

1 **Methodological Considerations in Cover-Collapse Sinkhole**

2 **Analyses: A Case Study of Southeastern China's Guangzhou City**

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7 **Abstract**

8 Cover-collapse sinkholes can present significant hazards to ~~human habitation and communal facilities~~
9 in soil-covered karst regions. Therefore, for human security and land-use planning in sinkhole-prone areas,
10 appropriate approaches are required prior to construction in order to understand the cover-collapse sinkhole
11 genesis and its likely evolution. The study seeks to contribute to performing an integrated analysis of karst
12 hazards in mantle karst regions where karst evidence can be masked, with the ultimate goal of developing a
13 methodological framework utilizing different techniques and approaches. A small area located in
14 Guangzhou City of southeastern China's Guangdong Province was analyzed. The detailed typology,
15 morphometry, and chronology inventory of 49 cover-collapse sinkholes in the study area were analyzed
16 using various surface investigation methods, such as field surveys, aerial photography, and
17 photogrammetry. The Quaternary deposits and indicators of the active underground karst features in the
18 aforementioned mantle karst region were geotechnically characterized using drilling and geophysical
19 techniques. These techniques included ground penetrating radar (GPR), electrical resistivity imaging (ERI),
20 natural source audio frequency magnetotellurics (NSAMT), and micro-tremors. During ~~this study's~~
21 investigations, three karst fissure zones covered by Quaternary soil were ~~observed~~ using multiple
22 techniques. In addition, it was found that the groundwater dynamic monitoring data confirmed that the
23 sinkholes in the study area were closely related to changes in groundwater levels. Therefore, the efforts
24 which have been made to investigate and monitor the sinkhole development will be required to continue

25 into the immediate future.

26 **Keywords:** cover-collapse sinkholes; karst; geomorphological analyses; geophysical surveys

27 **1. Introduction**

28 As near-surface indicators of active karst features in soil-covered karst regions, cover-collapse
29 sinkholes are the result of the downward water-borne transportation of soil or other related material into
30 underlying voids in either limestone bedrock or other soil profiles. Cover-collapse sinkholes are
31 characterized by roughly circular outlines, internal drainage, and distinct breaks in the land surface (Tharp,
32 1999, 2002). Cover-collapse sinkholes are known to occur in many regions of the world (Galve et al., 2015;
33 Zhou and Lei, 2017), and have caused serious damages to urban and industrial areas, as well as farming
34 regions. Therefore, due to the large and increasing impacts of sinkhole damages, including the loss of
35 human lives, various techniques and approaches focusing on the reconstruction of cover-collapse sinkhole
36 conditions have received increasing attention (Kaufmann et al., 2018; Pueyo Anchuela et al., 2015; Zini et
37 al., 2015). These techniques and approaches can be divided into the following categories:

38 (1) **Field and photogrammetric surveys:** These surveys include historical satellite remote sensing
39 images, aerial photograph interpretations, and field surveys, which are often useful to analyze the
40 morphometry and chronology of cover-collapse sinkholes (Al-Halbouni et al., 2017; Gutiérrez et al.,
41 2007);

42 (2) **Non-invasive geophysical techniques:**

43 Subsurface cavities and the processes that lead to the development of sinkholes cause changes within
44 the subsurface, such as porosity, fracture density, and water saturation (Frumkin et al., 2011). Before
45 collapse, non-invasive geophysical approaches may detect these changes, and include various techniques
46 such as microgravity (Debeglia et al., 2006; Eppelbaum et al., 2008; Paine et al., 2012); micro-tremors

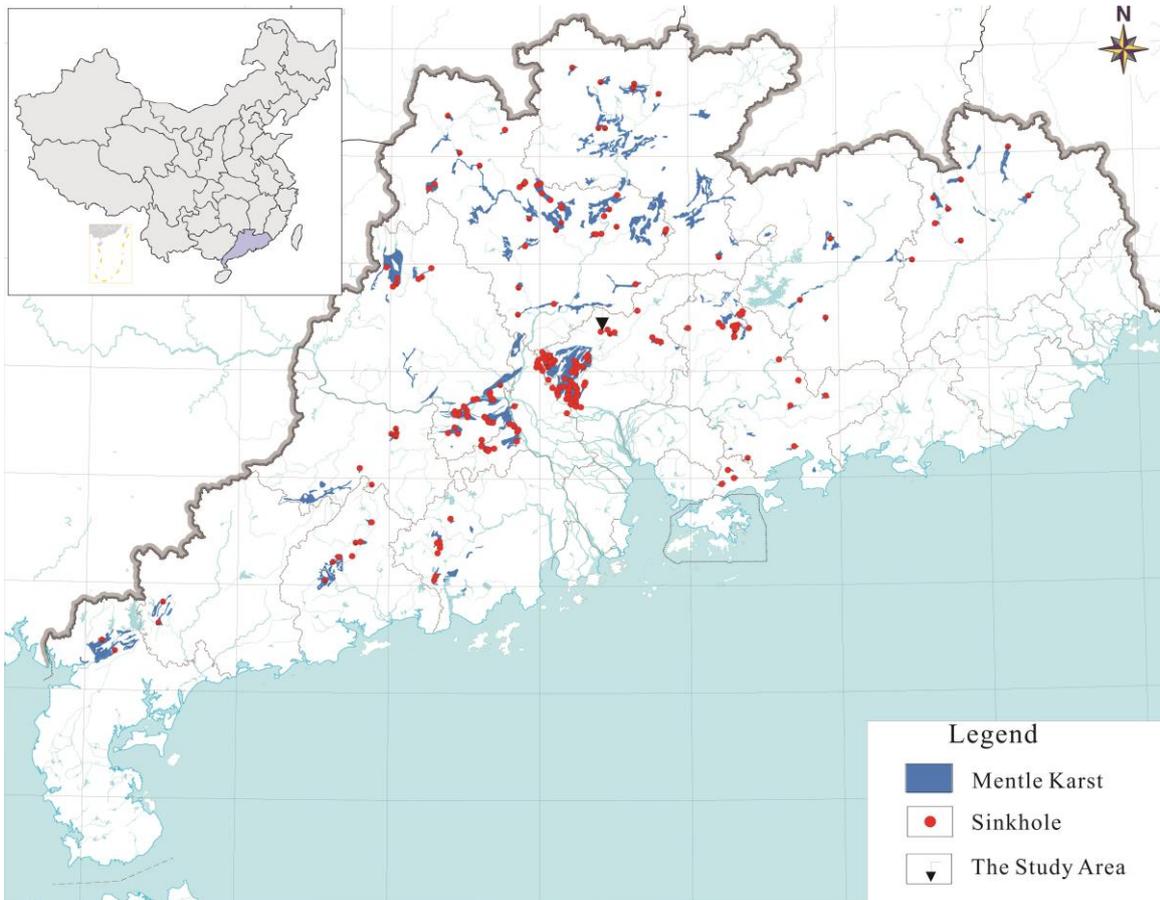
47 *(Maresca and Berrino, 2016)*; electrical resistivity tomography *(Ahmed and Carpenter, 2003; Gutiérrez et*
48 *al., 2019)*; seismic reflections *(Wadas et al., 2017)*; and electromagnetic surveys including GPR *(Ronen et*
49 *al., 2019)*.

