

1 **Regional-scale landslide risk assessment in Central-Asia**

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8 **Abstract.**

9 Landslides are widespread phenomenon that occur in any terrestrial area with slopes, causing massive property damage and,
10 in the worst-case scenario, human losses. This propension to suffer losses is particularly high for developing countries due to
11 their urban development, population growth and drastic land use changes. Social and economic consequences of landslides
12 can be reduced through detailed planning and management strategies, which can be aided by risk analysis. In this study, we
13 performed a detailed quantitative risk analysis for landslides in the whole Central-Asia (4,000,000 km²). Landslide-induced
14 risk was computed in terms of exposed population and expected economic losses to buildings and linear infrastructures
15 (roads and railways) adopting a 200 m spatial resolution. The purpose of our study is to produce the first regional-scale
16 landslide risk assessment for Central-Asia in order to inform regional-scale risk mitigation strategies and it represents an
17 advance step in the landslide risk analysis for extremely broad areas.

18

19 **1 Introduction**

20 Landslides are widespread phenomena that occur in any terrestrial area with slopes and cause huge damages to properties
21 and in the worst case, they are responsible of human losses (Petley 2012). Landslide events can be triggered by many
22 different factors, the main causes recognized by the geoscience community are attributable to tectonic, climatic (e.g. intense
23 rainfall) and human (e.g. construction, mining) activities (Petley et al. 2007; Huang et al. 2012; Froude and Petley 2018;
24 Segoni et al. 2018; Turner 2018). However, the increasing occurrence of extreme events and their effects related to climate
25 change certainly represent a further factor in the propensity of slopes to instability (Gariano and Guzzetti 2016; Haque et al.
26 2019). Every year, significant loss of lives and economic damages are caused by landslides over the whole globe; according
27 to Haque et al. (2019) landslides should be ranked as the 4th biggest killer globally among natural disasters since yearly they
28 cause more than 4000 direct life losses and over 7800 indirect (due to landslides triggered by other natural hazards).
29 Similarly, the urban development in risk-prone locations, land use changes, environmental degradation and weak planning
30 strategies are responsible of the severe economic losses due to landslides.

31 Therefore, social and economic consequences of landslides can be reduced by means of detailed planning and management
32 strategies, which can be facilitated by risk analysis in order to make rational decisions on the allocation of funds to plan
33 mitigation measures (Dai et al. 2002).

34 Risk is defined as the measure of the probability and severity of an adverse effect to life, health, property or the environment,
35 while risk analysis is the use of available information to estimate the risk to exposed elements from hazards (Fell et al.
36 2005). According to the existing literature, risk analysis can be performed in two different ways: qualitatively or
37 quantitatively. Qualitative analysis report risk using word form, descriptive or numeric rating scales (e.g low, moderate and
38 high) to describe the magnitude of potential consequences and the likelihood that those consequences will occur (Abella
39 and Van Westen 2007; Wang et al. 2013). Contrarily, quantitative risk analysis is based on numerical values of the
40 probability, vulnerability and consequences, and resulting in a numerical value of the risk applying the equation proposed by
41 Varnes and IAEG Commission on Landslides (1984): $R(I) = H \times V(I) \times E$, where R is landslide risk, H is the landslide
42 hazard, V is the vulnerability of the exposed elements, I is the intensity of landslide and E the value of elements at risk. In
43 accordance with Corominas et al. (2014), quantitative risk analysis (QRA) allows risk to be quantified in an objective and
44 reproducible manner comparable from one location to another. The general framework of QRA includes different steps:
45 hazard identification and assessment, location of elements at risk and their relative exposure, vulnerability assessment and
46 risk estimation (Dai et al. 2002; Fell et al. 2008; Corominas et al. 2014).

47 Landslide hazard assessment aims to identify which areas are most prone to trigger landslides with a certain intensity within
48 a given period of time (Guzzetti et al. 2005; van Westen et al. 2006; Corominas et al. 2014; Lari et al. 2014). Therefore,
49 landslide hazard evaluation is carried out by means of the analysis of three different probabilities: probability of landslide
50 size, temporal probability of landslides and spatial probability of landslides also known as landslide susceptibility. This latter
51 is the likelihood of a landslide occurring in an area on the basis of the local terrain conditions (Brabb 1984; Kanungo et al.
52 2012; Reichenbach et al. 2018) and it is the initial step towards landslide hazard, but it can be also considered as a final
53 product (Corominas et al. 2014). In particular, in the case of lack of available data related to the landslide frequency and size,
54 landslide hazard can be approximate to the landslide susceptibility (Caleca et al. 2022).

55 Vulnerability plays an important role to define the consequences of a landslide event and it refers to the degree of loss of a
56 given element at risk, vulnerability is generally expressed on a scale of 0 (no loss) to 1 (total loss) (Glade 2003; Uzielli et al.
57 2008; Li et al. 2010; Corominas et al. 2014; Peduto et al. 2017). Vulnerability assessment is related and performed on the
58 basis of landslide intensity and magnitude, nevertheless for risk analysis referred to very vast study areas and for which it is
59 very complicated to retrieve homogenous data to estimate it, vulnerability can be assumed equal to total damage (e.g total
60 loss) (Glade 2003).

61 Exposure analysis is an intermediate stage of risk assessment linking the susceptibility and hazard assessment with the value
62 of elements at risk (Pellicani et al. 2014). According to the literature, exposure is an attribute of considered elements at risk
63 that are potentially affected by a landslide (Lee and Jones 2004; Corominas et al. 2014). In the case of population, it is
64 generally expressed as the number of people exposed to hazardous phenomena, and further distinction can be made based on

65 demographics or socio-economic indicators (Maes et al. 2017). As for the physical exposed assets (e.g. buildings,
66 transportation and other infrastructures), exposure is quantified by the economic value of the elements (Schuster and
67 Fleming 1986; Schuster and Turner 1996). Exposure assessment methods strongly rely on the spatial scale and can be carried
68 out at global or regional-scale (Emberson et al. 2020; Pittore et al. 2020) with the necessary assumptions and simplifications
69 (e.g. spatial aggregation). However, exposure assessment can also be developed at the local-scale and for single assets
70 (Garcia et al. 2016). Commonly, one of the financial risk metrics is the reconstruction cost, i.e. the amount of money needed
71 to reconstruct the asset following the current regulations (Benson and Clay 2004). In recent times, an increasing number of
72 datasets (e.g. high-resolution population and land-use data, remote sensing products) supports the assessment of damage and
73 risks in a timely manner. However, characterizing exposed assets for the purpose of disaster risk assessment is still one of the
74 pushing challenges of current disaster risk reduction agenda (Kreibich et al. 2022).

75 In the last two decades, several studies dealing with QRA have been proposed, however it is worth nothing that the majority
76 of performed analysis have been limited to test sites or basin scale at most (Ko et al. 2003; Catani et al. 2005; Michael-Leiba
77 et al. 2005; Remondo et al. 2005, 2008; Zêzere et al. 2008; Jaiswal et al. 2011; Lu et al. 2014; Uzielli et al. 2015b;
78 Corominas et al. 2019; Jinsong Huang et al. 2020; Ferlisi et al. 2021; Caleca et al. 2022). Nevertheless, when the case study
79 is represented by very broad areas (e.g nations), QRA is very difficult to perform due to the difficulty to obtain homogeneous
80 and complete hazard and exposure datasets. Most studies rely on the definition of indicators that are an oversimplification of
81 the QRA framework, but very easy to understand and update (Abella and Van Westen 2007; Puissant et al. 2014; Guillard-
82 Gonçalves et al. 2015; de Almeida et al. 2016; Trigila et al. 2018; Bezerra et al. 2020; Pereira et al. 2020; Segoni and Caleca
83 2021).

84 The predominant factor contributing to the lack of studies focused on landslide risk at small-scale is primarily attributed to
85 challenges associated with accessing data pertaining to each element within the risk equation. However, recent
86 advancements in acquiring global digital data opened up the potential to bypass the drawbacks of landslide risk analysis and
87 generate preliminary analyses for broad geographic areas that were previously beyond reach.

