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1 Bayesian estimation of macroseismic intensity 2 from post-earthquake rapid damage mapping

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5 The seismological community acknowledges the essential contribution of macro-
6 seismic assessment to the compilation of the seismic catalogues used for seismic
7 hazard assessment. Furthermore, macroseismic observations are routinely employed
8 by Civil Protection authorities in the aftermath of damaging events to improve their
9 decision making capacity. In this contribution, we describe a novel methodology
10 for the rapid, probabilistic estimation of the Macroseismic Intensity in the epicen-
11 tral area of a major event, according to the European Macroseismic scale (EMS-98).
12 The methodology includes the use of mobile mapping and a collaborative on-line
13 platform for rapid post-earthquake reconnaissance, A Bayesian scheme is proposed
14 to integrate direct damage observations and prior information, hence allowing the
15 consideration of ancillary data and expert judgment. According to a feasibility study
16 that has been carried out in the area affected by the 2016 Amatrice (Central Italy)
17 earthquake, the proposed methodology may provide a reliable estimation of inten-
18 sity, efficiently integrating further post-earthquake building damage surveys.

19 INTRODUCTION

20 Macroseismic Intensity (hereinafter MI) is a measure of the overall ground shaking that an area
21 has been exposed to, and is based on the observation of the effects of the ground motion on
22 built structures, the environment and the population's reaction. Many different scales have been
23 proposed for this scope, in different regions (see, e.g., Musson, 2012) over the last decades. A
24 widely used scale is the Modified Mercalli Intensity (MMI) (Wood and Neumann, 1931), origi-
25 nally derived in 1931 from the earlier version of the Mercalli-Cancani-Sieberg (MCS) (Sieberg,
26 1931) scale. A more recent evolution of the MMI scale is still used in USA by USGS (Stover
27 and Coffman, 1993; Bormann, 2011) while in Italy the Dept. of Civil Protection routinely
28 employs the MCS scale (Galli et al., 2016). In 1965, based on available MCS observations,

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29 the MSK-64 scale was proposed (Richter, 1958; Medvedev et al., 1965). This scale has been
30 widely used in Europe, Russia and Central Asia, while in China and Japan, different MI scales
31 are used that have not been derived from the original Mercalli one (Musson et al., 2010). More
32 recently, an international committee proposed a revised and extended version of the MSK-64
33 scale (and the subsequent MSK-81 version), termed EMS-98 (Grünthal, 1998). Early intensity
34 scales generally dealt with damage in a limited way, for instance stating that for a certain inten-
35 sity, a certain damage scenario would occur. However, apart from some generic descriptions of
36 building types (good designed, well built, poorly built etc.), no vulnerability classifications were
37 used. The MSK scale first introduced both a qualitative and quantitative approach to damage,
38 which has been further developed in the formulation of the EMS-98 scale, supported by a more
39 differentiated set of building types associated with a level of physical vulnerability (Musson
40 et al., 2010).

41 The EMS-98 scale was intended to be used throughout Europe, although it was derived us-
42 ing also data from other regions as well. It was also meant to contribute to bridging the gap
43 between seismologists and engineers, especially after the recent development of new types of
44 buildings, including earthquake resistant design structures, not considered previously. In the
45 last decade interest in MI has grown and the seismological community acknowledges its es-
46 sential contribution to seismic hazard assessment. In particular, in Italy, MI is the basis of
47 the compilation of the seismic catalogues, and is still the only tool for providing a confident
48 comparison with historical earthquakes and their impact on the territory. For this reason macro-
49 seismic techniques should be continuously reviewed and improved in order to obtain the highest
50 level of accuracy. Currently in Italy, two types of macroseismic assessments are employed in
51 the aftermath of a damaging earthquake. First, an initial survey is carried out in collaboration
52 with the Department of Civil Protection using the MCS intensity scale in order to provide a pre-
53 liminary mapping of the damage distribution and improve the management of the emergency
54 phase. The use of the MCS scale for the first survey has been motivated so far by its simpler
55 implementation schema, leading to a prompter estimation of the extent of damage. However
56 this scale does not allow a proper consideration of the type and vulnerability of the buildings,
57 but only provides the overall damage description. Next, a more refined assessment is performed
58 with the aim of defining the damage scenario in terms of EMS-98 (Azzaro et al., 2016). To
59 this purpose, the emergency group of INGV (Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia),
60 referred to as QUEST (Quick Earthquake Survey Team), is activated to undertake the macro-
61 seismic field survey. On 24 August 2016, soon after the Mw 6.0 shock that occurred in the

62 Rieti province (Central Italy), the first of a long and disastrous sequence of events that claimed
63 the lives of about 300 people in the Amatrice area (Anzidei and Pondrelli, 2016), several teams
64 of QUEST started their surveys, visiting the localities within the epicentral area. From August
65 24 to the end of September 2016, a thorough macroseismic intensity assessment for 140 target
66 locations in the epicentral area was carried out, considering the different building typologies,
67 their vulnerability, and the damage they suffered, and assessing the EMS-98 intensity (Azzaro
68 et al., 2016). This involved a total of about 20 expert surveyors, split into small groups of 2-3
69 people, walking across the most affected areas and noting the consequences that were visible on
70 the exterior of the buildings. Although this approach allows a precise mapping of the damage, it
71 also has several potential drawbacks: it is resource- and time-intensive, it entails field activities
72 that may be adversely affected by the environmental conditions, and the surveyors often have
73 to visit heavily damaged areas, therefore being exposed to further collapses or falling debris,
74 especially in case of strong aftershocks.

