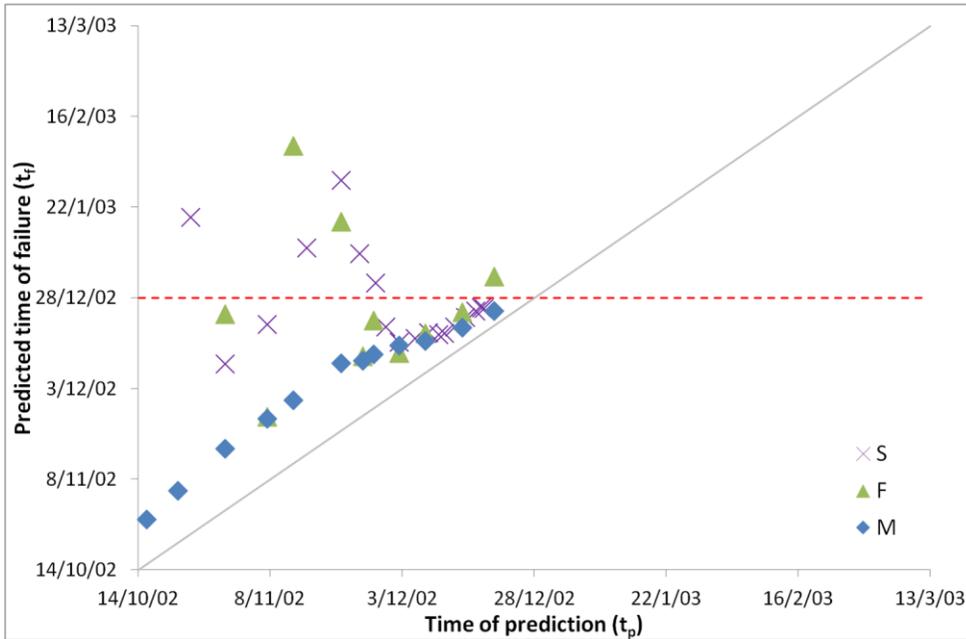
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162
 163 **Figure 1.** This graph represents probabilistic predictions performed with 3 different forecasting
 164 methods (Fukuzono, 1985a; Mufundirwa et al., 2010; Saito, 1969) applied to the MB34-35'
 165 displacement time series of Mount Beni landslide (Gigli et al., 2011). The horizontal dashed line
 166 indicates the observed time of failure (T_f) and the grey diagonal line the equality between t_f and
 167 t_p . Therefore the vertical distance between a point and the dashed line indicates the prediction
 168 error. The vertical distance between the diagonal line and a prediction above it is the life
 169 expectancy of the landslide at the time of prediction. In this case the predictions obtained through
 170 S and F methods give a good estimation of T_f , while the one from Mufundirwa et al. (2010)
 171 consistently forecasts the collapse few days ahead.

172 The proposed procedure consists in iteratively calculating the time of failure t_f by using the
 173 forementioned methods and to repeat the calculation as soon as new monitoring data are
 174 available. All the forecasts are recorded together with the time when they are made, in order to
 175 create a time series of $t_f = f(t)$. This can be represented in a prediction plot having t_f and t (the
 176 time when the prediction is made) as coordinates. Finally, from the distribution of the forecasts
 177 with time it is possible to assess the time of failure.

179 TIME OF FAILURE PREDICTION

180 In order to find a relation between the predictability of a failure and the geological features of the
 181 landslide, S, F and M methods have been applied to a number of different real case studies. Some
 182 geological features of interest relative to such cases are reported in TABLE 1, when they were
 183 known or applicable. Concerning brittleness, since it was rarely explicitly stated in the
 184 referenced articles, it was assessed based on information such as the type of material, the
 185 presence of a reactivated landslide, the weathering and the shape of the displacement time series.

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186 Since this lead to approximations, brittleness has been evaluated using broad and qualitative
 187 definitions.
 188 Since T_f must be known in order to assess the quality of predictions, all the case studies are from
 189 past landslides that have already failed. Therefore the respective time of failures are all a
 190 posteriori known.
 191 A few representative examples of prediction plots are showed in Figure 1 and Figure 2. Mount
 192 Beni landslide is a 500.000 m³ topple that evolved as a rockslide (Gigli et al., 2011). It developed
 193 on a slope object of quarrying activity. The predictions oscillate quite regularly around the
 194 observed time of failure (T_f , dashed line in Figure 2). It is this convergence that permits to
 195 correctly forecast the collapse a priori at least since late November, i.e. a month before the
 196 failure, whereas a single forecast would not be able to give a confidence of the prediction. The
 197 three methods are similar to the point that S and F previsions can be partially overlapped. M
 198 previsions overlap as well but only in the final part. The M method alone would not be sufficient
 199 for spreading a reliable alarm as the single forecasts do not converge but move forward to a
 200 different time of failure as the time passes by.
 201 Similar behaviours can be observed also for the cases of Figure 2 that display landslides with a
 202 different array of geological features (as seen in TABLE 1). The best results are obtained when
 203 the forecasts oscillate around T_f with sufficient time in advance (as for Vajont and, limited to F
 204 method, for Liberty Pit) or when they consistently give the similar t_f (as for the artificial
 205 landslide E, where the terms “artificial landslide” indicate a landslide recreated in laboratory
 206 with an artificial slope). In other cases (Avran valley and, limited to S and M method, for Liberty
 207 Pit) the predictions are too scattered or simply never converge toward a single result, thus
 208 making it impossible to foresee a reliable time of failure.

209 Notably, considering for example only the results of the S method in the case of the Avran valley
 210 landslide, since the end of September the forecasts are constantly furnishing a time of failure
 211 preceding the actual T_f . Although this may be considered a case of safe predictions (that is an
 212 error not producing a false positive and therefore not dangerous for the elements at risk), this
 213 also means that, at every forecast that is made, t_f is postponed. Given a series of ever increasing
 214 values of t_f , it is impossible to assess which of them (if any) can be assumed as a good estimate
 215 of the actual time of failure. However, since the time series of predictions is long enough, past
 216 forecasts (before early September) furnish values of t_f that, if considered together with the late
 217 ones, centre the value of T_f . Therefore it is clear how a prediction plot may allow decision
 218 makers to make more aware evaluations of the time of collapse of a landslide.

220 The results of the prediction plots can be roughly summarized reporting the mean and standard
 221 deviation of the forecasts for each method (Figure 3).