50 (3) *Invasive techniques*: Invasive techniques include trenching *(Gutiérrez et al., 2009)*; drilling
51 *(Cueto et al., 2018)*; and geophysical well logging. Trenching and drilling processes are able to provide
52 immediate information on the nature and geotechnical properties of underground areas. Geophysical well
53 logging can contribute to filling the significant gaps which drilling processes and non-invasive geophysical
54 methods are unable to address.

55 (4) *Monitoring*: Hydrogeological monitoring *(Jiang et al., 2019)* and ground deformation monitoring
56 *(Galve et al., 2015)* are commonly crucial aspects for understanding the causes of deformations, and are
57 adopted to assess and predict the kinematics of the subsidence phenomena. In particular, these monitoring
58 methods are necessary in cases of potential episodes of catastrophic collapse.

59 Karstic terrain is one of the most difficult natural geological hazards to assess for development and
60 construction unless proper measures are taken *(Xeidakis et al., 2004)*. Due to the high vertical and lateral
61 variabilities of the geological and hydrogeological characteristics in the karst regions, no single technique
62 has been found which can effectively resolve the related problems. Therefore, in the present study, a small
63 region with surface deformation issues located in southeastern China's Guangzhou City was examined for
64 the purpose of developing a methodological framework for the evaluations of the potential conditioning
65 factors which control the occurrences of sinkholes in soil-covered karst regions, where karst evidence may
66 be hidden.

67 **2. Geological setting**



68

69 **Figure 1.** Karst sinkhole (affecting more than 100 people) distributions in China's Guangdong Province

70 From a geographical perspective, the study area was located in the central sector of the Pearl River
71 Delta, in Conghua District of Guangzhou City, Guangdong Province, in the southeastern region of China.

72 The geologic hazards related to cover-collapse sinkholes have occurred frequently in China's Guangdong

73 Province in recent years. As shown in Fig. 1, according to the statistical data, there were more than 400
74 large-scale karst cover-collapse sinkholes (affecting more than 100 people) in Guangdong Province.

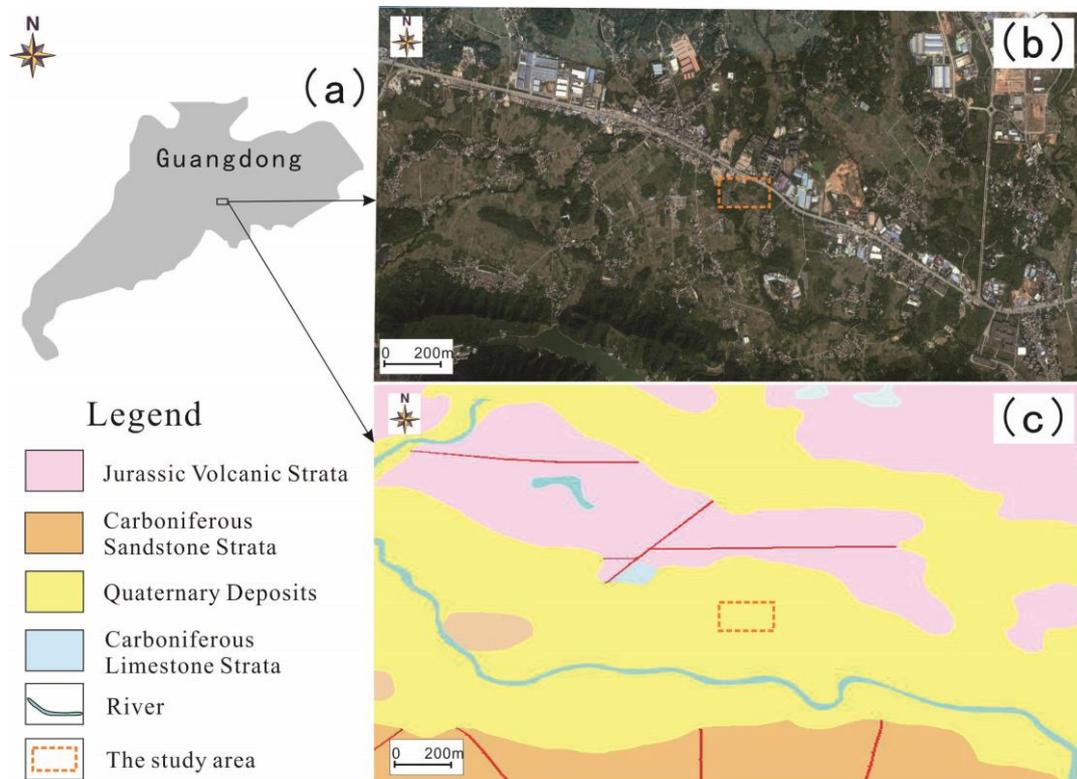
75 The elevations in the study area had varied between 30 and 80 m above sea level, as shown in Fig. 2.

76 Quaternary deposits were observed to mantle the vast majority of the Carboniferous limestone. These
77 consisted of alluvial deposits with thick layers (4.65 to 13.8 m) of loose soil (China Geological Map,

78 F-49-24-A Conghua, Scale 1:50,000). The karst processes in the region were determined to be related to

79 the dissolution of Miocene Carbonate material, mainly covered by Quaternary material. In addition,

80 Jurassic volcanic strata and carboniferous sandstone strata were also distributed in the study area. The
81 evolution processes of the sinkholes appeared to be structurally controlled by the characteristics of the
82 local and regional faulting. The most important tectonic feature in the area was the “Guangzhou-Conghua”
83 fracture (which was buried within the study area and recognizable only in part) with a typically 60° NW
84 orientation. Generally speaking, a large part of the investigated area was occupied by paddy fields, and
85 buildings were relatively scarce. The cover-collapse sinkholes were evidenced in the alluvial plane of the
86 study area.



87
88 **Figure 2.** Geological and geomorphological setting of the study area: (a) Location of the study area in Guangdong Province
89 of southeastern China; (b) ©Google Earth image showing the study sites. The study sites as mapped by the authors are shown
90 (red rectangle); (c) Synthetic exposed stratigraphic map

91 3. Methodology

92 In order to understand the causes of the deformations, including sudden catastrophic collapses, as well
93 as accurately predict the kinematics of the subsidence phenomena in the study area, multidisciplinary
94 approaches were planned for the following purposes: 1. To ascertain the surface subsidence and sinkhole
95 features; 2. To precisely locate and define the subsurface karst features at depth, such as cavities, conduits,

96 and karst fissure zones; 3. To detect the thicknesses and stratification of soil and underlying subsidence
97 features; and 4. To monitor groundwater dynamic conditions and deformations.

