

1 **Modeling Seismic Hazard and Landslide Occurrence Probabilities in**
2 **Northwestern Yunnan, China: Exploring Complex Fault Systems with multi-**
3 **segment rupturing in a Block Rotational Tectonic Zone**

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18 **Abstract**

19 The Northwestern Yunnan Region, located on the southeastern edge of the Tibetan
20 Plateau, is characterized by a combination of ductile flow of the lower crust with low
21 shear-wave velocity and gravitational collapse, giving rise to a complex network of
22 active faults. This presents significant seismic hazards, particularly due to the potential
23 for multi-segment ruptures and resulting landslides. This article presents a new seismic
24 hazard model for the Northwestern Yunnan Region, incorporating recent findings on

25 fault geometry and slip rates along with historical seismicity rates to assess multi-
26 segment rupturing risks. Among the four potential multi-segment rupture combination
27 models examined, Model 1, characterized by multi-segment rupture combinations on
28 single faults, particularly fracturing the Zhongdian fault, is proposed as the most
29 suitable for the Northwestern Yunnan Region, given that the non-mainshock slip ratios
30 on fault segments are all below the 30%~40% threshold, as supported by the agreement
31 of modeled seismicity rates with fault slip rates. Our analysis demonstrates that the
32 Peak Ground-motion Acceleration (PGA) values for a mean return period of 475 years,
33 which is calculated with the developed probabilistic seismic hazard model, has a strong
34 correlation with the spatial distribution of the faults. On average, these values are higher
35 than the PGA given by the China Seismic Ground Motion Parameters Zonation Map.
36 Furthermore, we utilized PGA values with the Bayesian Probability Method and a
37 Machine Learning Model to predict landslide occurrence probabilities, as a function of
38 our PGA distribution map. Our findings underscore that the observed combinations of
39 multi-segment ruptures and their associated behaviors were in alignment with the small
40 block rotation triggered by the gravitational collapse of the Tibetan Plateau. This result
41 highlights the intricate interplay between multi-segment rupturing hazards and regional
42 geological dynamics, while also providing valuable guidance for disaster preparedness
43 efforts.

44 **Key Words**

45 Northwestern Yunnan Region; multi-segment rupture; probability seismic hazard
46 analysis; landslide risk

47 **1. Introduction**

48 The collision of the Eurasian Platea and the Indian plate makes the Tibetan Plateau, the
49 world's highest, with altitude of 4000+ m averagely. The eastern extrusion of the crust
50 in the Tibetan Plateau, associated with the wedged Eastern Himalayan syntaxis,
51 initiated a clockwise rotation of crustal deformation in the southeastern margin of the
52 Tibetan Plateau (Figure 1) (Zhang et al., 2004; Gan et al., 2007; Wang and Shen, 2020).
53 The Northwestern Yunnan Region (NWYR), in the west part of the southeastern margin
54 of the Tibetan Plateau, borders the Tibetan Plateau, with the Lijiang-Xiaojiang fault
55 serving as a boundary fault. This fault separates the Tibetan Plateau, boasting an
56 average altitude of over 3000 meters, from the Yunnan Region, which maintains an
57 average altitude of over 2000 meters (Yu et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022) (see Figure
58 1). Unlike the thrust faults along the plateau boundary, such as the Longmenshan fault
59 ruptured by the 2008 $M_w7.9$ Wenchuan earthquake, the Holocene slip type of the
60 Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault is sinistral, with a strike-slip rate of ~ 3 mm/yr, from geological
61 (Xu et al., 2003; Shen et al., 2005; Ding et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2019) and geodetic data
62 (Gan et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2012).

63 The peculiar slip behavior of the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault has garnered considerable
64 attention in studies pertaining to crustal structure, fault activities, and earthquake
65 hazards (Xu et al., 2003; Cheng et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2013; Bao et al., 2015; Zhang
66 et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022; Dai et al., 2023). Zhang et al. (2020)
67 employed a shear-wave velocity model to reveal that three faults-the Longmenshan
68 fault, the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault, and the Chenghai fault-outline a low-velocity belt in

69 the lower crust. This investigation uncovered the presence of low-crustal flow beneath
70 the NWYR. Similarly, Zhang et al. (2022) utilized magnetotelluric (MT) observations
71 in the southern vicinity of the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault, corroborating these findings and
72 highlighting the NWYR as a conduit for ductile low-crustal flow in 10 km depth.
73 Analogously, a GPS study by Cheng et al. (2012) yielded comparable results. Upon
74 removing the rigid rotation component from the regional GPS velocity field, they
75 demonstrated a clockwise rotation driven by ductile crustal flow, particularly
76 accelerated within the NWYR. They posited that this acceleration in clockwise rotation
77 might also be intensified by the tensional drag originating from the Burma Plate. The
78 intricate network of crustal deformation encompassing the NWYR introduces
79 complexity to the slip behavior of faults. Within this area, three distinct fault slip
80 behaviors are observed: the NE-trending Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault displays left-lateral
81 strike-slip, NW-trending faults exhibit right-lateral strike-slip, and North-South
82 trending faults demonstrate normal slip (see Figure 2). The presence of faults with
83 diverse rupture behaviors contributes to the complexity of earthquake hazards.
84 Historically, these faults have been associated with significant seismic events and
85 numerous casualties. Notably, three earthquakes with $M7+$ occurred in the NWYR: the
86 Yongsheng earthquake of 1515 ($\sim M7.5$) on the Chenghai fault, the Midu earthquake of
87 1652 ($\sim M7$) on the Red River fault, and the Dali earthquake of 1925 ($\sim M7$) on the
88 Diancangshan East fault. Additionally, the 1990 Lijiang earthquake ($M_s7.0/M_w6.6$)
89 occurred on the Yulong East fault, exhibiting dominant normal slip behavior. Historical
90 and paleo-earthquake studies suggest that nearly all of these faults have the potential to

91 generate catastrophic earthquakes (e.g., Ding et al., 2018; Ren et al., 2007; Chang et al.,
92 2014), and induced numerous landslides (Institute of Geology-State Seismological
93 Bureau, and Yunnan Seismological Bureau, 1990; Huang et al. 2021). Fieldwork studies
94 and focal mechanisms of recent earthquakes underscore the complexity of fault slip
95 behaviors in this tectonic environment (Figure 2). Both historical and instrumental
96 earthquakes have affected nearly all faults in the region, emphasizing the seismic risks
97 in NWYR. For instance, the 2013 Deqin earthquake swarm, reaching a maximum
98 magnitude of $M_S5.9/M_W5.7$ on August 31 (Wu et al., 2015), and the 2021 Yangbi
99 earthquake swarm, reaching a maximum magnitude of $M_S5.9/M_W6.1$ on May 21 (Zhou
100 et al., 2022), are noteworthy seismic events (Figure 2). The 2013 $M_W5.7$ Deqin
101 earthquake swarm, characterized by tensional stress, occurred at the intersection of the
102 Zhongdian fault and the southern part of the Jinshajiang fault, illustrating the
103 susceptibility of the regional stress field to disturbance. Conversely, the 2021 $M_W6.1$
104 Yangbi earthquake swarm occurred at the connection point of the dominant dextral
105 strike-slip faults, namely the Red River fault and the Weiqi-Qiaohou fault, representing
106 a different tectonic environment compared to the 2013 $M_W5.7$ Deqin earthquake swarm.
107 This distinct setting suggests that either of these two faults could be at risk of seismic
108 activity during the pre-earthquake period of the upcoming earthquakes in this region.

109 The high altitude, dense vegetation, and easily weathered conditions make it
110 challenging to obtain accurate fault slip rates, often resulting in significant uncertainties.
111 However, recent studies have provided fresh insights into slip rates and fault behaviors,
112 offering the potential to enhance the precision of seismic hazard models. For instance,

113 Wu et al. (2019) evaluated the Holocene dextral slip rate of the Zhongdian fault to be
114 $\sim 1.5 \pm 0.2$ mm/yr based on displacements of water-ice remains, while Chang et al. (2014)
115 obtained $\sim 2.1 \pm 0.2$ mm/yr based on displacements of river terraces, both utilizing
116 Optically Stimulated Luminescence (OSL) dating. These values notably differ from the
117 right-lateral slip rate of 4-6 mm/yr estimated by Shen et al. (2001) based on gully
118 displacements from the last glacial period, but are more aligned with the rates derived
119 from GPS velocity data (Cheng et al., 2012). Incorporating these updated fault slip rates
120 into regional seismic hazard models has the potential to greatly improve their accuracy
121 and ensure the reliability of the results.

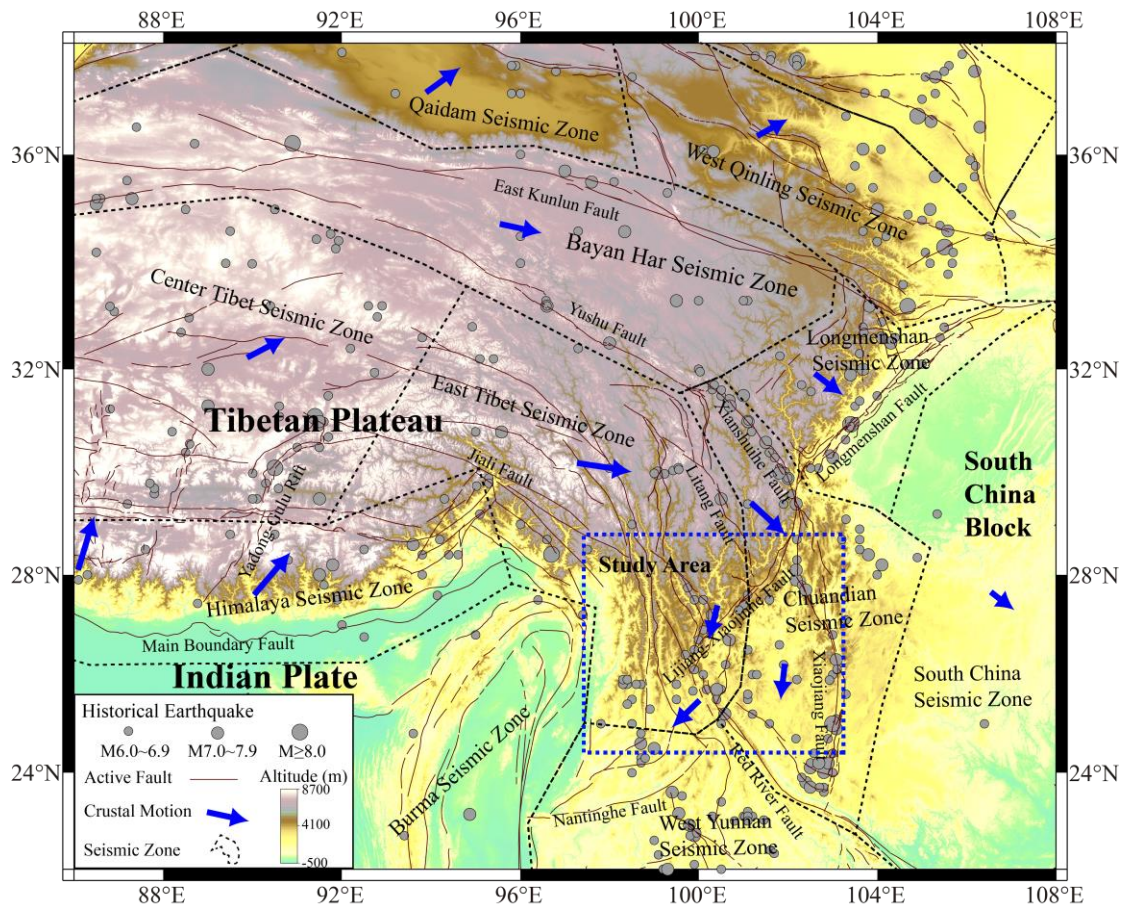
122 Given the inherent challenges of fieldwork studies on fault activities, only a limited
123 number of investigations have been conducted regarding seismic hazard analysis in the
124 NWYR. Among these studies, Zhou et al. (2004) conducted a micro-zonation of seismic
125 hazards in the NWYR. They examined regional fault activities through field surveys
126 and estimated the potential maximum magnitude of these faults. Their approach
127 involved outlining polygons around the source faults to divide them into different
128 potential seismic sources and calculating historical seismicity rates within these
129 polygons. This methodology is widely employed in seismic hazard modeling in China,
130 particularly in the national seismic hazard map of the China Seismic Ground Motion
131 Parameters Zonation Map (CSGMPZM) (Gao et al., 2015). The CSGMPZM also
132 utilized this methodology to assess potential maximum magnitudes and compute
133 seismicity rates. However, their studies often did not integrate fault geometry models,
134 especially fault segmentation data. Consequently, the fault geometry, including rupture

135 length and area, may not be accurately linked to the magnitude of large earthquakes.
136 Furthermore, it is crucial to recognize the potential occurrence of multi-segment
137 rupturing, which has not been documented in historical records. Similarly, seismicity
138 rates were typically derived solely from historical earthquakes and were not
139 synchronized with fault slip rates. Relying solely on historical earthquakes for
140 seismicity rate calculations may lead to either overestimation or underestimation of
141 seismic hazards.

