



Università di Trieste LAUREA MAGISTRALE IN GEOSCIENZE SM62 Percorso Esplorazione Geologica

Anno accademico 2022 - 2023

Geologia Marina 953SM

Parte VI – Aspetti economici e sociali Modulo 6.2 Pericolosità dei fondali sottomarini

> Docente A. Camerlenghi





BASIC CONCEPTS

HAZARD: Is an **event** posing a threat to life, health, property or environment. Hazard assessment is the evaluation of the the **probability** of occurrence of a potentially damaging event, (where, when, how frequently, magnitude)

VULNERABILITY: is the **probability** that a community can be affected by the impact of a hazard.

RISK: is the **probability** that a specific hazard will cause harm.

Risk = Hazard x Vulnerability





Japanese Earthquake Highway Repair

- Earthquake: March 11 2011
- Repair begun: March 17 2011
- Road ready: March 22 2011 (six days later)



By Mail Foreign Service, 02:01 GMT, 24 March 2011

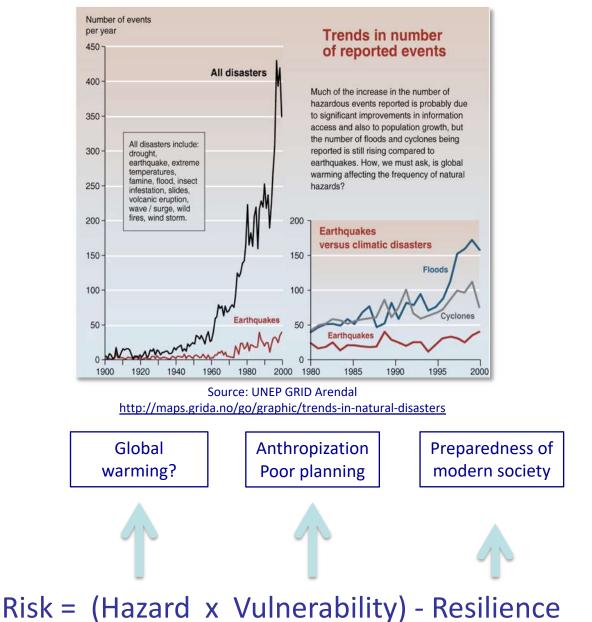
RESILIENCE: community's capacity to cope with and recover from impacts of natural hazards.

Risk = (Hazard × Vulnerability) - Resilience





Concern for Society





The overwhelming bulk of humanity is concentrated along or near coasts on just 10% of the earth's land surface



Source: Burke et al., World Resources Institute, Washington DC, 2001; Paul Harrison, Fred Pearce, AAAS Atlas of Population and Environment 2001, American Association for the Advancement of Science, University of California Press, Berkeley.



Coastal areas with high population densities are those with the most shoreline degradation or alteration. Densely populated areas close to seas are also the most attractive for a lot of **economic activity**.

Top Ten World Largest Cities:

- Tokyo, Japan (coastal)
- Mexico City, Mexico
- Mumbai, India (coastal)
- Sáo Paulo, Brazil
- New York City, USA (coastal)
- Shanghai, China (coastal)
- Lagos, Nigeria (coastal)
- Los Angeles, USA (coastal)
- Calcutta, India (coastal)
- Buenos Aires, Argentina (coastal)

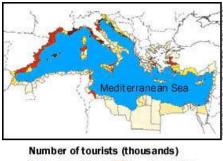
....we must understand submarine hazards





VULNERABILITY

- Very densely-populated coastline: 160 million inhabitants sharing 46,000 km of coastline (**3.5 inhabitants per m of coastline**).
- World's leading holiday destination, receiving up 30% of global tourism and an average of 135 million visitors annually; this is predicted to increase to 235-350 million tourists by year 2025 (European Environmental Agency -EEA).



"By 2025, the annual crowd will soar to anywhere from 235 to 350 million tourists, according to the EEA."

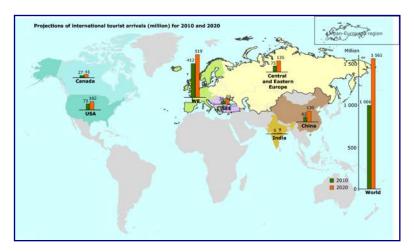
 Number of tourists (thousands)

 from 0 to 150
 from 600 to 900

 from 150 to 300
 from 900 to 1100

 from 300 to 600
 from 900 to 1100

Mediterranean tourism takes its toll. By Environmental News Network (ENN) March 14, 2000; http://archives.cnn.com/2000/NATURE/03/14/mediterranean.enn/i ndex.html



EEA web site <u>http://www.eea.europa.eu</u> Copyright EEA, Copenhagen.





VULNERABILITY

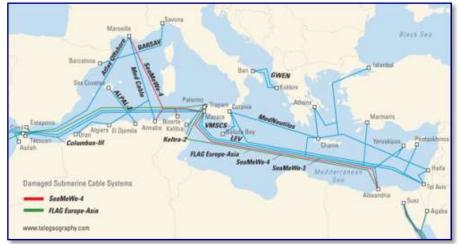
Very high density of seafloor structures / increasing use of the seafloor:

- Infrastructures (oil, windmills, telecommunications, pipelines, ...)
- Fisheries
- Environment
- Exploitation of mineral and energy resources
- ✓ Waste disposal



Casablanca Platform, off Spain





A study on behalf of the Submarine Cable Improvement Group shows 25% of all faults are caused by **natural hazards such submarine earthquakes, density currents and extreme weather.**

Mediterranean Fibre Cable Cut - a RIPE NCC Analysis http://www.ripe.net/ Analysis by the RIPE NCC Science Group with contributions from Roma Tre University.Editors: Rene Wilhelm, Chris Buckridge





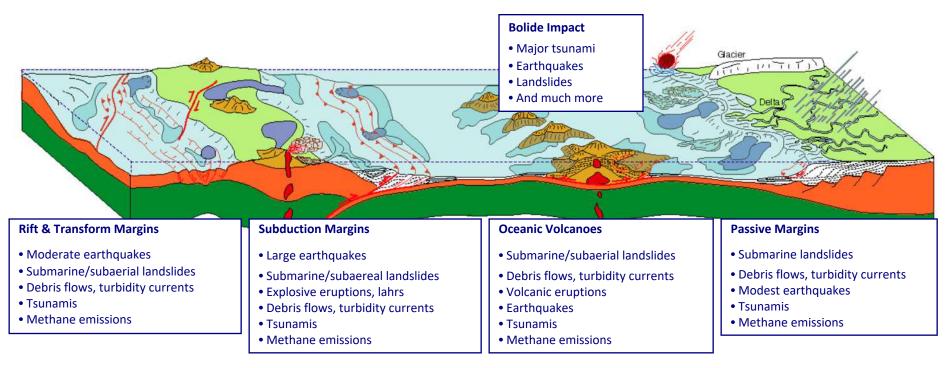
SUBMARINE GEOHAZARDS

- EARTHQUAKES originated below the sea floor
- VOLCANIC ISLAND ERUPTIONS and FLANK COLLAPSE
- SUBMARINE LANDSLIDES and SEDIMENT MASS MOVEMENTS (turbidity currents, debris flows, slumps)
- TSUNAMIS (originated by the above)
- METHANE EMISSIONS
- METEORITE IMPACTS in the OCEANS





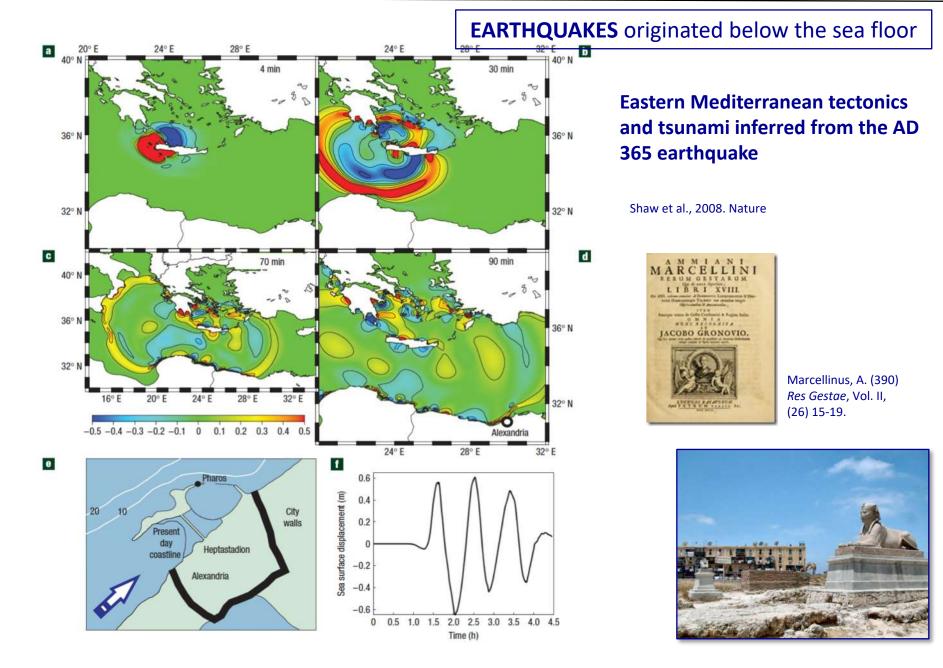
SUBMARINE GEOHAZARDS OCCUR IN ALL OCEANIC ENVIRONMENTS but THEY CONCENTRATE ON CONTINENTAL MARGINS



Adapted from Morgan et al., 2009. Scientific Drilling, available at: http://www.iodp.org/geohazards/







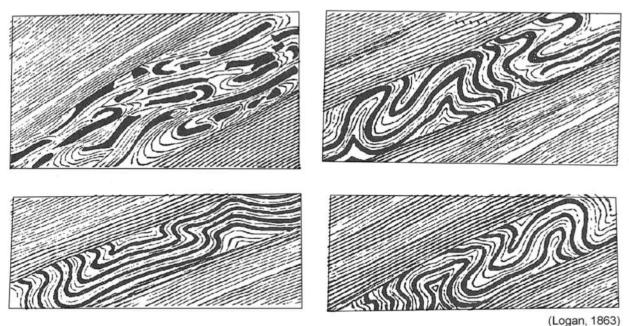




SEDIMENTARY EVIDENCE OF PAST EARTHQUAKES

SEISMITES

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Soft-Sediment Deformation Structures (SSDS)

Detailed sketches by Sir William Edmond Logan of localized deformed beds within otherwise undeformed Devonian limestones, Gaspe Peninsula, Quebec, Canada (Logan, 1863). Such deformed beds are commonly called "Soft-sediment deformation structures" (SSDS). Diagram reproduced from Maltman (1994a).

