98 **3.1 Surface investigations**

99 3.1.1 Field survey, documentary information and oral information

100 During the initial phase of this study's investigation, information data related to the selected sinkhole
101 areas which had been obtained from written documents, such as local maps or reports from public
102 institutions, were collected and analyzed in order to gain a good understanding of cover-collapse sinkhole
103 context. For example, previous cartographic production data were utilized, such as a local 1:50,000 scale
104 geological map. Also, the available rough information regarding the alluvium thickness, ground elevations,
105 and formation lithology were used in this study. During the investigation process, detailed field surveys
106 annotating 1:1000 scale color telephotographs were carried out in the selected sinkhole areas. In addition,
107 information from local residents was found to substantially enrich the investigation content by providing
108 data on the spatial and temporal distributions of undetected and filled sinkholes, along with the weather
109 conditions and well water level changes at that time.

110 **3.1.2 Aerial photogrammetry and historical satellite remote sensing images**

111 In aerial photogrammetry, unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) platforms can be used to capture digital
112 surface and terrain models for large scale mapping, with an accuracy down to the cm-level from various
113 waypoints in investigated regions (*Chiabrando et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2016; Yeh et al., 2016*). In the
114 present study, detailed and accurate geomorphological data including surface elevation of the study area
115 were provided by senseFly mapping drones using Postflight Terra 3D software. Also, historical images
116 available from Google Earth were used to obtain information on the recent morphological changes of the
117 analyzed sinkholes in the study area. The detailed interpretations of photographs taken on different dates
118 (2014/10/28; 2015/12/05) assisted in this study's analysis of the spatio-temporal distribution patterns of the

119 subsidence phenomena.

120 **3.2 Non-intrusive geophysical prospecting**

121 **3.2.1 Surface-based GPR**

122 Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR) surveys are a type of geophysical technique which offer a very high
123 resolution abilities in order to locate and characterize the sedimentological information of subsoil (such as
124 soil-cavities and the presence of active subsidence, and so on) (*Anchueta et al., 2009; Chalikakis et al.,
125 2011; Lei et al., 2008*). In GPR profiles, information can be identified by changes in color, which are
126 related to the amplitude of the recorded wave at each point. However, this technique has been found to
127 have its own shortcomings, due to the fact that the depths of surface-based GPR detections were generally
128 found to be only 3 to 5 m in southern China. In the present study, 20 surface-based GPR (~~Ground
129 Penetrating Radar~~) profiles with a total length of 3 km were conducted in the study area, as detailed in Fig.
130 2. The continuous GPR profiles were collected utilizing a SIR3000 GPR instrument manufactured by the
131 Geophysical Survey System Inc. (GSSI) in the United States, ~~equipped~~ with a 100 MHz bowtie bistatic
132 antenna.

133 **3.2.2 Micro-tremors**

134 Micro-tremors are passive source vibration signals which originate from natural or human activities.
135 These vibration signals carry abundant information regarding underground geological structures. The
136 Nakamura technique of microtremor exploration, also known as the H/V ratio method, is a widely used
137 passive seismic technique by researchers for obtaining overburden sedimentary layer thicknesses (*Dinesh
138 et al., 2010*). With this technique, the calibration relationships between the soil thicknesses and the
139 prominent resonant frequencies in the H/V spectrum are obtained from borehole drilling logs. Therefore,
140 the resonant frequencies can be used to obtain the thicknesses of the sediment in the area near the borehole.
141 In this study, single-station micro-tremor data came from a Tromino 3G seismograph were collected from

142 the 318 sites. The sites were spaced 5 m apart, and the single point collection time was 20 minutes.

143 **3.2.3 Electrical resistivity imaging (ERI)**

144 Electrical resistivity imaging (ERI) is a technique in which many individual resistivity measurements
145 are combined to produce a resistivity cross-section of the subsurface. Electrical parameters, such as
146 resistivity or conductivity, are very sensitive to formation properties. Therefore, ERI methods have been
147 effectively used for differentiation processes related to rock layers. Electrical resistivity tomography
148 profiling (surface electrode arrays) is also commonly used for sinkhole investigations as a means of
149 identifying shallow limestone deposits, large dissolution feature zones, and underlying cavities (*Fabregat*
150 *et al., 2017*). In the present study, two ERI (electrical resistivity image) profiles, with a total length of 500
151 m and spacing of 30 m, were conducted in the study area. The resistivity lines of this pattern were acquired
152 utilizing a WDJ-3 Supersting multi-channel and multi-electrode resistivity system designed in China,
153 equipped with 60 electrodes spaced at 5 m intervals along each line. The data were inverted using
154 RES2DINV software.

155 **3.2.4 Natural source audio frequency magnetotellurics (NSAMT)**

156 Audio frequency magnetotelluric (AMT) methods involve surface-based electromagnetic sounding
157 techniques which use fixed grounded dipoles as signal sources (CSAMT), or alternatively, the
158 naturally-occurring fields of the Earth's atmospheric system (NSAMT). The higher frequency
159 audio-magnetotelluric (AMT) methods are able to detect the ranges of karst fissure zones based on the
160 different electrical conductivity of the underground rock strata. Once water flows into caved and fractured
161 zones, the resistivity of those areas will rapidly decrease. These are referred to as low-resistivity anomaly
162 zones. In this study, the naturally-occurring electromagnetic fields were used as the signal sources. Then,
163 NSAMT (Natural Source Audio Frequency Magnetotelluric) profiles with total lengths of 500 m were
164 conducted in the areas coinciding with the ERI profiles. The NSAMT data were collected using a

165 Geometrics StrataGem EH4 system in the study area. Then, an EH-4 conductivity imaging system
166 manufactured by EMI and Geometrics (US), was adopted in this study as the electromagnetic geophysical
167 detection system for the auto data acquisition and processing procedures.

168 **3.3 Intrusive techniques**

169 **3.3.1 Drilling**

170 Drilling processes provide valuable information on the nature and geotechnical properties of
171 underground areas and assists in the recognition of voids (including soil caves, karst caves, and karst
172 conduits) and sediment (disturbed by subsidence processes). Six boreholes were arranged in a selected
173 sector of Bumei Village, with a total [footage](#) of 407 m, which were referred to as the drilled cores.

174 **3.3.2 Single-hole radar**

175 Single-hole radar techniques are commonly utilized to record single-hole full-waveform radar data.
176 These data can potentially supply information on the nature of the reflectors distributed along the
177 boreholes [\(Kim et al., 2007\)](#). A fixed-offset transmitter- and receiver-antennae pair were pulled slowly up
178 the length of a borehole during the single-hole radar detection process. The principle of the single-hole
179 reflection method is similar to that of surface-based GPR, with the exception that reflectors may occur on
180 all sides of the borehole recording line. Planar features, such as fault surfaces, which may be intersected by
181 a borehole, will appear as V-shaped reflections in a single-hole radar section. The images of the point
182 reflectors (for example, karst caves) are hyperbola. In the current study, a MALA system equipped with
183 100 MHz borehole antennae was used to acquire all of the radar data. The single-hole full-waveform data
184 were recorded in all six holes utilizing transmitter and receiver antennae separated by 2.75 m.