142 In this article, we developed a regional seismic hazard model for the NWYR,
143 accounting for fault slip behaviors, the potential for large earthquakes including the
144 likelihood of multi-segment ruptures. We initially developed fault segmentation models
145 for the primary active faults in the NWYR, drawing on recent geological research on
146 fault segmentation and geological fault slip rates. Subsequently, we employed the
147 SHERIFS code (Chartier et al., 2017; 2019) to simulate seismicity rates across possible
148 multi-segment combination models. We identified the multi-segment combination
149 model that best aligns with the majority of fault slip rates, considering fault
150 segmentation and historical seismicity rates. Ultimately, we calculated the Peak Ground
151 Acceleration (PGA) with a 10% probability of exceedance within 50 years using the
152 seismicity rates from the selected fault segmentation models and the logic tree model
153 of GMPEs analyzed to be suitable for China mainland. The exploration of multi-
154 segment rupture combinations, along with the resultant modeled seismicity rates and
155 PGA values, offers valuable insights into the seismic hazard present in the NWYR. By
156 leveraging the modeled PGA values and accounting for the site response of different

157 rock type, we employed a machine learning model to compute the probability
 158 distribution of landslides induced by potential seismic hazards. This increasing
 159 precision and reliability will be invaluable for guiding disaster preparedness initiatives,
 160 land-use planning, and infrastructure resilience strategies in the area.

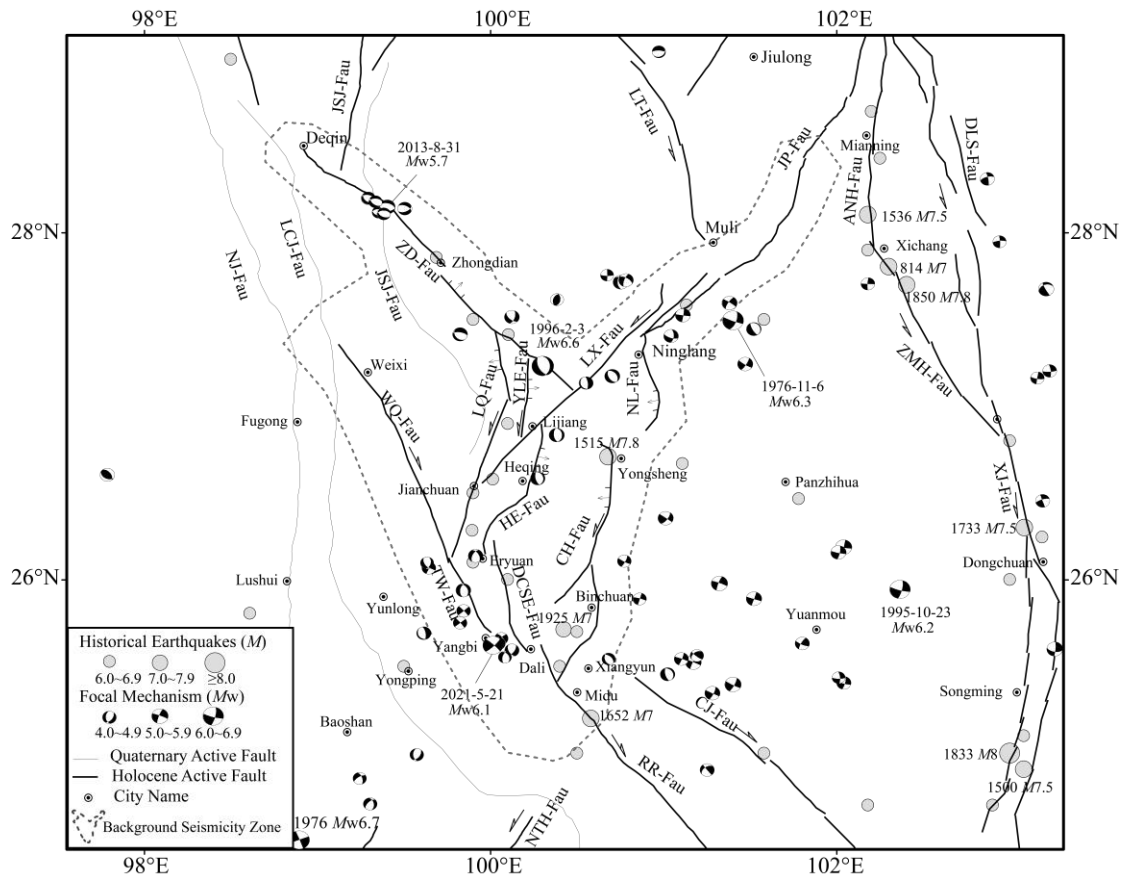
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162

163 Figure 1. Tectonic environment of the Eastern Tibetan Plateau and the location of the
 164 NWYR. The dashed rectangle delineates the study area, while dashed polygons depict
 165 the seismic zones delineated by Rong et al. (2020).

166



167

168 Figure 2. Regional active faults and historical earthquake activities in the NWYR. The
 169 focal mechanisms of recent earthquakes (1976~2023) are sourced from the global
 170 centroid moment tensor (GCMT) catalog. Earthquakes with $M6+$ are sourced from the
 171 moment magnitude (M_w) catalog of Cheng et al. (2017). The dashed line represents the
 172 division for background seismicity calculation, which extends 20 km from the faults.
 173 JP-Fau: Jinping fault; LT-Fau: Litang fault; ANH-Fau: Anninghe fault; ZMH-Fau:
 174 Zemuhe fault; XJ-Fau: Xiaojiang fault; CJ-Fau: Chuxiong-Jianshui fault; RR-Fau: Red
 175 River fault; NTH-Fau: Nantinghe fault; DYJ-Fau: Dayingjiang fault; NJ-Fau: Nujiang
 176 fault; LCJ-Fau: Lancangjiang fault; JSJ-Fau: Jinshajiang fault; ZD-Fau: Zhongdian
 177 fault; LX-Fau: Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault; WQ-Fau: Weixi-Qiaohou fault; YLE-Fau:
 178 Yulong East fault; LQ-Fau: Longpan-Qiaohou fault; HE-Fau: Heqing-Eryuan fault;
 179 CH-Fau: Chenghai Fault; DCSE-Fau: Diancangshan East Fault; TW-Fau: Tongdian-
 180 Weishan Fault.

181

182 **2. Fault slip rates, Segmentation, and Multi-segment Rupture Combinations**

183 **Models**

184 **2.1 Fault slip rates, Segmentation**

185 In the NWYR, the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault, characterized by its left-lateral strike-slip
186 rate, and the northern section of the Red River fault, known for its significant right-
187 lateral strike-slip movement, play pivotal roles in crustal deformation. While the
188 southward crustal extrusion of the Tibetan Plateau enhances the left-lateral strike-slip
189 of the NE-trending faults like the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault. These observations
190 underscore the complex interplay of fault dynamics in the NWYR, as elucidated by
191 previous studies (Gan et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2012; Wang and Shen, 2020). To
192 counterbalance the southwestward crustal extrusion (Wang et al., 1998; Cheng et al.,
193 2012), several other faults in the region, such as the Chenghai fault, the Ninglang fault,
194 the Heqing-Eryuan fault, the Yulong East fault, and the Longpan-Qiaohou fault (also
195 known as the Jianchuan fault), also exhibit a component of normal slip rate as well
196 (Institute of Geology-State Seismological Bureau, and Yunnan Seismological Bureau,
197 1990; Han et al., 2004) (see Figure 2). In contrast, the Zhongdian fault and the northern
198 part of the Red River fault, including the Weixi-Qiaohou fault and the Diancangshan
199 East fault, exhibit right-lateral strike-slip movement (Zhou et al., 2004; Han et al., 2005).
200 Recent focal mechanisms of intermediate earthquakes indicate a complex regional
201 stress field, featuring both strike-slip and normal faulting regimes (Figure 2). Table S1
202 provides an overview of the observed fault slip rates in the NWYR.

203 The Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault serves as a boundary fault separating the Tibetan Plateau

204 from the Central Yunnan block (Xu et al., 2003; Cheng et al., 2012). We divided the
205 Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault into 10 segments (the F1~F10 segments in Figure 3) based on
206 fault geometry and its intersection with other faults. For the F1 segment, known as the
207 Jinpingshan fault, recent fault mapping reveals a Holocene left-lateral slip rate ranging
208 from 1.3 to 2.7 mm/yr derived from gully displacement across the segment, while the
209 vertical slip rate is approximately 0.2 mm/yr (Mr. Rui Ding, 2024, private
210 communication). Regarding the F5~F10 segments, Gao et al. (2019) demonstrated that
211 the Hongxing-Jianshanying segment (F6 segment in Figure 3) exhibited a Holocene
212 left-lateral slip rate of 3.32 ± 0.22 mm/yr with a normal slip rate component of 0.35 ± 0.02
213 mm/yr, whereas the Runan-Nanxi segment (F10 segment in Figure 3) had a Holocene
214 left-lateral slip rate of 2.37 ± 0.20 mm/yr. Accordingly, we applied the slip rate of the F6
215 segment to the F4~F7 segments, and the slip rate of the F10 segment to the F8~F10
216 segments. Notably, we considered the strike-slip motion of the F5~F10 segments to
217 originate from two sources: the strike-slip Jinpingshan fault and the strike-slip of the
218 Litang fault, aligning with the observed clockwise rotation of regional crustal
219 deformation around the Litang fault and the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault. Consequently, we
220 inferred the left-lateral strike-slip rate of the F4 segment to be ~ 2.1 mm/yr, consistent
221 with the southern section of the Litang fault (Zhou et al., 2007). However, the F2 and
222 F3 segments, which link the F1 and F4 segments, lack recorded fault slip rates from
223 fieldwork studies. In this regard, we assigned a conservative estimate, employing half
224 the value of the strike-slip rate of the F1 segment for both the F2 and F3 segments,
225 approximately 1.2 mm/yr.

