

1	Topographic changes due to the 2004 Chuetsu thrusting earthquake
2	in low mountain region
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#### 23 Abstract

24	The co-seismic landslide volume information is critical to understanding the role of strong earthquake
25	in topographic evolution. However, the co-seismic landslide volumes are mainly obtained using
26	statistical scaling laws, which are not accurate enough for quantitative studies of the spatial pattern of
27	co-seismically induced erosion and the topographic changes caused by the earthquakes. The availability
28	of both pre- and post- earthquake high-resolution DEMs provide us the opportunity to try new approach
29	to get robust landslide volume information. Here, we propose a new method in landslide volume
30	estimate and tested it in Chuetsu region, where a Mw 6.6 earthquake occurred in 2004. Firstly, we align
31	the DEMs by reconstructing the horizontal difference, then we quantitatively obtained the landslide
32	volume in the epicentral area by differencing the pre- and post-earthquake DEMs. We convert the
33	landslide volume into the distribution of average catchment-scale seismically induced denudation. Our
34	results indicate the preserved topography is not only due to the uplifting caused by fault-related folding
35	on the hangwall of Muikamachi fault, but also undergone erosion caused by the seismically induced
36	landslides. Our findings reveal that Chuetsu earthquake mainly roughens the topography in the Chuetsu
37	region of low elevation. This study also reveal that the differential DEM method is a valuable approach
38	in analyzing landslide volume, as well as quantitative geomorphic analysis.
20	Varmonda, Chuston conthematics tono graphic changes, LiDAD, Differential DEM, depudation

39 Keywords: Chuetsu earthquake; topographic change; LiDAR; Differential DEM; denudation

40 **1. Introduction** 





41	It is increasingly recognized that the role of tectonic events is critical to understanding topographic
42	evolution, such as strong earthquakes. Strike-slip earthquakes mainly cause horizontal deformation,
43	normal fault earthquakes mainly occurred in extensional environment than reduce the topography, and
44	thrust earthquake is the main one causing surface uplift, hence mountain building. It has been realized
45	that strong thrust earthquakes play important role in the topographic evolution in regions of steep relief
46	and high elevation, such as the marginal zones of high plateau at Himalaya (Avouac, 2003; Larsen and
47	Montgomery, 2012; Morell et al., 2015; Owen, 2010), Longmen Shan (Hovius et al., 2011; Li et al.,
48	2014; Parker et al., 2011; Ren et al., 2014a) and Andes (McPhillips et al., 2014). Previous studies
49	demonstrated that the landslides are thought to limit the slope (Blöthe et al., 2015; Burbank et al., 1996)
50	and height of mountain peaks above adjacent river valleys in steep orogenic regions (Larsen and
51	Montgomery, 2012; McPhillips et al., 2014; Roering, 2012). Recent studies found that the erosion
52	caused by landslides did not change much in response to climatic changes; hence, the tectonic events
53	such as earthquakes are the primary landslide trigger in the arid foothills of Peru in steep Andes
54	(McPhillips et al., 2014). Quantifying erosion rate is critical to understanding the role of tectonic events
55	in mountain building. However, due to the long-term mountain building and topographic evolution,
56	previous studies are mainly regional studies based on sparse thermochronological dating (Kirby et al.,
57	2002; Wang et al., 2012), cosmogenic dating (Ansberque et al., 2015; Godard et al., 2010; Ouimet,
58	2010) or modern hydrological observations (Dadson et al., 2003) in region of high mountain area. These





59	regional studies could not show the details of how tectonic events act in topographic evolution of low
60	mountain region. Strong earthquakes are the most recent tectonic events, which provide us the valuable
61	opportunity to study the role of such events in current topographic evolution of low mountain region.
62	However, the co-seismic landslide volumes are usually obtained using statistical scaling laws, which
63	has large uncertainties in different regions by applying same scaling laws. Different researchers could
64	get totally different co-seismic landslide volumes for one earthquake using different methods (Li et al.,
65	2014; Marc et al., 2015; Parker et al., 2011; Ren et al., 2014b; Ren et al., 2017).
66	Recently, the high-resolution and multi-temporal Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) Digital
67	Elevation Models (DEMs) or DEM generated from stereo pair of remote sensing images have been
68	proven valuable in monitoring geomorphic, co-seismic and volcanic surficial deformations (Cowgill et
69	al., 2012; Lane et al., 2001; Ren et al., 2014a; Stumpf et al., 2014; Wheaton et al., 2010; Zhou et al.,
70	2015; Zielke et al., 2010). By differential pre- and post-earthquake DEM, we could quantitatively
71	analysis the topographic changes and evaluate the landslide volume. It has been used to derive
72	co-seismic landslide volumes in Longmen Shan region by differencing pre- and post- Wenchuan
73	earthquake DEMs, as well as topographic analysis (Ren et al., 2014a). However, in region of low
74	mountain, the role of strong earthquakes in topographic evolution is rarely reported. The 2004 Mw 6.6
75	Chuetsu earthquake occurred in Niigata prefecture in Japan, where the local relief of the epicentral area
76	is low with maximum elevation of 765 m (Fig. 1). In this study, we use the high-resolution pre- and