185 **3.3.3 Cross-hole radar**

186 Cross-hole GPR is a trans-illumination survey method in which two antennae are lowered down into
187 adjacent parallel boreholes [\(Bachrach et al., 2005; Cordua et al., 2009\)](#). Then, by transmitting radar

188 signals from one borehole to another, the electromagnetic EM wave velocity and attenuation between the
189 two boreholes can be estimated. The high-resolution imaging of subsurface electromagnetic EM wave
190 velocities has proven to be effective in detections conducted in the majority of water-filled areas, such as
191 water-filled faults and caves, in which the low-speed zones represent the water filled areas (*Tan et al.,*
192 *2012*). In this study, three pairs of boreholes were used for cross-hole radar surveys, taking advantage of
193 the adopted MALA system with 100 MHz borehole antennae.

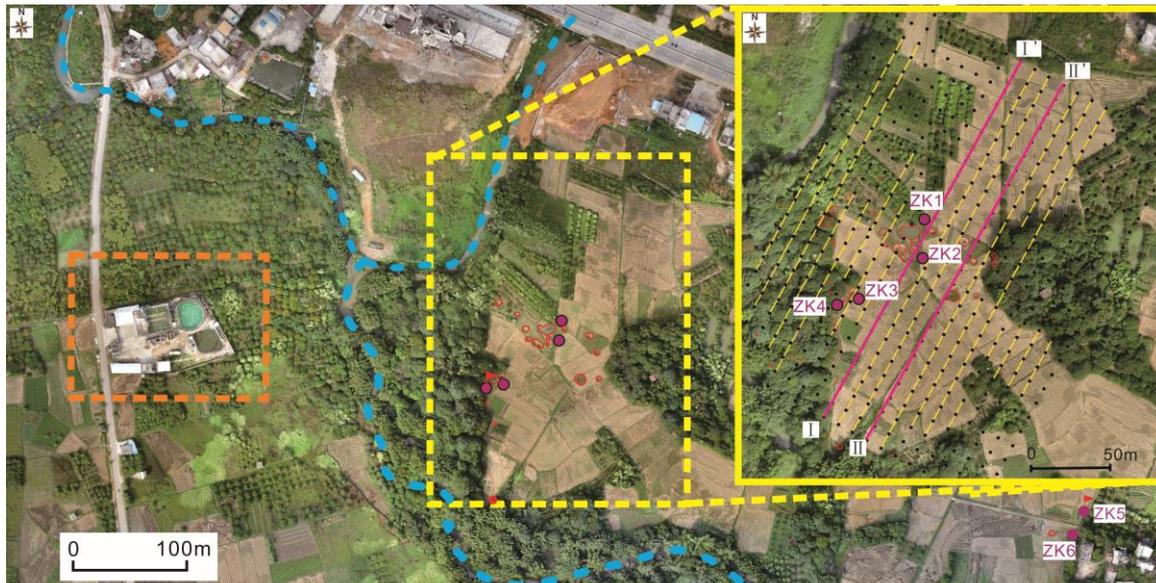
194 **3.4 Monitoring methodologies**

195 3.4.1 Hydro-dynamic monitoring

196 In many parts of the world (including China), recent research reports have revealed that a major
197 proportion of recent cover-collapse sinkhole events have been induced by anthropogenic changes in
198 hydrogeological systems (*Anikeev, 1999; Lei et al., 2016; Meng et al., 2014*). Therefore, the monitoring of
199 groundwater levels may become an effective method for capturing real-time changes in the underground
200 hydrodynamic forces, and possibly even used to forecast the ~~appearances~~ of cover-collapse sinkholes. In
201 the study area, the water levels in two of the boreholes had been monitored since January of 2015. The
202 monitoring intervals were 20 minutes.

203 **3.4.2 InSAR**

204 Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (InSAR) analysis methods can be used to screen large areas
205 for anomalous vertical movements, as well as to guide intensive field investigations and detection
206 processes to areas where significant changes are occurring (*Intrieri et al., 2015*). In addition, the mapping
207 of ground displacements may assist in the identification of locations prone to future cover-collapse
208 sinkholes. In the study area, InSAR ground deformation data were obtained with a 5 m pixel size and a
209 vertical accuracy higher than 3 m. Then, three RADARSAT-2 Ultra Fine images from November 27th of
210 2015, January 14th of 2016, and March 2nd of 2016 were selected for further examination.



Legend 1 2 3 ZK1 4 5 6 7 8

211 **Figure 3.** Investigation layout of the research area (Background image from aerial photograph provided by the authors' senseFly mapping drone): 1. Waterworks; 2. Research areas; 3. Sinkhole pits; 4. Boreholes; 5. Groundwater level monitoring points; 6. Ground penetrating radar lines; 7. Geophysical detection lines (GPR, ERI, and AMT); 8. Brook area

215 4. Results

216 4.1 Sinkhole inventory

217 The field surveys with drones aerial photogrammetry, along with the historical satellite remote
 218 sensing images, had assisted in the mapping of the sinkhole detailed inventory to be accomplished, as
 219 shown in Fig. 3, Fig. 4b and Fig. 5a. There were 49 cover-collapse sinkholes observed in the selected area.
 220 Table 1 presents the morphometry and chronology of the inventoried sinkholes. These collapses, which had
 221 resulted in direct economic losses, had mainly occurred between September of 2014 and March of 2015.
 222 The Google Earth images from prior to 2014 showed no sinkholes in the area. In addition, 47 collapse pits
 223 were identified in the aerial photographs from 2014 to 2015. Two more sinkholes had formed in the area in
 224 October of 2016 and March of 2017, respectively. No casualties had resulted from the sinkhole collapses.
 225 However, a portion of the rice harvest was lost and some of the fruit trees in the area were destroyed.