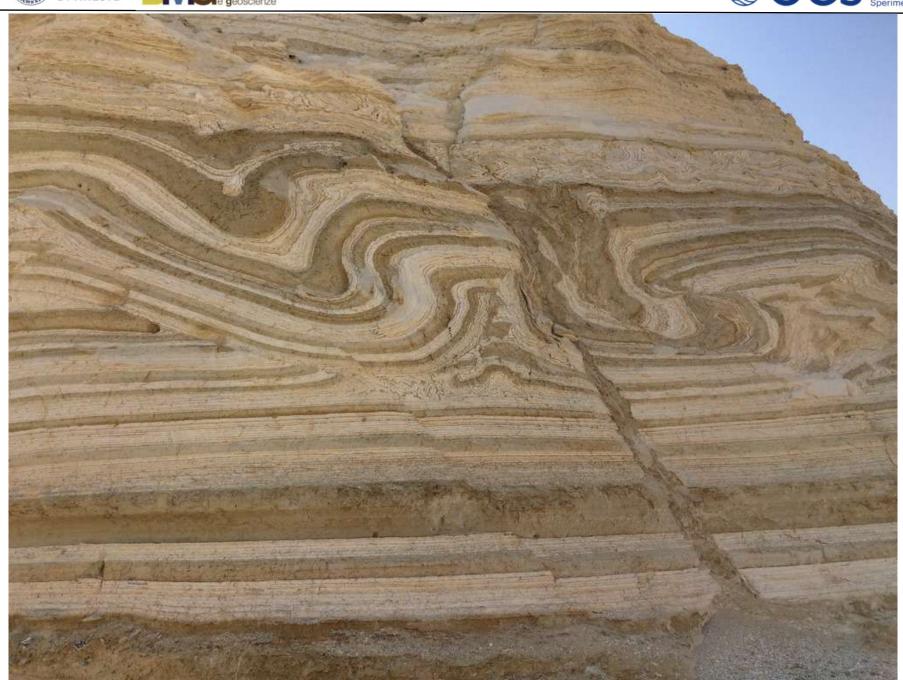






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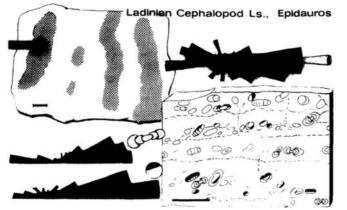




Adolf Seilacher (1969) first proposed the genetic term "seismites" to interpret earthquake-deformed beds composed of SSDS.

Seilacher, A., 1969. Fault-graded beds interpreted as seismites. *Sedimentology*, 13, 155e159 Seilacher, A., 1984. Sedimentary structures tentatively attributed to seismic events. *Marine Geology*, 55 (1984) 1--12 1





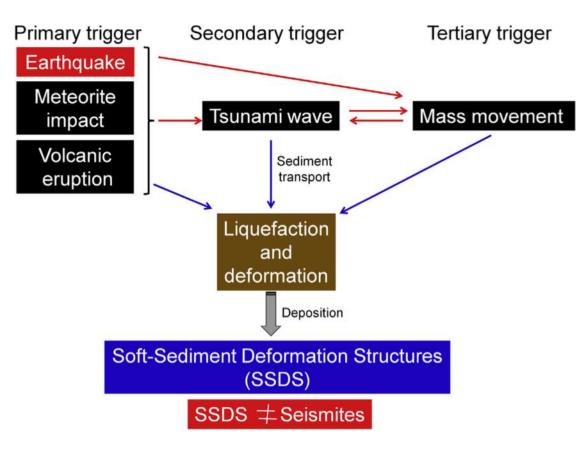






Multiple origins of SSDS

Diagram illustrating complex interrelationships among the order of triggers, sediment transport, state of liquefaction, and deposition of SSDS. There are 21 triggers and they are all directly or indirectly responsible for transport processes, depositional mechanisms, and related liquefaction



An earthquake can trigger tsunami waves that in turn can trigger mass movements. Thin red arrows: Triggering of other triggers. Thin blue arrows: One or more sediment transport processes with or without flow transformations (Fisher, 1983).

Thick grey arrow: Final deposition. Note that mass movement can function both as a trigger and as a transport process. See Shanmugam (2006a, 2006b, 2012a) for discussion of examples of triggers shown here.





Table 4Types and duration of triggering mechanisms of sediment failures that control sediment transport, deposition, and liquefaction.Compiled from several sources. Updated after Shanmugam (2016a). The change in numbering is to reflect the change in duration oftriggering events.

Type of triggering mechanism	Environment of sediment emplacement	Duration of triggering mechanism
1. Earthquake (Heezen and Ewing, 1952; Henstock et al., 2006)	Subaerial and submarine	Short-term events:
2. Meteorite impact (Barton et al., 2009/2010; Claeys et al., 2002)	Subaerial and submarine	A few minutes to several
3. Volcanic activity (Tilling et al., 1990)	Subaerial and submarine	hours, days or months
4. Tsunami wave (Shanmugam, 2006b)	Subaerial and submarine	
5. Rogue wave (Dysthe et al., 2008)	Submarine	
6. Cyclonic wave (Bea et al., 1983; Prior et al., 1989; Shanmugam, 2008b)	Subaerial and submarine	
7. Internal wave and tide (Shanmugam, 2013)	Submarine	
8. Ebb tidal current (Boyd et al., 2008)	Submarine	
9. Monsoonal rainfall (Petley, 2012)	Subaerial	
10. Groundwater seepage (Brönnimann, 2011)	Subaerial and submarine	
11. Wildfire (Cannon et al., 2001)	Subaerial	
12. ^a Human activity (Dan <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	Subaerial and submarine	
 ^bTectonic events: (a) Tectonic oversteepening (Greene <i>et al.</i>, 2006); (b) Tensional stress on the rift zone (Urgeles <i>et al.</i>, 1997); (c) Oblique seamount subduction (Collot <i>et al.</i>, 2001); among others 	Subaerial and submarine	Intermediate-term events: Hundreds to thousands of years
2. Glacial maxima, loading (Elverhøi <i>et al.</i> , 1997, 2002);	Submarine	
Glacial meltwater (Piper et al., 2012)	Submarine	
3. Salt movement (Prior and Hooper, 1999)	Submarine	
4. Depositional loading (Behrmann <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Coleman and Prior, 1982)	Submarine Submarine	
5. Hydrostatic loading (Trincardi <i>et al.</i> , 2003)		
6. Ocean-bottom current (Locat and Lee, 2002) 7. Biological proving in submaring campon	Submarine Submarine	
7. Biological erosion in submarine canyon	Submarine	
(Dillon and Zimmerman, 1970; Warme <i>et al.</i> , 1978) 8. Gas hydrate decomposition	Submarine	
(Maslin <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Popenoe <i>et al.</i> , 1993; Sultan <i>et al.</i> , 2004)	Submarine	
1. Sea-level lowstand	Submarine	Long-term events: Thousands
(Damuth and Fairbridge, 1970; Shanmugam and		to millions of years
Moiola, 1982, 1988; Vail <i>et al.</i> , 1991)		

^a Although human activity is considered to be the second most common triggering mechanism (next to earthquakes) for known historic submarine mass movements (Mosher *et al.*, 2010), it is irrelevant for interpreting ancient rock record.

^b Some tectonic events may extend over millions of years.





TURBIDITES AS PALEO EARTHQUAKES INDICATORS

Goldfinger, 2011

During and shortly after large earth- quakes in the coastal and marine environments, a spectrum of evidence may be left behind, mirroring onshore paleoseismic evidence.