75 In order to overcome these limitations, a novel methodology to estimate the MI across an
76 epicentral area, according to the EMS-98 scale, is described in this paper. The methodology
77 allows one to rapidly and safely collect building-by-building data on the observed damage in
78 the hours and days immediately following a destructive event, and to provide a probabilistic
79 estimation of MI at the settlement aggregation level. The methodology employs an innovative
80 platform to map damage to built structures using geo-referenced omnidirectional images, and
81 a Bayesian updating scheme able to accommodate different types of observations and prior in-
82 formation, hence allowing a flexible case-by-case customization. A feasibility study has been
83 carried out in the area affected by the above mentioned 2016 Amatrice (Central Italy) earth-
84 quake and validated with the data provided by INGV. The obtained results are encouraging and
85 show that the proposed technique may contribute to a prompt, sound and automatic prelimi-
86 nary assessment of EMS-98 intensity which could efficiently integrate the current operational
87 protocols.

88 In the next section the proposed methodology will be introduced and the employed datasets
89 described. This is followed by a section covering the results obtained in Italy. A discussion
90 section is then provided, followed by the conclusions and outlook.

METHODOLOGY

91

92 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

93 A customized mobile mapping system, originally designed for seismic exposure and vulnera-
94 bility characterization (Pittore and Wieland, 2013; Pittore et al., 2015) has been employed to
95 rapidly collect geo-referenced omni-directional images of the built environment. The system
96 is composed of an omnidirectional camera with 5 synchronized optical units, a low-cost GNSS
97 system and a data collection and processing unit. The camera can be easily and promptly
98 fixed to the roof of a vehicle by means of four sucking cups, and records geo-referenced high-
99 resolution (2 MPixels per optical unit) images at rates between 5 and 15 frames per second.
100 Once mounted and switched on, the system is driven across the area to be investigated. In a
101 post-processing phase, the cameras' streams are stitched together into a sequence of omnidi-
102 rectional images, in equirectangular projection. These images are then further filtered based on
103 their mutual distance, in order to have a uniform spatial coverage along the driven path. Since a
104 complete coverage of the affected areas would be time-consuming and in most case just unfea-
105 sible due the constraints of the emergency management, the images are collected following a
106 statistical sampling approach (Pittore et al., 2015). A stratification scheme has been followed to
107 ensure a balanced coverage of the damage distribution in the field. In this case study presented
108 the damage grading made available by the Copernicus Emergency Service ^{a)} has been used as
109 a basis for the stratification. Lacking such information different approaches could be followed
110 to estimate a suitable proxy upon which to perform the sampling, e.g., using a combination of
111 prior information on the vulnerability and on the expected intensity.

112 **Routing optimization: the Copernicus Emergency Mapping service**

113 The Copernicus Rapid Mapping service provides rapid grading of damage and serviceability of
114 buildings and roads in the areas most affected by natural events such as floods, earthquakes or
115 tornadoes (Boccardo and Tonolo, 2015; Freire et al., 2015). Different GIS layers, in the form of
116 print-ready maps and digital data (ESRI shapefiles) are produced as soon as remote sensing data
117 is available. In the case of the 24 August Amatrice earthquake, the information was provided by
118 the Emergency Mapping Service in less than three days after the occurrence of the earthquake,
119 consisting of a damage grading of 5'875 buildings in the epicentral region (Copernicus, 2016).
120 The grading is based on the manual comparison of pre-event 0.5m and 0.2m orthophoto data (

^{a)}<http://emergency.copernicus.eu/>

121 2014 CONSORZIO TeA) with aerial (acquired August 25th 2016 10:00 UTC, GSD 0.1 m, 0%
 122 cloud coverage) and satellite images (acquired on August 25th 2016, 9:45 UTC, WorldView-2,
 123 GSD 0.5 m, approx 15% cloud coverage, 34 and 31 off-nadir angles). The grading was made
 124 available on 27 August, and covers an area of approximately 500 km², as shown in Fig. 1.