226 For the Longpan-Qiaohou fault (comprising the F11~F14 segments), we delineated it
227 into four distinct segments based on the fault mapping data provided by Wu et al. (2023).
228 The sinistral slip rate of the Longpan-Qiaohou fault was estimated at ~2.2 mm/yr over
229 the past 3500 years, with a normal slip rate of 0.23 mm/yr (Institute of Geology-State
230 Seismological Bureau, and Yunnan Seismological Bureau, 1990).

231 As for the Yulong East fault, we divided it into two segments, namely the F15 and F16
232 segments, utilizing fault mapping data and Quaternary sedimentary distribution. The
233 slip rate of the Yulong East fault was assessed by Han et al. (2005), who determined
234 that the Quaternary left-lateral and normal slip rates are 0.84 mm/yr and 0.70 mm/yr,
235 respectively, derived from the displacement observed in a gully crossing the fault.

236 Regarding the Zhongdian fault, we partitioned it into six segments, designated as the
237 F17~F22 segments, based on fault mapping data (Wu et al., 2023). The Holocene
238 dextral slip rate of the Zhongdian fault is estimated to be approximately 1.7-2.0 mm/yr,
239 with a minor normal slip rate of 0.6-0.7 mm/yr based on terrace displacement across
240 the fault (Chang et al., 2014).

241 For the Heqing-Eryuan fault, we segmented it into two sections, labeled as the F23 and
242 F24 segments. The Quaternary dextral slip rate and normal slip rate of the Heqing-
243 Eryuan fault were reported to be around 2 mm/yr and 0.7-1.0 mm/yr, respectively, as
244 documented by the Institute of Geology-State Seismological Bureau, and Yunnan
245 Seismological Bureau (1990). Additionally, recent research by Sun et al. (2017) yielded
246 similar fault slip rate results, indicating a left-lateral slip rate of 1.80 mm/yr and a

247 vertical slip rate of 0.28 mm/yr since the Pleistocene.

248 The Ninglang fault is primarily characterized as a left-lateral strike-slip fault, although
249 it exhibits a minor normal slip component of less than 0.1 mm/yr at the basin margin.

250 The strike-slip rate of the Ninglang fault, as determined from fault mapping work
251 conducted by Dr. Panxing Yang from Institute of Earthquake Forecasting, China
252 Earthquake Administration (2024, private communication), was estimated to be less
253 than 1 mm/yr. For our analysis, we opted to utilize a median value of 0.5 ± 0.4 mm/yr
254 for the strike-slip rate of the Ninglang fault. Based on the distribution of Quaternary
255 sediments, we divided the Ninglang fault into two distinct segments, designated as the
256 F25 and F26 segments.

257 The sinistral slip rate of the Chenghai fault has been estimated at 2.5 to 3.0 mm/yr,
258 determined from the erosion rate of the Jinshajiang River crossing the fault.
259 Additionally, the normal slip rate is reported to be ~ 0.7 -1.0 mm/yr, assessed from the
260 lift rate of the fault scarps (Institute of Geology-State Seismological Bureau, and
261 Yunnan Seismological Bureau, 1990), consistent with the findings of Tang et al. (2017).

262 We divided the Chenghai fault into three segments, i.e., the Chenghai segment (the F27
263 segment), the Qina segment (the F28 segment), and the Bingchuan segment (the F29
264 segment), based on the sedimentary distribution (Huang et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2005).

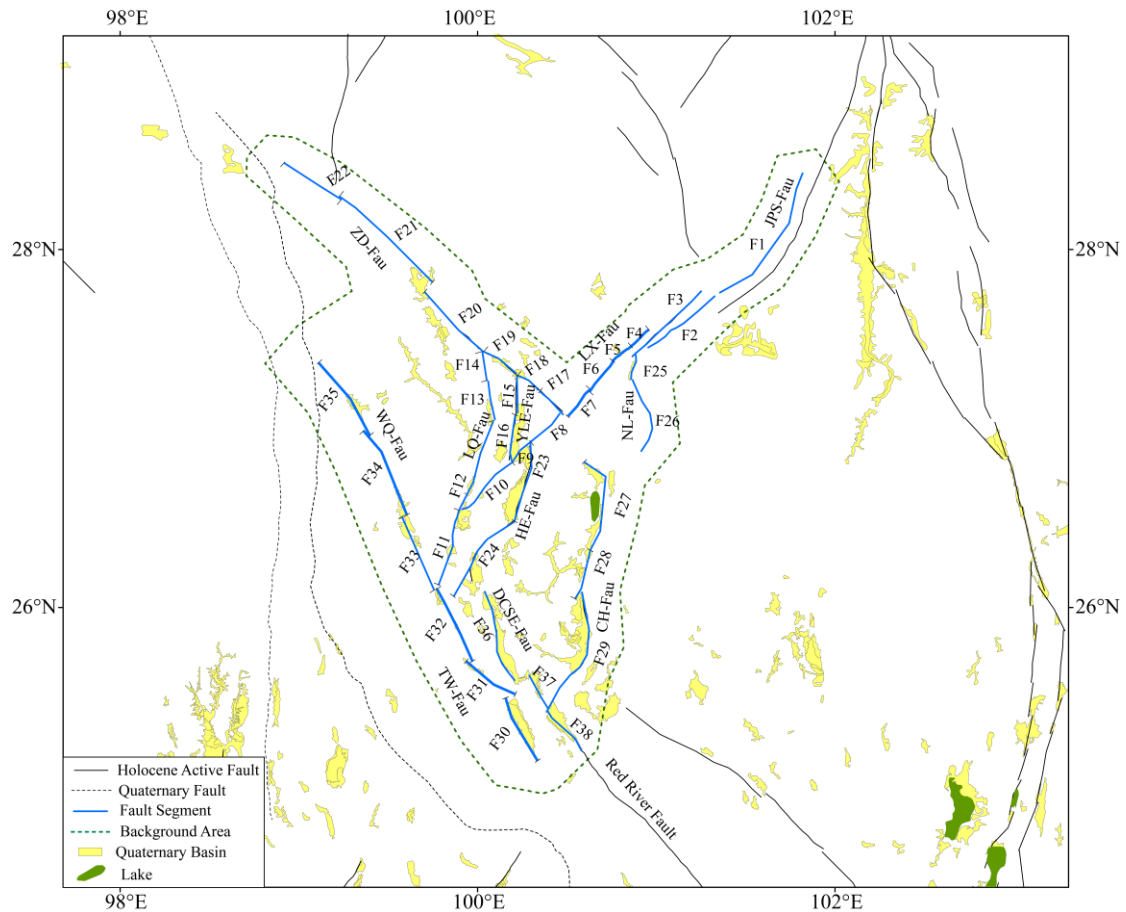
265 The southern end of the Longpan-Qiaohou fault separates the Weixi-Qiaohou fault from
266 the Tongdian-Weishan fault. We segmented these two faults into six segments each
267 based on fault mapping data and Quaternary sedimentary distribution. Concerning the

268 slip rate of the Tongdian-Weishan fault, the dextral slip rate in the Late Pleistocene is
269 estimated to be ~1.8-2.4 mm/yr, with a normal slip rate of 0.17-0.35 mm/yr, calculated
270 from the displacement of fault scarps (Chang et al., 2016).

271 In contrast, for the Weixi-Qiaohou fault, the dextral slip rate is ~1.25 mm/yr, while the
272 normal slip rate is ~0.91 mm/yr since the Late Pleistocene (Ren et al., 2007). Comparing
273 these rates to the dextral slip rate from the middle section of the Red River fault, which
274 is reported to be 1.1 ± 0.4 mm/yr (Shi et al., 2018), it is evident that the dextral slip
275 rates decrease from the northwest to the southeast across the Red River fault system,
276 encompassing the Weixi-Qiaohou fault, the Tongdian-Weishan fault, and the Red River
277 fault.

278 The Diancangshan East Fault is the seismogenic fault of the 1925 *M*7 Dali earthquake.
279 We deduced that the Diancangshan East fault is a dominant normal slip fault as the
280 boundary fault of the Dali basin and the Erhai Lake. The normal slip rate of this fault is
281 1-2 mm/yr (Guo et al., 1984; Zhou et al., 2004).

282 Additionally, we incorporated the F37 and F38 segments of the northern part of the Red
283 River fault into our segmentation model. The right-lateral strike-slip rate of these two
284 segments is ~1.1 mm/yr. Figure 3 illustrated the segmentation model of the faults in the
285 NWYR.



286

287 Figure 3. Fault segmentation model for the NWYR. In which, the Quaternary Basin
 288 distribution were from Deng et al. (2003); the fault data are from Wu et al. (2023).

289

290 2.2 Multi-segment Rupture Combinations Models

291 Recently, geological and geophysical studies have documented several large
 292 earthquakes characterized by multi-segment rupturing. Notable examples include the
 293 $M_w7.4$ Landers earthquake in 1992 (Campillo and Archuleta, 1993), the $M_w7.9$
 294 Wenchuan earthquake in 2008 (Xu et al., 2009), the $M_w7.8$ Kaikoura earthquake in
 295 2016 (Xu et al., 2018), and the 2023 doublet events of $M_w7.8$ and $M_w7.5$ in Turkey
 296 (Petersen et al., 2023). These events exhibited rupturing across different segments,
 297 resulting in larger magnitudes than would be expected from single-segment ruptures.

298 Numerous studies have focused on understanding the fault's geometric and

299 physical parameters to ascertain conditions conducive to multi-segment rupturing.
300 Factors identified include step width (e.g., < 5 km) (Harris and Day, 1999; Lozos et al.,
301 2012), fault structural maturity characterized by initiation age, net slip, length, and slip
302 rate (Manighetti et al., 2007; 2021), and geometric irregularities such as fault branches
303 and bends, significantly influenced by the pre-existing stress field (Mignan et al., 2015).

304 For strike-slip faults, we applied conclusions from dynamic rupture modeling,
305 indicating that a step width of more than 5 km (Harris and Day, 1999), and a strike
306 difference of more than 28° , as observed in field studies of historical rupture events
307 (Biasi and Wesnousky, 2017), could inhibit earthquake rupture, to select the multi-
308 segment rupture combinations.

309 In our segmentation model of the NWYR, the distance between the F3 segment
310 and the F1-F2 segments is approximately 7 km, and the step width between the F20 and
311 F21 segments is also about 7 km. Similarly, the distance between the F3 segment and
312 the F4 segment is approximately 6.5 km. Based on these distances, we did not consider
313 the rupture continuity of these segments. For multi-fault rupture combinations, the
314 strike difference was also used to assess whether multi-fault rupture could occur.
315 Consequently, we excluded nearly all the multi-fault rupture combinations, except for
316 the combination between the F10 and F11 segments, which have a strike difference of
317 about 20° .