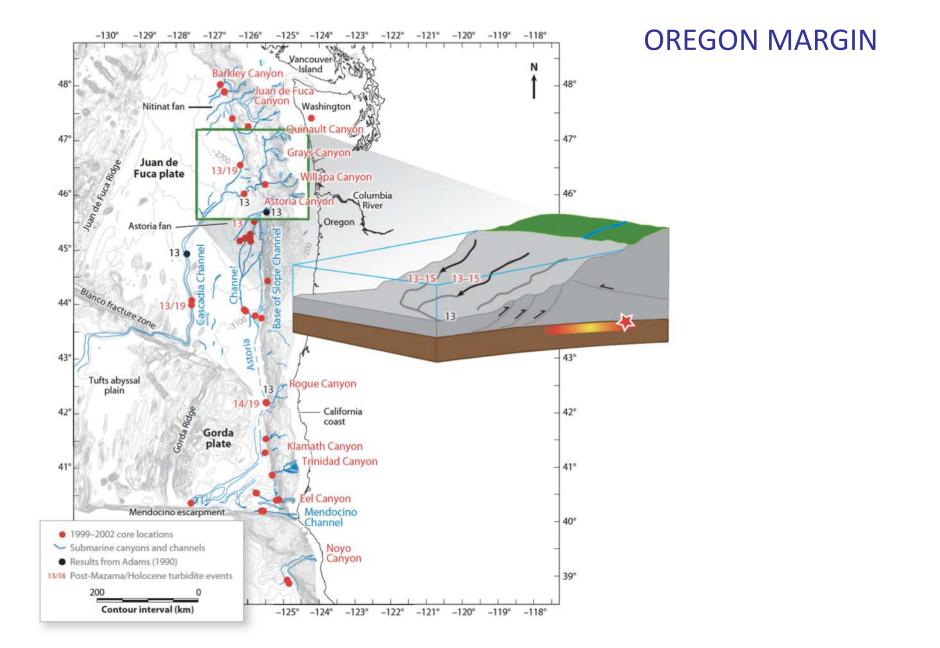
Shaking or dis- placement of the seafloor can trigger processes such as turbidity currents, submarine landslides, tsunami (which may be recorded both onshore and offshore), and soft-sediment deformation.

Marine sites may also share evidence of fault scarps, colluvial wedges, offset features, and liquefaction or fluid expulsion with their onshore counterparts.

Submarine turbidite deposits can be used for paleoseismology. Important aspects are: focuses on the dating and correlation techniques used to establish stratigraphic continuity of marine deposits.

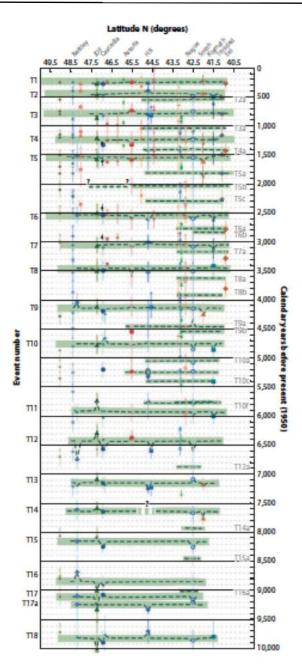














Detailed investigations of marine deposits at the millimeter scale is now routine, and high-resolution geophysical techniques allow subsurface mapping and correlation with core samples to delineate mass transport deposits and turbidites. In some cases, direct evidence of earthquake slip is available and can be imaged using geophysical techniques.

Many deposits, however, do not have a direct physical link to their causative sources and must be distinguished from other deposits through either regional correlation, dating, or sedimentological character. Submarine deposits may include a wide range of features and structures which overlap with those of onshore deposits.





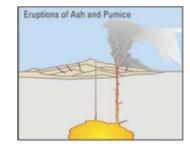


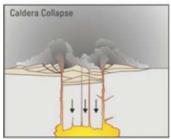
VOLCANIC ISLAND ERUPTIONS and FLANK COLLAPSE



Friedrich (1994)

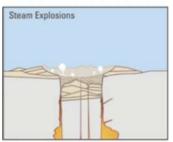
The Minoan eruption of Santorini happened around 1645 BC in the Late Bronze Age.

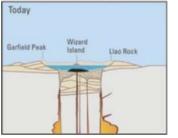










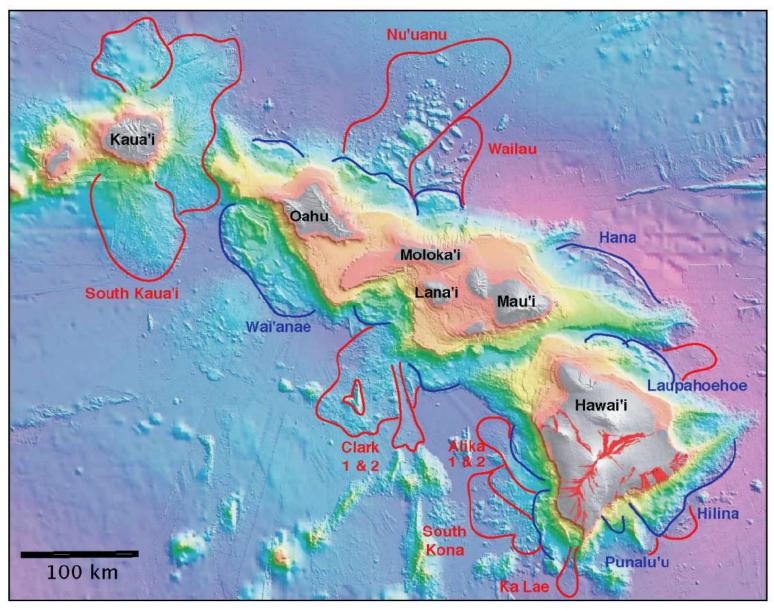


http://pubs.usgs.gov/fs/2002/fs092-02/

Akrotiri remains



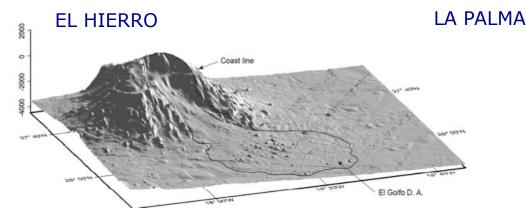




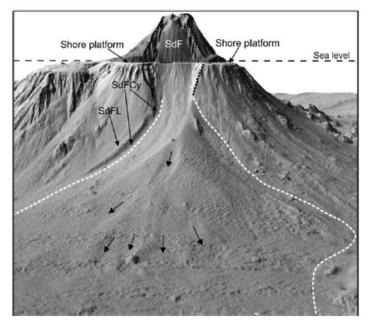
Morgan et al., 2009. Scientific Drilling



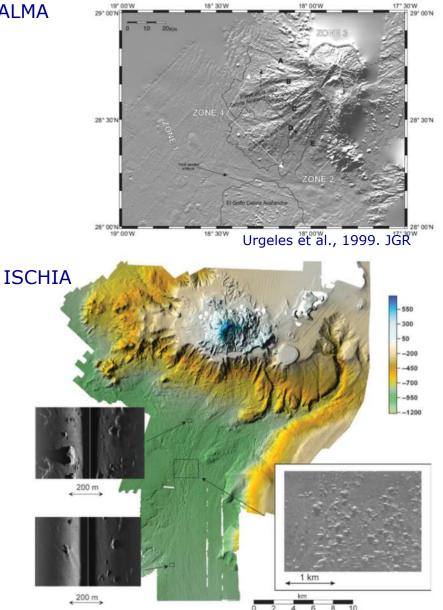




STROMBOLI



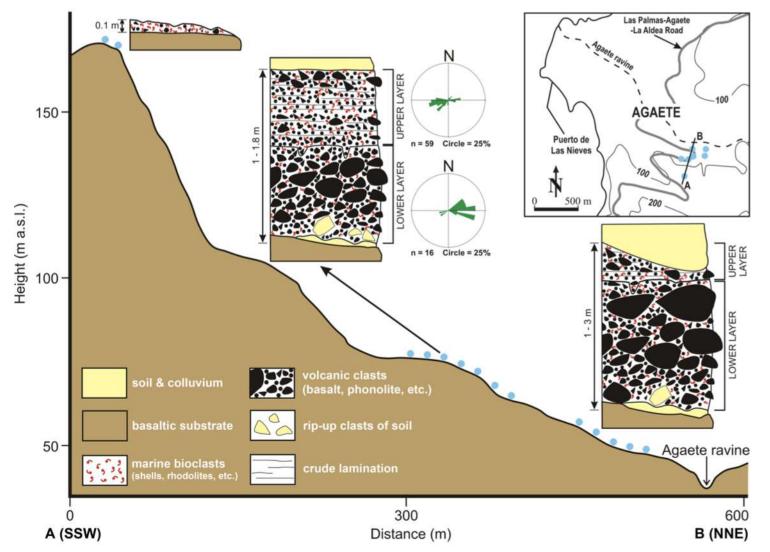
Romagnoli et al., 2009. Marine Geology



Chiocci & DeAlteris, 2006. Terra Nova







Longitudinal profile of the southern slope of the Agaete valley (western coast of Gran Canaria). The tsunami conglomerates display two subunits: a lower coarse subunit fining landward with clast imbrication oriented landward (eastward), and a finer upper subunit with seaward clast imbrication (westward). Paris et al., 2017. Marine Geology. 10.1016/j.margeo.2017.10.004





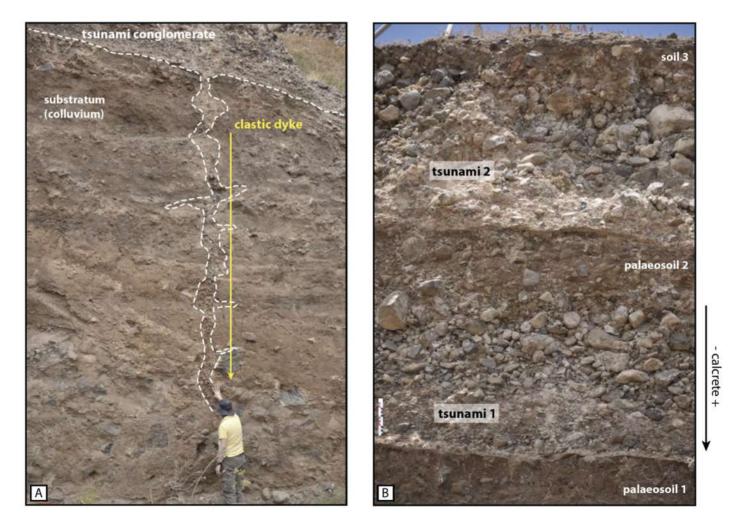


Fig. 4 – Sedimentary sections of the Agaete tsunami conglomerate (Gran Canaria) showing (A) a downward-injected clastic dyke of the tsunami conglomerate in the substratum (colluvial deposits), and (B) the succession of two distinct tsunami units separated by palaeosols.