TABLE 1. LANDSLIDE CASE HISTORIES

Name	Material	Type	Brittleness	Volume (m ³)	Predisposing factor	Trigger	History	Basal geometry	Ref. *
Liberty Pit	Weathered quartz monzonite	Rockslide?	Medium/high	6x10 ⁶	N.D.	Blasts, pore water pressure	First time failure	Planar?	1, 2
Landslide in mine	Consolidated alluvial sediments, weathered bedrock	Deep-seated toppling in bedrock	Medium	10 ⁶	Blasts, pore water pressure	N.D.	First time failure?	N.D.	1
Betze-Post	Weathered granodiorite	Rockslide?	Medium/high	2x10 ⁶	N.D.	Rainfall	First time failure?	Wedge intersections?	1

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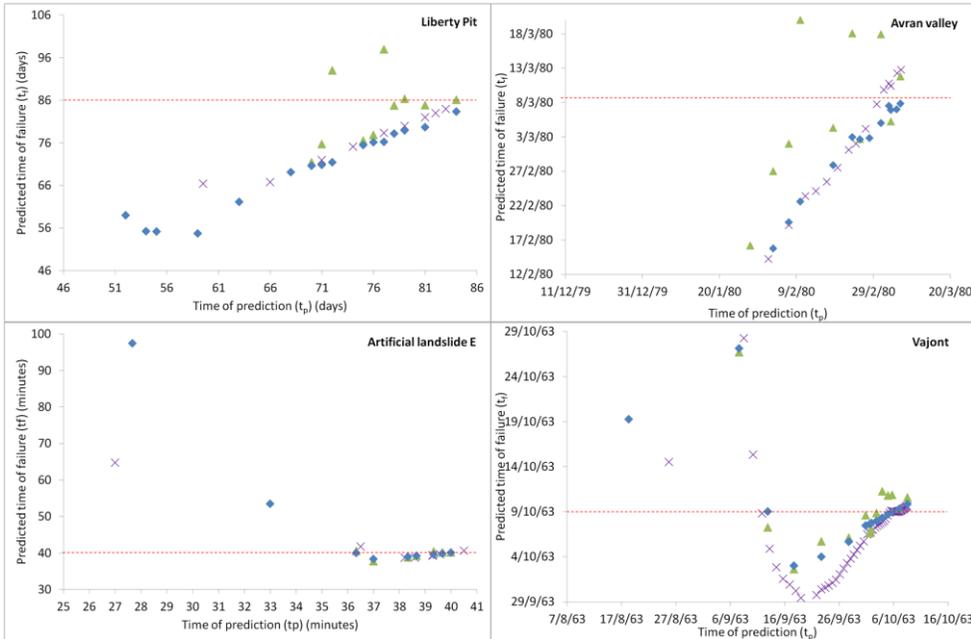
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Vajont	limestone and clay	Rock slide	High	2.7x10 ⁸	N.D.	Pore water pressure	Reactivated	Concave	1, 3
Stromboli †	Shoshonitic basalts	Bulging (not a landslide)	Medium/high	N.D.	N.D.	Sill intrusion	First time failure	N.D.	4
Monte Beni	Ophiolitic breccias	Topple/rock slide	High	5x10 ⁵	Rainfall, structure, basal excavation	N.D.	First time failure	Stepped	5
Cerzeto	Weathered metamorphic rocks on top, cataclastic zone and Pliocene clays	Debris slide-earth flow	Medium/low	5x10 ⁶	Tectonized area, permeability differences	Prolonged rainfalls	Reactivated ?	Compound (steeper and irregular in the upper zone and gentler in the clays)	6
Rock mass failure Japan	Clayey limestone	Rockslide?	High (within limestone)?	5x10 ²	“Structural complexity” (?)	Intense rainfall	First time failure?	Planar?	7
Asamushi	Liparitic tuff, jointed and weathered. Clay in the joints		Medium/low	10 ⁵	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	Concave?	7, 8
Avran valley	Chalk	Rockslide	Medium/low	8x10 ⁴	N.D.	N.D.	First time failure?	Convex	9
Giau Pass	Morainic material	Complex slide	Medium/low	5x10 ⁵	N.D.	Pore water pressure	Preexisting shear surface	Composite	10, 11
Artificial landslide A	Loam	Earth slide	Low	N.D.	N.D.	Prolonged rainfall	First time failure	Planar	12
Artificial landslide B	Sand	Earth slide	Low	N.D.	N.D.	Prolonged rainfall	First time failure	Planar	12
Artificial landslide C	Sand	Earth slide	Low	N.D.	N.D.	Prolonged rainfall	First time failure	Convex	12
Artificial landslide D	Sand	Earth slide	Low	N.D.	N.D.	Prolonged rainfall	First time failure	Planar	12

*The references used are numbered as follows: 1: Rose and Hungry, 2007; 2: Zavodni and Broadbent, 1980; 3: Semenza and Melidoro, 1992; 4: Casagli et al., 2009; 5: Gigli et al., 2011; 6: Iovine et al., 2006; 7: Mufundirwa et al., 2010; 8: Saito, 1969; 9: Azimi et al., 1988; 10: Petley et al., 2002; 11: Angeli et al., 1989; 12: Fukuzono, 1985b.