318 Based on the segmentation model, fault rupture behaviors, the intersections among
319 fault segments and geometric information discussed above, we developed four multi-
320 segment rupture combination models for the fault segments in the NWYR (Figure 4).
321 The $M_w6.6$ Lijiang earthquake on February 3, 1996, represents a significant normal
322 rupture event that occurred on the Yulong East fault. This earthquake stands out as the
323 most substantial seismic event in the NWYR since the 1970s, underscoring the normal

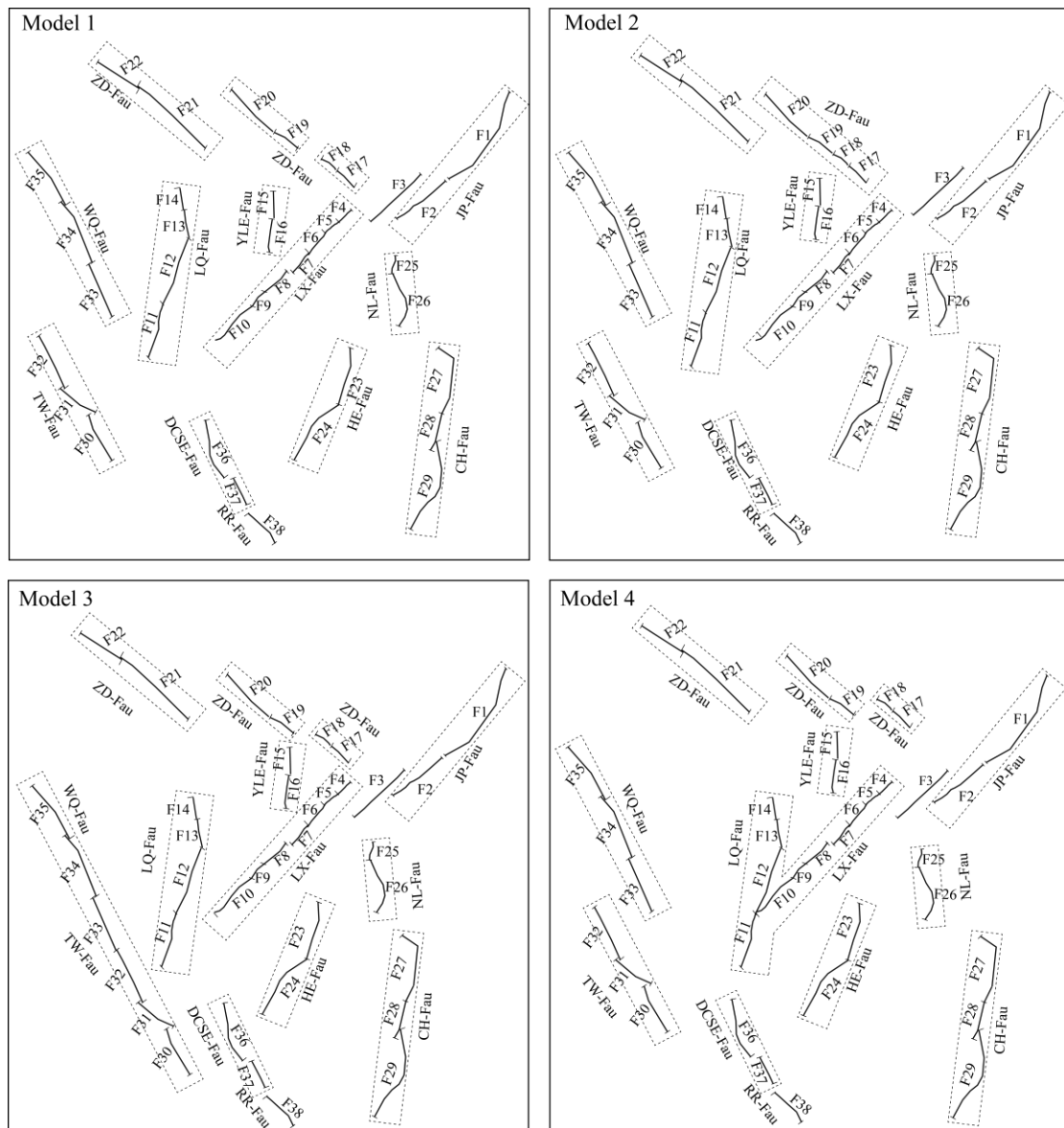
324 slip behavior of the Yulong East fault. This observation suggests potential effect on the
325 multi-segment rupture behavior of the Zhongdian fault.

326 In Model 1, we exclusively examined the multi-segment rupture combinations
327 within the same faults. Specifically, for the Zhongdian fault, we included the multi-
328 segment rupturing of the F17 and F18 segments, as well as the multi-segment rupturing
329 of the F19 and F20 segments. This approach considered the normal slip behavior of the
330 Yulong East fault (F15 and F16 segments) and its potential impact on Quaternary
331 sedimentary distribution between the F18 and F19 segments of the Zhongdian fault.
332 Subsequently, in Model 2, we evaluated the plausibility of multi-segment rupturing
333 occurring across the F17~F20 segments.

334 In the NWYR, the prevailing fault behavior is sinistral slip along the northeast-
335 trending faults, a trend consistent with the observed clockwise rotation in regional
336 crustal deformation (Cheng et al., 2012) and the presence of ductile low-crust flow
337 (Zhang et al., 2022). The sinistral slip observed along the Longpan-Qiaohou fault may
338 strongly impacted on the dextral slip occurring along the Weixi-Qiaohou fault, which
339 extends from the Tongdian-Weishan fault, contributing to the decrease in dextral slip
340 rates observed from the Weixi-Qiaohou fault to the Tongdian-Weishan fault. In Model
341 3, we integrated the multi-segment rupture combination of the Weixi-Qiaohou fault (the
342 F33~F35 segments) and the Tongdian-Weishan fault (the F30~F32 segments).

343 In 2023, two earthquakes of $M_w7.8$ and $M_w7.5$ successively ruptured the East
344 Anatolia fault region in Turkey (Xu et al., 2023; Petersen et al., 2023). The rupture of
345 the first earthquake, with $M_w7.8$, initiated on the splay Narli fault and propagated
346 bilaterally along the main East Anatolia fault (Liu et al., 2023). Consequently, we took
347 into account the possibility of rupture propagation from one fault to another in our
348 rupture combinations. Using Model 4, we investigated whether the rupture on the

349 Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault could propagate to the Longpan-Qiaohou fault. This
 350 consideration was prompted by similarities in the rupture behavior between the F11
 351 segment of the Longpan-Qiaohou fault and the F10 segment of the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe
 352 fault (Table S1), along with a strike difference of $\sim 20^\circ$, smaller than the threshold of 28°
 353 proposed by Biasi and Wesnousky (2017) to prohibit the rupture process.



354
 355 Figure 4 Possible Rupture Combination Models for the Fault Segments in NWYR.
 356 Dashed rectangular show the rupture combinations for each Model.

357
 358 **3. Multi-segment rupture hazard Modeling**

359 Recognizing the importance of these rupture parameters in producing multi-
360 segment rupturing, recent studies, such as those by Chartier et al. (2019), Cheng et al.
361 (2021), Lee et al. (2022), and Chang et al. (2023), included the possibilities and
362 probabilities of multi-segment rupturing in seismic hazard analysis. Additionally,
363 Dutykh et al. (2013) and Rashidi et al. (2020) employed multi-segment rupturing into
364 models of tsunami wave generation. The concept of multi-segment rupturing was also
365 incorporated in the UCERF3 model through their complex "Grand Inversion"
366 methodology, which integrates data on fault slip rates, historical seismicity, and paleo-
367 earthquake records (Page et al., 2014; Field et al., 2014). However, for most other
368 regional studies, collecting all the necessary input parameters remains challenging.

369 In seismic hazard modeling, fault slip rates can be used instead of historical
370 seismicity data to simulate seismicity rates on faults, as slip rates span multiple seismic
371 cycles of large-magnitude earthquakes and provide estimates of the average earthquake
372 recurrence interval (Youngs and Coppersmith, 1985). We utilize the methodology
373 developed by Chartier et al. (2019) to translate these fault slip rates into seismicity rates,
374 considering both multi-segment and single-segment ruptures.

375 **3.1 Methodology**

376 In our earthquake hazard modeling, the seismicity rates should reflect both the
377 fault slip rate and the regional magnitude-frequency distribution (MFD), e.g., the
378 Gutenberg-Richter (G-R) Relationship (Gutenberg and Richter, 1944) and the
379 Characteristic earthquake model (Schwartz and Coppersmith, 1984). Youngs and
380 Coppersmith (1995) balanced fault slip rates with MFD to determine the seismicity rate
381 on faults. They employed the composite characteristic earthquake model (Y-C) or
382 truncated G-R model to convert the fault slip rate into the seismicity rates on the fault.

383 These converted MFD were widely used in seismic hazard analysis (e.g., Avital et al.,
384 2018; Chartier et al., 2019; Rong et al., 2020). This approach enables a more
385 comprehensive assessment of earthquake hazards by integrating both fault slip rates
386 and the frequency of seismic events. For assessing the possibilities and probabilities of
387 multi-segment rupturing, it is essential to represent the seismicity rate of such
388 combinations within the magnitude-frequency relationship for each segment.

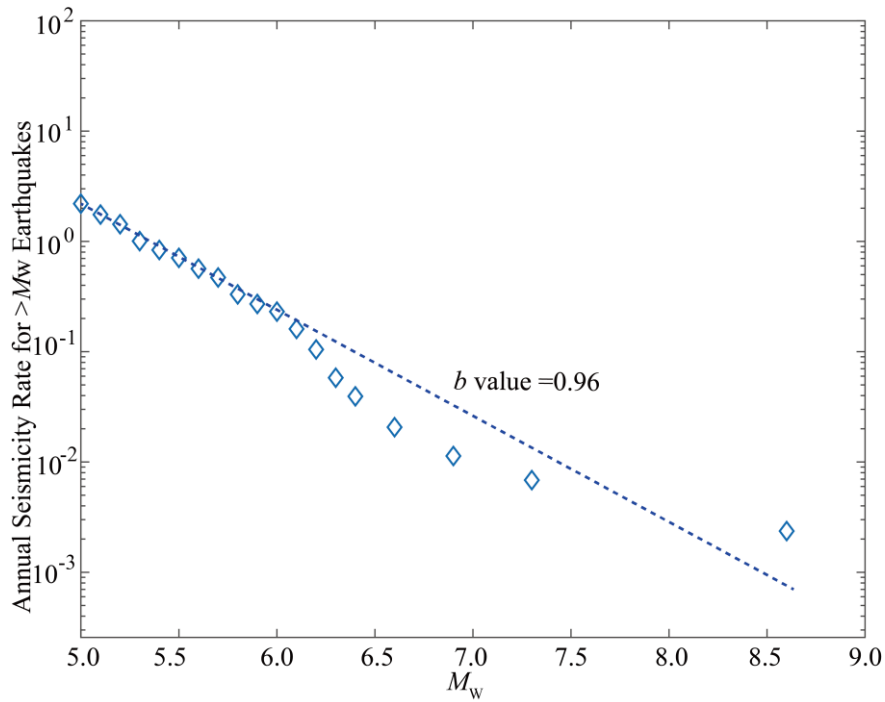
389 To achieve this, Chartier et al. (2017; 2019; 2021) devised a Python-based code
390 known as SHERIFS. This code employed an iterative process, enabling the balancing
391 of occurrence rates for multi-segment rupturing events alongside intermediate and
392 small earthquakes on each fault segment. Leveraging historical seismicity data, they
393 utilized the slip rate of each fault segment to convert it into the target MFD on the fault,
394 such as the G-R, or the Y-C distribution. This method offered a robust framework for
395 assessing seismic hazard, integrating both single and multi-segment rupture scenarios
396 effectively. Determining the maximum magnitudes of individual fault segments and
397 their combinations could rely on fault length, following rupture scaling laws proposed
398 by researchers (e.g., Wells and Coppersmith, 1994; Leonard et al., 2010; Cheng et al.,
399 2020). Since most rupture scaling relationships are developed for plate boundary
400 regions (Stirling et al., 2013), we selected a regression scaling relationship based on a
401 dataset of earthquakes from China mainland (Cheng et al., 2020) and compared the
402 results with those from the widely used rupture scaling relationship by Wells and
403 Coppersmith (1994), which incorporates global data from both interplate and intraplate
404 earthquakes.