Paris et al., 2017. Marine Geology. 10.1016/j.margeo.2017.10.004





DEEP SEA TSUNAMI DEPOSITS

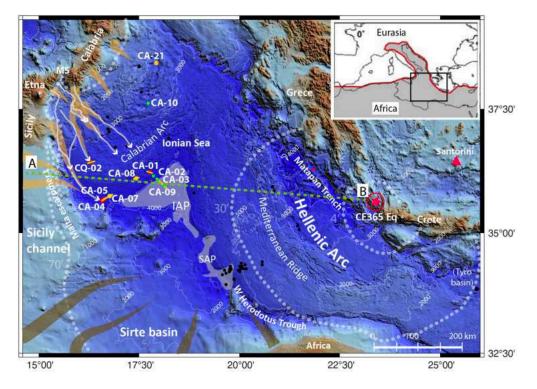
Homogenite Augias mega-Turbidite (deposit in the Eastern Mediterranean (tsunami from the Santorini Caldera collapse later re-interpreted as subduction earthquake tsunami)

Polonia A., Vaiani S.C., and de Lange G., 2016. **Did the A.D. 365 Crete** earthquake/tsunami trigger synchronous giant. turbidity currents in the Mediterranean Sea? *Geology*, March 2016, v. 44, p. 191-194,

2016, doi:10.1130/G37486.1

A Polonia ,C H Nelson, S C Vaiani, E Colizza, G Gasparotto, G Giorgetti, C Bonetti, L Gasperini **Recognizing megatsunamis in Mediterranean deep sea sediments based on the massive deposits of the 365 CE Crete event**

Sci Rep., 2022 Mar 28;12(1):5253. doi: 10.1038/s41598-022-09058-3.

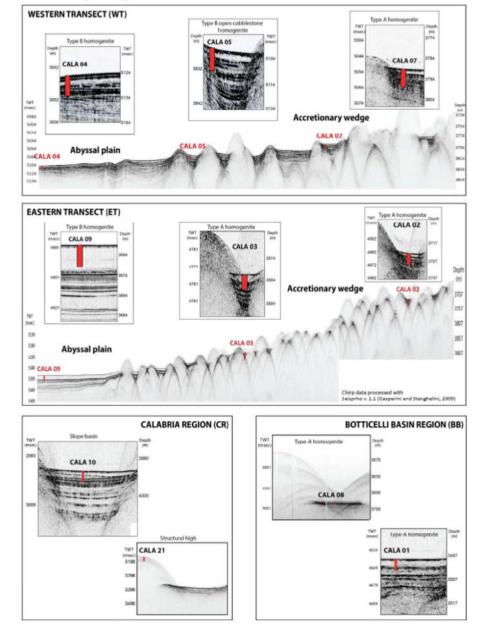


Dotted grey lines show tsunami wave front at 4, 30, and 70 min after the earthquake. Red star: epicentral area of the CE 365 earthquake





Data Repository DR 2



Sub-bottom CHIRP profiles across the coring sites investigated in this study (see Fig. 1 for location of Chirp profiles and gravity cores). The two long profiles across the Eastern and Western transects are collected at the transition between the undeformed abyssal plain and the accretionary wedge. Gravity cores are represented by red rectangles on the CHIRP profiles.





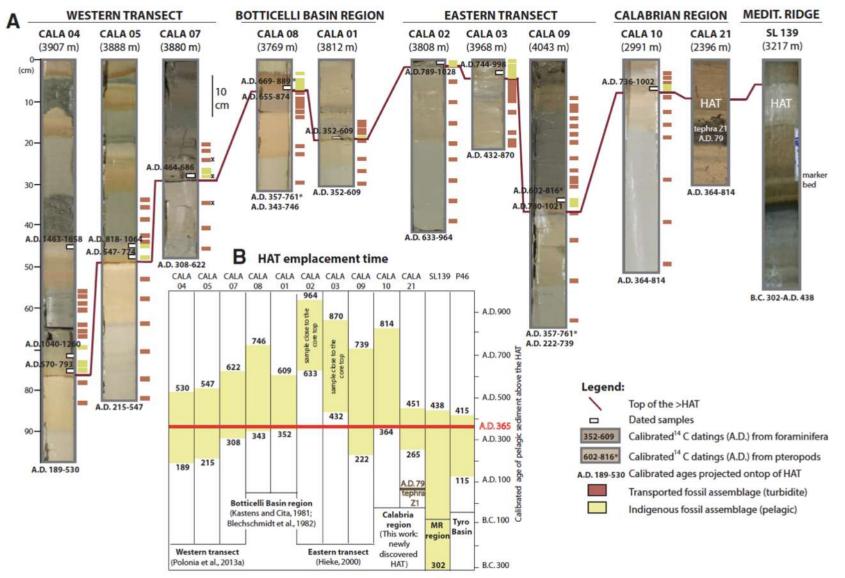


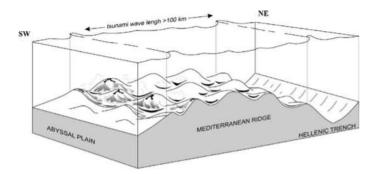
Figure 3. A: Core photographs, dated samples, and foraminiferal assemblages in the study cores. Calibrated homogenite Augias turbidite (HAT) ages are shown below core photographs. The x indicates the fossil assemblage shown in Item DR4 (see footnote 1). Medit.—Mediterranean. B: HAT emplacement time. The dated pelagic samples yield a cluster of ages centered on the A.D. 365 Crete earthquakes. Where two radiocarbon dates are available for a single sample, we used the age obtained with foraminifera. Details for core P46 are given in Items DR8 and DR9.

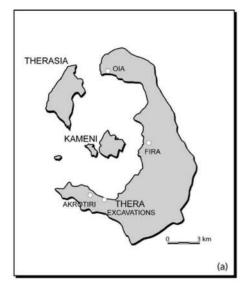


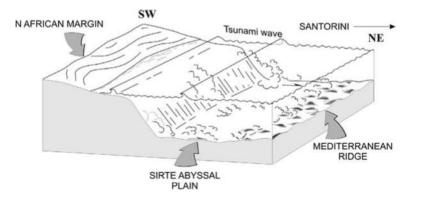


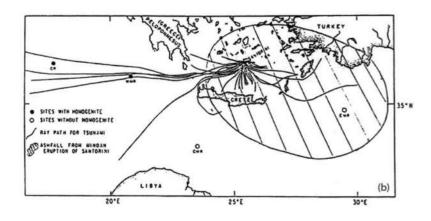
Maria Bianca Cita Sironi & Bianca Rimoldi , 2005. **Prehistoric mega-tsunami in the eastern Mediterranean and its sedimentary response**

Rendiconti Lincei volume 16, pages137–157 (2005)



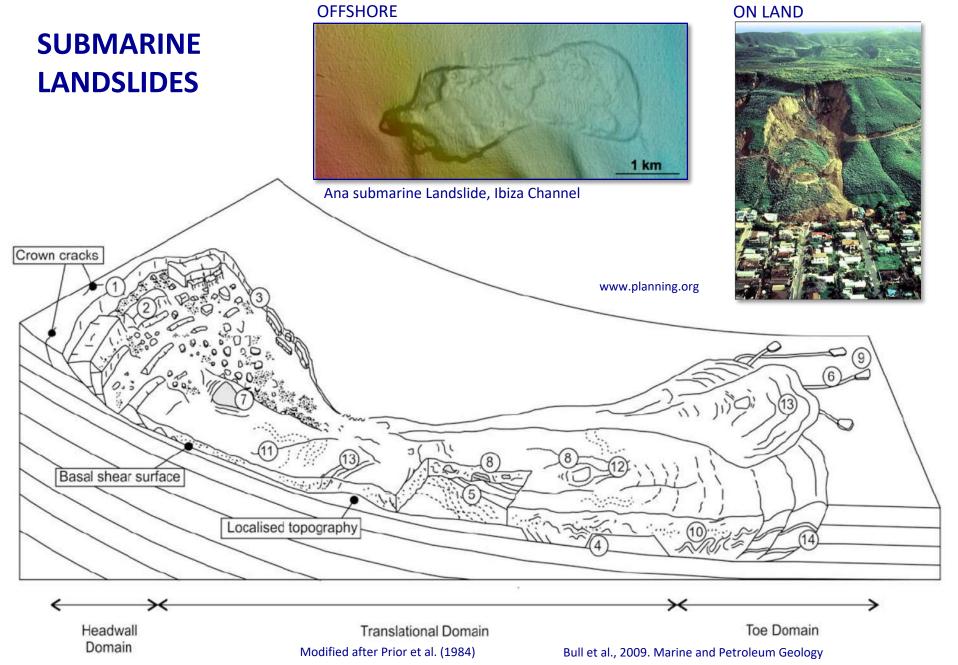
















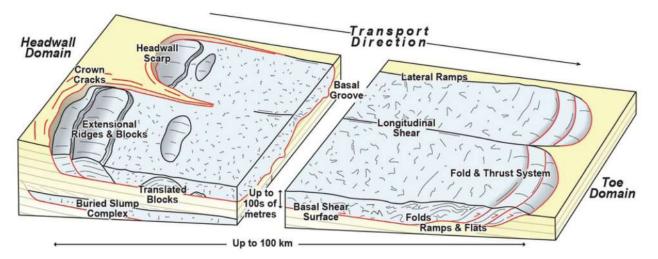
DEFINITIONS

- **Submarine landslides** are one of the main agents through which sediments are transferred across the continental slope to the deep ocean.
- They are **ubiquitous** features of submarine slopes in all geological settings and at all water depths.
- **Hazards** related to such landslides range from destruction of offshore facilities to collapse of coastal facilities and the generation of tsunamis.