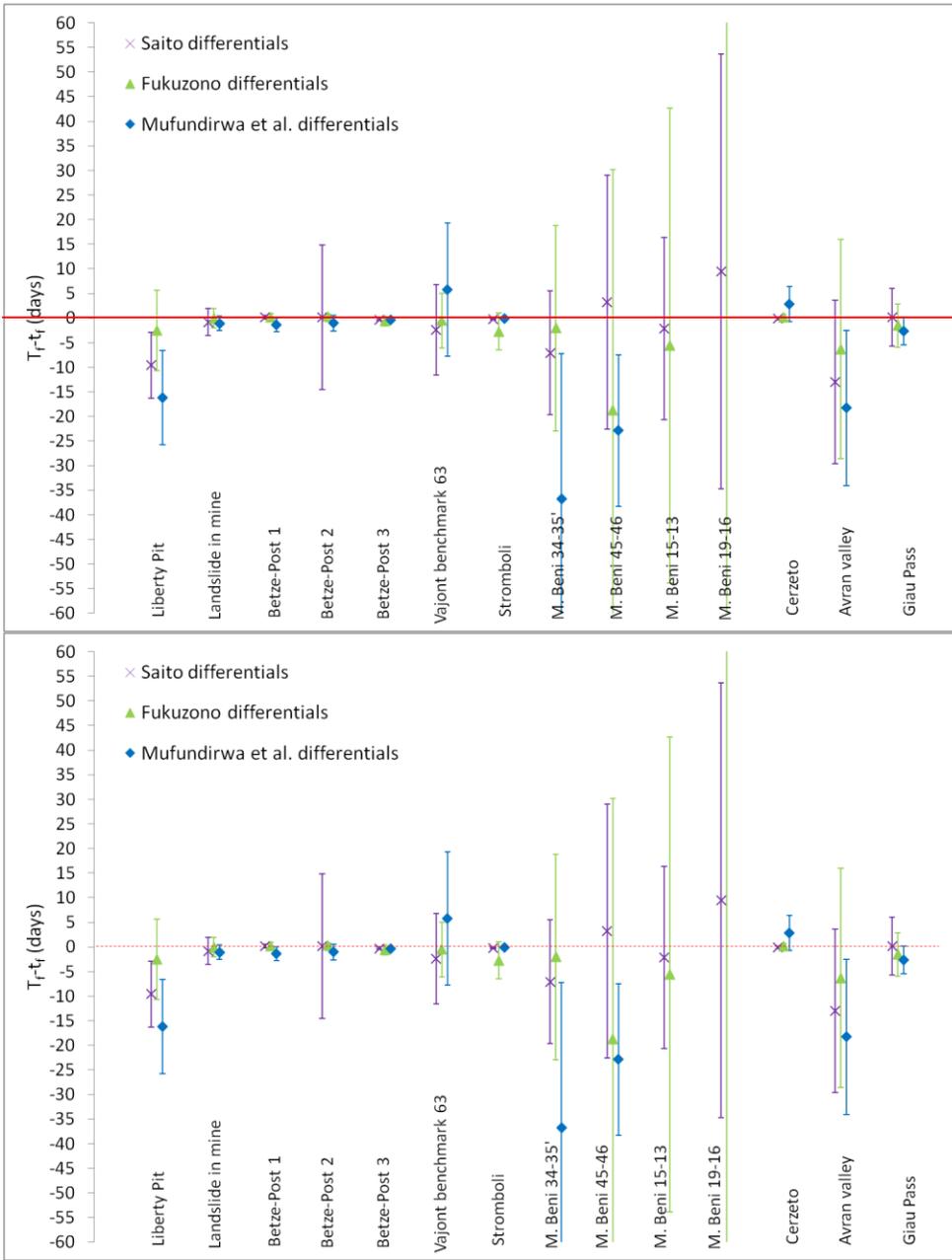
† The case of Stromboli is not relative to a landslide, rather to a volcanic bulging preceding a vent opening that was forecasted in a similar fashion of a landslide and therefore here included.



224
 225 **Figure 2.** These graphs show how iterating forecasts performed through multiple forecasting
 226 methods increases the confidence when estimating the actual time of failure. Prediction plots of
 227 four different case studies. The dashed line indicates (T_f , dashed line). The crosses represent
 228 forecasts performed with S method, the triangles with F method and the diamonds with M
 229 method. Note that F forecasts for Avran valley landslide include other less accurate values not
 230 showed in the graph as they are out of scale.

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Figure 3. This graph represents for each method the differential between the mean of the forecasts (\bar{t}_f) and the actual time of failure (T_f). Negative values are safe predictions as anticipate

236 the time of failure. The dashed line represents exact predictions ($T_f - \bar{t}_f = 0$). The standard
 237 deviations of the forecasts are represented as error bars. For Betze-Post and Mount Beni
 238 landslides, time series from different measuring points are reported. The rock mass failure,
 239 Asamushi landslide and the artificial landslides are not shown as were monitored in a different
 240 time scale (hours or minutes).

241
 242 **PREDICTABILITY INDEX**

243 In order to evaluate the performance of S, F and M methods and to relate it to the characteristics
 244 of the reported examples, an arbitrary scoring system has been implemented and attributed to
 245 each prediction plot (considering that every time series has a prediction plot for each forecasting
 246 method and that for some case studies more than one time series was available). This permits to
 247 quantify the predictability of a collapse based on the prediction plot. A score from 1 to 5 has
 248 been assigned according to the following criteria:

- 249 • 1 point: the prediction plot never converges on a single t_f (typically t_f increases at every
 250 new datum available).
- 251 • 2 points: the predictions vary considerably at every new iteration. An average time of
 252 failure (\bar{t}_f) can be extracted but with high uncertainty.
- 253 • 3 points: the predictions oscillate around T_f , although with a certain variance.
- 254 • 4 points: the predictions have a low variance although \bar{t}_f is slightly different than T_f .
 255 Note that when the variance was low, \bar{t}_f and T_f never differed greatly.
- 256 • 5 points: the prediction plot is clearly centred on T_f therefore the reliability of \bar{t}_f is high.

257 By summing the scores obtained from S, F and M prediction for each time series, what we call
 258 the Predictability Index (PI) is obtained (TABLE 2). Since PI is a means to evaluate the overall
 259 quality of a set of predictions (it requires to observe the time series of t_f and confront it with T_f , it
 260 is the predictability index) and also to compare the performance of different forecasting methods
 261 with different case studies, naturally it can only be estimated after the collapse.

262 By using 3 forecasting methods, PI ranges from 3 (impossible to predict the time of failure) to 15
 263 (the time of failure can be predicted in advance and with a high reliability). Though a certain
 264 degree of subjectivity is unavoidable when assigning the scores, what matters here is the relative
 265 difference of PI between the case studies. In such a way it is possible to understand in which
 266 conditions a landslide is more or less predictable.