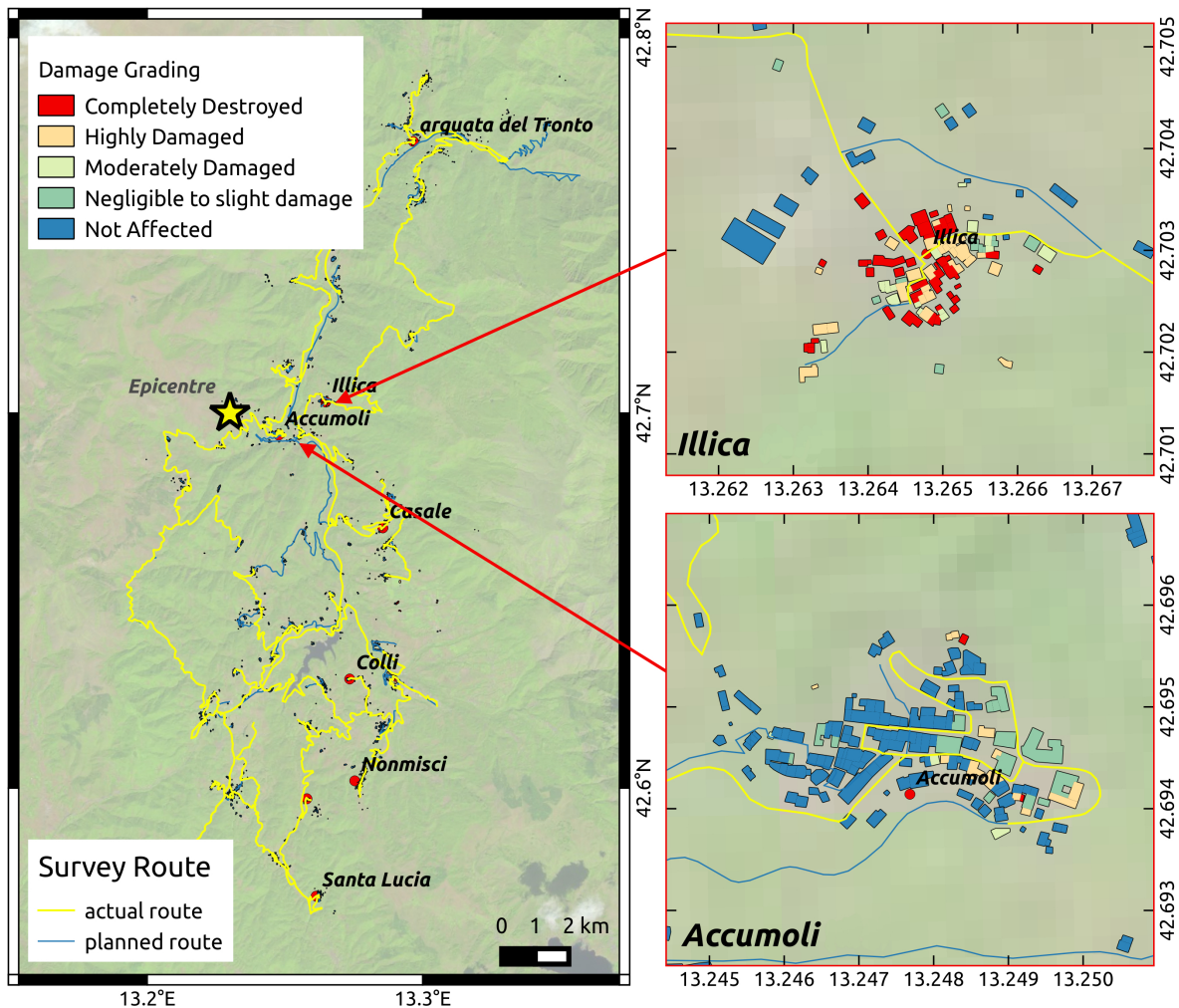


Figure 1. Overview of the study area subjected to grading from the Copernicus Rapid Mapping service. The inset shows a close-up of the building-by-building grading in the towns of Accumoli and Illica (in the Rieti provincial district).

125 The mapped buildings have been assigned a damage grade ranging from *not affected* to
 126 *completely destroyed*, with the intermediate cases: *negligible to slight damage*, *moderately*
 127 *damaged* and *highly damaged*. Although this damage scale is expectedly different from the
 128 one proposed by EMS-98, it still conveys useful information on the general damage pattern in
 129 the area. The sampling has been performed in two stages:

- 130 • first by sampling a percentage (5%) of buildings in each of the 5 damage grades and auto-
131 matically computing an optimal route path linking them over the road network extracted
132 from OpenStreetMap, and
- 133 • randomly selecting a set of buildings from the available footprints lying within a 30m
134 buffer from the route actually followed by the mobile mapping system.

135 The planned route is also shown in Fig. 1, along with the route actually followed. The route
136 was covered in around two days between September 26th and 28th 2016, and more than 50'000
137 omnidirectional images were collected. A subset of 9'900 images were then selected based on
138 a minimal distance of 5 meters between each image.

139 **Rapid Remote Damage Assessment (RRDA)**

140 In order to carry out a rapid, remote mapping of the physical damage to buildings, a dedicated
141 web-based on line platform has been developed (see Fig. 2). Making use of this interface, a
142 pool of three expert surveyors from INGV analyzed the captured omni-directional images and
143 provided an assessment of the observable damage according to the grades defined by the EMS-
144 98 scale (listed in Table 1), as well as the most probable EMS-98 vulnerability class (decreasing
145 from class *A* to class *F*, being class *A* the most vulnerable, and class *F* the most resistant), for
146 a set of specific buildings.