88 Based upon these developments, the main objective of this research is to undertake an exhaustive landslide risk assessment
89 in quantitative terms, focusing on a geographically broad area encompassing the entirety of Central Asia (about 4,000,000
90 km²). Despite historical evidence of substantial damage caused by landslides within this region, it is notable that, to date, a
91 comprehensive landslide risk assessment at a regional scale remains conspicuously absent in the scientific literature.

92 The motivation for production is based on the expected increase in landslide-related risk in Central Asia due to several
93 factors, including but not limited to increased urbanization, population growth, and dramatic land use change. These
94 evolving dynamics will drive up the risk of landslide-related losses in the region.

95 This work is primarily concerned with evaluating and disseminating the first regional-scale landslide risk assessment for
96 Central Asia. This comprehensive assessment will facilitate approaches and decisions for mitigation strategies at the regional
97 scale. The focus of the proposed analysis is to quantify landslide-related risk in terms of two distinct facets: the population

98 exposed to landslides and the expected economic losses associated with damage to buildings and linear infrastructure,
99 particularly roads and railways.

100 Given the vast extent of the selected region as the subject of our study, we acknowledge that certain approximations should
101 inevitably be integrated within the framework of our analysis. In light of these approximations, there is certainly a degree of
102 overestimation. Indeed, we assume that in the event of a landslide, all elements located in a mapping unit would suffer
103 irreparable damage, and this concept boils down to considering their maximum degree of vulnerability.

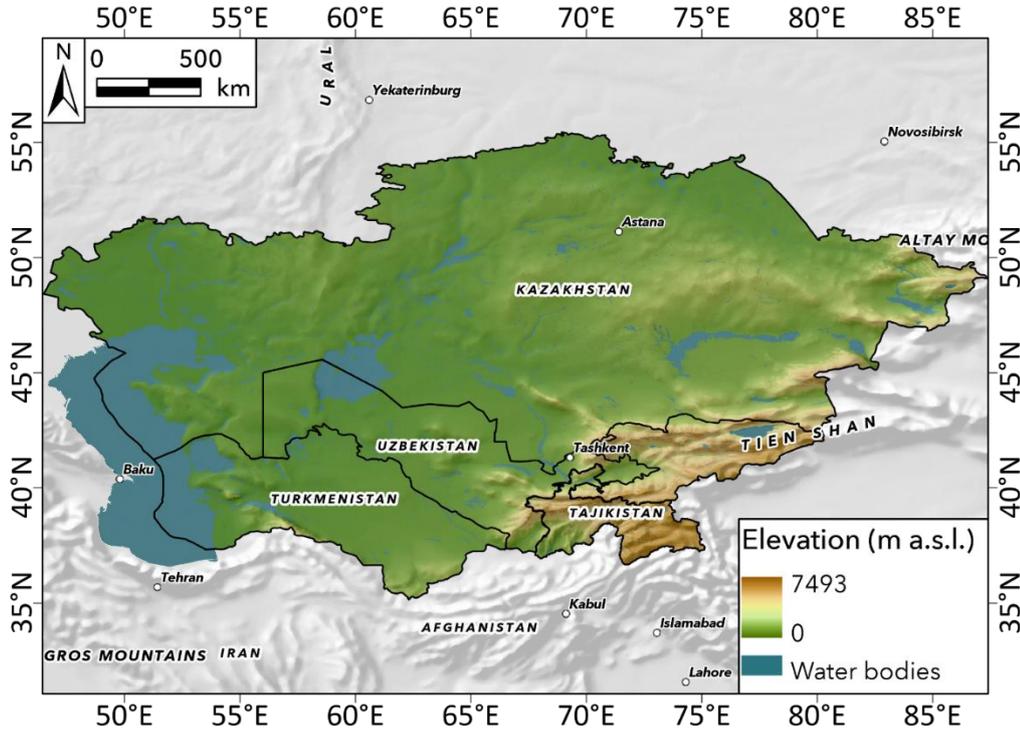
104 The ultimate goal of this research is to identify the areas in Central-Asia where the propensity for high losses from landslides
105 is most pronounced. The insights that this analysis can provide are intended to be a valuable resource in facilitating effective
106 mitigation measures and land-planning policies.

107 **2 Study area**

108 The region of Central-Asia is constituted by the following countries: Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan and
109 Kyrgyz Republic (Fig.1) and it covers an area of about 4,000,000 km². From a geographical point of view, Central-Asia
110 shows a varied geography including mountain chains, grassy steppes and vast deserts (Kyzyl Kum, Taklamakan). The
111 southern and eastern sectors of the region are mountains areas, mainly covered by the Tien Shan chain with summits higher
112 than 7000 m (Charreau et al. 2006; Strom 2010). The geological history of Tien Shan range is very complex and it is
113 characterized by a Palaeozoic subduction process (Burtman 1975; Windley et al. 1990) and after by a new Cenozoic phase,
114 consequent to a tectonic activity due to the convergence between India and Eurasia (Molnar and Tapponnier 1975; Davy and
115 Cobbold 1988; Havenith et al. 2006; Buslov et al. 2007). Tien Shan consists of E-W mountains ridges marked by several
116 fault systems, the most important of those is the Talass-Fergana Fault Zone, which divides the western Tien Shan from the
117 central one (Trifonov et al. 1992).

118 The most common landslide events in Central-Asia are rockslides/rock avalanches, rotational/translational slides and
119 mud/debris flows and they are mainly caused by earthquakes, floods, snowmelt and intense rainfall (Kalmetieva et al. 2009;
120 Behling et al. 2014; Golovko et al. 2015; Havenith et al. 2015; Saponaro et al. 2015; Strom and Abdrakhmatov 2017, 2018).
121 Landslides seismically triggered are very common and most of the large mapped ones were caused by high-magnitude
122 earthquakes, even prehistoric, associated with extreme climate events like intense rainfall or snowmelt (Havenith et al. 2003,
123 2015; Strom 2010; Strom and Abdrakhmatov 2018; Piroton et al. 2020). At the regional scale, Tajikistan and Kyrgyz
124 Republic are the countries most impacted by landslide due to their geological and geomorphological settings; about 50000
125 landslide have been mapped in Tajikistan (Thurman 2011), while Kyrgyz Republic has been affected by 5000 landslides.
126 Emberson et al. (2020) show that the population fraction exposed to landslides in Central Asia exceeds the 10% and 20% in
127 Tajikistan and Kyrgyz Republic respectively. However, other sectors that are not located in the above-mentioned countries
128 (e.g the Almaty region in Kazakhstan or the Tashkent one in Uzbekistan) are also affected by landslide phenomena, mainly

129 due to the increase of the anthropic pressure and activities, which certainly rise the number of elements at risk potentially
130 interested and therefore the level of exposure in the study area.



131
132 **Fig.1 Location and elevation of the study area.**

133 **3 Data and methods**

134 In this paper landslide risk was evaluated applying the well-known risk equation proposed by Varnes and IAEG commission
135 on landslide (1984), where risk (R) is defined as the multiplication of three parameters: hazard (H), vulnerability (V) and
136 exposure (E). Nevertheless, since the study area is characterized by a huge areal extension, some approximations within the
137 risk analysis were performed to fix the heterogeneity and the lack of data to assess the different landslide risk parameters,
138 specifically simplifications were applied into the landslide hazard and vulnerability assessment. The hazard component was
139 considered as the spatial probability occurrence of landslides (susceptibility) in the study area since it was impossible to
140 retrieve suitable information to evaluate the temporal and landslides size probabilities from the available databases. Besides,
141 vulnerability was set equal to 1, or rather the maximum possible degree of loss, due to the lack of data necessary to assess
142 separately the physical vulnerability of each exposed elements. Regarding exposure component, we employed a very-
143 recently and detailed database developing during the EU-Funded Strengthening Financial Resilience and Accelerating Risk
144 Reduction (SFRARR) program. The research program, implemented by World Bank and the Global Facility for Disaster
145 Reduction and Recovery (GFDRR) was implemented between 2020 and 2022 of assets exposed to flood, earthquake and

146 landslides for Central Asia. The exposure dataset (Scaini et al., submitted-A, Scaini et al., submitted-B) was produced at a
 147 resolution of 100 (population) and 500m (buildings) to support regional-scale risk assessment. However, for the purpose of
 148 landslide risk assessment, the spatial resolution of the buildings' layer should be increased to grasp the spatial distribution of
 149 exposed assets and avoid risk overestimation. Further details on how the layers were developed in the context of landslide
 150 risk assessment are provided in section 3.1 and 3.2. Landslide risk was computed by estimating the number of exposed
 151 population and the expected monetary losses to different types of buildings and transportation systems. The calculation was
 152 performed at 200 m spatial resolution discarding flat areas (slope lower than 5 degrees) where landslides are not expected as
 153 a geomorphological process. Risk is then expressed in monetary terms (i.e. United States Dollars, USD), as expected
 154 economic losses across the study area.