TABLE 2. PREDICTABILITY INDEX

Name	S	F	M	PI	Inverse velocity trend	Notes
Liberty Pit	1	5	1	7	Asymptotic (linear at the end)	Open pit mine, structural control of 2 intersecting faults
Landslide in mine	5	5	5	15	Linear	Open pit mine
Betze-Post 1	3	3	1	7	Linear	Open pit mine
Betze-Post 2	4	5	4	13	Linear	Open pit mine
Betze-Post 3	5	4	1	10	Linear	Open pit mine
Vajont benchmark 63	5	5	5	15	Linear	Air pressure and cementation caused catastrophic collapse
Stromboli	1	2	2	5	Asymptotic	Volcanic context
Mount Beni 12-9	4	5	1	10	Concave	Back fracture
Mount Beni a'b'	1	3	1	5	Linear	Short time series

Mount Beni 15-13	5	3	1	9	Linear	Internal fracture
Mount Beni 34-35'	5	3	1	9	Linear	Lateral fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 45-47	2	3	1	6	Linear	Back fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 3-2	5	2	1	8	Concave	Back fracture
Mount Beni 4'-6	1	4	1	6	Linear	Back fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 24-23	4	2	1	7	Linear	lateral fracture
Mount Beni 49-24	5	1	1	7	Linear	Lateral fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 35'-36	2	5	1	8	Linear	Lateral fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 33-35'	3	3	1	7	Linear	Lateral fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 36-37	4	3	1	8	Linear	Lateral fracture
Mount Beni 19-16	2	2	1	5	Linear	Lateral fracture
Mount Beni 19-17	1	2	1	4	Linear	Lateral fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 33-34	4	2	1	7	Linear	Internal fracture
Mount Beni 43-44	3	2	1	6	Asymptotic (constant velocity at the end)	Internal fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 40-41	3	2	1	6	Asymptotic (constant velocity at the end)	Internal fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 40-42	3	3	1	7	Linear	Internal fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 45-46	3	2	2	7	Linear	Back fracture, short time series
Mount Beni 1-2	4	2	1	7	Linear	Back fracture
Cerzeto	5	5	1	11	Linear	N.A.
Rock mass failure Japan	2	2	1	5	Convex	Open pit mine, very small landslide
Asamushi	5	3	1	9	Linear	N.A.
Avran valley 5	1	2	1	4	Concave	N.A.
Avran valley 6	1	1	1	3	Asymptotic	N.A.
Avran valley 7	1	2	1	4	Concave	N.A.
Giau Pass	3	3	1	7	Asymptotic /concave	N.A.
Artificial landslide A	5	5	5	15	Convex	40° artificial slope
Artificial landslide B	2	2	3	7	Concave	40° artificial slope
Artificial landslide C	1	2	3	6	Linear (slightly convex)	40° artificial slope
Artificial landslide D	5	5	5	15	Linear	30° artificial slope

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DISCUSSION

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TABLE 2 shows how the most predictable events ($PI > 8$) can display very different features and are quite irrespective of the shape of the inverse velocity plot, the volume, the brittleness of the material, the history of the landslide and so on (see also TABLE 1).

271

A comparison between Figure 3 and TABLE 2 illustrates how the mean and standard deviation of the forecasts alone are not enough to represent the quality of predictions and, consequently, the predictability of a landslide. In fact the importance of a single forecast strongly depends on the time when it is made; for example, given the same set of forecasts ($t_{f,i}$), a higher PI is obtained if the first predictions done are the farthest from T_f while the final ones tend to converge to it; in this way the prediction plot assumes an oscillatory shape (as for S and F forecasts in Figure 1). Conversely, if the same forecasts are made with a different order so that they get closer and closer to T_f as time passes by (that is $|t_{f,i} - T_f| < |t_{f,i-1} - T_f|$), then there is no $t_{f,i}$ prevailing on the others and it is not possible to define a more probable time of collapse (as for

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281 M forecasts in Figure 1). However the average and standard deviation of t_f are the same for both
282 cases and this explains why these two statistics alone are not as informative as a prediction plot.
283 From TABLE 2 it is also possible to assess which method gives the best results. The sum of the
284 scores for S, F and M is 119, 115 and 63 respectively. Overall S and F perform similarly, but for
285 a specific case study their effectiveness can be very different, therefore their result are
286 independent and not redundant; there is no indisputable clue suggesting when F method is more
287 performing than S and vice versa; nonetheless it appears that S is negatively influenced when the
288 displacement curve is not regularly accelerating (Liberty Pit, Stromboli), whereas for F a few
289 aligned points in the final tract in the inverse velocity plot are sufficient for predicting the failure;
290 however F forecasts are more disturbed when displacement data are noisy, since they use their
291 derivative (velocity) as input. Eventually M forecasts generally perform more poorly and rarely
292 (i.e. artificial landslides B and C) surpass those obtained from S and F methods.

293 Interestingly, different displacement time series belonging to the same landslide can display
294 different behaviours. This is a strong evidence that, even though the geological features do
295 influence the predictability of a landslide, assuming that they keep the same for the whole
296 landslide, other factors must determine the quality of the predictions. The last column of TABLE
297 2 shows for each time series what such factors could be, such as lithology (the asymptotic trends
298 of the cases of Avran valley and Giau Pass can be explained as consequences of a lowly brittle
299 material according to Petley's experiments; Petley, 2004), external forces (excavation in open pit
300 mines, volcanic activity, rainfall), local effects (structural constraints, displacement measured
301 relative to internal or lateral fractures not representing the general instability of the landslide),
302 quality of data (length of the time series, frequency of the observations, level of noise,
303 representativeness of the monitored point) etc.

304 All these case histories show that the main responsible for the predictability of a landslide, and
305 secondary also for the presence or not of the "Saito effect", is in a way or another connected to
306 geology. However this relation is not simple nor direct but not simply and directly. Instead both
307 the predictability and the "Saito effect" depend on the kinematics of the landslide, since only a
308 landslide accelerating with a certain trend can be forecasted using S, F and M methods.
309 Naturally, the kinematics which in turn depends on the geological conditions. In the complex
310 relation between geology and kinematics the aforementioned factors may intervene. Although
311 their interaction may not be known, its effect on displacement data can be easily measured. As a
312 result it has been found that and asymptotic trends in the inverse velocity plot have been
313 encountered also for first failure ruptures (as found in some time series of Mount Beni landslide),
314 contrarily to what is described by Petley (2004). This can be explained as an effect of those
315 interactions which may alter in an unknown way the normal relation between geology and
316 kinematics, thus making focusing on kinematics as the key more reliable than relying on geology
317 alone.

318 In other words, e In fact, even though geomechanics is unquestionably a key factor, a complete
319 geomechanical characterization is often difficult to accomplish, it is sometimes difficult to have a
320 deep knowledge of the geomechanical features of a landslide, especially in the field and in
321 emergency situations, although some safe assumptions can always been done by observation and
322 a broad knowledge of the area. Hints of a particular geomechanical behaviour What it may be
323 known about them is in part thanks to what is are often derived from displacement data. Like in a
324 black box model, even if the real properties of a phenomenon are not known, we can draw
325 conclusions may be drawn from the output of those properties (i.e. the kinematics). In this case,
326 importance has been done to kinematics because what is generally measured by monitoring are

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327 displacement data. Furthermore, and because many other unknown factors (rainfall, ground
328 saturation, earthquakes, anthropic disturbance etc.) are included in the black box model together
329 with the geomechanics; this makes it virtually impossible to know in advance what may be the
330 degree of influence of geomechanics alone with respect to other factors, thus leading to focusing
331 on kinematics instead. Moreover, even though geomechanics is a key element in determining
332 landslide predictability (for example because it is responsible for the creep behaviour), we the
333 results of the present study showed that landslide prediction can be carried out with a variety of
334 different geomechanical settings, as can also be observed by comparing TABLE 1 (which
335 furnishes evaluations concerning the geomechanical properties of the case studies) with TABLE
336 2 (which states whether a collapse was predictable or not).