Table 1. Damage grades proposed by the EMS-98 scale for masonry and reinforced concrete buildings.

Damage	Description	
	Masonry	Reinforced Concrete
D1 (Slight)	Hair-line cracks in very few walls; fall of small pieces of plaster only; fall of loose stones from upper parts of buildings in very few cases.	Fine cracks in plaster over frame members or in walls at the base; fine cracks in partitions and infills.
D2 (Moderate)	Cracks in many walls; fall of fairly large pieces of plaster; partial collapse of chimneys.	Cracks in columns and beams of frames and in structural walls; cracks in partition and infill walls; fall of brittle cladding and plaster; falling mortar from the joints of wall panels.
D3 (Heavy)	Large and extensive cracks in most walls; roof tiles detach; chimneys fracture at the roof line; failure of individual non-structural elements (partitions, gable walls).	Cracks in columns and beam column joints of frames at the base and at joints of coupled walls; spalling of concrete cover, buckling of reinforced rods; large cracks in partition and infill walls; failure of individual infill panels.
D4 (Very Heavy)	Serious failure of walls; partial structural failure of roofs and floors.	Large cracks in structural elements with compression failure of concrete and fracture of rebars; bond failure of beam reinforced bars; tilting of columns; collapse of a few columns or of a single upper floor.
D5 (Destruction)	Total or near total collapse.	Collapse of ground floor or parts (e. g. wings) of buildings.

147 The platform automatically generates so called *tasks*, each including a set of 100 buildings
148 randomly chosen from the ones previously selected. Each surveyor is assigned one or more
149 of these tasks (the tasks are not overlapping) and as soon as the analysis of one building is
150 completed, the information is uploaded into a centralized database for subsequent processing.
151 The building footprints provided from the Copernicus Emergency Service have been used as a
152 basic geometry. The web interface shows on the right side the selected buildings and the location
153 of the closest omnidirectional images (Fig. 2,A). The selected image is shown on the left side
154 of the interface, and can be zoomed or panned. The lower side of the interface contains the list
155 of buildings in the task with their status (*Unmodified, Modified, Completed*), a set of drop-down
156 menus to specify the damage and vulnerability and a free text area for additional comments.
157 Fig. 2 shows for instance a building which has been assigned EMS-98 vulnerability *A* and
158 damage grade 3. The RRDA interface also allows to query for the closest omni-directional
159 image available from the Google StreetView service. This allows a direct comparison of the

160 appearance of the building before and after the earthquake (Fig. 2, B-C). This is useful for
161 better characterizing the vulnerability of the building and also to ascertain whether pre-event
162 damage was already present.

163 For this preliminary analysis a total of 500 buildings from around 20 different settlements
164 were analyzed. In order to decrease the chances of possible bias, the surveyors were given
165 no information about the name of the locality, nor the grading assigned by the Copernicus
166 Emergency Service. A total of 313 buildings had damage and vulnerability assigned to them,
167 while for 187 buildings no reliable assignment was given for one or more of the following
168 reasons: the building was partially or totally obstructed by other buildings, walls, fences or
169 vegetation; the building was too far from the camera (hence poor resolution of the image); the
170 image was unsuitable for analysis because it was too dark or too bright.