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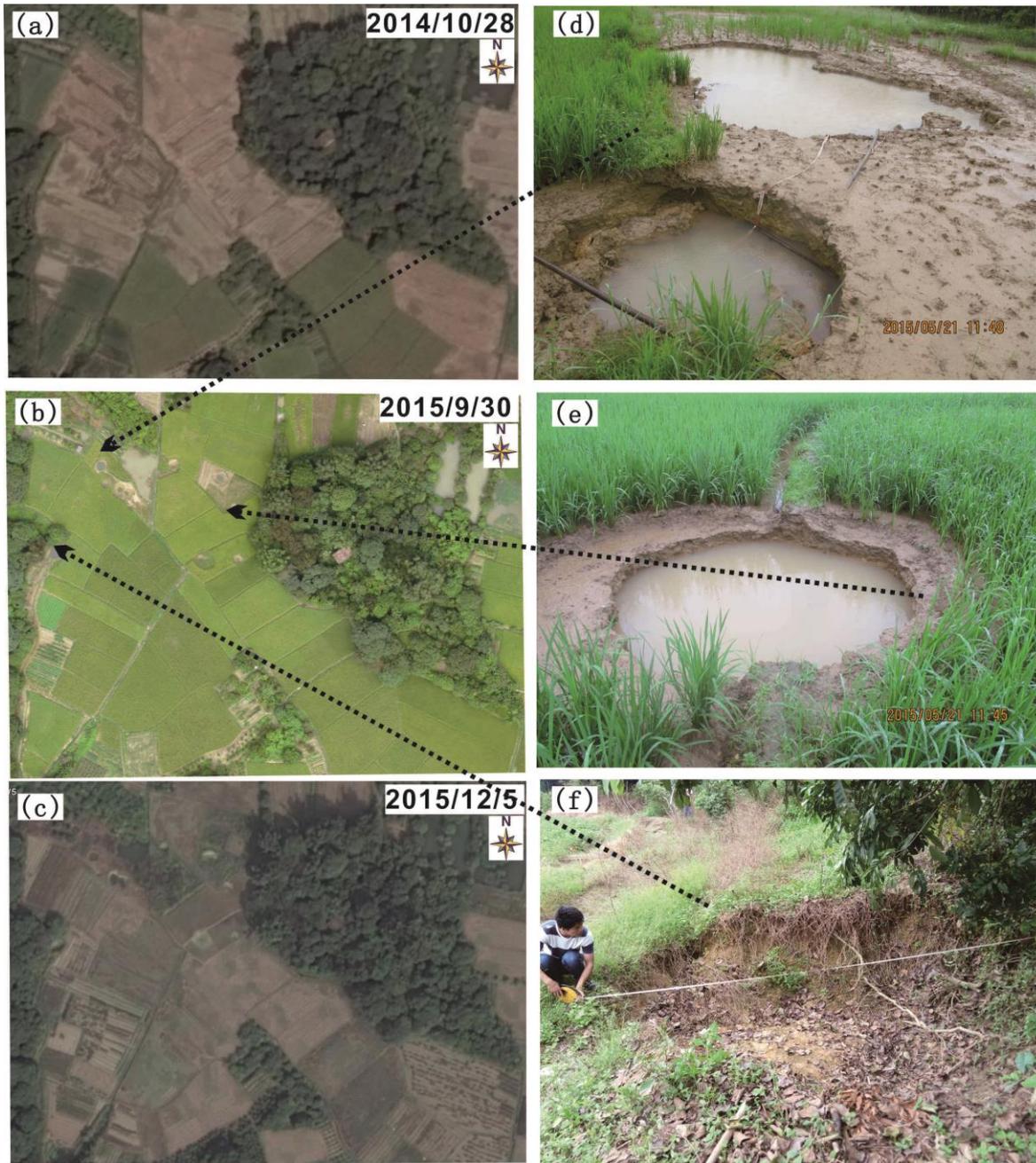
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Table 1 The dimensions and dates of sinkholes

ID	Shape	Diameter or Major axis/ Minor axis	Major axis direction	Date and time	Depth	ID	Shape	Diameter or Major axis/ Minor axis	Major axis direction	Date and time	Depth
1	Circle	2.8		Sep-14	0.9	25	Ellipse	0.9/0.6	0	Sep-14	0.5
2	Circle	7.8		Sep-14	0.8	26	Circle	1.7		Sep-14	1
3	Circle	3.1		Jun-14	0.9	27	Ellipse	1.8/0.9	120	Sep-14	1
4	Circle	4.9		Sep-14	1	28	Circle	3.3		Sep-14	1
5	Circle	3.2		Sep-14	1	29	Ellipse	1.3/1		Sep-14	0.98
6	Ellipse	13.4/7.2		Sep-14	1.2	30	Ellipse	2.2/1.5	205	Oct-14	1
7	Circle	2.6		Sep-14	2	31	Circle	2.6/1.8	345	Oct-14	0.9
8	Circle	3.2		Sep-14	1.5	32	Circle	1		Sep-14	1
9	Circle	4.5		Sep-14	0.8	33	Ellipse	2.1/1.3	280	Jan-15	1.5
10	Circle	4.8		Sep-14	0.9	34	Ellipse	3.7		Dec-14	2
11	Circle	1.8		Sep-14	0.8	35	Ellipse	8/6		Sep-14	1
12	Circle	2.4		Sep-14	0.9	36	Ellipse	12/6		Nov-14	2.2
13	Circle	2.3		Sep-14	1	37	Circle	1.8		Nov-14	0.4
14	Circle	4.0		Sep-14	0.8	38	Ellipse	2.8/1.2	40	Mar-15	1
15	Circle	3.2		Sep-14	1.5	39	Circle	1.9		Mar-15	1.35
16	Circle	1.8		Sep-14	1.5	40	Circle	1.8		Nov-14	0.7
17	Ellipse	4.6/3.8	290	Sep-14	1.3	41	Circle	1.7		Nov-14	0.7
18	Circle	2.1		Sep-14	0.75	42	Circle	2.4		Nov-14	1.1
19	Ellipse	2.4/2	85	Sep-14	0.7	43	Ellipse	1.3/0.5	0	Nov-14	0.7
20	Ellipse	2.2/1.9	45	Sep-14	0.38	44	Ellipse	1.2/0.8	10	Nov-14	2
21	Ellipse	2/1.2	115	Sep-14	1.5	45	Circle	1.1/0.5	10	Nov-14	0.2
22	Circle	1.6		Sep-14	1.6	46	Circle	1.5		Nov-14	0.5
23	Ellipse	9.5/7.0	280	Sep-14	2	47	Circle	8.5		Nov-14	1.4
24	Ellipse	13/7	7	Sep-14	2	48	Circle	2.1		Oct-14	0.8
						49	Circle	2		Nov-16	0.9



233
 234 **Figure 4.** Sinkhole images in the research area: (a) and (c) ©Google Earth image showing the study site on October 28, 2014
 235 and December 5, 2015; (b) Aerial photograph provided by the authors' senseFly mapping drone on September 30, 2015; (d),
 236 (e), and (f) Sinkhole camera photos
 237

238 **4.2 Soil layers**

239 The thicknesses and structures of the soil layers in the study area were ~~obtained according to the~~
 240 ~~results of the~~ drilling, micro-tremors, and electrical resistivity imaging (ERI).

241 **4.2.1 Quaternary soil thicknesses**

242 The drilling profiles showed that the thicknesses of the ~~quaternary~~ soil layers in the collapsed

243 intensive area ranged between 9 and 14.2 m in Fig. 7. In order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of
244 the Quaternary soil thicknesses in the study area, a contour map of the buried depths of the ground bedrock
245 was obtained by utilizing a micro-motion inversion method in Fig. 5b. In the southwestern area of the site,
246 the bedrock was determined to be between 12 and 15 m in depth. In the other areas of the site, the
247 thicknesses of the soil layers averaged approximately 10 m. The majority of the collapses had occurred in
248 the areas where the depths of bedrock had varied greatly.

249 4.2.2 Quaternary soil structure

250 The borehole dates had revealed that the structures of the soil layers changed greatly, as detailed in
251 Fig. 7. As determined from the drilling profiles, from the bottom to the top in the figure, the stratigraphy of
252 the area was characterized by the following: (1) Paleozoic carboniferous Shitengzi formations (C₁s,
253 limestone); (2) Quaternary alluvial layers (Qal, sand) or residual soil layers (Qel, clay); and (3) Planting
254 soil layers (Qpd). The two obtained ERI profiles in Fig. 6b and 6e revealed a high resistivity zone in the
255 southern surface of the study area. In addition, when combined with the results of this study's field
256 investigations, it was confirmed that there was a high resistance zone in Quaternary alluvial layers (Qal,
257 sand). There was also a low resistivity zone in Fig. 6b and 6e identified on the northern surface of the
258 study area, which represented the Quaternary residual soil layers (Qel, clay) distribution area.