337 Finally, ~~†~~The prediction plots clearly show that, contrarily to what is generally believed (Rose
338 and Hungr, 2007), the last forecasts are not necessarily the most accurate and that past ones
339 (starting from the initiation of the tertiary creep) are essential to estimate the correct time of
340 failure. In fact older forecasts can be more accurate and in any case furnish precious information
341 about the general reliability of the final prediction, as explained above. Therefore the present
342 study highlights the importance of considering the whole set of predictions made with time. The
343 integration of more forecasting methods further raises reliability of the predictions, which is of
344 great importance for early warning systems, in particular when evacuations are envisaged.
345 Limitations of the proposed approach are those related to the intrinsic limitations of the
346 forecasting methods that have been integrated. In fact, since S, F and M methods are all based on
347 the creep theory, the occurrence of a tertiary creep phase slow enough to allow to monitor and
348 take action is necessary. Voight (1988) also assumes that there must be no external force acting
349 on the landslide, but the examples shown in this paper demonstrate that this may not represent a
350 limitation.

351 Figure 3 shows that the mean of the predictions can be used as a proxy for the time of failure but,
352 as stated above in this paragraph, it is also shown that the obtained accuracy may not be enough
353 as the mean does not exploits all the information provided by a prediction plot. Other statistical
354 indicators have been attempted but none of them appeared to better approximate the value of T_f ,
355 mainly due to the difficulty of accounting for the important time factor in the forecasts and also
356 because not every prediction plot displays the characteristic oscillations. Therefore, the
357 interpretation of the prediction plot (and in particular of the dispersion of the forecasts with time)
358 represents the most valuable tool for decision makers, who, in this way, can make aware
359 judgements informed with a large set of quantitative and redundant data and therefore assessing
360 the “weight” of a single prediction by comparing it with many others.

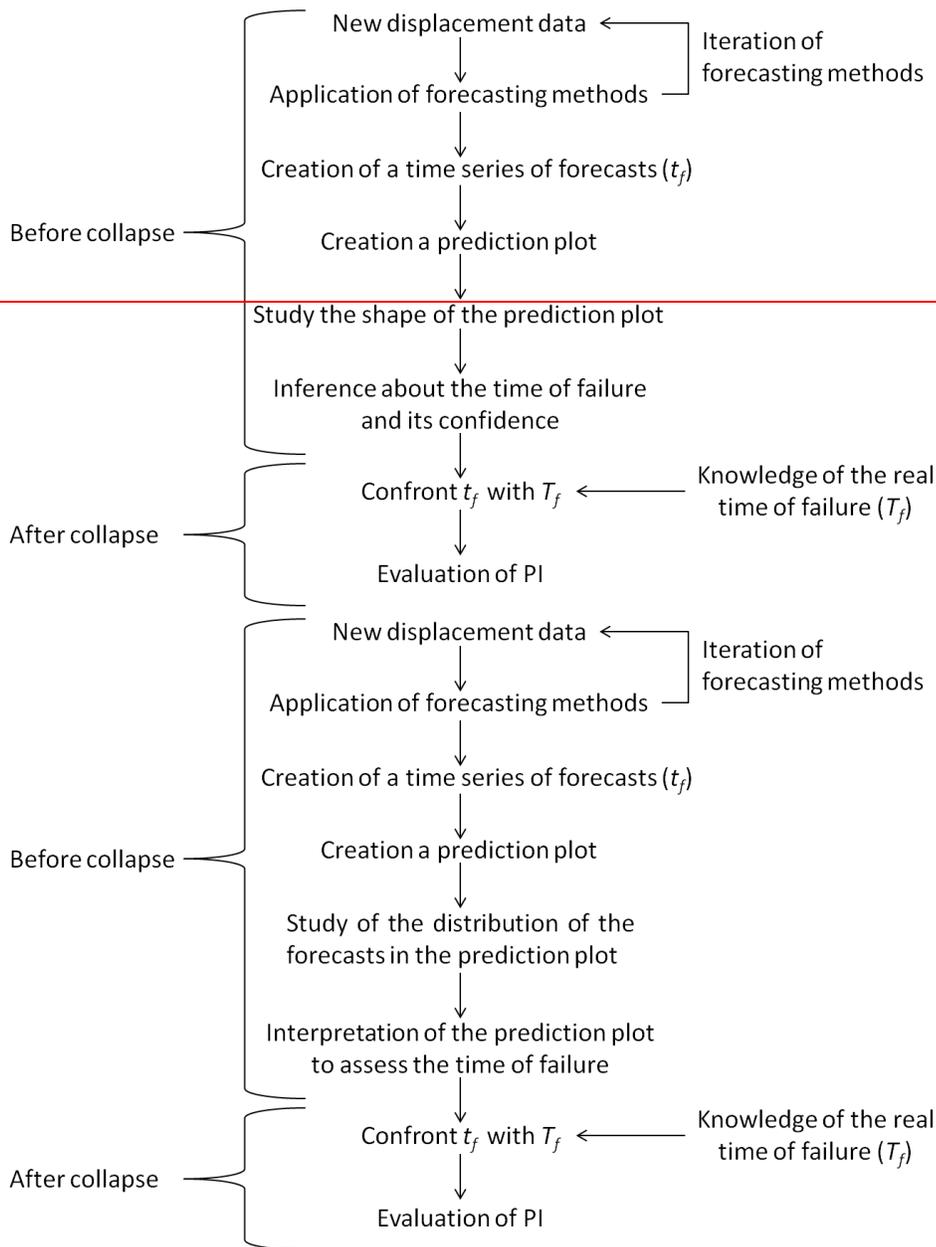
361 Resuming, the proposed methodology can be summarized as in Figure 4.

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Figure 4. Flow-chart that synthesises the proposed procedure.