405 In these steps, the b -value from historical earthquakes, the rupture scaling law of
406 the faults, and the fault slip rates are typically accompanied by significant uncertainties.
407 SHERIFS used the random sampling method to explore the uncertainty bounds. The

408 rates are derived while examining uncertainties related to earthquake magnitudes, the
409 duration of the completeness period, and the limited number of observed earthquakes
410 for larger magnitudes, using a Monte Carlo approach (Chartier et al., 2021). For each
411 branch of the logic tree in the random sampling, it generates a corresponding number
412 of models that match the total count of random samples. For each model, the slip-rate
413 value is selected uniformly within its uncertainty bounds, scaling law parameters are
414 chosen independently from a Gaussian distribution within their error bounds, and the
415 *b*-value is picked from the user-defined range. All these uncertainties propagate to the
416 final step of calculating seismicity rates with uncertainties.

417 In the final step, they iterated the seismicity rates across magnitude bins associated
418 with multi-segment rupturing, spanning from large magnitudes down to small
419 magnitudes, according to the target MFD for each fault segment. However, in many
420 cases, the fault slip rate or the calculated seismicity rates couldn't fully account for the
421 entire seismic activity. The remaining portion of the fault slip rate for each segment was
422 attributed to non-main-shock slip (NMS), including processes like post-seismic slip and
423 silent creep. An NMS ratio of $\leq 30\%$ - 40% is typically considered indicative of a model
424 misfit, potentially arising from factors like creeping and specific conditions, such as
425 boundary fault segments or creeping segments. Here, we adopted a similar approach in
426 simulating seismic hazard modeling for the regional fault system in the NWYR.

427



428

429 **Figure 5** Calculated b value for the East Tibet Seismic Zone where the NWYR

430 located in Figure 1.

431

432 3.2 Scaling Relationship and Modeling Parameters

433 Given the fractured structure of the crust in the NWYR, as documented by Cao et
 434 al. (2023), the seismicity distribution in this area was notably complex and significantly
 435 different from that observed directly on the fault lines. Therefore, in our analysis of
 436 seismicity rates for the regional faults, we opted to utilize the G-R relation (Gutenberg
 437 and Richter, 1944) as the Magnitude-Frequency relationship, rather than the Youngs-
 438 Coppersmith (Y-C) relation (Youngs and Coppersmith, 1985). For estimating
 439 magnitudes based on rupture length, we applied the relationship proposed by Cheng et
 440 al. (2020) to determine the maximum magnitude for each individual fault segment as
 441 well as their multi-segment combinations. Additionally, we accounted for a portion of
 442 earthquakes with $M < 6.5$ as off-fault seismicity. Specifically, we assigned probabilities
 443 of 95%, 90%, 85%, 80%, and 80% for magnitude bins of 6.0 -6.4, 5.5-5.9, 5.0-5.4, 4.5-

444 4.9, and 4.0-4.4, respectively, based on prior studies (Chartier et al., 2019; Cheng et al.,
445 2021).

446 We calculated the b-value for the East Tibet Seismic Zone, which encompasses
447 nearly all of the NWYR, as illustrated in Figure 1. The earthquake catalog utilized for
448 this analysis was sourced from Cheng et al. (2017), covering the time period from 780
449 BC to 2015 AD. Additionally, we incorporated earthquakes from the Global CMT
450 catalog spanning the period from 2016 to 2023. The regressed b-value was
451 approximately 0.96, with completeness times for magnitudes $M_w4.5$, $M_w5.0$, $M_w5.3$,
452 $M_w5.7$, $M_w6.1$, and $M_w6.4$ identified as 1985, 1966, 1928, 1916, 1916, and 1900,
453 respectively. It is noteworthy that the calculated b-value is slightly higher than the value
454 of 0.86 reported in Rong et al. (2020), likely due to the inclusion of new earthquakes
455 occurring after 2015. Figure 5 visualizes the Gutenberg-Richter relationship in the East
456 Tibet Seismic Zone, in which the b value is 0.96.

457

458 3.3 Comparison and Selection of Modeled Results

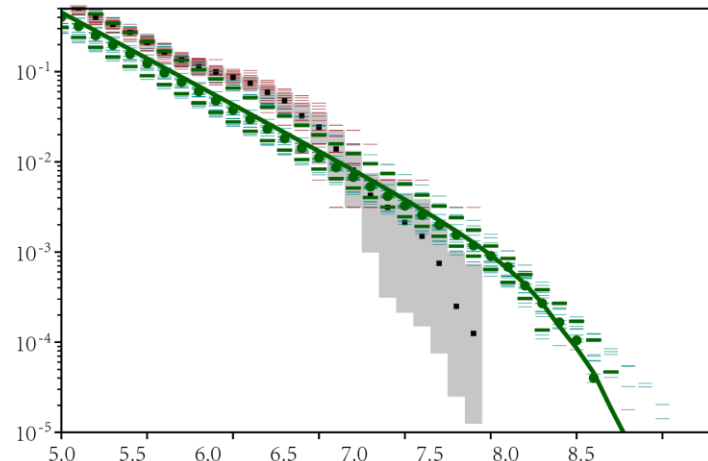
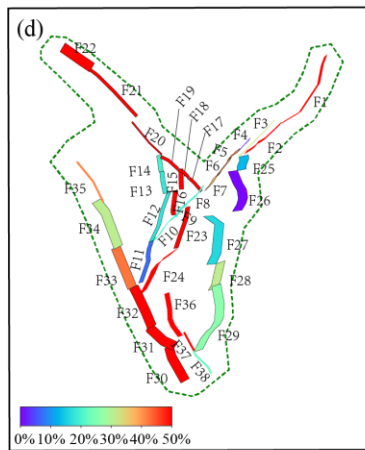
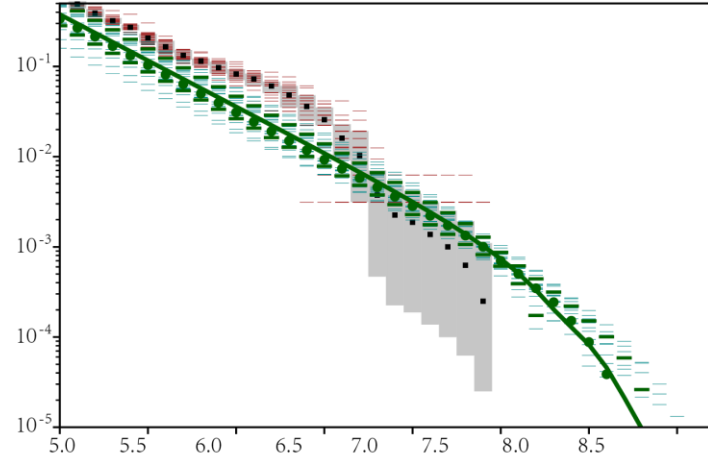
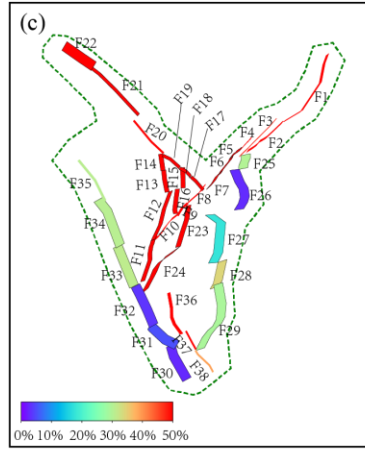
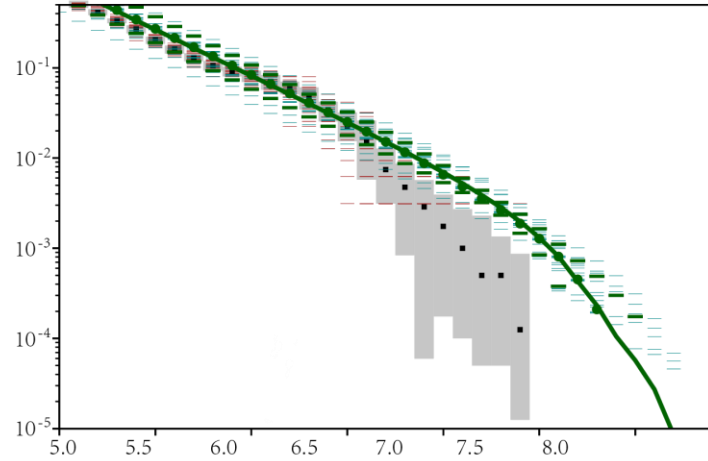
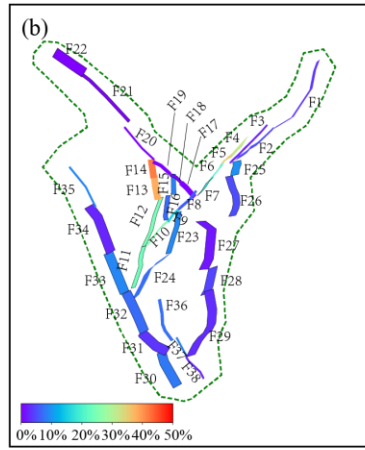
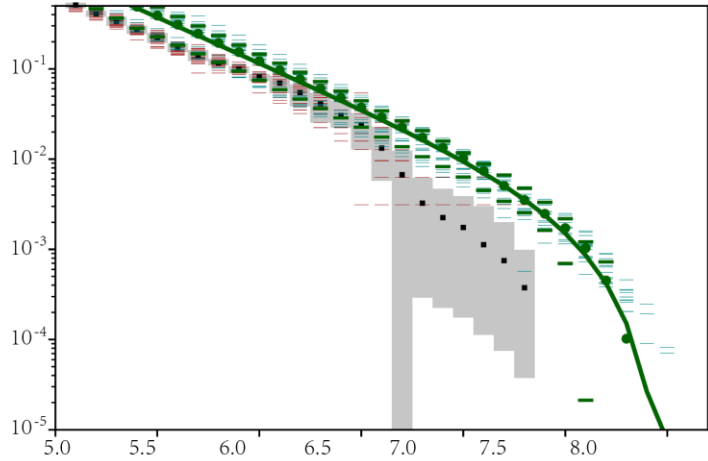
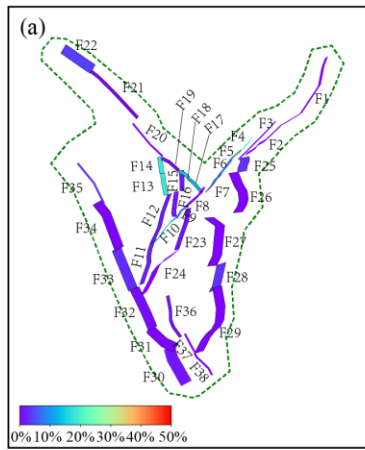
459 We depicted the NMS ratios and modeled seismicity rates in Figure 6. The right
460 panels showcased the NMS ratios of the segments in Model 1~4. Model 1 exhibited the
461 most balanced results between the modeled seismicity rates and historical ones. In
462 Figure 6a, all segments in Model 1 demonstrated NMS ratios smaller than 30%.
463 Chartier et al. (2019) suggested that NMS ratios below 30%-40% serve as a benchmark
464 to assess the validity of multi-segment combination models, indicating effective
465 consumption of the slip rate of each segment into seismicity rates. The left panels in
466 Figure 6b further underscored the alignment between the modeled and observed
467 seismicity rates, showing that the observed historical seismicity rates closely matches
468 the calculated rates, particularly for $<M7$ earthquakes.