259 4.3 Karst features

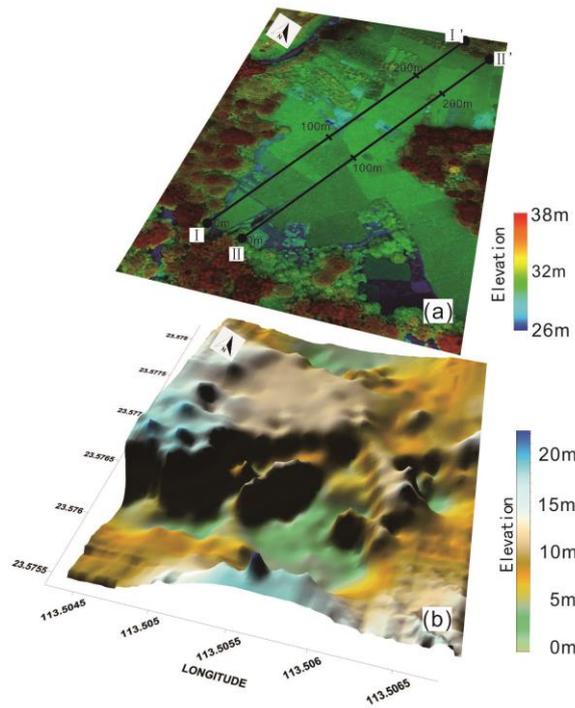
260 Karst caves were discovered in four out of a total of 6 boreholes, and were considered to be the most
261 direct evidence of karst activities in the study area. In addition, other karst caves and fissures around the
262 boreholes were discovered using geological borehole radar. It was found that, based on the transmission
263 time imaging of the cross-hole radar, a karst cave with an elevation of between 3 and 9 m existed between
264 drilling boreholes ZK1 and ZK2. Also, between drilling boreholes ZK5 and ZK6, the radar signal
265 low-speed zones represented water-filled karst caves and fissures in Fig. 7. Furthermore, the results of the

266 single-hole radar measurements showed that there were linear anomalies located around boreholes ZK1,
267 ZK5 and ZK6, indicating the existence of karst cracks in those areas.

268 As indicated in L1, L2 and L3 of Fig. 6, three low-resistivity anomaly zones revealed fault zone
269 structures in the overburden karst area sites, as identified in the ERI and EH4 profiles. The micro-tremor
270 detection data showed that the bedrock surfaces fluctuated greatly in the southwestern section of the study
271 area in Fig. 5. These findings were found to be consistent with the abnormal positions revealed in the ERI
272 and EH4 profiles. Furthermore, these results had indicated the specific locations and morphology of the
273 karst fracture zones.

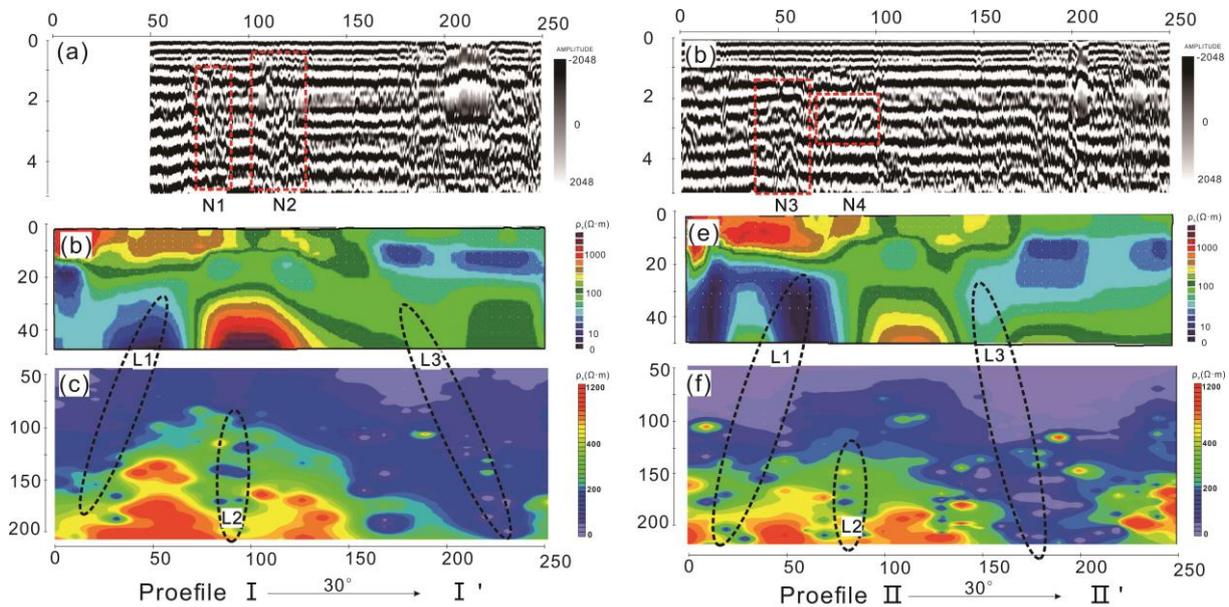
274 In the present investigation, no soil caves were found in the survey line by surface-based GPR in Figs.
275 6a and 6d, which was consistent with the fact that no collapses had occurred in the survey area. The
276 disturbed and loose areas in the Quaternary overburden were delineated by surface-based GPR at a
277 position of 70 to 120 m in profile I - I ' and at 40 to 100 m in profile II - II ', excluding the disturbance
278 data.