365

366 CONCLUSIONS

367 In conclusion, the main aspect of the proposed methodology concerns a way to produce and
368 represent forecasting data. Then this methodology is used to assess the influence of different
369 factors in the predictability of a landslide. ¶The main results of ~~the such~~ study are the following:

- 370 • Prediction plots are introduced as graphs showing the evolution of collapse forecasts with
371 time. Such plots provide more information than simple average and standard deviation of
372 the forecasts and improve the reliability of the final prediction.
- 373 • A predictability index (*PI*) has been introduced as a scoring system based on the
374 description of the prediction plot, in order to evaluate the quality of a set of predictions.
- 375 • The predictability of a landslide depends firstly on its kinematics and then on what
376 determines it (geology, external forces, local effects etc.).
- 377 • Landslide collapses can be forecasted whether they are in highly or lowly brittle
378 materials, in rock or in earth material, of different types, with different sliding surface
379 geometries, volumes and triggers.
- 380 • Contrarily to what is generally assumed (Voight, 1988; Rose and Hungr, 2007),
381 landslides can be forecasted also with external forces acting.
- 382 • The asymptotic behaviour of the inverse velocity curve does not imply that the landslide
383 cannot be correctly forecasted, even though it can hinder the prediction.
- 384 • The asymptotic behaviour may be induced by external factors, lithology and local effects,
385 rather than only by crack propagation. In fact asymptotic trends have been found in first
386 time failures and in both brittle and lowly brittle materials. The crack propagation
387 explanation is not neglected, but it may not represent the general rule.
- 388 • Most recent displacement monitoring data increase the confidence when estimating the
389 time of failure but do not necessary provide more accurate predictions than the older ones
390 (provided that they start from after the initiation of the tertiary creep).
- 391 • The developed approach integrates more forecasting methods to further improve the
392 reliability of the prediction.

393

394 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

395 E. Intrieri developed the idea and performed the analyses. G. Gigli supervised and improved the
396 manuscript.

397

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399 The authors are thankful to Antonio Intrieri for his important technical contribution when
400 computing the calculations needed for this work.
401 No competing financial interests exist.

402

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488

489 Major Revision
490 Editor Decision: Reconsider after major revisions (further review by Editor and Referees) (20
491 Sep 2016) by Dr. Thom Bogaard
492 Comments to the Author:
493 Dear authors
494
495 you received two reviews, both agreeing it is an interesting piece of work which can make a
496 significant scientific contribution. However, the description of your novel method and the used
497 definitions can and should be written in a more formal and precise way. Hereto, reviewer #1
498 gave several clear suggestions and comments. Also the points of 'confidence' and 'probability' is
499 something to clarify. This will increase the impact of your work significantly.
500 Please address the comments of both reviewers very accurately in the revised version. The
501 authors are also advised to double check their new text for writing style.
502
503 I look forward receiving the resubmission
504
505 Kind regards
506 Thom Bogaard
507
508 **First of all the Authors want to thank the reviewers and the Editor for their dedication. We**
509 **find that the paper now is much clearer and more formally correct and that the new**
510 **additions and changes helped to improve the overall quality of this work.**
511
512
513 Submitted on 15 Sep 2016
514 Anonymous Referee #1
515 Anonymous during peer-review: Yes
516 Anonymous in acknowledgements of published article: Yes
517
518 Recommendation to the Editor
519 1) Scientific Significance
520 Does the manuscript represent a substantial contribution to the understanding of natural hazards
521 and their consequences (new concepts, ideas, methods, or data)?
522 **Excellent** Good Fair Poor
523 2) Scientific Quality
524 Are the scientific and/or technical approaches and the applied methods valid? Are the results
525 discussed in an appropriate and balanced way (clarity of concepts and discussion, consideration
526 of related work, including appropriate references)?
527 Excellent Good Fair **Poor**
528 3) Presentation Quality
529 Are the scientific data, results and conclusions presented in a clear, concise, and well-structured
530 way (number and quality of figures/tables, appropriate use of technical and English language,
531 simplicity of the language)?
532 Excellent Good **Fair** Poor
533
534 For final publication, the manuscript should be

535 accepted as is.
536 accepted subject to technical corrections.
537 accepted subject to minor revisions.
538 **reconsidered after major revisions:**
539 **I would like to review the revised paper.**
540 I would NOT be willing to review the revised paper.
541 rejected.
542
543 Please note that this rating only refers to this version of the manuscript!
544
545 Suggestions for revision or reasons for rejection (will be published if the paper is accepted for
546 final publication)
547 General comment:
548 The paper fails to formally propose a methodology to increase the reliability of landslide
549 forecasting based on displacement monitoring. The approach is presented at the end of the
550 manuscript, as part of the discussion, and with no clear explanation of the sequence of analyses
551 and criteria that should accompany a proposed methodology. Moreover, a probabilistic approach
552 is mentioned, however there are no formal probabilistic techniques or reliability methods
553 formulated that leads to quantified reliability. Plots of average times to failure and standard
554 deviation does not fully address a probabilistic approach.
555 The findings presented by the authors are important. The databases the authors present are very
556 valuable. The analyses presented associated with their interpretation of the prediction tools and
557 how to compare them are also valuable and worth publication. The analyses presented associated
558 with the application of probabilistic techniques to landslide forecasting reliability, present the
559 necessary data, however they are immature for publication and require further work. The writing
560 style of some paragraphs, in particular the new additions, is not technical and sections of the
561 manuscript are far from NHESS standards.
562
563 Particular comments. Line numbers correspond to the file with the authors responses, which
564 include the track changes to the original document submitted.
565
566 Title - I suggest the title of the manuscript should not start with a preposition.
567 **The title has been changed accordingly.**
568 L54-59 This paragraph raises an issue. How is failure defined in the paper? Is it first movement?
569 Rupture? I understand the authors refer to the onset of sudden acceleration and collapse, and this
570 should be clearly stated.
571 **This has been now specified.**
572 L67-72 sufficient lead time for what?
573 **For evacuation. Now it has been specified.**
574 What is noise? These require clarification. Do you mean measurement fluctuations around a
575 trend, with a natural origin or caused by monitoring instruments?
576 **This is already specified: “natural or instrumental noise” mean exactly “natural origin or**
577 **caused by monitoring instruments”. Furthermore the citation at the end of the sentence is**
578 **referred to a paper that deals in detail with these kinds of noise. This reference has now**
579 **been evidenced.**
580 Data treatment means post-processing?