Submarine landslides – architecture, controlling factors and environments. A summary. Regional Geology and Tectonics (Second Edition). Volume 1: Principles of Geologic Analysis 2020, Chapter 16 - Pages 417-439 Nicola Scarselli https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-444-64134-2.00015-8

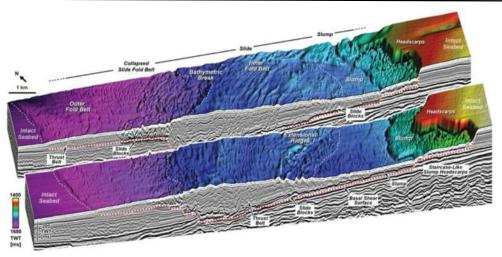


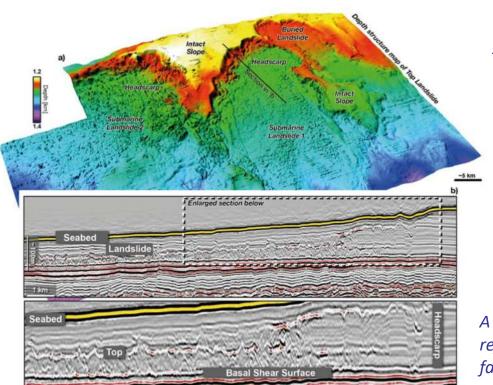
Schematic illustration of the morphology and structures of a submarine landslide. Compiled from Prior et al. (1984) and Bull et al. (2009).



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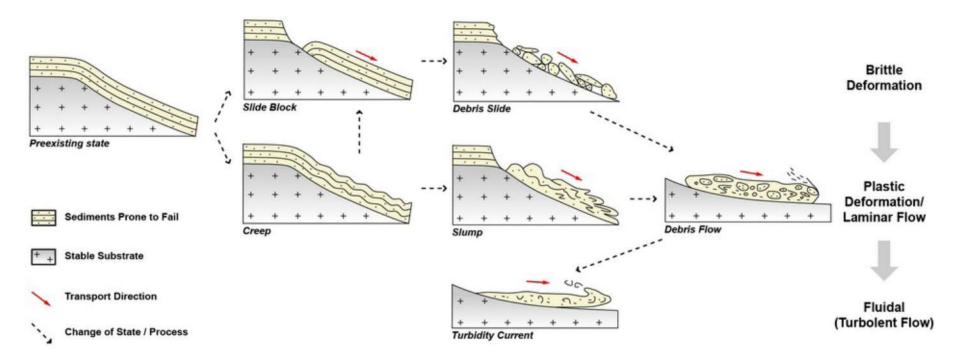


Seismic example of submarine landslide in which multiple failure processes coexist in the same event. The figure shows a recent, near seabed failure offshore NW Shelf Australia, where the headwall area is filled by a slump mass. This passes downslope to a coherent slide. Image from Scarselli et al. (2013).

A typical example of submarine landslide as observed in reflection seismic data. a) Top surface map of the failure. b) Vertical section through the failure.





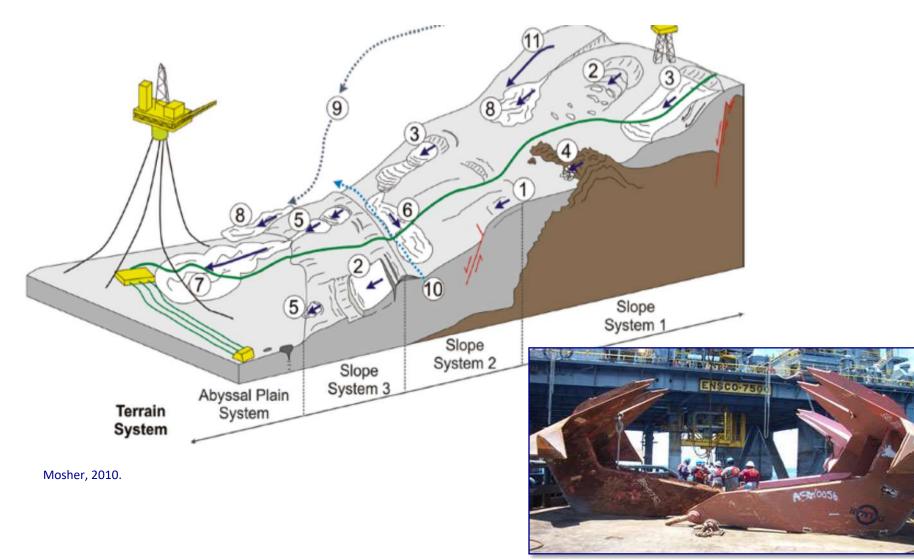


Summary of end member types of submarine mass movements. Modified from McHugh et al. (2002) and Madof et al. (2009).





Concern for safety of economic activity (energy, communications)



R. Craig Shipp, Shell International E&P Inc. IODP Geohazard Workshop, Portland 2008





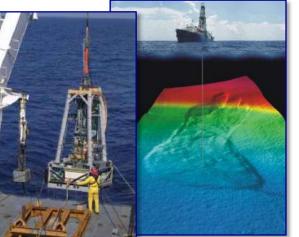
Approaches to the study of submarine landslides

• CHARACTERIZATION (morphology, geometry, structure)

• **PRECONDITIONING FACTORS** (sedimentology, fluid flow regime, tectonic history...)

R Z.4 Md B Decision and Decisiona and Decisionand Decisiona and Decisionand Decisiona and Decis

Mid-term temperature/pore pressure lance (SAPPI)



Drilling

In Situ geotechnical merasurements (IFREMER Penfeld Penetrometer)

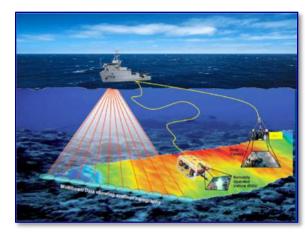
ements

• TRIGGERS

(external stimulus that initiates the process)

• TRANSPORT MECHANISMS (flow mechanics)

• FREQUENCY (Stratigraphic analysis and ¹⁴C dating)



NOOA Grey Reef Expedition



Autosub6000, a new AUV, NOCS

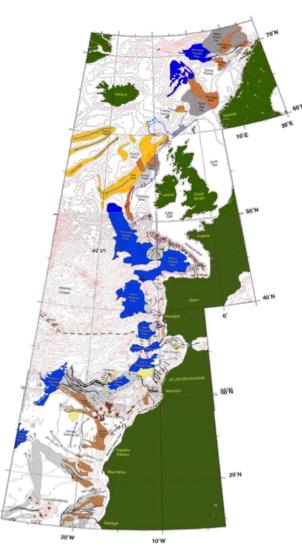


Seismic surveys



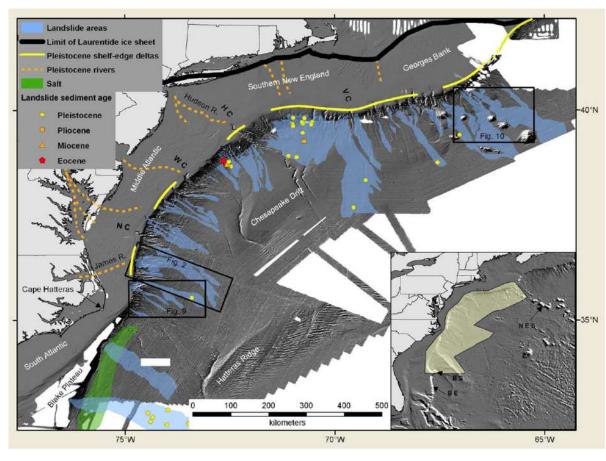


West European and African Margin



Weaver et al., 2000. Sedimentology

USA Atlantic Coast









The <u>paradigma</u> of earthquakes as triggers of modern submarine landslides

The <u>paradox</u> of the distribution of submarine landslides on present-day continental margins

Geological control on the distribution of submarine landslides





The paradigma of earthquakes as triggers of submarine landslides

Masson, D.G., Harbitz C.B., Wynn R.B., Pedersen, G. and Løvholt, F. 2006. **Submarine landslides:** processes, triggers and hazard prediction. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc.* A 364, 2009–2039. doi:10.1098/rsta.2006.1810 "Elevated pore pressures can result from normal depositional processes or from transient processes such as earthquake shaking"

"Historical evidence suggests that the majority of large submarine landslides are triggered by earthquakes"

Canals, M., Lastras, G., Urgeles, R., Casamor, J.L., Mienert, J., Cattaneo, A., De Batist, M., Haflidason, H., Imbo, Y., Laberg, J.S., Locat, J., Long, D., Longva, O., Masson, D.G., Sultan, N., Trincardi, F. and Bryn, P., 2004. **Slope failure dynamics and impacts from seafloor and shallow sub-seafloor geophysical data: An overview**, *Mar. Geol.*, 213, 9–72.