469 Compared to Model 1, Model 2 treats segments F17~F20 as a single unit, rather
470 than separating F17~F18 and F19~F20. The left panel of Figure 6b indicates that the
471 NMS ratios for segments F11~F14 and F4~F5 exceed 40%, while the F6~F7 multi-
472 segment combination has an NMS ratio ranging from 30% to 40%, showing that the
473 combination of segments F17~F20 has an obvious impact on the seismicity rates of
474 these faults. From the right panel in Figure 6b, the historical seismicity rates for each
475 fault segment were similar to those in Model 1. However, the calculated seismicity rates
476 for each segment in Model 2 were generally lower than those in Model 1, except for a
477 slightly higher rate in the magnitude range of 6.0-6.5. This result indicated that the fault
478 slip rates are not being adequately accounted for in Model 2, unlike in Model 1 (Figure
479 6a).

480 In Model 3, the rupture combination comprised segments of F30~F35, rather than
481 considering them separately as F30~F32 and F33~F35. Most segments exhibited high
482 NMS ratios in the left panel of Figure 6c. The calculated seismicity rates were generally
483 smaller than the historical ones in the right panel of Figure 6c. Similarly, Model 4 was
484 utilized to investigate whether the great earthquakes of the Y-shaped rupture, combining
485 segments F4~F10 with F11~F14, could occur. The NMS ratio for each segment and the
486 calculated seismicity rates were comparable to those observed in Model 3 (Figure 6d).

487 In addition, we also presented the results using the rupture scaling relationship
488 proposed by Wells and Coppersmith (1994) in Figure S1. Model 1 exhibited the most
489 consistent outcomes, with the maximum NMS ratio observed on F14 at 39.3%. The
490 NMS ratios for all other segments were below 30%. For the calculated seismicity rates
491 from Model 2 to Model 4, using the rupture scaling relationship of Wells and
492 Coppersmith (1994), we observed similar patterns, with segments in all three models
493 exhibiting NMS ratios exceeding 40%. In summary, these models, utilizing the rupture

494 scaling of Wells and Coppersmith (1994), consistently yielded higher average NMS
495 ratios compared to those obtained from the rupture scaling of Cheng et al. (2020),
496 though the ratios were similar.



498 Figure 6 Calculated NMS ratios and comparison results for different models using the
499 G-R relation. (a) Modeled Non-Mainshock Slip (NMS) Ratio; (b) Comparisons
500 between the historical Seismicity rates for different models. Dashed green lines are the
501 MFD of each model, and the solid green line is the mean MFD, green patches represent
502 the uncertainty (16-84 percentiles). The dotted black line is the rate from the catalog;
503 the dashed red lines are individual Monte Carlo sampled rates of the catalog exploring
504 the uncertainties on the magnitudes of earthquakes, and gray rectangular show the one-
505 sigma uncertainty on the earthquake rates in statistical analysis.

506

507 Based on the comparison among different multi-segment rupture combination
508 models, Model 1 demonstrated the most consistent results among the multi-segment
509 rupture combinations, fault segment slip rates, and the Magnitude-Frequency
510 relationship. Therefore, we utilized the seismicity rates from Model 1 to calculate the
511 PGA values for the NWYR.

512 **3.4 Comparison with National Seismic Hazard Map Results**

513 We utilized the OpenQuake Engine v3.10 (Pagani et al., 2014) to calculate the
514 PGA values for the NWYR. In this computation, we employed a logic tree model
515 comprising the Abrahamson et al. (2014); Chiou and Youngs (2014); Campbell and
516 Bozorgnia (2014); and Boore et al. (2014) branches of GMPEs, along with their
517 associated uncertainties. Each branch was assigned an equal weight of 0.25, following
518 the selection criteria established by Dangkua et al. (2018) for China Mainland. These
519 Ground Motion Prediction Equations (GMPEs) are tailored for earthquakes
520 characterized by moment magnitude (M_W) and the distance to the rupture plane (R_{rup})
521 or its surface projection (R_{JB}).

522 Figure 7a illustrates the distribution of PGA values for the site condition of firm
523 to hard rock ($V_{s30}=760$ m/s, or NEHRP B) resulting from the seismicity rates in Model
524 1, corresponding to a 10% probability of exceedance in 50 years, equivalent to a return
525 period of 475 years. The analysis revealed concentrations of high PGA values
526 exceeding 0.40 g near fault sources, particularly in areas with multiple fault sources.
527 These areas include the F2~F5 segments of the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault, the vicinity of
528 the Yulong East Fault (YLE-Fau), the southern part of the Zhongdian fault (ZD-Fau),
529 and the northern extent of the Heqing-Eryuan fault (HE-Fau).

530 The area around the F2~F5 segments includes three parallel faults, with the sum
531 of the strike-slip of ~ 3 mm/yr, makes the PGA values relatively higher. The maximum
532 magnitude for the combinations of the F17~F18 and F15~F16 segments are both
533 approximately $M_w 6.6$. These areas exhibit a prevalence of moderate earthquakes with
534 short recurrence intervals and high PGA distributions over a 475-year return period.
535 The modeled seismicity rates for both the F23 and the F24 segments complied with the
536 G-R relationship, with sufficient intermediate earthquakes, contributing to the high
537 PGA values in the surrounding areas. Along the Chenghai fault, high PGA values are
538 concentrated around the F27~F28 segments with strike-slip rates of 3.0 mm/yr, but are
539 lower around the F29 segments with a strike-slip rate of 2.5 mm/yr. For the Red River
540 fault and its extensions, including the Tongdian-Weishan fault and the Weixi-Qiaohou
541 fault, high PGA values are concentrated around the F37~F38 segments and at the
542 intersection points of the F11, F32, and F32 segments.

543 Compared to the national seismic hazard map of the CSGMPZM (Gao et al., 2015)
544 (Figure 7b) for the site condition of dense soil and soft rock ($V_{s30} = 500$ m/s, or NHERP
545 C) (Chen et al., 2021), our PGA values are consistently higher and more detailed. The
546 V_{s30} of 500 m/s is equivalent to the Type II in the classification table of CSGMPZM,

547 while the value of 760 m/s belongs to Type I₁. Table 1 presents the adjustment factors
548 used by CSGMPZM for site amplification (Gao et al., 2015). Even when we applied
549 these site amplification adjustment factors to convert our PGA values from type I₁ to
550 type II, the PGA values would not change obviously as the adjustment are close to 1 for
551 PGA values of 0.30-0.40 g, and 1 for PGA values of ≥ 0.40 g. In Figure 7b, the
552 CSGMPZM indicates two high PGA values ranging from 0.30 to 0.40 g in the NWYR,
553 specifically around the F23~F24 and the F27~F28 segments, respectively. In contrast,
554 the PGA values in other areas surrounding the fault segments in our model range from
555 0.20 to 0.30 g.

556 In the development of the CSGMPZM, the region in the around China was divided
557 into 29 large seismic source zones to calculate the parameters of the MFD. Additionally,
558 over 1,000 potential fault sources across China were incorporated into the model.
559 Historical seismicity rates on the MFD were employed to predict future seismic activity.
560 This methodology led to lower anticipated seismicity rates in regions with limited
561 historical earthquake records. The identification of potential fault sources in the
562 CSGMPZM relied on expert opinions gleaned from research on historical surface
563 rupture, fault segmentation, and the distribution of past earthquakes. These data sources
564 were subsequently utilized to allocate predicted seismicity rates based on the MFD.

565 Furthermore, the utilization of different GMPEs in the CSGMPZM compared to
566 our results could also contribute to variations in PGA values. The CSGMPZM utilized
567 GMPEs from Yu et al. (2013) based on surface magnitude (M_s) and epicentral distance
568 (R_{epi}). Their GMPEs result in higher PGA values for distances less than 80 km but
569 lower values for distances ≥ 80 km (Cheng et al., 2021). Consequently, the seismicity
570 rates derived from fault slip rates and multi-segment rupture combinations were key
571 factors that resulted in our modeled PGA values higher than those from CSGMPZM.

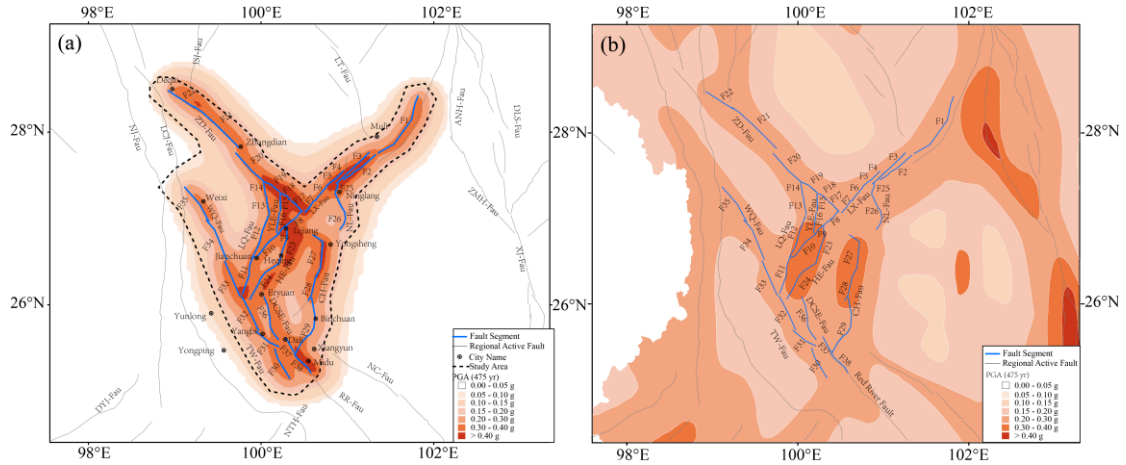


Figure 7 Comparison of the Modeled PGA distribution of 10% in the next 50 years, (a) the PGA results in this article (b) the PGA results in the CSGMPZM.

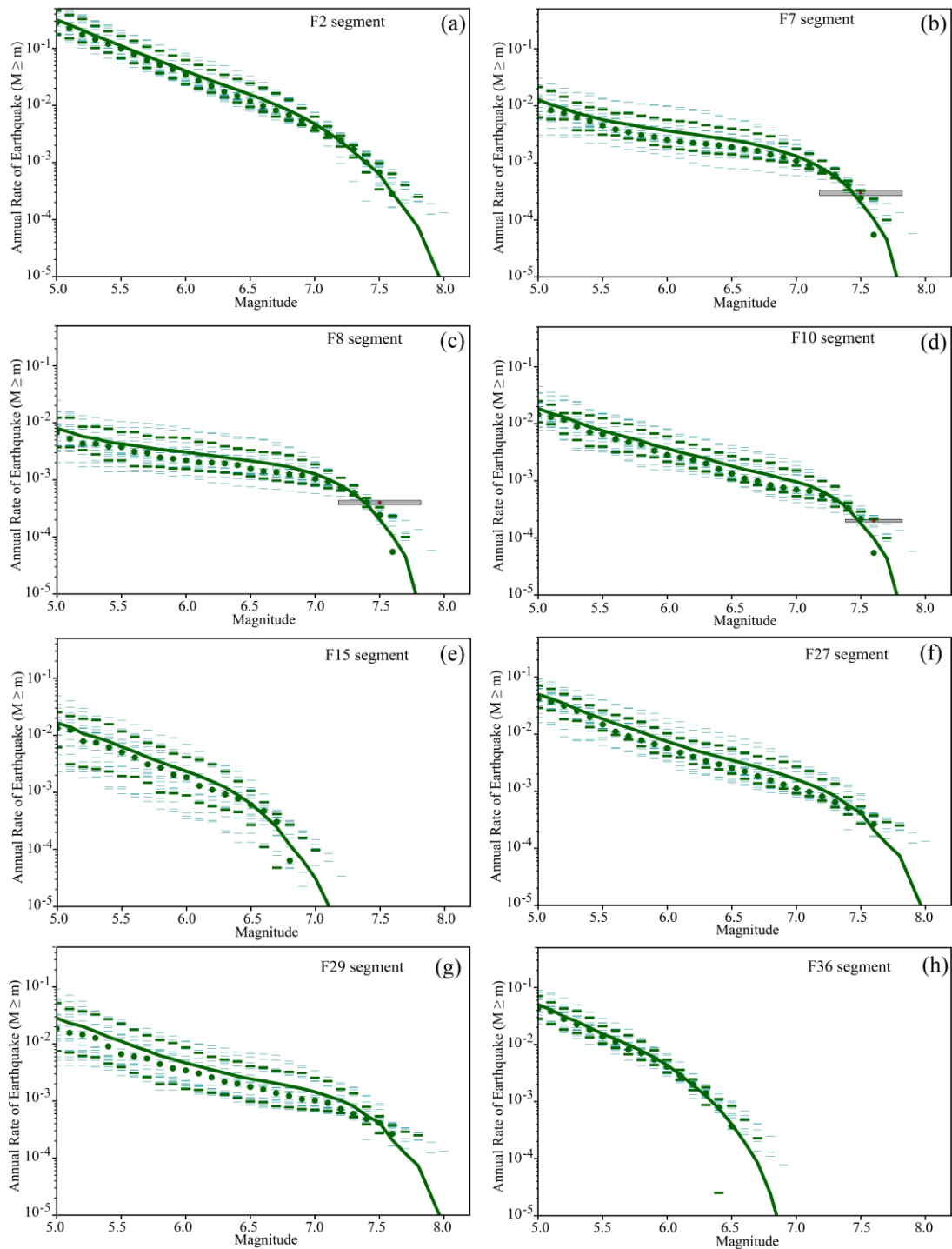
Table 1 Adjustment factors for PGA values of different Site condition via Type II