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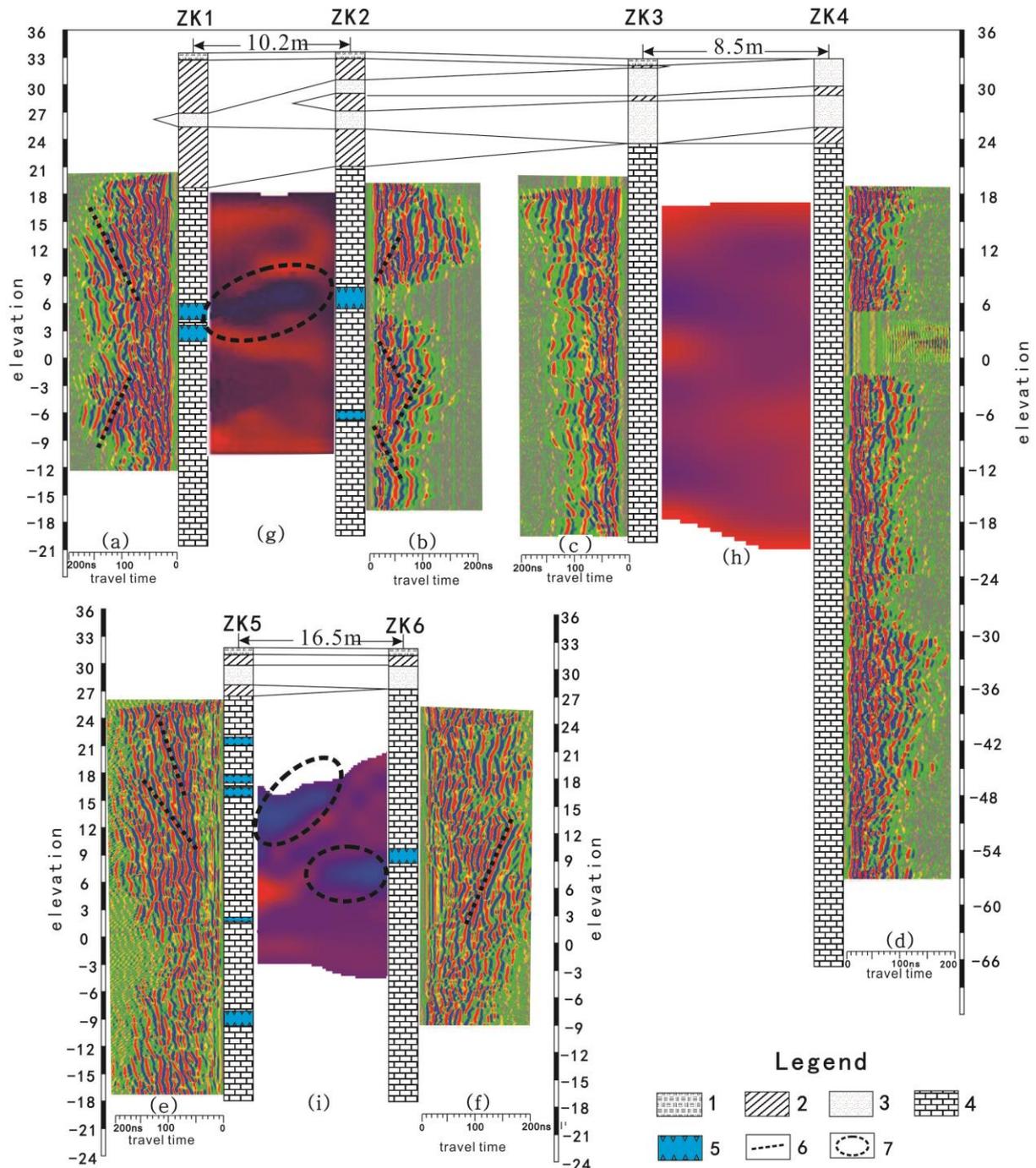
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Figure 5. Geomorphological map and bedrock elevation map: (a) geomorphological map including surface elevation from the authors' senseFly mapping drone; (b) Bedrock elevation map was obtained by utilizing a micro-motion inversion method. I - I', II - II': Geophysical profile line



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Figure 6. Geophysical interpretations of profiles: (a) Interpreted GPR section of profile I - I'; (b) Interpreted ERI section of profile I - I'; (c) Interpreted NSAMT section of profile I - I'; (d) Interpreted GPR section of profile II - II'; (e) Interpreted ERI section of profile II - II'; (f) Interpreted NSAMT section of profile II - II'; L1, L2, and L3 revealing the low-resistivity anomaly zones; N1 to N4 refer to the disturbed and loose zones, respectively

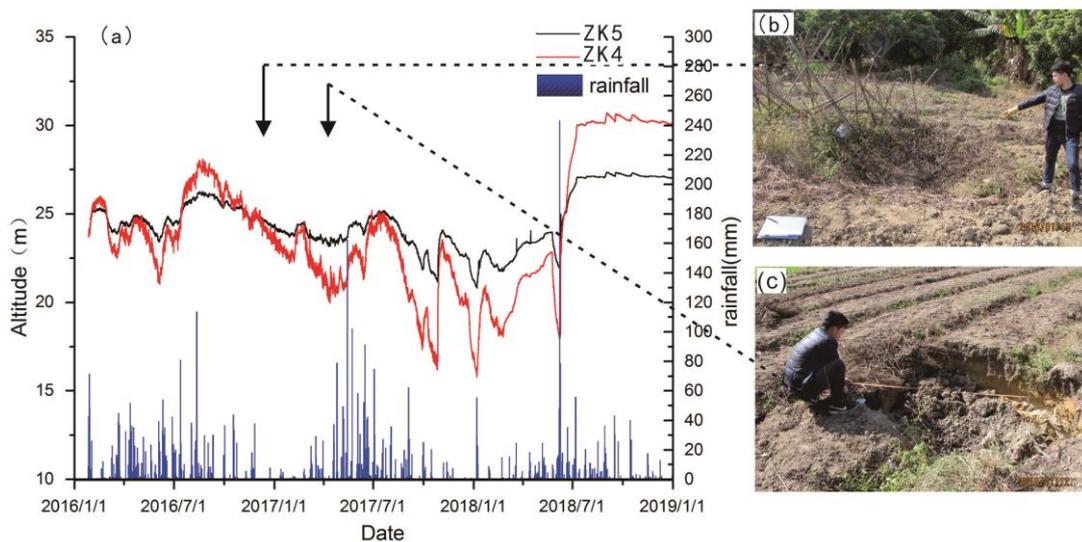


292 **Figure 7.** Borehole histogram and borehole radar images. (a) to (f) show the single-hole radar reflection images in which
 293 ZK1 to ZK6 show the borehole histogram; (g) to (i) are the cross-hole radar transillumination images: 1. Planting soil layers;
 294 2. Quaternary residual soil layers (clay); 3. Quaternary alluvial soil layers (sand); 4. Paleozoic Carboniferous limestone; 5.
 295 Karst cave; 6. Karst fissures; 7. Low-speed zones representing the water filled areas
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 297

298 4.4 Changes in groundwater levels

299 In accordance with the information obtained from the local residents and staff, the daily water output
 300 of a waterworks located 800 m east of the study area was approximately 1,200 to 6,000 m³. The change of
 301 water output was related to the water consumption of the residents. the water levels of the local wells had

302 dropped by about 7 m in early 2015 when a large scale karst collapse had occurred in the study area. Also,
 303 on the basis of the hydrodynamic monitoring data, it was confirmed that there was a relationship between
 304 groundwater level changes and the aforementioned collapse in the study area, as shown in Fig. 8. In
 305 addition, the water table in the study area had experienced an approximate 8 m drop during the period
 306 ranging from October of 2016 to December of 2017. It had been recorded that during this same period, two
 307 new cover-collapse sinkholes had formed. However, since August of 2018, the groundwater levels have
 308 recovered, and no further karst collapses have occurred in the study area.