155

Input data	Risk parameter	Resolution	Reference
SRTM DEM	Grid analysis	90 m	Farr and Kobrick (2000); Farr et al. (2007)
Landslide susceptibility map	Hazard	70 m	Rosi et al. (2023)
Spatial distribution of population	Exposure	100 m	Scaini et al. (2023a)
Spatial distribution of residential buildings and relative reconstruction costs.	Exposure	500 m	Scaini et al. (2023a)
Spatial distribution of commercial buildings and relative reconstruction costs	Exposure	500 m	Scaini et al. (2023b)
Spatial distribution of transportation systems and relative reconstruction costs	Exposure	variable	Scaini et al. (2023b)

156 **Table 1. Input data.** The table shows a overview of input data sources used in the proposed analytic approach, categorized by their
 157 respective risk parameters, resolutions, and references. SRTM DEM stands for the products of Shuttle Radar Topography
 158 Mission; such product was employed to define the grid analysis on which the approach has been built. A landslide susceptibility
 159 available for the whole Central-Asia was acquired to define the hazard component. Whereas the exposure component was based

160 on the use of recent databases regarding spatial distribution and economic values of exposed elements. For the technical aspects of
161 these data, we refer the reader to the related references.

162 **3.1 Landslide hazard**

163 The hazard component of risk was considered the spatial probability of landslides occurrence; we are aware that this
164 procedure represents a simplification within the QRA framework. Nevertheless, according to Corominas et al. (2014)
165 landslide susceptibility can be considered as a final product, especially in small scales analyses or in studies where
166 information to estimate both temporal probability of occurrence and size one about landslides are insufficient (Caleca et al.
167 2022). Therefore, the hazard assessment in the present study relies on already published landslide susceptibility map of
168 Central-Asia (Rosi et al. 2023). The map was obtained applying a machine learning algorithm, the Random Forest
169 Treebagger (Breiman 2001; Breuninger 2005), which application in landslide susceptibility studies is well-consolidated
170 (Catani et al. 2013; Trigila et al. 2013; Youssef et al. 2016; Lagomarsino et al. 2017; Taalab et al. 2018; Kavzoglu et al.
171 2019; Merghadi et al. 2020). The landslide susceptibility map was obtained implementing the algorithm over the whole
172 study area, instead of processing each single country; 26 different predictors (e.g lithology, distance from faults, Peak
173 Ground Acceleration maps, maps related to precipitation) were employed in the model optimization and training. The
174 algorithm was set to work in classification mode identifying presence or absence of landslides (dependent variable) and then
175 for each pixel the probability to be classified as landslide was evaluated. The accuracy of model performance was evaluated
176 by means of the AUC (area under the receiver operator characteristic curve), which mean value was equal to 0.93, showing
177 an extremely excellent result for susceptibility modelling.

178 The original landslide susceptibility map, based on a 70 m spatial resolution, was upscaled to the selected resolution of this
179 work (200 m), the values of probability of landslide occurrence were averaged over each 200 m cell of the reference grid
180 used for risk analysis, providing a spatial hazard index ranging from 0 to 1.

181 It is worth noting that the input susceptibility map is not related to a specific type of landslide since the adopted landslides
182 inventories to train the model did not report the typology of the event, therefore the performed risk analysis does not refer to
183 a specific type of landslide phenomena as well.

184 **3.2 Exposure**

185 The exposure assessment proposed in this paper was carried out separately for the following elements at risk: buildings,
186 transportation systems and population. Concerning buildings and transportation systems, exposure was evaluated as their
187 reconstruction cost expressed in United States dollar (USD), while population exposure was expressed in number of lives.

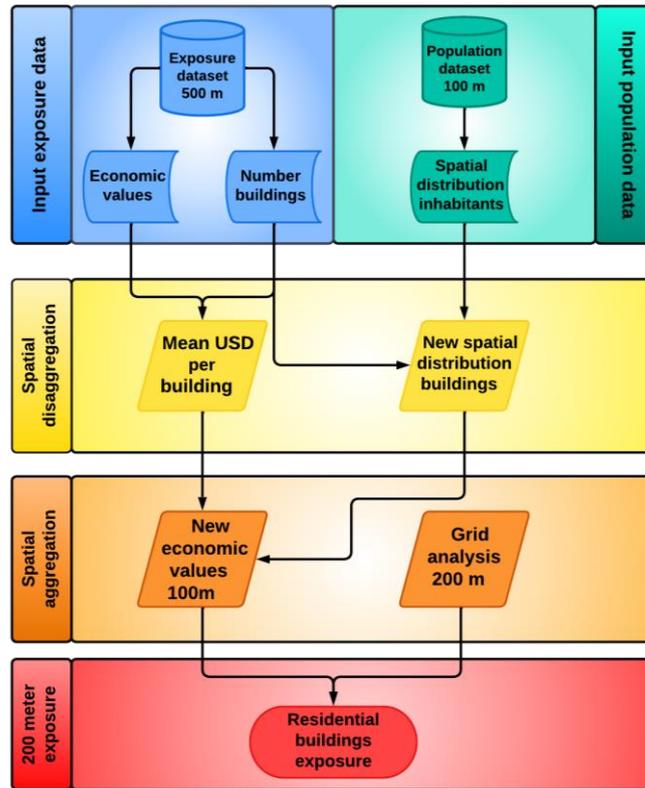
188 **3.2.1 Population exposure**

189 The population dataset was developed based on the most recent high-resolution global-scale dataset (Facebook, available at
190 <https://data.humdata.org/organization/facebook> at 20-m resolution) complemented with national census data collected for

191 each of the five Central Asian countries in cooperation with local representatives (Scaini et al., 2023a) The resulting
192 exposure layer provides the spatial distribution of population (including gender and age classes) over the whole study area at
193 a 100m resolution. The population exposure is represented here by the total number of inhabitants in each cell, without
194 gender and age distinction.

195 **3.2.2 Building exposure**

196 In the present study, two different categories of buildings were analysed within the exposure and risk analysis: residential
197 and commercial. Information about residential buildings were provided by a recent work performed on their exposure and
198 spatial distribution over the whole study area (Table 1). The regional-scale buildings exposure dataset was based on the
199 residential buildings exposure model developed by Pittore et al. (2020), which was refined using national-scale data (e.g.
200 national building census and reconstruction costs). The result is a new exposure dataset which comprises both residential and
201 non-residential buildings and their economic value on a constant-resolution grid of 500 meters. The resolution of the input
202 regional-scale dataset was increased to 200m by means of a spatial analysis procedure (Fig.2). First, for each 500-m cell a
203 mean economic value per building was defined, then the number of buildings was spatially distributed (spatial
204 disaggregation) employing as proxy the 100-m population grid (Table 1). Then, the reconstruction costs in each 100-m cell
205 have been obtained multiplying the mean value and the new spatial distribution of residential buildings. finally, the 100-m
206 resolution exposure value is aggregated by summing the values of each 100m cell to be comparable with the 200 m
207 landslides susceptibility grid (3.1) used for the analysis. Increasing the resolution of exposure data from 500 to 200m allows
208 a better spatial representation of exposure and prevents risk overestimation when dealing with local phenomena such as
209 landslides.