"In addition to pre-conditioning factors related to geological setting and sedimentation conditions, a final trigger is required for submarine landslides to take place, which is most often assumed to be an **earthquake**"

Locat, J. and Lee, H.J., 2002. **Submarine landslides: advances and challenges**. Can. Geotech. J., 39, 193-212.

Seismic loading and oversteepening are considered as main triggers of submarine landslides

Sultan, N., Cochonat, P., Canals, M., Cattaneo, A., Dennielou, B., Haflidason, H., Laberg, J.S., Long, D., Mienert, J., Trincardi, F., Urgeles, R., Vorren, T.O., Wilson, C., 2004. **Triggering mechanisms of slope instability processes and sediment failures on continental margins: a geotechnical approach**. *Mar. Geol.*, 213, 291–321.

"No specific statements"

Very common statement found in the literature:

...... The trigger is most likely an earthquake.





TRIGGERS vs **FACTORS**

TRIGGERS

A **triggering mechanism** is an **external stimulus** that initiates the slope instability process (Sultan et al., 2004).

Examples of triggering (or "external") mechanisms (Locat and Lee, 2002) Also called **short-term triggers**

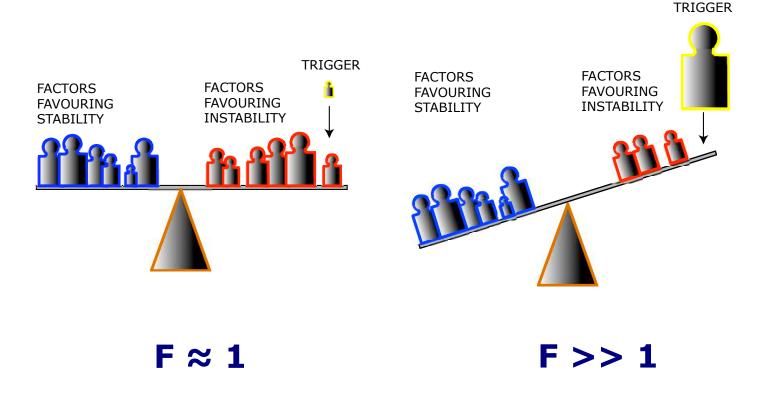
- oversteepening
- seismic loading (earthquakes)
- storm-wave loading
- rapid sediment accumulation and under-consolidation
- gas charging
- gas hydrate dissociation
- low tides
- seepage
- glacial loading
- volcanic island processes





importance of

short-term TRIGGERS against preconditioning FACTORS:







Marine sediment behaviour in response to a cyclic loading (earthquake)

During earthquakes, soil layers are subjected to **multi-directional** cyclic stresses with different amplitudes and frequencies that lead to cyclic deformations and to changes in stress-strain and strength properties of soil layers. Thus, the response of soil layers and the earthquake characteristics on the ground surface are affected from the properties of soil layers.

Decreasing sediment strength

and

Increasing sediment strength





Marine sediment behaviour in response to a cyclic loading (earthquake)

Decreasing sediment strength

- **Degradation** (weakening) of **soft** (normally consolidated) **clays** (cohesive) (e.g. Pestana et al., Soil Dynamics and Earthquake Engineering 19 (2000) 501-519):
 - degradation of the sediment stiffness (elasticity)
 - degradation of the shear strength (accumulation of plastic strain)
 - increase in shear-induced pore pressure (non-drained)
- Effective stress reduction and liquefaction of **loose**, **saturated granular sediment** (coarse silts and sands):

Ground shaking produces compaction. Because the duration of the cyclic loading is too short to ensure the drainage of water, an increase in pore water pressure produces an equal magnitude decrease in the effective confining stress. If the vertical effective stress drops to zero then liquefaction occurs.

• Significant loss of strength in **clays** (cohesive):

sensitive clays (high ratio between undisturbed and remoulded shear strength) may loos nearly entirely their shear strength after cycling loading and behave as liquefied soil (typically in terrestrial **quick clays**).





Increasing sediment strength "seismic strengthening"

Repeated, **non-failure**, seismic events can actually strengthen the sediment column through development of excess pore-water pressures during earthquakes and subsequent drainage, resulting in a densification during intervening periods. (Locat and Lee (2000) Can. Geotech. J., 39, 193-212).





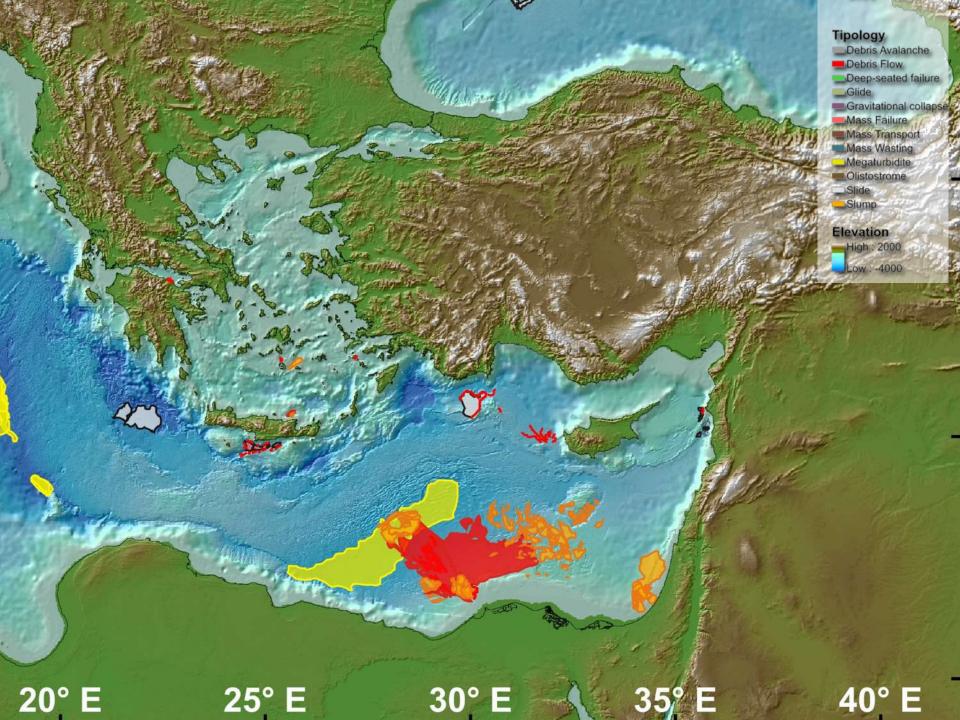
Back to the paradigma:

Even in the most studied submarine landslide, the relation to the earthquake activity is not so evident. Only a very strong, 10⁻⁴ yearly probability shock could have caused the failure of the slope of Storegga Slide.

Surely, not enough experience has been gained on the subject.

Now the Paradox:

The distribution of submarine landslides on present-day continental margins

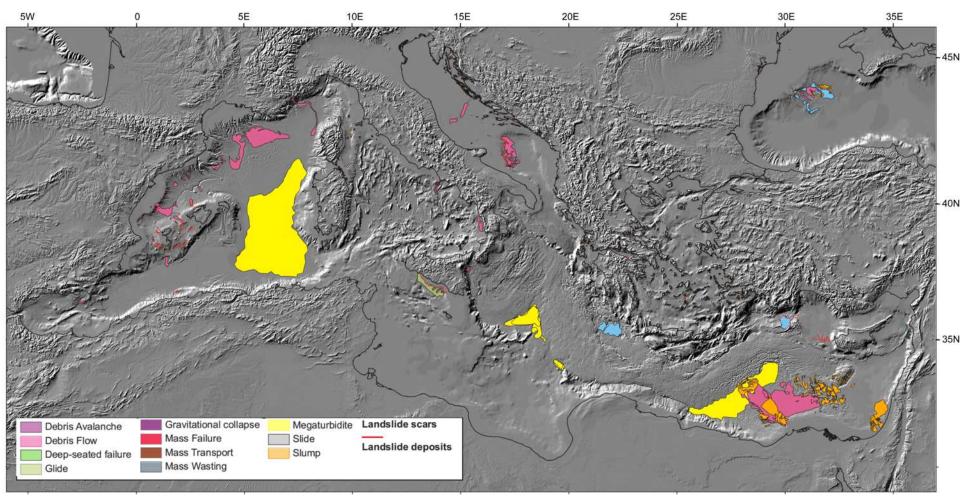






Case study: the Mediterranean Basin

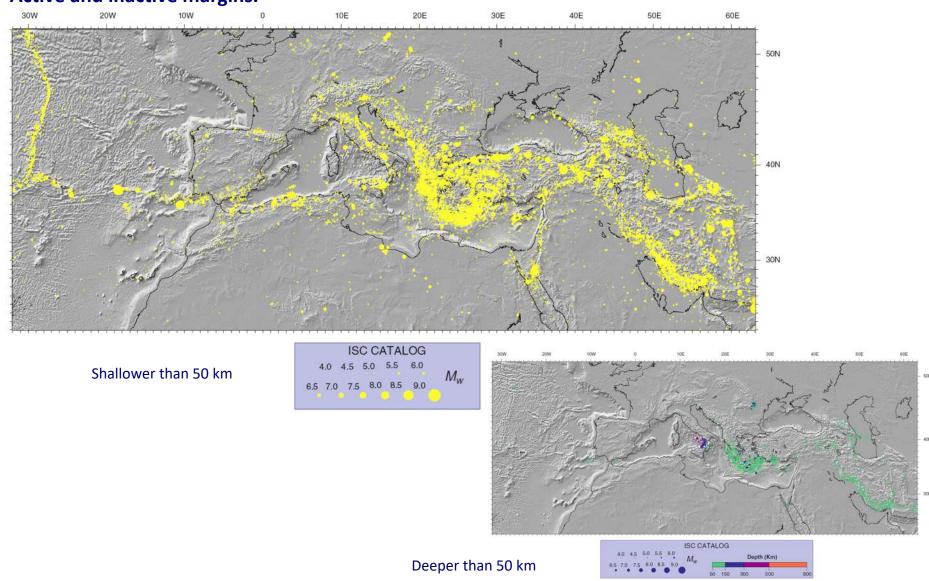
A database on submarine landslides of the Mediterranean Sea







Relation to geological setting and seismicicty. Active and inactive margins.