581 **Yes, now it is specified.**

582 “exploit such methods” which methods? Data treatment?

583 **No, it refers to forecasting methods. Since this was not clear it has been specified.**

584 L121-127 This paper addresses the variability of predictions through the predictive models
585 adopted but do not address a real “prediction rate”, or prediction-realization success. The method
586 further assumes implicitly that fluctuations in the geomechanical behaviour of landslides can be
587 captured by fluctuations in the predicted time of failure. These should be clearly stated at the
588 start so the reader is aware of them.

589 **The prediction-realization success is quantified by the parameter PI. Now we have added a**
590 **sentence in the introduction to make the reader aware of it since the beginning of the**
591 **paper. We do not think that the fluctuations in the predictions reflect the fluctuations in the**
592 **geomechanical behaviour. There may be a lot of reasons why predictions are not always**
593 **accurate, and other factors than geomechanics can hamper this accuracy, as deeply**
594 **commented on in the paper.**

595 L197-201 This figure shows the evolution of the predicted time of failure, however does not
596 directly or clearly show how iterating forecasts increase confidence. This is explained in the text
597 and should be removed from the caption of the figure.

598 **This part has been added to clarify our point.**

599 **“Notably, if we consider, for example, only the results of the S method in the case of the**
600 **Avran valley landslide, we see that since the end of September the forecasts are constantly**
601 **furnishing a time of failure preceding the actual T_f . Although this may be considered a case**
602 **of safe predictions (that is an error not producing a false positive and therefore not**
603 **dangerous for the elements at risk), this also means that, at every forecast that is made, t_f is**
604 **postponed. Given a series of ever increasing values of t_f , it is impossible to assess which of**
605 **them (if any) is closer to the actual time of failure. However, if the time series of**
606 **predictions is long enough, past forecasts (before early September) furnish values of t_f that,**
607 **if averaged with the late ones, centre the value of T_f . Therefore it is clear how a prediction**
608 **plot may allow decision makers to make more aware evaluations of the time of collapse of a**
609 **landslide.”**

610 **And this sentence has been modified as follows:**

611 **“It is this convergence that permits to correctly forecast the collapse a priori at least since**
612 **late November, i.e. a month before the failure, whereas a single forecast would not be able**
613 **to give a confidence of the prediction.”**

614 **Furthermore the caption has been modified as suggested.**

615 L281-294 This paragraph is unclear and out of place. Furthermore, the writing style is poor and
616 far from NHESS standards. Authors are encouraged to read the manuscript and ensure a
617 technical style of writing.

618 **This paragraph has been heavily rewritten to improve the style and meet NHESS**
619 **standards:**

620 **“In fact, even though geomechanics is unquestionably a key factor, a complete**
621 **geomechanical characterization is often difficult to accomplish, especially in emergency**
622 **situations. The clearer hints of a particular geomechanical behaviour are often derived**
623 **from displacement data. Like in a black box model, even if the real properties of a**
624 **phenomenon are not known, conclusions may be drawn from the output of those properties**
625 **(i.e. the kinematics). In this case, importance has been done to kinematics because what is**
626 **generally measured by monitoring are displacement data. Furthermore, many other**

627 **unknown factors (rainfall, ground saturation, earthquakes, anthropic disturbance etc.) are**
628 **included in the black box model together with the geomechanics; this makes it virtually**
629 **impossible to know in advance what may be the degree of influence of geomechanics alone**
630 **with respect to other factors, thus leading to focusing on kinematics instead. Moreover,**
631 **even though geomechanics is a key element in determining landslide predictability (for**
632 **example because it is responsible for the creep behaviour), the results of the present study**
633 **showed that landslide prediction can be carried out with a variety of different**
634 **geomechanical settings.”**

635 **The position of this paragraph is due to a comment made by another reviewer in the**
636 **previous revision step, where the reviewer asked to explain more in detail the concept**
637 **explained above.**

638 L295-297 Contrary to the author’s statement, prediction plots are not clear in this matter.
639 Supplementary plots or adequate highlights within the plot would be required for the authors to
640 derive this statement and the readers to clearly observed the author’s observations.

641 **In fact this sentence is not referred to the prediction plots but to the comments made in the**
642 **discussion session. They can be easily observed by comparing table 1 (which furnishes**
643 **evaluations concerning the geomechanical properties of the case studies) with table 2**
644 **(which states whether a collapse was predictable or not). This has been added to the text to**
645 **make it easier to understand for the reader.**

646 L309 The proposed methodology is presented at the end of the manuscript and as part of the
647 discussion, when it should have been introduced early on the manuscript and then proved to the
648 reader. In this methodology, the steps of “Study the shape of the prediction plot” and “inference
649 about the time of failure” have no substance. Although the authors do study the plots and infer
650 times of failure during their discussions of the prediction methods and plots, there is no clear
651 sequence of analyses and criteria that should accompany a proposed methodology. I argue that
652 this manuscript, as it is written, does not formally proposes a methodology for predicting
653 landslide time of failure.

654 **As it is now explained in the conclusions, the main aspect of our methodology concerns a**
655 **way to produce and represent forecasting data. The reviewer here probably asks for a**
656 **method to interpret such data and in particular to retrieve an estimate of T_f from the time**
657 **series of t_f . This is already furnished in the paper. We showed (figure 3) that the mean of**
658 **the predictions can be a proxy for the time of failure. However we also have to note that**
659 **this criterion does not employ all the information derived from a prediction plot and in fact**
660 **it sometimes furnishes predictions that not accurate enough. Other indicators have been**
661 **adopted (mode, average between maximum and minimum etc.) but unfortunately it**
662 **appears that there is no quantitative or univocal method to calculate the a good estimate of**
663 **T_f , also because not every prediction plot displays the characteristic oscillations. Therefore**
664 **we have found that the last part of the procedure must be left to expert judgement, as**
665 **indicated in the figure 4 where we state “inference about the time of failure”. This expert**
666 **judgement is however informed with quantitative and redundant data that are much more**
667 **reliable than a single forecast, even if this single forecast might be completely derived from**
668 **a quantitative computation. In fact Fukuzono users typically adopt a quantitative method**
669 **to extrapolate a single time of failure forecast; however this does not improve the general**
670 **accuracy of the prediction; instead it gives a false confidence in the user. Instead we give**
671 **decision makers a tool to critically assess the “weight” of such forecast by comparing it**
672 **with many others. Here stands the core of our methodology. Moreover this should not**