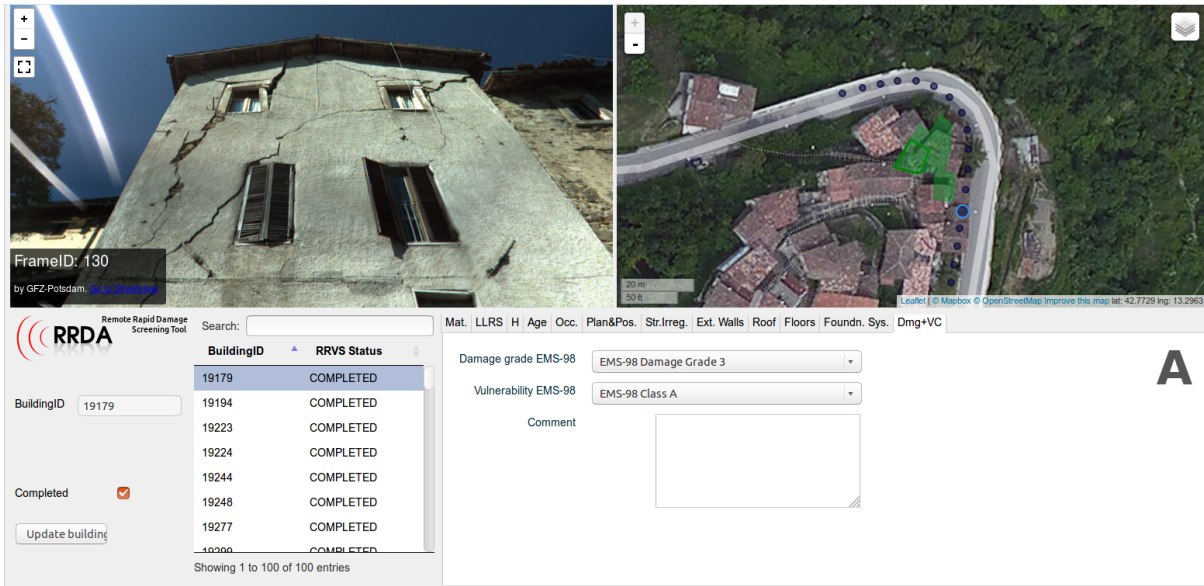


Figure 2. An example of a building selected for inspection and remotely analysed by surveyors. A) The RRDA web-based interface showing on the right side an aerial map with the selected building (green texture) superimposed and the location of the closest omni-directional images (blue dots). On the left the selected omni-directional image can be zoomed and panned (or visualized full-screen). The lower part of the interface lists the buildings of the task (each building can be selected by clicking on the corresponding item in the list) and the drop-down menus for entering the observed damage and vulnerability class. B) Omni-directional image captured by the mobile mapping system. C) Corresponding pre-event omnidirectional image from the Google StreetView™ service.

171 The individual building observations have been spatially aggregated over the set of target lo-
 172 cations where MI assessment had already been carried out by INGV. Due to the lack of specific
 173 administrative boundaries, in order to assign a geographical location to each of the individual
 174 grading a Voronoi tessellation (Watson, 1993) has been generated from the coordinates of the

175 localities with assigned MI, and each graded building has been assigned a locality's name ac-
 176 cording to the Voronoi cell containing it (see Fig. 3). The same Voronoi tessellation has been
 177 employed to aggregate the buildings graded by the Copernicus Emergency Service.

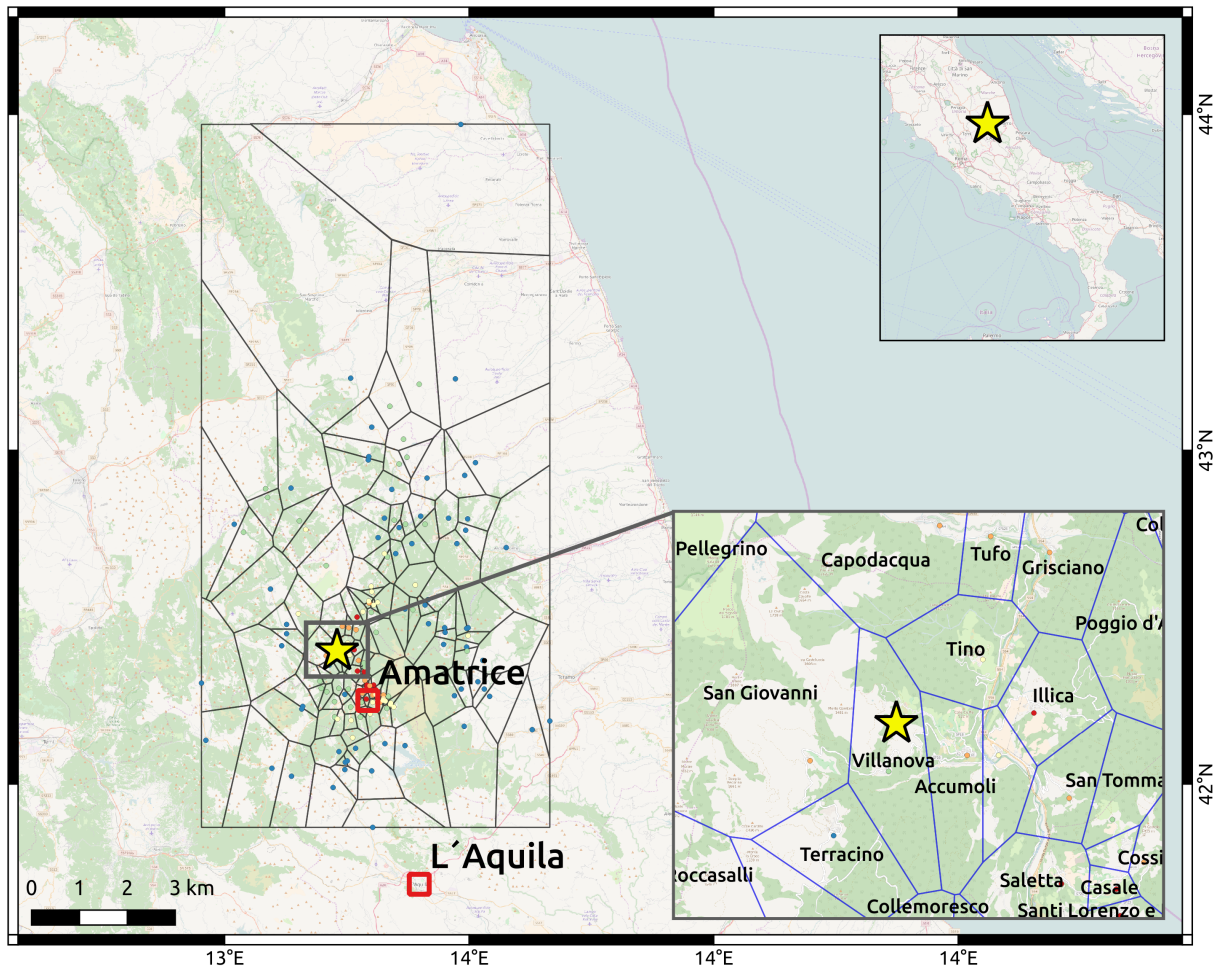


Figure 3. Overview of the considered region with the Voronoi tessellation based on the coordinates of the considered localities. The star marks the location of the epicenter.