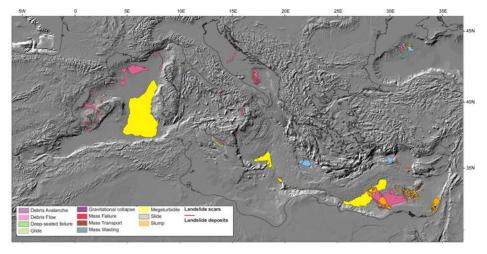


Vannucci, G. et al., 2004. An atlas of Mediterranean seismicity. Ann. Geophys. Suppl. V. 47(1),247-306.

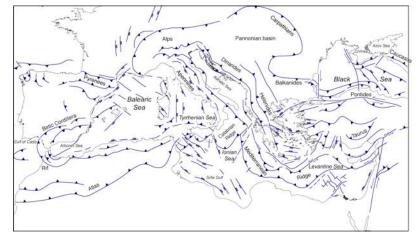




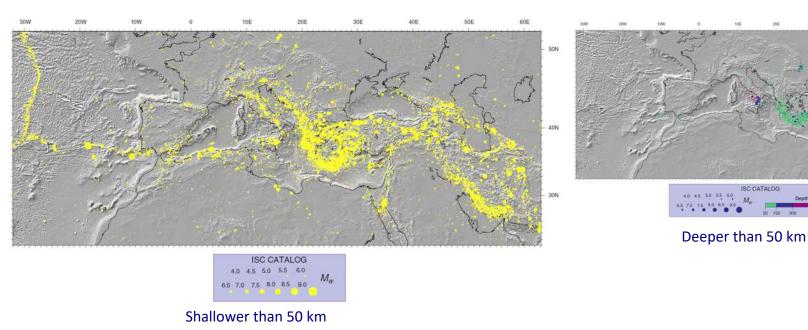
Relation to geological setting and seismicicty



Camerlenghi, Urgeles, and Fantoni, 2009



Camerlenghi and Pini, 2009



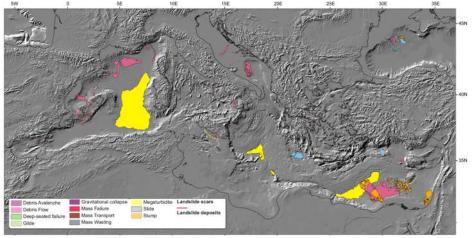
Vannucci, G. et al., 2004. An atlas of Mediterranean seismicity. Ann. Geophys. Suppl. V. 47(1),247-306.





Relation to geological setting and seismicicty.

Present day deformation



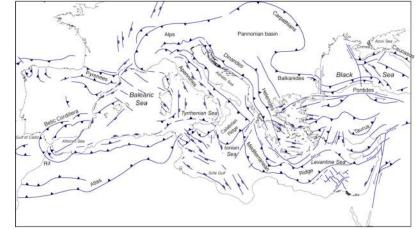
Camerlenghi, Urgeles, and Fantoni, 2009

Yellow boxes:

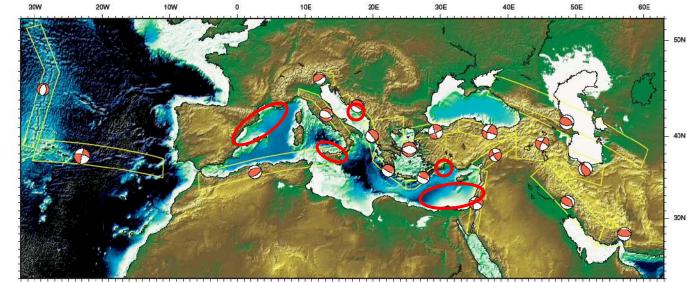
deformation

main

areas.



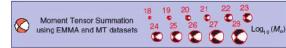
Camerlenghi and Pini, 2009



The focal mechanism within each box represents the sum of moment tensors of earthquakes with depth < 50 km contained in the box.

40N

30N



Vannucci, G. et al., 2004. An atlas of Mediterranean seismicity. Ann. Geophys. Suppl. V. 47(1),247-306.





Seismicity of passive margins

A significant **intraplate seismicity exist on passive margins**, that correspond to the transition between continental and ocean lithospheres.

Various processes have been proposed to explain long terms deformation affecting the structures:

- isostatic response due a loading/unloading (ice, sediment accumulation or removal),
- regional thermal adjustments,
- regional compression,
- ridge-push.

Type and magnitude of eartquakes are **variable** Relatively **shallow** Recurrence time is **long**





US atlantic margin

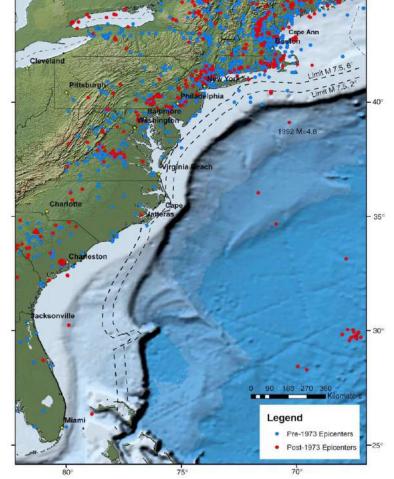
Relationships between the **sizes of submarine landslides** and **earthquakes recurrence intervals** to estimate the maximum sizes of submarine landslides and their recurrence.

Upper slope ($\leq 6^{\circ}$) will be affected by earthquakes with magnitudes of 5.5, 6.5, and 7.5, only if the earthquakes occur at distances less than 14, 42, and 102 km from the upper slope, respectively.

Lower slope ($\leq 2^{\circ}$), the distances are much smaller (i.e., 7, 28, and 62 km, respectively).

This analysis suggests that, with the exception of Cape Hatteras, only offshore earthquakes may be able to trigger submarine landslide-generated tsunamis.

Maximum predicted distances based on slope stability analysis, for an M7.5 earthquake, to cause a catastrophic failure of the continental slope with slope angles of 2° and 6°, respectively. Smaller magnitude earthquakes will have to be located closer to the continental slope to cause catastrophic slope failures.







Seismicity of active margins

Subduction zones produce roughly 60% of Earth's shallow earthquakes large enough to be detectible from distant seismic stations and more than 90% of the seismic moment release for such earthquakes

Seismic moment release in most subduction zones is typically heterogeneous depending on:

- existence and rate of backarc spreading
- thickness of incoming sediment layer
- convergence rate
- dip of subducting plate
- width of the seismogenic zone
- nature of interplate stresses,
- physical, chemical and hydrogeological properties.
- pore fluid pressures and permeabilities

Type and magnitude of eartquakes are **variable** Also very **deep** Recurrence time is **short**





•Despite **large magnitude earthquakes**, the slopes of the northern Oregon margin in many places **have not failed** (*there is very little strong shaking a the base of the northern Oregon continental slope*.)

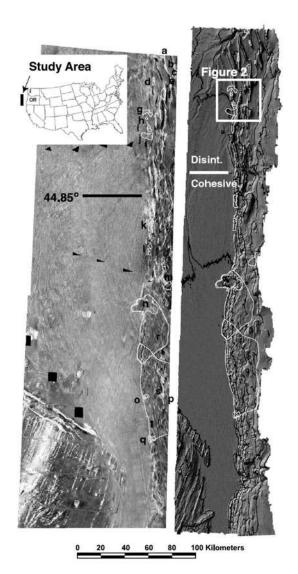
•Most of submarine landslides are **cohesive failures** (blocky landslides+slumps) in the seaward vergent section of the southern margin, only one is a large disintegrative failure. The blocky landslides suggest failure of **overconsolidated** material.

•Cohesive landslides tend to have higher headscarps than the slides that lose cohesion, suggesting that they occur in **stronger sediment**, and have the potential to produce larger tsunamis.

•Offshore Oregon, most of the landslides occur on **slopes over 15**°; the failures on the steeper slopes tend to produce larger tsunamis, while on passive margins of the US landslides tend to occur on slopes less than 4°.

•There are **surprisingly few large failures** along the seismically active northern margin.