673 **divert the attention from the scope of our paper that is also to use this tool to assess the**
674 **influence of different factors in the predictability of a landslide.**
675 **Nevertheless we recognize that individuating a parameter or an equation that can**
676 **synthesize the prediction plot in a single number would be an improvement to this**
677 **methodology. In fact we are currently developing our research in this direction and we look**
678 **forward into publishing our findings as soon as we achieve the result.**
679 **We have explained all these concepts in the discussions as follows:**
680 **“Figure 3 shows that the mean of the predictions can be used as a proxy for the time of**
681 **failure but, as stated above in this paragraph, it is also shown that the obtained accuracy**
682 **may not be enough as the mean does not exploits all the information provided by a**
683 **prediction plot. Other statistical indicators have been attempted but none of them**
684 **appeared to better approximate the value of T_f , mainly due to the difficulty of accounting**
685 **for the important time factor in the forecasts and also because not every prediction plot**
686 **displays the characteristic oscillations. Therefore, the interpretation of the prediction plot**
687 **(and in particular of the dispersion of the forecasts with time) represents the most valuable**
688 **tool for decision makers, who, in this way, can make aware judgements informed with a**
689 **large set of quantitative and redundant data and therefore assessing the “weight” of a**
690 **single prediction by comparing it with many others.”**
691 **As requested we anticipated the explanation of our procedure in the method paragraph,**
692 **although figure 4 cannot be moved to an earlier paragraph since it refers to the concept of**
693 **PI that is introduced only later in the text.**
694 L329-332 This can not be concluded from the data that is presented. You need an adequate
695 presentation of the characteristics of some case studies and their displacement time series that
696 support your conclusion.
697 **This conclusion is drawn from those landslides cited in Table 2 that displayed an**
698 **asymptotic trend and also moderate values of PI. In particular Liberty Pit gives very good**
699 **forecasts with F method (figure 2). This is why we conclude that even if the landslide**
700 **displays an asymptotic trend it can still be forecasted.**
701 Some editorial comments:
702 L15 should read “is presented here”
703 L17 “about reliability of prediction”
704 L22 “are the key”
705 L23 remove the word “when”
706 L34-37 needs revisiting. The use of the word “particular” is abused.
707 L38 Should refer to the paper not to “our research”. Landslide instead of landslides
708 L67 Creep behaviour not behaviours
709 L119 grammar: “at most more”
710 L274-280 This paragraph is unclear and requires re-writing.
711 **This paragraph has been heavily rewritten as follows. This new version also helps to**
712 **explain issues raised in the previous review.**
713 **“All these case histories show that the main responsible for the predictability of a landslide,**
714 **and secondary also for the presence or not of the “Saito effect”, is in a way or another**
715 **connected to geology. However this relation is not simple nor direct. Instead both the**
716 **predictability and the “Saito effect” depend on the kinematics of the landslide, since only a**
717 **landslide accelerating with a certain trend can be forecasted using S, F and M methods.**
718 **Naturally, the kinematics in turn depend on the geological conditions. In the complex**

719 **relation between geology and kinematics the aforementioned factors may intervene.**
720 **Although their interaction may not be known, its effect on displacement data can be easily**
721 **measured. As a result it has been found that asymptotic trends in the inverse velocity plot**
722 **have been encountered also for first failure ruptures (as found in some time series of**
723 **Mount Beni landslide), contrarily to what is described by Petley (2004). This can be**
724 **explained as an effect of those interactions which may alter in an unknown way the normal**
725 **relation between geology and kinematics, thus making focusing on kinematics as the key**
726 **more reliable than relying on geology alone.”**
727 **All the editorial comments have been addressed.**
728
729
730

731 Report #2

732 Submitted on 18 Sep 2016

733 Anonymous Referee #2

734 Anonymous during peer-review: Yes

735 Anonymous in acknowledgements of published article: Yes

736

737 Recommendation to the Editor

738 1) Scientific Significance

739 Does the manuscript represent a substantial contribution to the understanding of natural hazards
740 and their consequences (new concepts, ideas, methods, or data)?

741 **Excellent** Good Fair Poor

742 2) Scientific Quality

743 Are the scientific and/or technical approaches and the applied methods valid? Are the results
744 discussed in an appropriate and balanced way (clarity of concepts and discussion, consideration
745 of related work, including appropriate references)?

746 Excellent **Good** Fair Poor

747 3) Presentation Quality

748 Are the scientific data, results and conclusions presented in a clear, concise, and well-structured
749 way (number and quality of figures/tables, appropriate use of technical and English language,
750 simplicity of the language)?

751 Excellent **Good** Fair Poor

752

753 For final publication, the manuscript should be
754 accepted as is.

755 accepted subject to technical corrections.

756 **accepted subject to minor revisions.**

757 reconsidered after major revisions:

758 I would like to review the revised paper.

759 I would NOT be willing to review the revised paper.

760 rejected.

761

762 Please note that this rating only refers to this version of the manuscript!

763

764 Suggestions for revision or reasons for rejection (will be published if the paper is accepted for
765 final publication)

766 Dear Editor,

767 Please find here below my review of the paper nhess-2016-221 v2:

768 Of reliable landslide forecasting and factors influencing predictability

769 By

770 Emanuele Intriari, Giovanni Gigli

771

772 The new version was greatly improved, the authors followed most the reviewers' comments, and
773 they clarified most of the unclear statements.

774 The paper is nearly ready for publication, but in my opinion, one problem remains. The
775 confidence is not well defined, if I understand well it is different of PI, and then the confidence
776 can be used for the forecast. It is stated line 118: that "...confidence (for example given by the
777 standard 118 deviation of tf)." This is not really discussed or introduced in the rest of the text
778 except in conclusions and figures. This must be clarified for the final version.

779 **Thank you for raising the problem. This sentence has been added in the method section in
780 order to explain it better:**

781 **"Confidence may be quantitatively assessed by using the standard deviation of the
782 forecasts as a proxy. In fact the standard deviation furnishes the dispersion (i.e. the
783 precision) of the predictions, which may be used to calculate a time window within which
784 the collapse is more likely to occur. Therefore the lower the standard deviation of a set of
785 forecasts, the higher would be their reliability and the confidence.**

786 **On the other hand, confidence it may also be considered as a qualitative increase in the
787 awareness of the decision makers that can estimate the time of failure of a landslide by
788 evaluating a large set of different predictions and their dispersions."**

789 Last point is the problem of overlap of the graph and text in figure 3. This must be corrected.

790 **It has been corrected.**

791