77	post-earthquake DEM (GSI, 2007) to study the topographic changes due to the Chuetsu earthquake, by
78	comparing the slope angle, slope aspect, relief and roughness pre- and post-earthquake. The co-seismic
79	denudation distribution pattern was also analyzed using the co-seismic landslide volume with the
80	availability of multi-temporal high-resolution topographic data. We finally discussed the role of
81	earthquake in topographic evolution at Chuetsu area of low mountain.
82	2. Tectonic Setting
83	The 2004 Mw 6.6 Chuetsu earthquake occurred at Chuetsu, Niigata prefecture Japan, where the
84	convergent plate boundary between the Amurian and Okhotsk plates is located (Fig. 1, (Okamura et al.,
85	2007; Okamura et al., 1995; Wei and Seno, 1998)). The epicentral area is of low elevation with
86	maximum of 765 m, which is composed of sedimentary and volcanic rocks from Holocene to Miocene.
87	The sediments were mainly formed in the early Miocene, concurrently with the opening of the Japan
88	Sea (Fig. 1). The sediments have been folded under E-W to WNW-ESE compressional stress field since
89	~2-3 Ma (e.g., (Hirata et al., 2005; Okamura, 2003)). The continued compression deformed the strata,
90	landforms and caused the repeated seismicities in Chuetsu area. The Shinano River is the main river
91	flow through the Chuetsu area where the flood plain is mainly composed of Holocene to Late
92	Pleistocene sediments (Fig. 2). The mountain area is mainly composed of Pleistocene to Pliocene
93	sediments, accompanied with a tectonic window composed of Jurassic sediments (Fig. 2). The uplifting
94	of the mountain is proposed to be due to fault-related folding caused by the thrust along the NS trending





95	Muikamachi-Bonchi-Seien fault (Fig. 2, )(Kato et al., 2005; Kato et al., 2006; Okamura et al., 2007).
96	The 2004 Chuetsu earthquake is a thrust-dominated earthquake with minor lateral motion (Maruyama et
97	al., 2005). It has been reported that there is a co-seismic surface rupture zone of 1 km in length, with
98	~20 cm vertical co-seismic offset and lateral offset less than 20 cm on a previously unmapped fault
99	(Maruyama et al., 2005), which lies along the northward extending of the Muikamachi fault (Fig.2,
100	(Nakata and Imaizumi, 2002; RGAFJ, 1991)). Hence, the most possible causative fault of the Chuetsu
101	earthquake is the Muikamachi fault, according to the focal mechanism and location of surface ruptures
102	(Maruyama et al., 2005). Previous studies mapped the subsurface fault with detachment in depth of
103	~10-13 km, which agreed well with the distribution of aftershocks (Kato et al., 2005; Kato et al., 2006;
104	Okamura et al., 2007). They found that the fault-related folding on the hanging wall of the Muikamachi
105	fault was responsible for the growth of the geological structures (Kato et al., 2005; Kato et al., 2006;
106	Okamura et al., 2007; Suppe, 1983). Paleoseismology studies reveal at least two strong earthquakes
107	occurred in the past 9000 years prior to the occurrence of the 2004 Chuetsu earthquake(Maruyama et al.,
108	2005). The co-seismic displacements of the two paleoearthquakes were almost identical at ~1.5 m,
109	which was almost 15 times of the 2004 event (~10 cm). The 2004 Chuetsu earthquake triggered
110	thousands of co-seismic landslides, which dramatically modified the local topography (Chigira and
111	Yagi, 2006; Dou et al., 2015; Sato et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2007). Hence, the mountain growth in the
112	epicentral area should be closely related to the co-seismic landslides caused by repeated strong