210

211 **Fig.2 Flowchart of the disaggregation procedure which distributes the buildings exposed value on the analysis grid at 200-m**
 212 **resolution.**

213

214 Exposure of commercial buildings was estimated by means of the commercial building exposure dataset at a 500 m spatial
 215 resolution (Table 1). The layer, developed by Scaini et al. (2023b) distinguishes between two commercial buildings
 216 categories: wholesale and services (associated to large buildings) and retail (associated to medium/small business). Besides,
 217 for each typology the number of structures and their relative reconstruction costs were defined. Differently from residential
 218 buildings, commercial buildings were not distributed on a 100-m grid using population as a proxy. This is because
 219 commercial buildings can be located both in populated and non-populated areas. The economic value of commercial
 220 buildings was equally distributed from the original (500 m) to the target (200m) spatial resolution.

221 3.2.3 Transportation systems exposure

222 The input transportation exposure dataset was developed on the basis Open Street Map data and country-based information
 223 on the length, type and reconstruction cost of each road/railway type Scaini et al. (2023b). Here, for the purpose of landslide
 224 risk assessment, we consider two main classes of transportation systems: roads and railways. Specifically, the exposure layer
 225 provided the total length and reconstruction costs of different sub-classes of roads (primary, secondary, tertiary, motorway

226 and trunk) and railways (conventional and high-speed). The total reconstruction cost is defined for each linear infrastructure
227 sub-type by multiplying its length and reconstruction cost (USD/m) within each cell.

228 3.3 Landslide risk

229 Landslide risk has been computed through a quantitative assessment by assessing the probability of expected losses for the
230 selected elements at risk. The computation is performed on a 200-m grid and only for cells where the landslide susceptibility
231 is not null. Probability is then classified using a continuous scale ranging from the minimum to the maximum value of losses.
232 In particular, losses are intended here as the sum of the value of each asset at stake, assuming a vulnerability of 1 (Coriminas
233 et al.2014). Equally to exposure assessment, risk analysis was performed separately for the selected exposed elements,
234 producing several specific risk datasets and these results were then combined into a map of total risk. The total risk map was
235 obtained combining exposure in terms of monetary value. For this reason, the assessment of risk for population was not
236 included in this computation and it was analysed separately. In this work four different specific risk have been analysed:
237 population risk; buildings risk; roads risk and railways risk.

238 Population risk has been computed:

$$239 \quad R_p = H \times P \quad \text{eq.1}$$

240 where R_p is the number of lives potentially at risk, H is hazard and P is the mean number of inhabitants within each cell of
241 the grid analysis.

242

243 Buildings risk has been computed:

$$244 \quad R_b = H \times (E_r + E_c) \quad \text{eq.2}$$

245 where R_b is the expected loss to buildings, H is hazard, E_r and E_c are the exposure of residential and commercial buildings
246 respectively.

247 Roads risk has been computed:

$$248 \quad R_{ro} = H \times (E_p + E_s + E_t + E_m + E_{tr}) \quad \text{eq.3}$$

249 where R_{ro} is the expected loss to roads, H is hazard, E_p , E_s , E_t , E_m and E_{tr} are the exposure of primary roads, secondary roads,
250 tertiary roads, motorways and trunks respectively.

251 Railways risk has been computed:

$$252 \quad R_{ra} = H \times (E_{co} + E_h) \quad \text{eq.4}$$

253 where R_{ra} is the expected loss to railways, H is hazard, E_{co} and E_h are the exposure of conventional and high-speed railways
254 respectively.

255 Total risk is the sum of the specific risks of buildings, roads and railways:

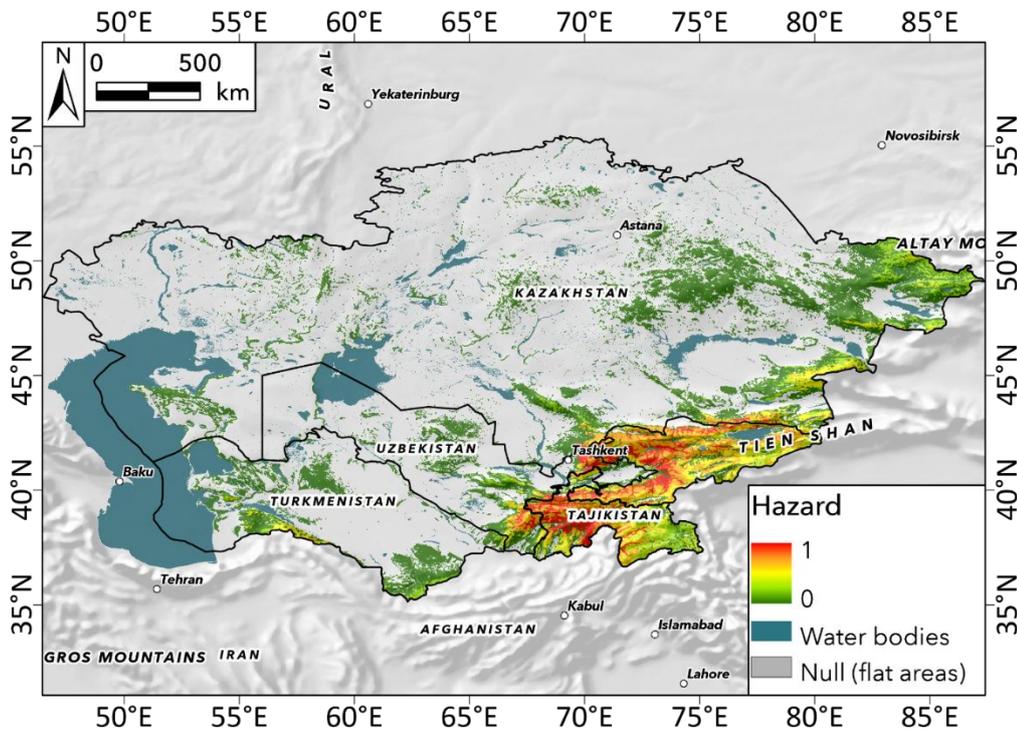
$$256 \quad R_{tot} = R_b + R_{ro} + R_{ra} \quad \text{eq.5}$$

257

258 **4 Results and discussion**

259 **4.1 Landslide hazard**

260 The landslide hazard map of Central-Asia is showed in Figure 3, since most of the study area is constituted by flat areas the
261 majority of hazard values lies in an interval that can be classified as low-moderate probability occurrence according to
262 literature overview. In detail, the mean hazard value is 0.37 and about 24% of the analysed area presents hazard values less
263 or equal than 0.25 and they are mostly located in the northern and western part of Central-Asia. However, there are sectors of
264 the case study reporting very high values of landslide hazard: the 0.65% of whole Central-Asia showed hazard values greater
265 or equal than 0.75, that can be classified as very-high probability of occurrence of landslide. The 74% of these cells reported
266 the maximum value of hazard (1) and most of them are located within the country of Tajikistan and Kyrgyz Republic, that
267 are mostly covered by the Tien Shan range, which due to its geological and geomorphological settings is very prone to
268 trigger landslide phenomena. Nevertheless, even several cells of Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan exactly located in the Tashkent
269 and Almaty regions, present hazard values close or equal to 1.



270

271 **Fig.3 Landslide hazard map of Central-Asia. Note that flat areas are excluded because they are places not prone to trigger**
272 **landslides.**

273 4.2 Exposure

274 The population exposed to landslides is reported in Fig.4A, which shows the total number of inhabitants per cell. Exposed
275 population ranges from 0 to a maximum of 433.97 inhabitants, which is located in the city of Ghafurov, Sughd region in
276 Tajikistan. All population exposed to possible landslide events is located within 1.1% of the cells, with a mean density of 5.7
277 inhabitants per cell. All the other areas are not inhabited. This is because highly populated areas are not included in the
278 exposure layer since they are sited in floodplains, which are filtered off from the computation because they are not prone to
279 landslides.