178 **BAYESIAN ESTIMATION OF MACROSEISMIC INTENSITY**

179 Since the estimation is carried out in a probabilistic framework the MI in the following is repre-
 180 sented by a discrete probability distribution, defined over the range of values I, II, \dots, XII^a ,
 181 and refers to specific spatial regions (usually corresponding to settlements of different size and
 182 geographical extent), referred to as localities. For each of the considered localities the MI (in
 183 EMS-98) originally assigned by the pool of experts from INGV is also available (referred to as

^{a)}The values of macroseismic intensity are usually described by roman numerals, in order to highlight their ordinal nature. For the sake of simplicity throughout the text we will also use an integer notation, without this implying any further assumption

184 assigned).

185 The proposed procedure is based on a multi-stage Bayesian updating (see, e.g., Gelman
186 et al., 2004). At each stage the expected discrete probability distribution for the MI is eval-
187 uated, using the Bayes rule to integrate different types of available information. A suitable
188 posterior distribution of MI represents the output of each stage, and is used in turn as prior in
189 the subsequent stage:

$$p(I = \hat{I}|D) = \frac{p(D|I = \hat{I})p(\hat{I})}{p(D)} \quad (1)$$

190 where $p(I = \hat{I}|D)$ indicates the posterior probability of a given intensity \hat{I} conditional on
191 the observed damage scenario D , $p(\hat{I})$ is the probability of the given intensity \hat{I} prior to the
192 observation (hereinafter referred to as the prior) and $p(D|I = \hat{I})$ represents the likelihood of the
193 intensity \hat{I} , defined by the probability of observing the damage scenario D under the hypothesis
194 of the particular intensity \hat{I} . The term $p(D)$ is the marginal probability of the damage scenario
195 D , and acts as a normalization function. For each possible value of the MI I , the Bayes rule
196 updates its (posterior) probability as soon as new observations become available, as far as these
197 observations can be correlated with the macroseismic intensity by a proper likelihood function.

198 The procedure starts with the estimation of an initial prior distribution for the intensity,
199 which can be defined for each individual target location, or for the entire area. Different ap-
200 proaches can be followed for defining a prior distribution, according to the extent and quality
201 of information available in the area:

- 202 • uninformative prior. This prior represents the absence of hypothesis on the intensity dis-
203 tribution (e.g., all intensity values are equally probable).
- 204 • informative prior. A non-uniform distribution (e.g., some intensity values are expected to
205 be more likely than others) can be defined by considering available information, including
206 the use of forward modeling (e.g. based on an Intensity Prediction Equation) or expert
207 judgment.

208 In the updating mechanism the prior distribution is increasingly superseded by the evidence
209 collected. However, when the number of observations is small with respect to the investigated
210 population, the choice of the prior may significantly affect the resulting posterior distribution.
211 The likelihood function $p(D|I = \hat{I})$ may take different forms depending on the type of available
212 observations, but should always describe the relationships between intensity and observed dam-
213 age. Following the EMS-98 scale, given a specific intensity, the expected damage distribution is

Table 2. Definition of EMS-98 macroseismic intensity degrees based on a descriptive statistics of observable damage to buildings of different structural vulnerability (Decreasing from A to F). Only the intensity degrees associated to observable damage are reported. Damage severity is expressed in grades from D1, very slight, to D5 total collapse.

MI Vuln	V (5)	VI (6)	VII (7)	VIII (8)	IX (9)	X (10)	XI (11)	XII (12)
A	Few D1	Many D1 Few D2	Many D3 Few D4	Many D4 Few D5	Many D5	Most D5		
B	Few D1	Many D1 Few D2	Many D2 Few D3	Many D3 Few D4	Many D4 Few D5	Many D5	Most D5	
C		Few D1	Few D2	Many D2 Few D3	Many D3 Few D4	Many D4 Few D5	Most D4 Many D5	
D			Few D1	Few D2	Many D2 Few D3	Many D3 Few D4	Many D4 Few D5	Most D5
E					Few D2	Many D2 Few D3	Many D3 Few D4	Most D5
F						Few D2	Many D2 Few D3	Most D5

214 qualitatively represented by a description of the expected observable effects on the population
 215 and the built and natural environments. In this work we focus in particular on the built environ-
 216 ment, where the consequence of the ground shaking can be more objectively observed, even if
 217 doing so we are discarding most of information generally used to assess the lowest intensity de-
 218 grees (less than V). The original formulation of EMS-98 does not provide a precise quantitative
 219 assessment of the damage to be expected, but rather a description of the statistical properties of
 220 the observed damage across the different classes of vulnerability of the exposed buildings, as
 221 shown in Table 2 (Grünthal, 1998).