PGA values for type II	Site condition type				
	I ₀	I ₁	II	III	IV
≤0.05 g	0.72	0.80	1.00	1.30	1.25
0.10 g	0.74	0.82	1.00	1.25	1.20
0.15 g	0.75	0.83	1.00	1.15	1.10
0.20 g	0.76	0.85	1.00	1.00	1.00
0.30 g	0.85	0.95	1.00	1.00	0.95
≥0.40 g	0.90	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.90

3.5 Validity of the Modeled Results

In Figure 8, we further illustrated seismicity rates for several typical fault segments to elucidate the reasons behind the observed high PGA values. Figure 8a shows the seismicity rates of the F2 segment exhibit a typical G-R relationship, with a sufficient number of intermediate earthquakes contributing to a high PGA distribution in the surrounding area. We compared the seismicity rates on the F7~F8 segments and the F10 segment with the recurrence intervals from paleo-earthquake studies. In Figures 8b and

586 8c, the gray bars illustrate that our modeled seismicity rates align with the recurrence
587 interval of approximately 3000 years for a $M_w7.5$ earthquake, as reported by Ding et al.
588 (2018). We also observed that segments F7 to F8 of the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault tend to
589 follow the characteristic earthquake model, based on their seismicity rate distribution.
590 The F10 segment, approximately 44 km in length, ruptured during the 1751 $M6.8$
591 earthquake. Additionally, Tang et al. (2014) identified three paleo-earthquake events
592 with a recurrence interval of ~ 5300 years for earthquakes of $M6.5+$ earthquakes on the
593 F11 segment. They suggested that the two paleo-events prior to the 1751 AD earthquake
594 were considerably stronger, implying multi-segment rupturing involving combinations
595 of segments F11+F12, F11~F13, and F11~F14 resulting in magnitudes of $M_w7.4\sim 7.6$
596 earthquakes. Additionally, we illustrate the seismicity rates for segments F15, F27, F29,
597 and F36 in Figures 8e~8f, which closely follow the G-R distribution, leading to high
598 PGA distributions in their vicinity. These results demonstrate that the occurrence rate
599 of intermediate earthquakes play a significant role in driving the high PGA distributions.
600



601
 602 Figure 8 Modeled Seismicity rates for different magnitude on the fault segments. The
 603 solid line is the mean MFD, and small patches represent the uncertainty (16-84
 604 percentiles). The dotted line is the rate from the catalog with uncertainties. The red
 605 circle is the occurrence rate of the repeated large historical earthquake rate, and the gray
 606 box is the associated uncertainty.

607 **3.6 Landslide Probabilities**

608 **3.6.1 PGA Site Amplification**

609 Utilizing the modeled PGA values for rock site conditions presented in Figure 7a
610 as a foundation, we enhanced our analysis by incorporating the site amplification effects
611 derived from Chen et al.'s (2021) comprehensive site condition map. Their research,
612 leveraging geological unit data, culminated in a detailed site condition map covering
613 China Mainland. Leveraging this invaluable resource, we integrated their site condition
614 map along with the amplification factors for each geological type compared to type II
615 (referenced in Table 1) to refine the PGA value distribution map (Figure 9a). Our
616 methodology involved multiplying the PGA values for specific site conditions by the
617 ratio of type II PGA values to those of the specific type. This approach effectively
618 amplified PGA values across different site conditions, enhancing the granularity of our
619 analysis. Figure 9a illustrates the resultant PGA distribution map, now incorporates site
620 amplifications specifically tailored for the NWYR region. Notably, our findings reveal
621 minimal alterations in the PGA distribution, particularly near fault lines, where PGA
622 values remain consistent or exceed 0.4 g (as detailed in Table 1).

623 **3.6.2 Landslide Probabilities Derived from Modeled PGA Values**

624 Using simulated ground motion data from potential earthquake scenarios, we
625 conducted a thorough assessment of landslide susceptibility in the affected regions. Our
626 analysis employed a machine learning framework, following the methodology outlined
627 by Xu et al. (2019), to develop a predictive model for earthquake-induced landslides.
628 This model was trained utilizing data from nine earthquakes, ranging from the 1999
629 $M_w7.7$ Chichi earthquake to the 2017 $M_w6.5$ Jiuzhaigou earthquake, all of which
630 occurred within or near China. The training dataset comprised samples of earthquake-

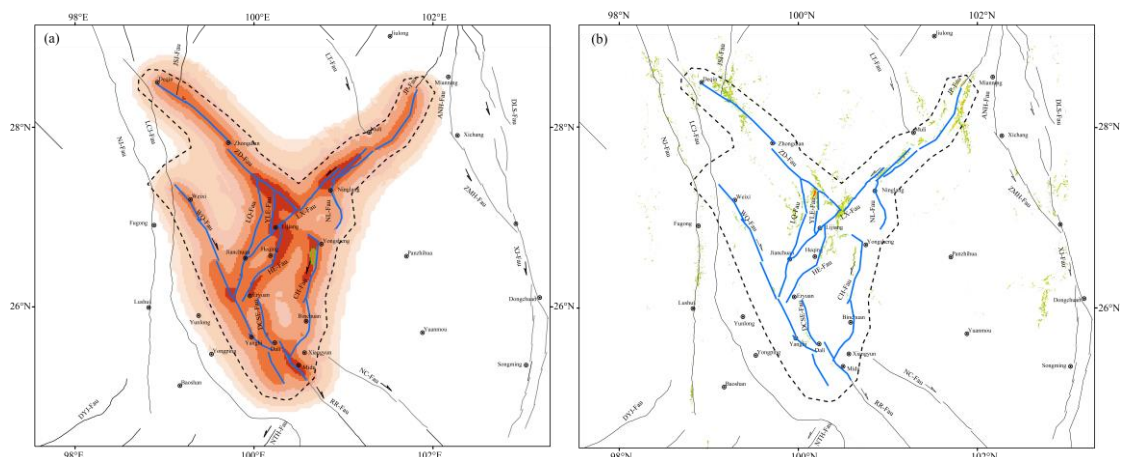
631 induced landslides along with 13 relevant factors. These factors included various
632 parameters such as elevation, slope angle, slope aspect, land cover, proximity to faults,
633 geological characteristics, average annual rainfall, and PGA.

634 Leveraging this comprehensive dataset, we developed a robust predictive model
635 capable of assessing landslide probabilities. We used a logistic regression model, well-
636 regarded for its robust performance in machine learning. Unlike previous models (e.g.,
637 Nowicki et al., 2014; Wang and Rathje, 2015; Parker et al., 2017) for calculating
638 earthquake-triggered landslide hazards, our model directly assessed the absolute
639 probability of landslide occurrence. This probability is represented as the percentage of
640 the landslide area within a given region relative to the total area of that region (Shao et
641 al., 2020). As a result, our hazard estimates have a true probabilistic meaning, reflecting
642 the actual probability of landslide occurrence rather than merely serving as a formal
643 expression of probability. We then calculated the probabilistic seismic susceptibility for
644 a specific point in time within the study area, producing a probabilistic PGA distribution
645 map. By using this probabilistic PGA map as input for our model, we can estimate the
646 corresponding probability of earthquake-triggered landslide occurrence. We employed
647 these steps as the basis of our approach to calculating the probability of such landslides.

648 Figure 9b illustrates the resultant landslide probability map for the NWYR region.
649 Notably, areas with high PGA distribution closely correspond to regions with elevated
650 landslide probabilities. For instance, notable areas include the northern end of the
651 Zhongdian fault, the Jinpingshan fault, the Yulong East fault, the northern end of the
652 Heqing-Eryuan fault, the northern part of the Chenghai fault, and the eastern section of
653 the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault (the F2~F4 segments). Of particular significance are regions
654 surrounding the Yulong East fault and the convergence zone of the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe
655 fault and the Zhongdian fault. These areas exhibit pronounced differences in elevation,

656 ample rainfall, and elevated PGA values, making them particularly susceptible to
657 landslide occurrences.

658 By integrating multiple geospatial factors and leveraging advanced machine
659 learning techniques, our analysis provides valuable insights into landslide susceptibility
660 in earthquake-prone regions, aiding in effective risk management and mitigation
661 strategies.



662
663 Figure 9. (a) PGA distribution Map considering different site amplifications; (b) the
664 probabilities of landslide occurrence impacted by the PGA values.
665

666 4 Discussion and Conclusion

667 In seismic hazard analysis, understanding fault behaviors, such as slip rates and
668 geometries, is crucial for accurately modeling future seismic activity rates.
669 Concurrently, historical earthquake occurrence rates provide a foundational basis for
670 estimating these future rates. Notably, attention must also be given to earthquakes
671 involving multi-segment ruptures, which may not be fully documented in historical
672 records. In this article, we introduce a new seismic hazard model for NWYR, where the
673 Tibetan Plateau boundary intersects with local low-crustal flow.

674 **4.1 Model Limitations and Mitigation Measures**

675 Our seismic hazard modeling for NWYR represents our current understanding of
676 average earthquake hazards in the region based on available data. The results are
677 affected by various epistemic and aleatory uncertainties inherent in seismic hazard
678 modeling processes, including the MFD, fault geometry, fault type, slip rate, and
679 variability in GMPEs. Addressing the impact of these uncertainties is crucial for
680 ensuring accurate seismic hazard assessments.

681 The MFD relationship, calculated from historical earthquakes, is essential for
682 determining seismicity rate ratios across different magnitude bins. Variations in the
683 MFD directly influences the distribution of the modeled seismicity rates. In this study,
684 we chose the G-R relationship over the Y-C relationship due to the regional fragmented
685 tectonic environment. The calculated b -value of 0.96 aligns closely with the expected
686 value of 1 found in seismically active regions (Pacheco et al., 1992).