- 113 earthquakes.
- 114
- 115 **3. Data and Methods**
- 116 **3.1. Data**

117 The pre-earthquake DEM is of 10 m in resolution with absolute vertical precision within 2.5 meter. The 118 10-m-resolution DEM is generated from stereo pairs of aerial photographs or topographic maps that 119 covering the whole Japan area at Geospatial Information Authority (GSI) of Japan (Freely available at 120 http://fgd.gsi.go.jp/download). The post-earthquake DEM is of 2 m resolution with root-mean-square 121 (RMS) error within 0.12 m that generated from airborne LiDAR data surveyed in 2005 with point 122 density larger than 1 pt/m<sup>2</sup>, released by the GSI of Japan ((GSI, 2007). These DEMs are of higher 123 precision than that used in our previous studies in Wenchuan area (Ren et al., 2014b) (Fig. 3). The 124 landslide inventory map is interpreted based on high-resolution aerial photograph, by the National 125 Research Institute for Earth Science and Disaster Prevention (NIED), Japan (Fig. 4, (Chigira and Yagi, 126 2006; Dou et al., 2015; Sato et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2007)). The geological information is derived 127 from the 1:200,000 geological maps provided by the Geological Survey of Japan (GSJ) (Figs. 2 and 4a, 128 Freely available at https://gbank.gsj.jp/seamless/index en.html) and the active fault map of Japan (Fig. 129 1; (Nakata and Imaizumi, 2002; RGAFJ, 1991)).





#### 131 **3.2. Methods**

#### **3.2.1. Differential DEM** 132

133	With the availability of high-resolution DEM data pre- and post-earthquake, especially the LiDAR
134	DEM, the differential DEM method are widely used in detecting topographic changes (Chen et al., 2006;
135	Ren et al., 2014a; Stumpf et al., 2014), co-seismic deformations (Cowgill et al., 2012; Nissen et al.,
136	2014; Zhou et al., 2015) as well as sediment budgets (Lane et al., 2001; Wheaton et al., 2010) . Previous
137	studies have shown that the differential DEM method using multiple-scale and multiple-source DEMs is
138	effective in detecting topographic changes caused by co-seismic landslides (Chen et al., 2006; Ren et al.,
139	2014a; Ren et al., 2017). The available of the pre- and post-earthquake DEMs in Chuetsu area provide
140	us the opportunity to study the topographic changes caused by the co-seismic landslides due to the 2004
141	Chuetsu earthquake. In differential DEM method, the precise georeference and correlation between the
142	multi-temporal DEMs is one of the key issues before subtracting. To analysis the topographic changes
143	under compression environment, we are mainly interest of the vertical deformations. The horizontal
144	differences between the pre-and post-earthquake DEMs were calculated and then reconstructed by
145	back-slipping the horizontal differences. The cosi-corr software is developed to measure sub-pixel
146	ground deformation using optical satellite and aerial images, which has an accuracy of 1/10 of the input
147	pixel size (Ayoub et al., 2015; Hollingsworth et al., 2012; Leprince et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2015). In
148	this study, we could estimate the horizontal differences between the pre- and post-earthquake DEMs





149 using the cosi-corr software (freely available at

150	www.tectonics.caltech.edu/slip_history/spot_coseis/index.html), following Zhou et al.'s method (Zhou
151	et al., 2015). The airborne LiDAR DEM was downsampled to 10 m to match the pre-earthquake DEM.
152	We used a correlation window of 64 pixels followed by 32 pixels with a step of 4 pixels (40 m). The
153	sub-pixel matching procedure was performed on the frequency content, which is more accurate than the
154	statistical correlator (Ayoub et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2015). Consequently, we got the NS (Fig. 3a) and
155	EW (Fig. 3b) components of the horizontal differences between the pre- and post-earthquake DEMs
156	(Fig. 3). Then by reconstructing the mean horizontal differences in both directions to the whole DEM,
157	we obtained the precisely geo-referenced and correlated DEMs. Finally, by differencing the pre- and
158	post-earthquake DEMs, we obtained the vertical deformations caused by the Chuetsu earthquake (Figs.
159	3c and 4). The largest landslide clearly shows the source and deposit areas, which occurred in the low
160	mountain composed of late Miocene to Pliocene non-marine sediments (Fig. 4). Meanwhile, the derived
161	landslide volumes also show consistent results that deep-seated landslides are the main contributor to
162	the landslide volumes (Fig. 5).