280 Fig.4B shows the spatial distribution of buildings exposure over Central-Asia, obtained by combining the total
281 reconstruction cost of residential and commercial buildings. The total buildings exposure ranges from 0 to 1.39 million USD
282 per cell (corresponding to approximately 35 million USD /Km²), the highest value being located in the city of Almaty
283 (Kazakhstan), at the foot of the Tien-Shan chain. The 0.81% of the analysed area reports a buildings exposure greater than 0,
284 the mean value is approximately 45,000.00 USD per cell and the sum is about 517 million USD.

285 Note that flat areas, where buildings exposure is higher, were excluded from the risk analysis. The total exposed value of
286 commercial buildings in landslides-prone areas is of 280 million USD, which is greater than residential one. Only the 0.10%
287 of landslide-prone cells have a not-null commercial exposure and the mean exposed value is about 39,000.00 USD.

288 The total exposure of roads in Central-Asia (Fig. 4C) has been computed summing the exposure of the different road types
289 (primary, secondary, tertiary, motorway and trunk. The total reconstruction cost of roads exposed to landslide phenomena is
290 approximately 6.22 billion USD. The highest value of roads exposure belongs to a cell of the Jayl District (Chuy Region) in
291 the Kyrgyz Republic crossing by the EM-02 highway; the mean value is 110,240.00 USD per cell and about 0.40% of the
292 study area reports a value of exposure greater than 0.

293 The total reconstruction costs of different road classes exposed to landslides are reported in Table 2. It is worth noting that,
294 according to the spatial analysis, no motorway is directly affected by landslides phenomena and therefore the total motorway
295 exposed length is 0. Road reconstruction costs are proportional to the relevance of the road type (I.e. higher for trunk,
296 motorways and highways and lower for secondary and tertiary roads), but the total exposure of tertiary roads is nonetheless
297 higher than the one of primary and secondary roads because landslide-prone, mountainous areas are mostly covered by
298 tertiary roads.

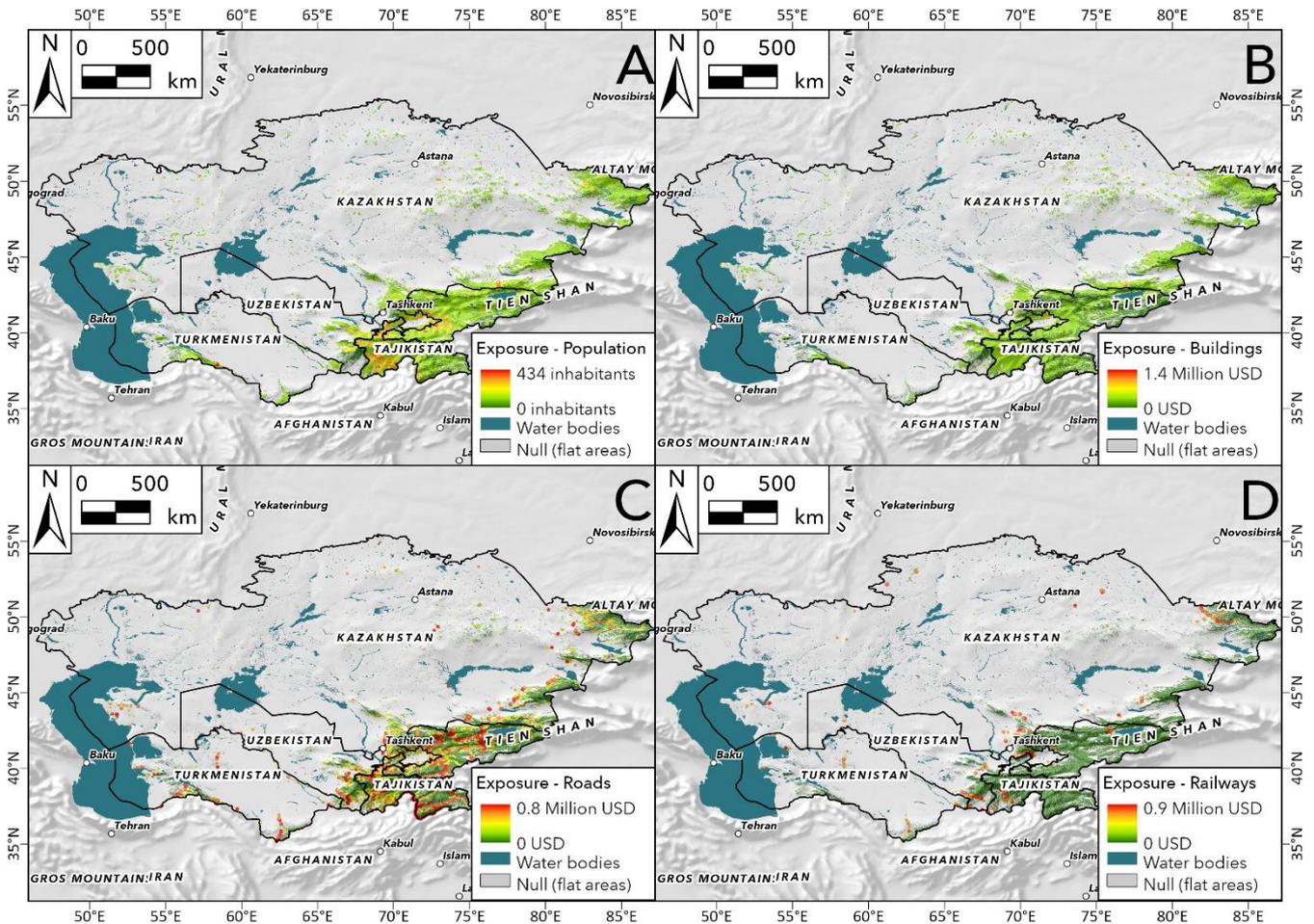
Typology	Exposure value	
Primary roads	Maximum	340 thousand USD
	Mean	129 thousand USD
	Sum	851 million USD
	Maximum	200 thousand

Secondary roads		USD
	Mean	76 thousand USD
	Sum	766 million USD
Tertiary roads	Maximum	96,140.00 USD
	Mean	36 thousand USD
	Sum	1 billion USD
Trunk	Maximum	800 thousand USD
	Mean	303 thousand USD
	Sum	3.6 billion USD

299 **Table 2. Total reconstruction cost of each considered road class exposed to landslides in Central Asia.**

300

301 The spatial distribution of railways exposure is reported in Fig.4D, equally to roads exposure the total railways exposure has
302 been obtained summing the one of conventional railways with the high-speed one. Railways exposure reaches a maximum
303 value of 920 thousand USD, located in a cell of the Pop District of the Namangan Region in Uzbekistan and it is related to a
304 segment of the high-speed railway connecting the city of Tashkent with Andijan. The mean value is 344,000.00 USD per cell
305 and only the 0.03% of the cells are covered by a railway segment, highlighting that most of these linear infrastructures are
306 located in areas excluded from our grid analysis since are flat zones. The total exposed value of railways is about 1.23 billion
307 USD. In detail, the 98% of the total railways exposure is due to the high-speed one; the mean value of exposure of high-
308 speed railways is 349,425.00 USD per cell and the maximum value is the same of the total exposure. Contrarily,
309 conventional railways show a maximum value of 518,850.00 USD and the mean one is about 193,000.00 USD per cell. The
310 obtained results showed that railways exposure is greater than the one of roads and buildings, which is justifiable by their
311 high construction cost.



312

313 **Fig.4 Exposure maps of involved elements at risk. Panel A: population exposure; Panel B: building exposure; Panel C: road**
 314 **exposure; Panel D: railway exposure.**

315 4.3 Landslide risk

316 Landslide risk analysis has been performed separately for each type of element at risk. Subsequently, the monetary value
 317 associated with different asset types was combined into a total risk map.