222 Table 2 describes the link between the observed damage of buildings of similar structural
 223 vulnerability and the corresponding assigned macroseismic intensity. The statistics of damage
 224 is qualitatively described by expressions which may only broadly be attributed to precise quan-
 225 tities (e.g., many refer to a range of proportions roughly between 20% and 50%, while most
 226 indicate generically a proportion greater than 60%). Although this formulation captures the
 227 underlying uncertain nature of such assessments, it is not suited for more quantitative applica-
 228 tions. In order to frame this into a mathematically sound framework, we use the formulation
 229 proposed by Giovinazzi and Lagomarsino (Giovinazzi and Lagomarsino, 2002), which employs
 230 concepts and tools from fuzzy set theory in order to translate the information in Table 2 into
 231 a set of Damage Probability Matrices (DPM), preserving as much as possible the underlying

232 probabilistic formulation of uncertainty. For the sake of simplicity, we define the damage sce-
 233 nario D in terms of the aggregated physical damage, described by the expected mean damage
 234 grade μ_D :

$$\mu_D = \sum_k k p(D = k|\hat{I}) \quad k = 1, \dots, 5 \quad (2)$$

235 The mean damage grade depends on the probability of a set of buildings to be in one of the 5
 236 EMS-98 damage grades listed in Table 1 when exposed to a macroseismic intensity \hat{I} , and takes
 237 values in the interval $[0, 5]$, where the extremes represent respectively the total absence of dam-
 238 age and the complete destruction of the structures. The probability $p(D|\hat{I})$ can be approximated
 239 by the observed proportion of buildings in the different damage grades.

240 We can therefore compute the observed mean damage grades for a settlement (or a sig-
 241 nificant portion of it), and use them as observed data D in the formulation of the likelihood
 242 function, which then takes the following form:

$$p(D|I = \hat{I}) = p(\mu_D|I = \hat{I}) = \sum_{v=A, \dots, F} p(\mu_D^v|I = \hat{I}, v) p(v) \quad (3)$$

243 where $p(v)$ is the probability of the considered building(s) belonging to EMS-98 vulnerability
 244 class v , and is estimated as the proportion of buildings of this vulnerability class in the consid-
 245 ered locality, while $p(\mu_D^v|I = \hat{I}, v)$ is the estimated probability of observing a damage pattern
 246 equivalent to a specific mean damage grade μ_D^v for buildings of a given vulnerability v subject to
 247 the considered intensity value \hat{I} (the theorem of total probability has been used to make explicit
 248 the conditional dependence on the vulnerability).

249 **Note:** Currently there is no consideration of the uncertainty related to the statistical signifi-
 250 cance of the mean damage grade when computed with few observations. The updating process
 251 should therefore be carried out for a given locality only when enough data would be available.
 252 Further statistical analysis is required to include this additional uncertainty in the likelihood
 253 function.

254 The Bayesian updating scheme introduced in Eq. 1 can therefore be formulated as:

$$p(I = \hat{I}|D) = \frac{p(\mu_D|I = \hat{I})p(\hat{I})}{p(\mu_D)} = \frac{\sum_v p(\mu_D^v|I = \hat{I}, v) p(\hat{I}) p(v)}{\sum_v \sum_I p(\mu_D^v|I) p(I) p(v)} \quad (4)$$

255 where $p(\hat{I})$ is the prior probability of the considered intensity value. In order to compute the
 256 term $p(\mu_D^v|I = \hat{I}, v)$ we employ the simple analytical expression proposed by Giovinazzi and

257 Lagomarsino (2004) and Lagomarsino and Giovinazzi (2006) to estimate the expected μ_D^v :

$$\mu_D(v_{ind}, \hat{I}) = 2.5 \left[1 + \tanh \left(\frac{\hat{I} + 6.25 v_{ind} - 13.1}{2.3} \right) \right] \quad (5)$$

258 where $v_{ind}(v)$ refers to a scalar vulnerability index representing the structural fragility of the
259 buildings, and is related to the EMS-98 vulnerability class $v \in \{A, \dots, F\}$ by a set of fuzzy
260 membership functions. The likelihood term can be estimated by observing that a building asso-
261 ciated with a given EMS-98 vulnerability class (e.g., A) can be related to a probabilistic distribu-
262 tion of the vulnerability index v_{ind} used in Eq. 5. In this work, instead of the fuzzy formulation
263 proposed by Lagomarsino and Giovinazzi (2006), a set of triangular probability distributions
264 has been used to represent v_{ind} as a random variable, as shown in Fig. 4. Analogously, the
265 mean damage grade can be represented as random variable whose conditional distribution is es-
266 timated by evaluating Eq. 5 with respect to a sample of values from the distribution of v_{ind} . The
267 probability $p(\mu_D^v | I = \hat{I}, v)$ can therefore be estimated by integrating the obtained probability
268 density function for μ_D over a suitable interval around the observed value, conventionally set to
269 $\mu_D \pm 0.5$ if $\mu_D < 0.5$ or $\mu_D > 4.5$, then the extremes of the interval $[0, 5]$ have been used).