309 **Figure 8.** Hydrodynamic monitoring data and cover-collapse sinkholes: (A) Hydrodynamic monitoring data of drilling
 310 borehole ZK5 and drilling borehole ZK4; (B) Image of the cover-collapse sinkhole ID 48; (C) Image of the cover-collapse
 312 sinkhole ID 49

313
 314 **4.5 Ground deformations**

315 It was determined in this study that large-sized ground deformations did not exist in the study area, as
 316 evidenced by the combined results of the three examined RADARSAT-2 Ultra Fine images taken on
 317 November 27th of 2015, January 14th of 2016, and March 2nd of 2016. The InSAR ground deformation data
 318 indicated a temporary steady-state in the study area following the occurrences of large-scale sinkhole
 319 geological hazards.

320 **5. Discussion**

321  In accordance with surveys in China, the analysis processes for cover-collapse sinkhole conditions
322 should involve three main steps, with each step built upon the previous one, as follows:

323 **5.1 Geomorphic analysis**

324 This study illustrated that geomorphic mapping which utilizes historical aerial photographs and
325 unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) images may be essential for investigations of cover-collapse sinkholes.
326 The UAV images were found to have advantages over the satellite images, due to the fact that they had
327 captured aerial images from certain flying heights with flexible flying missions and time frames. However,
328 the effectiveness of the aforementioned approach may be quite limited in areas where the geomorphic
329 expressions of sinkholes have been obliterated by natural processes or anthropogenic fill. Therefore, on
330 this basis, thorough reconnaissance of the ground would be required to locate sinkholes not identifiable on
331 aerial photographs due to high vegetation cover. It was also determined that information from local
332 residents in the area was conducive to ascertaining the precise spatial distributions of the complex sinkhole
333 clusters, especially concealed sinkholes which may be masked by anthropic landforms. One of the
334 meaningful aspects of this case study was that the geomorphic model produced by combining data from
335 aerial photographs and field surveys could potentially constitute a basis for accurately designing future site
336 investigations and interpreting the results, such as implementing geophysical profiles and borehole data.

337 **5.2 Geological analysis**

338 Due to the complex and ~~sometimes chaotic underlying~~ geology observed in mantle karst areas,
339 investigations which combine several methods are generally the only way to achieve satisfactory
340 geological models for such areas.

341 Borehole drilling ~~processes~~ are performed in mantle karst regions in order to geotechnically
342 characterize the ~~stratigraphic information~~ and calibrate and validate the geophysical detection results.

343 However, drilling activities are expensive and time-consuming techniques, and the limited drill footage
344 may potentially have a high degree of uncertainty for the complex underlying geology in karst areas.

345 However, the punctual information derived from limited numbers of boreholes could be extended
346 laterally using borehole geophysical investigations, such as single-hole radar and cross-hole radar. In this
347 way, other karst caves and fissures ~~around the borehole clouds~~ may be discovered ~~using geological~~
348 ~~borehole radar techniques.~~

349 In the present study, based on the limited borehole data, micro-tremor explorations were used to
350 estimate the sediment thicknesses, thereby making it possible to reconstruct the bedrock morphology
351 beneath the entire study area. The non-disturbed areas were represented by the general horizontal bedding
352 of the Quaternary deposits. Therefore, any local thinning or thickening of the Quaternary deposits observed
353 using the mirco-tremor Nakamura technique **were believed to indicate the presence of serial sediment**
354 **within active karst areas.**

355 In addition, the ERI and NSAMT profiles had revealed imaging shallow fault zone structures at the
356 overburden karst area sites. The NSAMT sections were found to have poor measurement effects in the
357 range of 0 to 50 m, and good exploration ~~effects~~ in the range of 50 to 200 m. Meanwhile, the ERI sections
358 had satisfactorily imaged the general geometry of the karst structures in the range ~~of~~ 0 to 50 m. The
359 subsurface cavities and deformation structure clouds were detectable with the GPR, but only up to a
360 limited depth range of 2 to 5 m.

361 In the present study, the aforementioned techniques were examined in order to determine the most
362 advantageous synergistic approach in the study area. ~~It was expected that the limitations observed in each~~
363 ~~examined method would be balanced out by the advantages observed in the other methods.~~

364 **5.3 Dynamic monitoring**

365 In order to understand the causes of cover-collapse sinkholes, and to assess and predict the kinematics
366 of the subsidence phenomena, it is generally considered that monitoring methods are necessary. Since karst
367 cover-collapse sinkholes are known to be caused by declines in groundwater levels, a sound knowledge of
368 the short- and long-term dynamics of the ~~effected~~ hydrogeological systems ~~are~~ essential for sinkhole
369 hazard assessments. Hydrodynamic monitoring methods focus on the potential relationships between
370 hydrological changes and the development of cover-collapse sinkholes. The interpretations of the
371 groundwater level monitoring data allow the hydrogeological behaviors of the groundwater to be
372 accurately reconstructed. As a result, the kinematics of the subsidence phenomena can be assessed. In
373 addition, the accurate mapping of ground displacements may serve to identify the locations of future
374 cover-collapse sinkholes and guide future intensive field investigations. Therefore, it was found in this
375 study that monitoring of ground anomalous vertical movements by Interferometric Synthetic Aperture
376 Radar (InSAR) analysis could be an effective approach.

377 **6. Conclusions**

378 (1) In mantle karst regions, cover-collapse sinkholes are considered to be major geohazards due to the
379 large and increasing impacts of sinkhole damages. In this study, based on an appropriate methodological
380 framework, it was found that sinkhole condition analyses were conducive to human security and land-use
381 planning in sinkhole-prone areas.

382 (2) The multi-disciplinary approach adopted in this study was determined to be the most effective
383 method for identifying and understanding cover-collapse sinkhole phenomena in a complex geological
384 frameworks, such as southeastern China's Bumei Village in the presented case study. The present study's
385 goal was to contribute to deepening the understanding the genesis and early-stage evolution of a sinkholes



386 by utilizing geological, geomorphological, and hydrodynamic integrated methodologies. Special focus was
387 paid to the contributions of the various examined methods to overcome the limitations of the other
388 methods.

389 In this case study, a mapping procedure was introduced which combined data from aerial photographs
390 and intensive field investigations. The results clearly indicated the characterization of the cover-collapse
391 sinkholes in the study area. In addition, data interpretations from borehole drilling activities and different
392 geophysical approaches were performed in order to reconstruct the Quaternary deposit features, rock head
393 morphology, and karst features. These examples also indicated why multi-disciplinary and complementary
394 data acquisition approaches were necessary in order to ensure accurate interpretations in mantled karst
395 settings. For this reason, due to the results obtained in this study, the adopted methodological approach
396 could successfully be extended to other areas characterized by similar geological and hydrogeological
397 characteristics.

398 (3) In the study village area, the integration of borehole, geophysical, and hydrogeological data
399 suggested that aquifer pumping had triggered the loss of hydrostatic support and accelerated the
400 washing-out processes. As a result, cover sagging and suffosion sinkholes had been generated in the
401 mantled karst region. Although the groundwater levels had been restored at the time of this study, the
402 sinkholes had the potential to again impact the local residents. Therefore, efforts to investigate and monitor
403 the sinkhole development processes in the region will be required to continue into the immediate future.

404

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