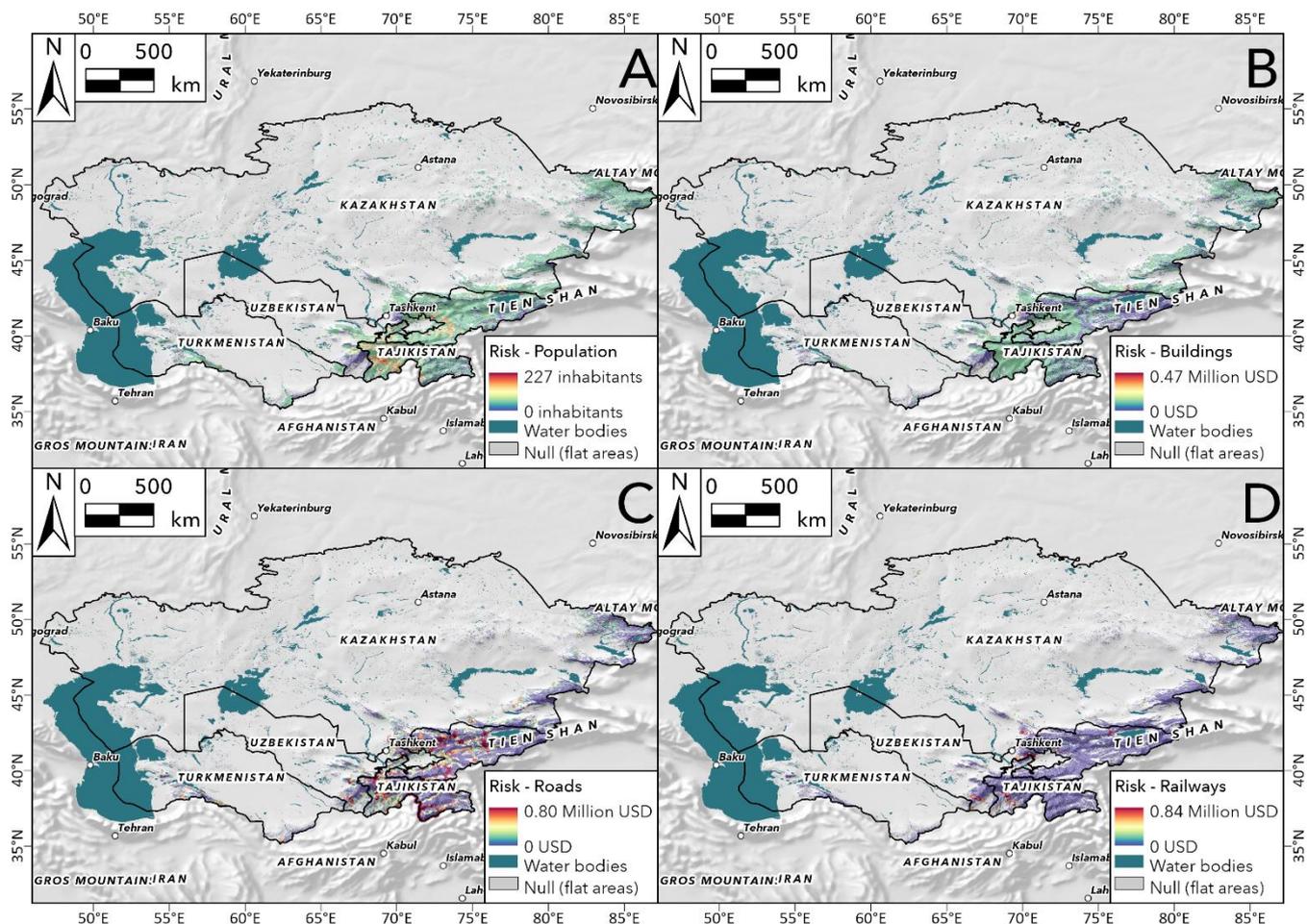
318 The specific risk of population is reported in Fig.5A and it ranges from 0 to 227 inhabitants. The maximum number of lives
 319 at risk is located in a cell of the city of Dushanbe in Tajikistan with a landslide hazard equal to 0.63 and a population
 320 exposure to 358.98 inhabitants, which corresponds to a density of 8974.5 inhabitants per km². The number of total lives at
 321 risk in Central-Asia is about 433,000 and the mean number is 3 inhabitants per cell. Equally to the specific risk of buildings,
 322 the population risk shows a very low mean number of lives at risk and it is surely related to the low percentage of cells
 323 (1.04% of grid analysis) where the number of lives at risk is greater than 0.

324 Fig. 5B shows the spatial distribution of landslide risk for buildings, which reaches a maximum value of 469,160.00 USD in
325 a cell of the city of Almaty in Kazakhstan. This cell reports a landslide hazard value of 0.46 and a buildings exposure
326 approximately to 1.02 million USD. The total risk associated with buildings in Central-Asia is about 186 million USD and
327 the mean value is 8430.00 USD per cell. This value is relatively low when compared to the total exposed value of buildings
328 in Central Asia. This is because the majority of buildings are located in areas where landslide hazard is very close or equal
329 to 0. In fact, only the 0.77% of landslide-prone cells contain buildings, while most buildings in Central Asia are located in
330 flat areas or in ones less prone to trigger landslides. However, specific landslide scenarios can still cause relevant losses at
331 sub-national scale and should be analysed in detail with specific methods.

332 Specific landslide risk of roads is reported in Fig.5C, ranging from about 799,000.00 USD located in a cell of the Ohangaron
333 District, region of Tashkent in Uzbekistan. This specific cell has a landslide hazard equal to 1 (very high probability of
334 landslides occurrence); therefore, risk is equal to exposure. In this cell, exposure is high due to the presence of a segment of
335 the A373 highway, connecting Osh (Kyrgyz Republic) and Tashkent (Uzbekistan) cities. The total landslides financial risk
336 associated with roads in Central-Asia is 3.02 billion USD and the mean value is about 58,000.00 USD per cell.

337 Regarding railways risk, its spatial distribution is showed in Fig.5D. Financial risk associated with railways ranges from 0 to
338 843,493.00 USD. Similarly, to roads risk the maximum value is located in the Ohangaron District, but in a different cell
339 showing the following parameters: landslide hazard equal to 0.92 and railways exposure to 916,840.00 USD represented by
340 the presence of a segment of high-speed railways. The obtained results report a mean value of 128,911.00 USD per cell and a
341 total risk equal to 382 million USD. In general, for all exposed assets are located in few cells in the considered spatial
342 domain. Besides, contrary to risk associated with building, the one for railways shows a high mean value considering that the
343 cells covered by a railway segment are only the 0.03% of the grid analysis.

344 Therefore, our outcomes reveal that roads and railways are the element at risk that can be subjected to major losses respect to
345 buildings, despite their minor covered area in the grid analysis. This is certainly due to the fact that railways and roads are
346 built in areas more prone to trigger landslides respect buildings, that are mostly located in zones with landslide hazard very
347 low or in flat areas.



348

349 **Fig.5** Landslide risk maps expressing the potential losses in terms of lives and economic damages for each involved element at risk.