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## 164 **3.2.2. Topographic Analyses**

Steep slopes are prone to landslides (Burbank et al., 1996; Dai and Lee, 2002; Densmore et al., 1998),
such as the co-seismic landslides triggered by the 2008 Wenchuan Mw 7.9 earthquake which mainly





167	occurred on slopes with angles larger than 30° (Ren and Lin, 2010). Previous studies have found that
168	slope angle, slope aspect, relief and roughness are the four main topographic features widely used in
169	geomorphological studies, which could be used to analysis the topographic changes due to the
170	co-seismic landsliding. Statistical comparison of the pre- and post-earthquake topographic features has
171	been proven to be useful in analyzing the co-seismic topographic changes (Ren et al., 2014a). In this
172	study, based on the downsampled 10 m resolution pre- and post-earthquake DEMs, we compare the pre-
173	and post-earthquake slope angle, slope aspect, relief and roughness, respectively (Fig. 6). The
174	co-seismic displacement is less than 20 cm in the epicentral area, hence, the topographic changes are
175	mainly due to co-seismic landsliding. Thus, in this study, we statistically compare the topographic
176	changes within each landslide polygon (Fig. 6).
177	
178	3.2.3. Catchment-scale Denudation depth
179	Landsliding is the dominant mass wasting process in humid uplands (Hovius et al., 1997), thus, it is

reasonable to derive the denudation using the landslide volumes. The topographic changes within the landslide area should be much larger than the ~10 cm co-seismic displacements. Thus it is reliable to derive landslide volume using the subtracted DEM. We calculated the co-seismic landslide volumes in the epicentral area, by summing the elevation changes within the landslide area and multiplying the summed value by the area of one pixel (100 m<sup>2</sup>). There are positive values and negative values for each



# 185 single landslide, because there are source and deposit areas, correspondingly (Fig. 4b and 4c). Hence we 186 firstly sum both the positive and negative value for each landslide, then summed the absolute value 187 together and finally take the average value as the landslide volume for this landslides. The catchments 188 are derived using the flow accumulation data of the streams and outlet data of each catchment from the 189 pre-earthquake DEM with stream length as short as 5 km (Fig. 7). To obtain distribution pattern of the 190 catchment-scale denudation depth, we summed the landslide volumes within each catchment. The 191 average denudation depth was obtained by dividing the summed landslide volume by the catchment 192 area (Figs. 7-8).

193

#### **4. Results**

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195 Using cosi-corr software, we obtained the NS component difference of -0.27 m with standard deviation 196 (STD) of 3.12 m and the EW component difference of 0.21 m with STD of 3.37 m (Figs. 3b and c). 197 Before differential the DEMs, we first reconstruct the corresponding differences of NS and EW 198 components. Then we obtain the elevation changes by subtracting the pre-earthquake DEM from the 199 post-earthquake DEM. The flat ground surfaces that located far from the epicentral area should be 200 stable during the earthquake, i.e., the real elevation changes should be nearly zero. Hence, the obtained 201 elevation differences at such regions represent the accuracy of the differential DEM in this study. The 202 elevation differences ranges from -0.46 m to 0.32 m at the non-deformed flat region shown in figure 3c



203	(Fig. 3c). We then obtain the mean elevation change of the whole region of -0.24 m with STD of 2.22 m
204	(Figs. 3d) by eliminating the elevation changes between -0.46 m and 0.32 m, i.e., setting the delta-z
205	values within this range to 0. The obtained mean vertical deformation is comparable with the maximum
206	co-seismic displacement from Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (InSAR) results (Ozawa et al.,
207	2005) and field investigations (Maruyama et al., 2005). In the landslide region, the elevation changes
208	could reach tens of meter, which are much greater than 0.32 m and less than -0.46 m, hence it is reliable
209	to analyze the topographic changes using the pre- and post- earthquake DEMs. The mean elevation
210	change in the landslide region is 0.08 with STD of 2.17 m (Fig. 4b). As shown in Figure 4c, the
211	landslide scarp and toe of the largest landslide is clearly shown on the differential DEM map. The
212	results show the total volume of the 330 deep-seated landslides is ~0.26 km <sup>3</sup> (Fig. 5), which is
213	comparable with the total volume of $\sim 0.30 \text{ km}^3$ of the $\sim 6000$ shallow landslides (Fig. 5). The
214	catchment-scale average denudation depth distribution shows maximum denudation of 894 mm, which
215	did not locate right above the surface ruptures (Figs. 7-8, (Maruyama et al., 2005)). The maximum
216	denudation correlates with the uplifting pattern in the epicentral area suggested by the fault-related
217	folding on the hangwall of the Muikamachi fault (Fig. 8, (Kato et al., 2005; Kato et al., 2006; Okamura
218	et al., 2007)).