687 To estimate earthquake magnitudes on fault segments, we employed rupture
688 scaling relationships based on historical rupture parameters of earthquakes in China
689 Mainland, as proposed by Cheng et al. (2020), ensuring consistency with unique
690 tectonic characteristics. Achieving more precise MFDs and rupture scaling laws
691 necessitates further refinement in methodology and the use of reliable catalogs specific
692 to the study area. Achieving more accurate MFDs and rupture scaling laws will require
693 further methodological refinement and the use of reliable, region-specific earthquake
694 catalogs.

695 For fault geometry, type, and slip rates, we relied exclusively on recent field
696 investigation data. In compiling fault rupture models for NWYR, we analyzed these
697 geological data under a unified tectonic stress field, ensuring coordinated fault system
698 movements. The variability in GMPEs is complex, influenced by factors such as

699 earthquake rupture characteristics, seismic wave propagation, and site conditions.
700 Consequently, we incorporated Quaternary sediment site amplification effects on PGA
701 values. Addressing basin effects on ground motion requires dynamic simulations to
702 achieve more precise results.

703 **4.2 Multi-segment Rupturing Hazards in NWYR**

704 The complex fault system results in earthquake occurring almost all the faults with
705 various rupture behaviors in the NWYR, while the catalog of historical and paleo-
706 earthquake data only recorded a small portion of these rupturing events. The NWYR
707 serves as the boundary region between China and Myanmar. This area is predominantly
708 inhabited by ethnic minorities in China, resulting in limited written documentation of
709 its history, particularly regarding earthquake disasters.

710 Nevertheless, some significant earthquakes have been documented, particularly
711 those that impacted major cities like Dali, e.g., the 1515 $M7.8$ Yongsheng earthquake
712 ruptured two linked segments of the Chenghai fault (Institute of Geology-State
713 Seismological Bureau and Yunnan Seismological Bureau, 1990). The historical
714 earthquake catalog used in our seismic hazard modeling often fails to include all
715 possible rupture scenarios. To address this, we have explored reasonable models for
716 potential rupture combinations and calculate their seismicity rates.

717 These rupture combinations might be constrained by various factors, such as the
718 geometry of fault segments, the width of the step-over between each pair of segments,
719 and the maturity of the fault steps (Cunningham and Mann, 2007; Biasi and Wesnousky,
720 2017). For strike-slip faults, a step-over width of 5 km is often used to assess the
721 plausibility of the rupture combinations (e.g., Biasi and Wesnousky, 2017). However,
722 in the NWYR, where faults are situated within a conduit of ductile low-crust flow, all

723 step-overs are less than 5 km wide, except for the approximately 7 km step-over
724 between the F20 and F21 segments. Hence, we advocate that the intersection
725 relationship between faults is the primary determinant of whether multi-segment
726 rupture events occur among fault segments in this region.

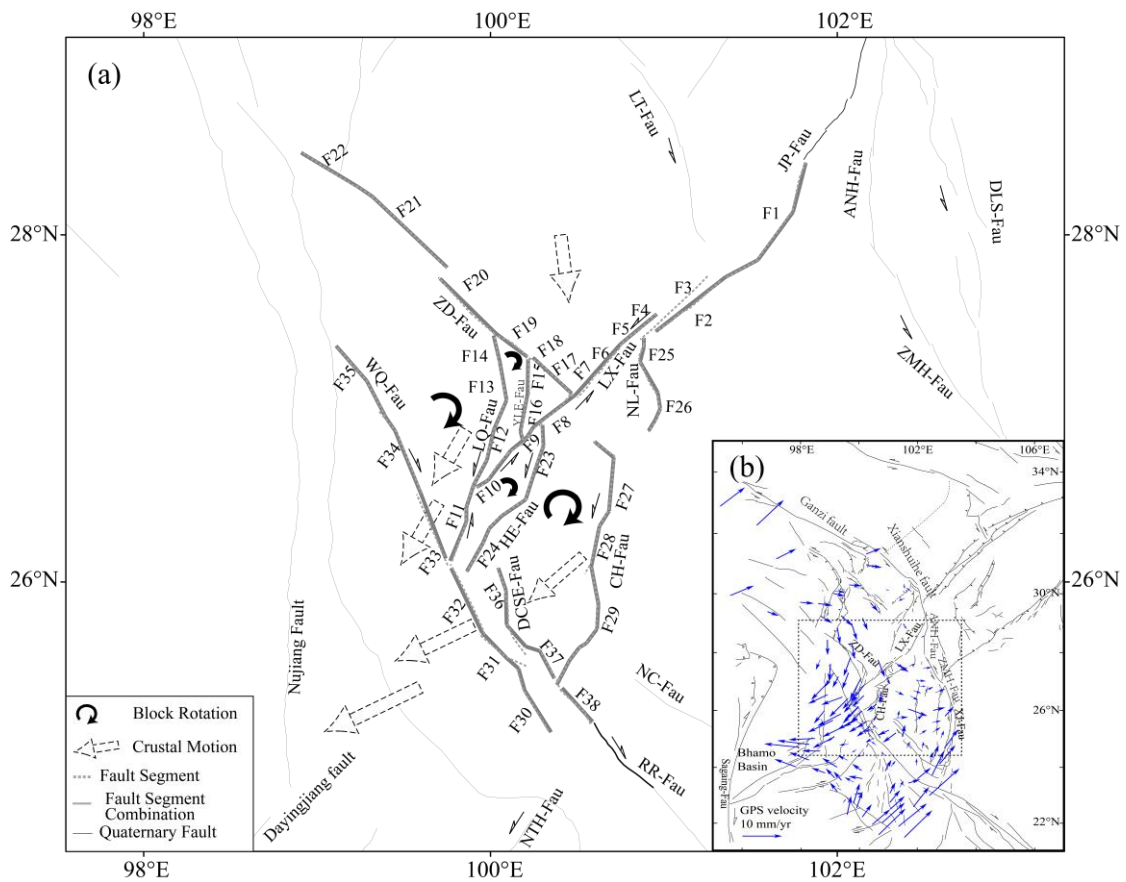
727 **4.3 Implication of the small-block rotation in NWYR**

728 The Holocene strike-slip motion of the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault plays a dominant
729 role in this region, intersecting both the Heqing-Eryuan fault and the Yulong East fault.
730 Model 1 also confirms the capability of the entire rupture of the F4~F10 segments of
731 the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault. Additionally, the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault separates the
732 Chenghai fault from the Zhongdian fault, challenging the view of Wang et al. (1998)
733 that the Dali fault-including the Longpan-Qiaohou fault and the Chenghai fault- is the
734 primary fault in this region. The Longpan-Qiaohou fault obstructs the westward
735 continuation of the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault, and simultaneously, the F11 segment also
736 resists rupturing in conjunction with the Lijiang-Xiaojinhe fault (Model 4 in Figure 4).
737 In contrast, the Weixi-Qiaohou fault (WQ-F) and the Tongdian-Weishan fault (TW-F)
738 belong to distinct small-blocks and therefore cannot rupture simultaneously, as depicted
739 in Figure 10a. This indicates that the northern end of the Red River fault is intercepted
740 by the Longpan-Qiaohou fault. In our model, the Zhongdian fault (ZD-F) is separated
741 for rupture (Model 1 in Figure 4), particularly for the F17~F18 segments combination
742 and the F19~F20 segments combination. We propose that the normal- and strike-slip of
743 the Yulong East fault poses a greater destructive potential to the Zhongdian fault
744 compared to the strike-slip of the Longpan-Qiaohou fault.

745 Hence, our multi-segment rupture configurations portrayed in Model 1 of Figure
746 4 align with the rotational patterns noted in the small block delineated in the NWYR by

747 Wang et al. (1998). We illustrate this clockwise rotation of the small blocks in the
 748 NWYR in Figure 10a. This clockwise rotation is further supported by GPS observations
 749 to the west of the Xianshuihe fault, the Anninghe fault, and the Xiaojiang fault, after
 750 removal of the entire movement (Figure 10b) (Cheng et al., 2012).

751 In Figure 10b, the area where the Nujiang fault intersects with the Dayingjiang
 752 fault experiences the strongest extensional forces. Rangin et al. (2013) and Lindsey et
 753 al. (2023) proposed that the dynamic source of this extensional tectonic environment
 754 was the side effect of the gravitational collapse of the Tibetan Plateau with the
 755 westwards of upper crust faster than the lower crust (Rangin et al., 2013; Lindsey et al.,
 756 2023). This extensional force significantly affects the faults in our model, driving the
 757 rotation of small blocks, and the normal slip of the regional faults, e.g., the
 758 Diancangshan fault and the Chenghai fault.



759

760

Figure 10 a. Kinematic Model of the faults in the NWYR; b. Regional GPS

761 motion after removing the whole movement (Cheng et al., 2012).

762

763 **4.4 Conclusions**

764 This study presents a comprehensive seismic hazard model for the NWYR,
765 integrating fault slip rates and historical seismicity data to evaluate the risks of multi-
766 segment ruptures and landslide occurrences. By leveraging fault slip rates and fault
767 geometrical distributions in the NWYR, we employed the simulation method within the
768 SHERIFS code to calculate seismicity rates for both single-segment and multi-segment
769 ruptures. This work highlights the complexity of the fault systems within the region's
770 block rotational tectonic environment. Our study provides valuable insights into the
771 seismic hazards present in the NWYR. Through the development of fault segmentation
772 models based on recent geological research and the application of advanced simulation
773 techniques, we have significantly enhanced our understanding of fault activity and
774 seismicity rates across the region. We also identified multi-segment models that best
775 represent the observed data.

776 Our calculations of PGA with a 10% probability of exceedance within 50 years
777 offer essential information for assessing seismic risk in the NWYR. The PGA values,
778 associated with obvious latitude difference and abundant precipitation, increase the
779 likelihood of landslides. Furthermore, our investigation into multi-segment rupture
780 combinations has illuminated potential scenarios for seismic events in the region. By
781 integration these findings, we have generated a more comprehensive assessment of
782 seismic hazards and landslide probabilities. These factors are intertwined with the
783 regional small block rotation induced by the low-crustal flow and gravitational collapse
784 along the southeastern frontier of the Tibetan Plateau.

785 Future seismic hazard work can be improved by utilizing geophysical data to
786 understand fault structures where strong earthquakes are developing (Xu et al., 2017),
787 applying geodetic data to assess energy accumulation on fault segments (e.g., Yao and
788 Yang, 2023), using microseismicity relocation data to reveal fault asperities (Lay and
789 Nishenko, 2022), and employing dynamic rupture simulations of single and multi-
790 segments to enhance earthquake motion predictions (e.g., Zhang et al., 2017). These
791 studies on fault behaviors, interactions, and multi-segment ruptures are vital for
792 enhancing seismic hazard assessments. Staying vigilant and proactive in seismic risk
793 management will better protect communities and infrastructure in the NWYR and
794 beyond.

795 *Code availability*

796 In this study, we have used the code related to Chartier et al. (2019,
797 <https://doi.org/10.1785/02201803320>), which can be downloaded from the webpage
798 (<https://doi.org/10.1785/02201803320>, last accessed in May, 2024).

799

800 *Data availability*

801 The focal mechanism data are from Global CMT catalog (www.globalcmt.org, last
802 accessed in May, 2024) Table S1 in the supplementary material for this paper includes
803 the fault segments, historical and paleo-earthquakes and their associated slip parameters.

804

805 *Author contributions.*

806 Jia Cheng was responsible for methodology, software, and writing the original draft.

807 Chong Xu worked for the landslide occurrence probabilities calculation. Xiwei Xu

808 and Shimin Zhang contributed to design the fault rupture combination models.

809 Pengyu Zhu contributed to seismic hazard modeling.

810

811 *Competing interests.*

812 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
813 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

814

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826

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