Case study: the Oregon/Washington US margin



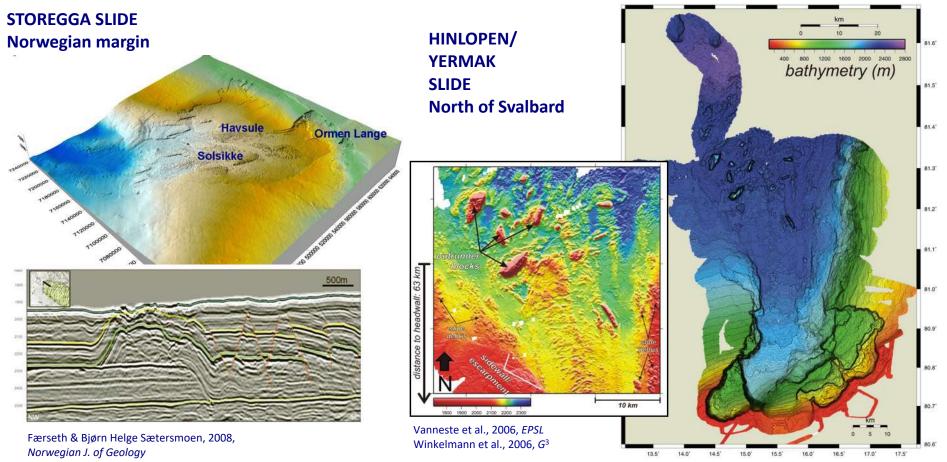




Summary of the paradox

Throughout the geological history of a sedimentary basin, **earthquakes** are occur both inactive and passive continental margins, with depth of the depocenter and recurrence time being the main difference (not magnitude)

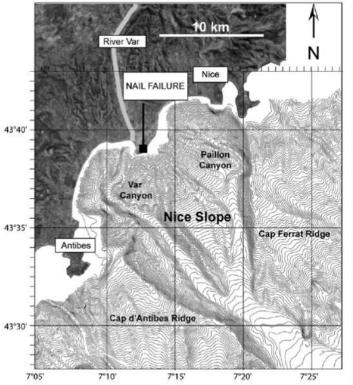
Case study analysis points out that recent **submarine landslides** are more numerous and are larger on passive continental margins.







1979 October 16 Nice international airport submarine landslide



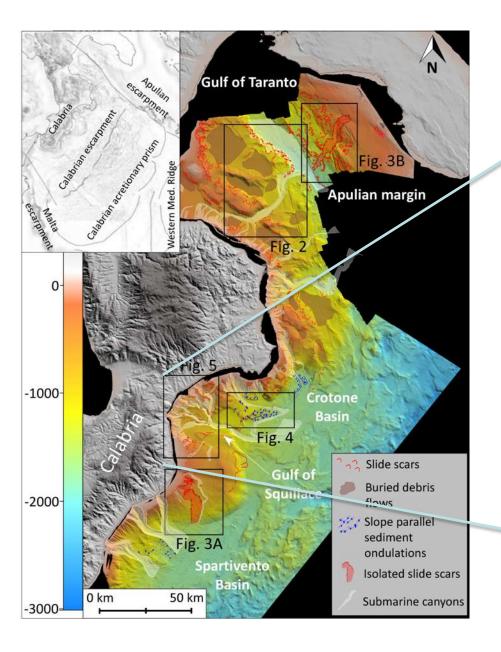




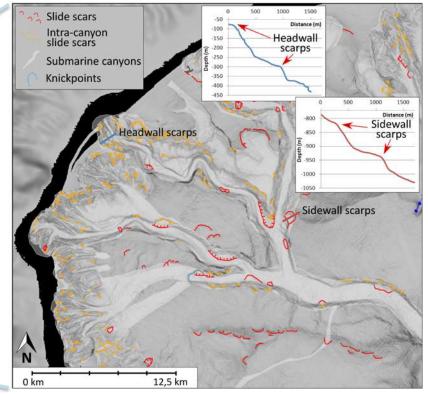
Seed et al., 1988







Submarine canyon erosion

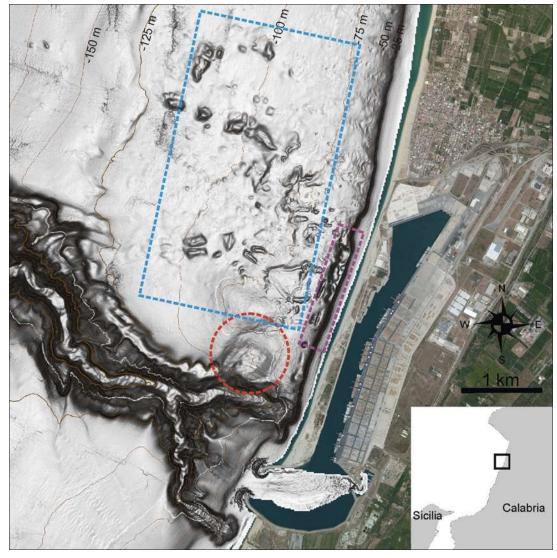


Ceramicola et al. 2014, in *Submarine Mass Movements and Their Consequences*





Turbidity-current erosion: Gioia Tauro seaport, Calabria



Casalbore et al., 2011, Hydto International.

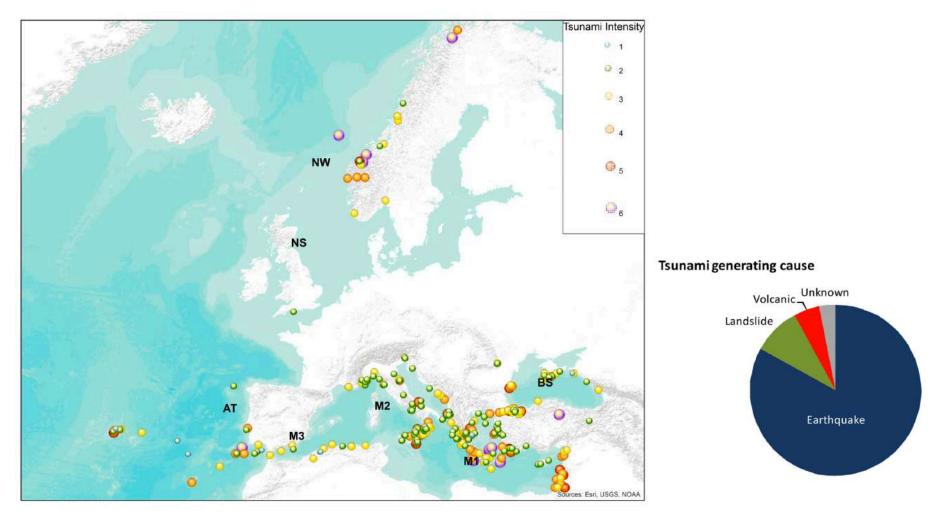




The Euro-Mediterranean Tsunami Catalogue

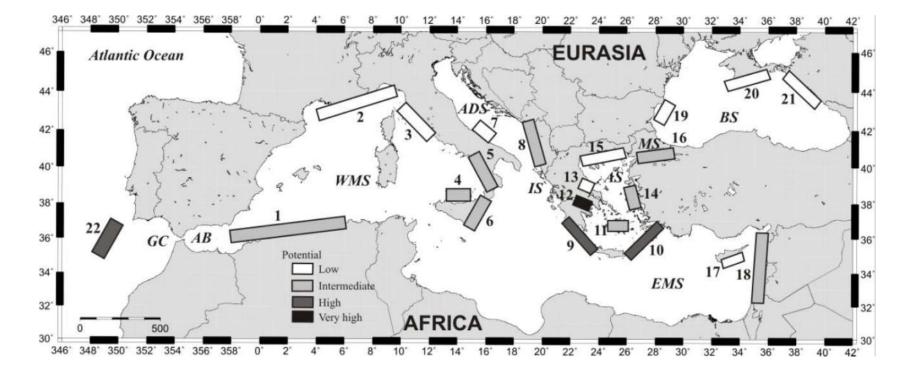
Alessandra Maramai, Beatriz Brizuela, Laura Graziani ANNALS OF GEOPHYSICS, 57, 4, 2014, S0435; doi:10.4401/ag-6437S0435

290 tsunamis generated in the European and Mediterranean seas since 6150 B.C. to current days





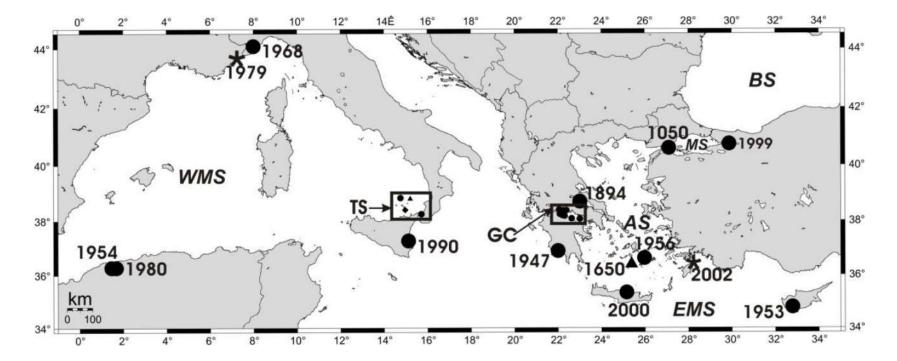




22 tsunamigenic zones and their relative potential for tsunami generation Papadopulos et al., 2014. Marine Geology







Geographic distribution of landslide tsunami sources historically documented in the Mediterranean region. Papadopulos et al., 2014. Marine Geology





CONCLUDING REMARKS (1/3)

- THERE ARE THINGS MOVING DOWN THERE
- TECHNOLOGY HAS PERMITTED TO IDENTIFY GEOLOGICAL PROCESS ON THE SEAFLOOR THAT CAN BE DEFINED AS HAZARDS
- VULNERABILITY IS INCREASED DUE TO INCREASED USE OF THE SEAFLOOR





CONCLUDING REMARKS (2/3)

- CLIMATE CHANGE CAN INCREASE THE FREQUENCY AND MAGNITUDE OF CERAIN SUBMARINE GEOHAZARDS (GAS EMISSIONS AND SUBMARINE LANDSLIDES)
- UNDERSTANDING OF MECHANISMS IS STILL POOR
- THERE ARE UNCERTAINTIES ON RECURRENCE TIMES
- MAGNITUDE OF EVENTS IS EXTREMELY VARIABLE





CONCLUDING REMARKS (3/3)

THERE IS A NEED FOR IMPROVED KNOWLEDGE!

Which means bright students in oceanography earth science, geophysics, engineering, biology, chemistry