219

220 The co-seismic topographic changes in the epicentral area show consistent increase in slope angle, relief



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221	and roughness (Fig .6). The comparison of the pre- and post-earthquake topographic features within
222	each catchment also indicate the average hillslope, relief and roughness are all increased after the
223	Chuetsu earthquake (Fig .6). The slope aspect decreases in 0°-135° and 270°-360° and increases in
224	135°-270° (Fig. 6). The observed slope aspect changes might be related with the co-seismic lateral
225	displacement of the 2004 Chuetsu earthquake, which was reported to be ~10-20 cm (Maruyama et al.,
226	2005).
227	
228	5. Discussion
229	The occurrence of the Chuetsu earthquake provides a valuable opportunity to quantitatively analysis the
230	co-seismic topographic changes and denudation caused by co-seismic landslides with the availability of
231	the pre- and post- earthquake DEM in the epicentral region, hence discussing the tectonic process and
232	topographic growth in region of low mountain. This study might be the first time to study the
233	topographic changes using differential DEM method in region of low mountain. The key question in
234	differential DEM study is the pre- and post- earthquake DEMs are of different sources, which might
235	represent different surfaces, such as the topographic or bare-earth surface. Usually, the DEM from
236	stereo pair of images should represent the topographic surfaces including the canopy of the forest, and
237	the LiDAR derived DEM represents the bare-earth DEM. However, in this study, there are no
238	systematical elevation errors observed. Meanwhile, the blank area in Fig 4b show the elevation





239	differences beyond -0.46 m to 0.32 m. The canopy of forest could not be such small. Hence, the
240	differential DEM results should represent the canopy of the forest, which indicate that the pre- and
241	post-earthquake DEMs are referring the same surface, i.e., our results represent the real co-seismic
242	elevation differences, however, due to the precision and resolution of the DEMs, it could not show the
243	co-seismic vertical deformations less than ~20 cm clearly. In this study, based on the pre- and
244	post-earthquake DEMs, we statistically analyzed the topographic changes caused by the Chuetsu
245	earthquake in terms of the slope angle (Fig. 7a), slope aspect (Fig. 7b), relief (Fig. 7c), roughness (Fig.
246	7d) and the catchment-scale denudation (Figs. 7-8). The slope angle, relief and roughness are all
247	coseismically increased after the Chuetsu earthquake in landslide-scale (Fig. 6) and catchment-scale
248	(Figs. 8a-c) at the epicentral area (Fig. 6). The slope aspect changes show decrease in $0^{\circ}$ -135° and
249	$270^{\circ}$ -360° and increase in 135°-270°, which might be associated with the co-seismic lateral
250	displacement along the NS trending rupture (Maruyama et al., 2005). The comparisons of pre- and
251	post-earthquake data suggest the Chuetsu earthquake is mainly roughening the topographic relief (Fig.
252	6), which is consistent with the role of long-term seismic landsliding (Blöthe et al., 2015; Larsen and
253	Montgomery, 2012; McPhillips et al., 2014; Roering, 2012).
254	In this paper, the co-seismic landslide volumes are obtained using differential DEM method, then we
255	convert the landslide volume information into seismically induced erosion. We find that, in the Chuetsu
256	area, the catchment-scale denudation depth distribution did not show direct correlation with the distance





257	to the surface rupture (Fig. 8). The denudation distribution pattern shows correlation with the uplifting
258	pattern suggested by fault-related folding on the hangwall of the Muikamachi Fault (Fig. 8, (Okamura et
259	al., 2007)). The fault-related folding suggest the main uplifting area lies ~8-10 km away from the
260	Mukamachi fault on the hangwall (Kato et al., 2005; Kato et al., 2006; Okamura et al., 2007; Suppe,
261	1983). However, in the steep Wenchuan area, previous studies have found that long-term high
262	denudations are concentrated in a narrow zone along the Longmen Shan Thrust Belt, revealed by
263	erosion rates from kyr-scale cosmogenic <sup>10</sup> Be and Myr-scale low temperature thermochronology dating
264	methods (Godard et al., 2010; Kirby et al., 2002; Ouimet, 2010). The highest co-seismic denudation
265	also mainly concentrated in the narrow corridor between the co-seismic surface ruptures produced by
266	the 2008 Wenchuan earthquake (Ren et al., 2014a). Hence there might be two possibilities why the
267	topographic relief profile did not directly correlate with the uplifting pattern in Chuetsu region (Fig. 8).
268	The first possible reason might be due to the erosion differences. The high erosion occurred in the high
269	uplifting area due to fault-related folding; but the area near the fault is of low erosion and uplift (Fig. 8).
270	Thus, the almost homogeneous topographic relief is preserved in the epicentral area under the coupling
271	process of co-seismic uplift and denudation. The correlation between the denudation and uplifting also
272	indicates the topographic growth in orogenic belt is closely related with the deformations associated
273	with the major faults, especially in regions that the uplifting is dominated by fault-related folding
274	(Okamura et al., 2007; Suppe, 1983). Hence, the strong earthquakes should play important role in the