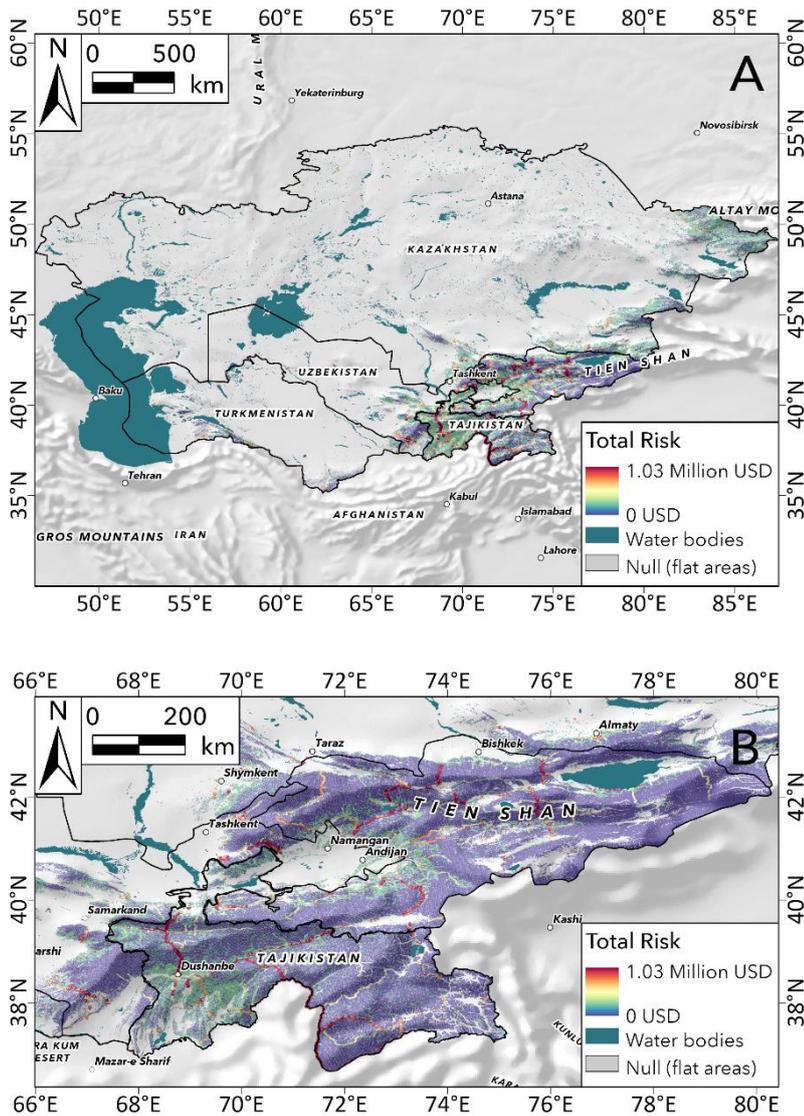
350 **Panel A:** population risk; **Panel B:** building risk; **Panel C:** road risk; **Panel D:** railways risk.

351

352 Finally, the total risk expressed by the sum of the specific risk of buildings, roads and railways is showed in Fig.6. The
 353 maximum one is about 1.03 million USD. The highest landslide risk value is located in the same cell reporting the highest
 354 landslide risk of roads (Tashkent region – Uzbekistan). This cell shows the following parameters: landslide hazard equal to
 355 1, building risk is 0, roads risk is about 799,000.00 USD and railways risk equal to 231,000.00 USD. The obtained results
 356 highlight that the total expected losses in Central-Asia are about 3.59 billion USD and a mean risk value of 23,401 USD per
 357 cell corresponding to 0.6 million USD/km²; while the percentage of grid analysis with a landslide risk greater than 0 is
 358 approximately 1.10%, which are mostly located along the Tien-Shan chain or in areas at its foot. Inspecting the first ten cell
 359 with the highest risk values, we discovered that they are mainly located in the Ohangaron District (Uzbekistan) and the mean
 360 landslide hazard of these is 0.93. Besides, an already highlighted trend has been shown: the presence of specific exposed
 361 assets (railways) plays a relevant role in concurring to the total landslide risk in the region. In detail, these cells reported a

362 mean railways risk about of 587,000.00 USD per cell, which is greater than respective of buildings and roads, which are
363 often equal to 0.

364



365

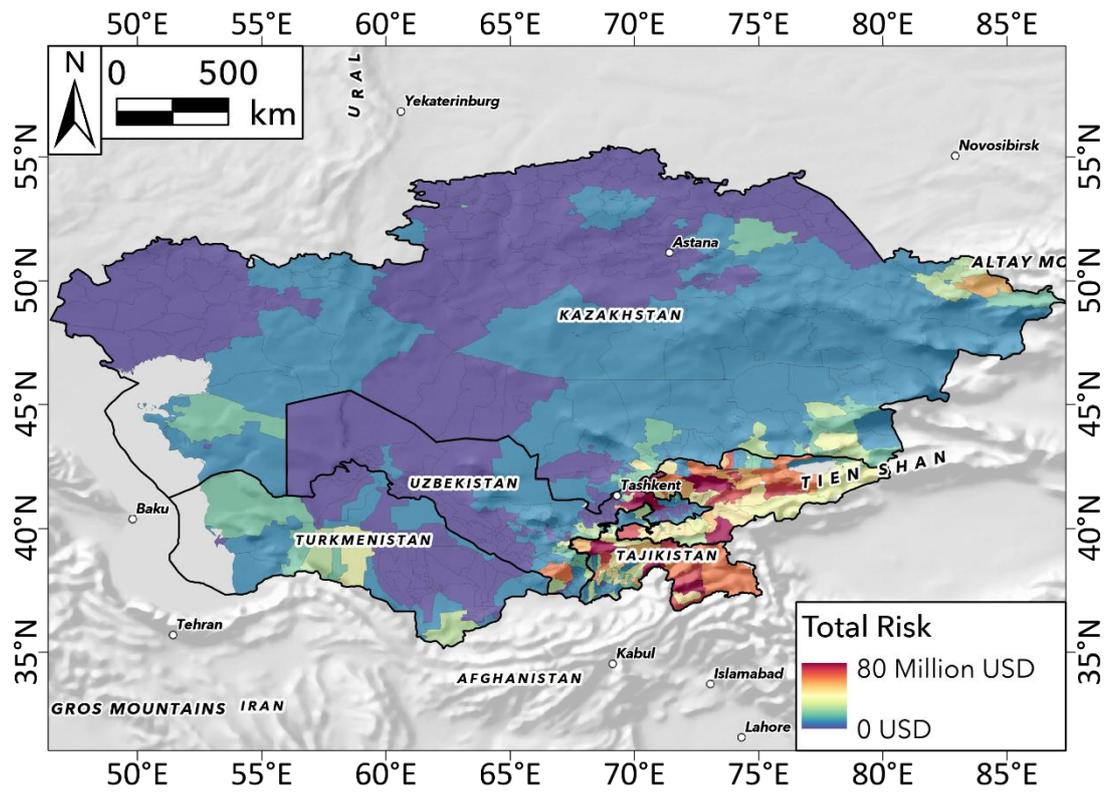
366 **Fig.6 Total landslide risk map for Central -Asia. Panel A shows the distribution of potential economic losses across the whole study**
367 **area. Panel B shows a detail of the above map over the area covered by Tajikistan and Kyrgyz Republic.**

368

369 Fig. 7 shows the total landslide risk in Central-Asia aggregated within each district. The findings reveal that the district with
370 the highest possible losses is the Ayni District in Tajikistan with a total value of about 80 million USD (Fig.8) and a
371 maximum one of 503,000.00 USD. The selected district is covered by the Tien-Shan chain and its landslide hazard values