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#### 288 6 Conclusions

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Here, we report the role of a Mw 6.6 Chuetsu earthquake in the topographic evolution of the young and low mountain region, by quantitatively comparing the pre- and post- earthquake high-resolution DEMs. Our results show, after the Chuetsu earthquake, the slope angle, relief and roughness are coseismically increased at the epicentral area; which is different with that occurred in the old and steep Longmen Shan



293	orogenic region. The co-seismically induced landslides play important role in balancing the long-term
294	uplift by concentrated high denudation at the uplifted area far from the surface fault traces, while
295	according to the 2008 Wenchuan earthquake, the co-seismic denudation show different pattern that
296	concentrated right at the surface rupture zones. The preserved mountain peaks are not only uplifted by
297	thrusting and folding but also undergone erosion caused by seismically induced landslides. Finally, we
298	suggest that the strong earthquakes might play different roles in topographic evolutions in low and steep
299	mountain regions. The findings also reveal that the differential DEM method is a powerful and robust
300	approach in evaluating co-seismic landslide volumes as well as quantitative geomorphic analyses.
301	
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### 455 **Captions to figures**



457 Figure 1. Plate tectonic framework and active faults in Japan. Active fault traces are from [RGFAFJ

- 458 1991; Nakata and Imaizumi, 2002]. The focal mechanism of the 2004 Mw 6.6 Chuetsu earthquake is
- 459 from the Harvard Centroid Moment Tensor (CMT) catalog
- 460 (<u>http://www.globalcmt.org/CMTsearch.html</u>). The red star indicates the epicenter of the 2004 Chuetsu
- 461 earthquake. Black rectangle shows the detail location of Figure 2.







463 Figure 2. Geological map of the epicentral area of the 2004 Chuetsu earthquake. The red lines show the

- 464 major active faults. The small rectangle shows the location of the co-seismic surface rupture of the 2004
- 465 Chuetsu earthquake, which occurred on the northward extending of the Muikamachi fault zone
- 466 (Maruyama et al., 2005).







Figure 3. The horizontal differences between pre- and post-earthquake DEMs at NS direction (a), EW
direction (b), the vertical deformations obtained by subtracting the pre-earthquake DEM from the
post-earthquake DEM. (c), and the vertical deformations at the flat region far from the epicentral area
(d). The flat region far from the epicentral area should be of no vertical deformation, which represents

- the accuracy of the differential DEM in this study. The dashed rectangle shows the location of Figure 4.
- 473 The mean vertical deformation of the whole region is -0.24 m with standard deviation (STD) of 2.22 m.
- 474 The white background indicates value of zero. The color scale is shown in min-max.







Figure 4. The geological map and distribution of co-seismic landslides (a) and vertical deformations at
the epicentral area (b), the inset map shows the largest co-seismic landslide (c). The dark gray polygons
show the deep-seated landslides and the light gray polygons show the shallow landslides. The landslide
inventory map is from the National Research Institute for Earth Science and Disaster Prevention
(NIED), Japan. The mean vertical deformation of the landslide region is -0.08 m with STD of 2.17 m.
The white background indicates value of zero. The color scale is shown in min-max.







Figure 5. The relationship of landslide volume, landslide area and landslide depth. Landslide area and
volume (a), Landslide depth and area (b), Landslide depth and landslide volume (c) obtained from preand post-earthquake DEMs.

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490 Figure 6. Statistical comparison of the pre- and post- earthquake slope angle (a), slope aspect (b), relief

<sup>491 (</sup>c) and roughness (d).







492



494 by averaging the total landslide volume by the catchment area within each catchment.







495



- 497 fault-related folding of the Muikamachi fault. The deformation pattern was modified from (Kato et al.,
- 498 2005; Kato et al., 2006; Okamura et al., 2007).

499