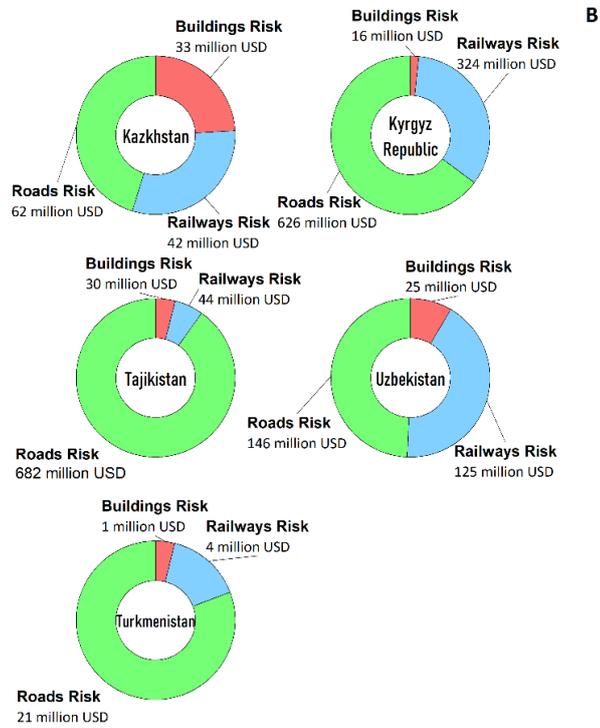
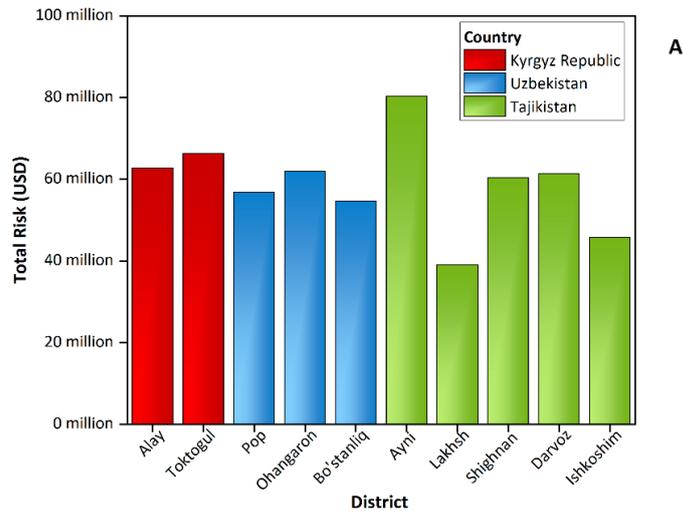
372 range from 0.37 to 1, with a mean value of 0.55, revealing that the area is very prone to trigger landslides and to suffer
373 possible damages to structures and to loss of lives. Besides, the aggregation of landslide risk values at district level reveals
374 that the majority of these administrative units with high-risk values are mainly located in Tajikistan and Kyrgyz Republic,
375 which are the countries most affected by landslides and damages related to them in Central-Asia. Nevertheless, even
376 districts of other countries show high values of risk, for instance the Ohangaron District located in the region of Tashkent in
377 Uzbekistan is among the first ten districts with the highest total landslide risk (Fig.8 A).

378 The obtained outcomes aggregated to the national-level further confirm our previous considerations about the landslide risk
379 distribution in Central-Asia and they show that landslide risk is mainly contributed by the one regarding roads, which ranges
380 from a minimum of 21 million USD in Turkmenistan to a maximum value of 682 million USD in Tajikistan (Fig.8 B). In
381 detail, the risk component related to roads represents the 50% of the total risk at least (exception for Kazakhstan). This fact is
382 mainly due to the covered area of these infrastructures within the risk grid analysis, which is greater than the one related to
383 the other analysed elements at risk. Kyrgyz Republic shows the highest expected economic losses related to railways, with a
384 value of 324 million USD, nevertheless Uzbekistan is the country where railways risk more contributes to the total one with
385 a percentage of 42%. Finally, Kazakhstan reports the highest value of total buildings risk (33 million USD) across the
386 country in Central-Asia. Moreover, the aggregation at national level demonstrates that buildings component is always the
387 one characterized by the least weight within the risk analysis, this is because buildings are mainly located in areas where
388 landslide hazard is equal or close to zero or in alluvial plain, which are filtered off from our grid analysis.



389

390 Fig.7 Total landslide risk map at district level in Central-Asia.



391

392 **Fig.8 Histogram of the ten districts with highest landslide risk in Central-Asia (Panel A). Landslide risk aggregated at national**
 393 **level (Panel B).**

394 **4.7 Considerations and future perspectives**

395 In the context of this research, we undertook a quantitative assessment of landslide risk in Central-Asia. Our analytical
396 framework involved a spatial resolution of 200 m and a focus on the quantification of potential losses, encompassing both
397 human lives and economical losses associated with the damage to human settlements and linear infrastructures. The findings
398 of this regional-scale landslide risk assessment constitute an innovative step forward, as such comprehensive assessments for
399 vast geographic regions have historically been scarce in the scientific literature. Despite this, we would like to recall once
400 more the inherent limitations mainly stemming from data scarcity, which make arduous to evaluate some landslide risk
401 components, as the assessment of the temporal and areal probability of landslide occurrence.

402 Notably, data scarcity in landslide studies can significantly hinder the accurate evaluation of the risk posed by these
403 phenomena, potentially putting communities at greater risk (Uzielli et al., 2015a; Dragičević et al., 2015; Jacobs et al., 2018).
404 Furthermore, limited data can impede the development of effective early warning systems (Peres and Cancelliere, 2021;
405 Marin et al., 2021; Lindsay et al., 2022). Indeed, without access to useful data needed to estimate the components of
406 landslide risk equation (e.g. landslide hazard in its completeness or vulnerability of exposed elements), it becomes
407 challenging to produce reliable products (Biçer and Ercanoglu, 2020).

408 Moreover, the adoption of a 200-m spatial resolution may obscure the socio-economic heterogeneities across Central Asia,
409 thereby rendering our risk estimates as generalized approximations. However, it should be noted that findings resulting from
410 a small-scale analysis can represent a valuable initial resource for any developing country (Stanley and Kirschbaum, 2017;
411 Sim et al., 2022). These analyses provide a preliminary outlook on the spatial distribution of potential losses and offer
412 insights into the degree of prudence required within administrative regions when formulating spatial planning strategies.

413 In a rising context, where accurate data for in-depth assessments may be limited, small-scale analyses can play a
414 fundamental role by delineating spatial patterns associated with potential losses, which can help policymakers and
415 stakeholders in their efforts to produce a resilient sustainable development framework. Undoubtedly, the inherent limitations
416 necessitate further investigation and refinement to attain more detailed findings. In this perspective, future developments
417 should be focused on in depth-studies at the sub-national level (e.g. a down-scaling phase) with the objective of evaluating in
418 detail all the risk components.

419 **5 Conclusion**

420 Landslides are a worldwide hazard, especially in the case of developing countries, where the increase of urban development,
421 population growth and drastic land use change certainly emphasizes their exposure to suffer relevant losses. Consequently, a
422 quantitative risk assessment turns out to be an indispensable instrument for mitigating potential repercussions on human
423 lives, settlements and infrastructures.

424 In this work, we conducted a comprehensive landslide risk analysis in quantitative terms, built upon a 200 m spatial
425 resolution, in Central-Asia. Our analytic approach was focused on assessing the landslide risk by expressing it in terms of

426 exposed population and expected economic losses to buildings and linear infrastructures (roads and railways). Our findings
427 reveal a clear trend: linear infrastructures, owing to their geographical placement in areas more predisposed to trigger
428 landslides, emerge as the elements exposed to the highest magnitude of losses. Notably, our analysis shows that the
429 cumulative expected losses in Central-Asia are approximately 3.59 billion USD, which corresponds to a mean value of 0.6
430 million USD/km².

431 However, we recall that the extension of our study area implies some hypothesizes within our workflow: landslide hazard
432 was considered as the spatial probability of landslide occurrence (susceptibility) since the data scarcity on landslide types,
433 frequency and affected areas did not allow to evaluate it in its completeness. Furthermore, we supposed that in case of a
434 landslide in a mapping unit, all the placed elements would be affected and suffer the maximum degree of loss, which is
435 equivalent to setting their vulnerability equal to 1.

436 Despite these approximations in the analysis, the study can be considered a novelty in landslide risk analyses, particularly in
437 the context of evaluating landslide risk in vast geographic domains. Notably, based on our knowledge of the current state of
438 the literature, our outcomes represent the first regional-scale landslide risk assessment for Central-Asia and they represent a
439 valuable resource in facilitating the efforts of policymakers and stakeholders since they provide a preliminary view on the
440 spatial distribution of potential losses.

441 Nevertheless, further refinements could be implemented in the future. A plausible direction for possible future research
442 would include a transition into a down-scaling phase, where more detailed assessments at the sub-national level can be built.
443 These approaches should be focused on assessing landslide hazard and vulnerability of exposed elements in their
444 completeness, providing stakeholders with a more powerful tool for risk management and disaster preparedness.

445 **Author contribution**

446 FC has conceived the research, written the manuscript, run the analyses. CS has contributed to the exposure assessment and
447 to the revision of the manuscript. WF has contributed to the revision of the research. VT has conceived the research,
448 supervised the work and revised the manuscript.

449 **Competing interest**

450 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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454 Disaster Reduction and Recovery), with the goal of improving financial resilience and risk-informed investment planning in
455 the central Asian countries (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan).
456
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