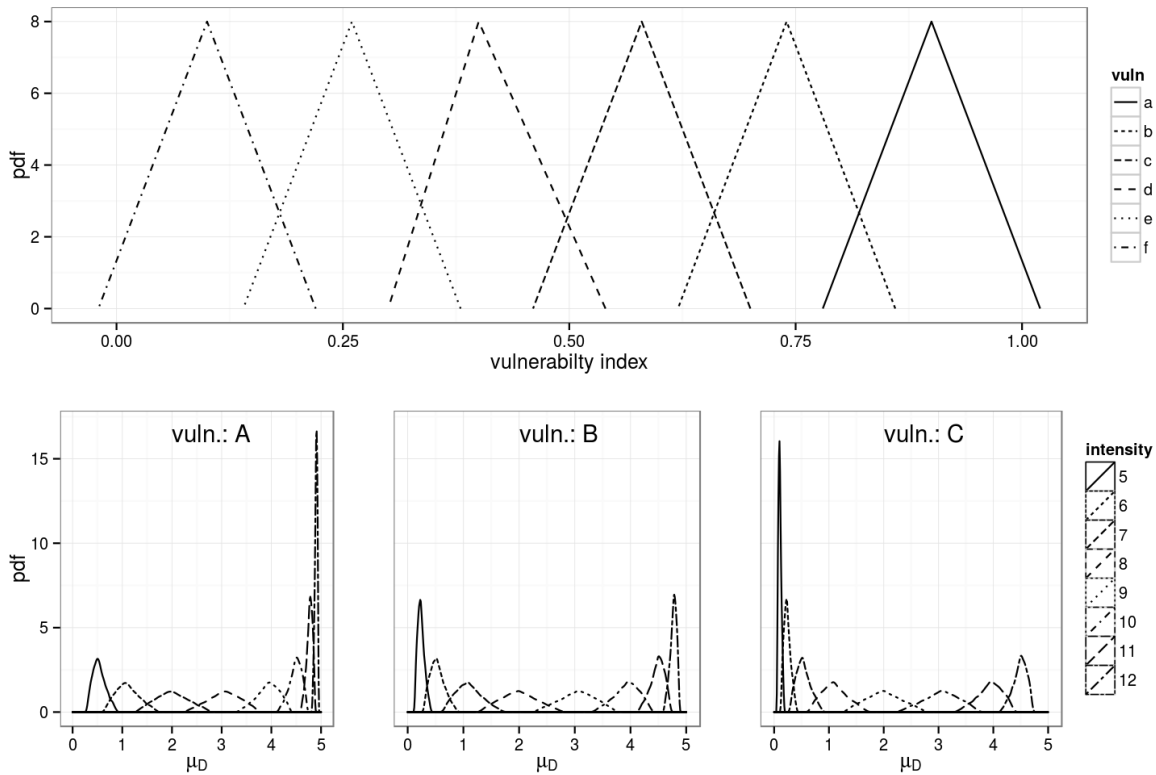


Figure 4. Upper side: probability density function of the vulnerability index for each vulnerability class (A to F). Lower side: corresponding empirical probability density functions for the mean damage grade for increasing values of intensity (from V to XII). Only the distributions for the vulnerability types A, B and C are shown.

270 Choice of prior distributions

271 The choice of the prior on the probability distribution of macroseismic intensity is of particular
 272 importance, especially in cases where the number of available observations is relatively small.
 273 We considered three different approaches (the actual prior distributions are shown in Fig. 5):

- 274 • non-informative prior,
- 275 • informative prior constrained by the estimated average MI=VIII,
- 276 • prior based on expert judgment.

277 In the first case we suppose that no information whatsoever is available in advance. In this case,
 278 by using the principle of indifference (Keynes, 1921), we can assign equal probability to each
 279 of the intensity levels. This is also compatible with the principle of maximum entropy, which
 280 states that the probability distribution with the largest entropy is the one that best represents the

281 available information (Jaynes, 1957). In the second case, a more objective prior is estimated by
 282 noticing that some information about the intensity may be available in advance. For instance,
 283 the average value of the shake map estimating the instrumental intensity for the selected area
 284 has been used (Faenza et al., 2016) and rounded up to intensity VIII. In order to encode this
 285 information into the prior, the principle of maximum entropy is considered. In the third case,
 286 a direct assignment of the prior probabilities is carried out following a subjective judgment. In
 287 our case, for instance, only the intensities between VI and XI have been considered possible
 288 in the considered area, with equal probability in absence of any other significant information.
 289 The probability of intensity XII has been set to zero, in consideration of the fact that such an
 290 intensity is never used in the practice (Musson et al., 2010; Dowrick et al., 2008). All prior
 291 distributions have been normalized such that the probabilities sum up to 1.

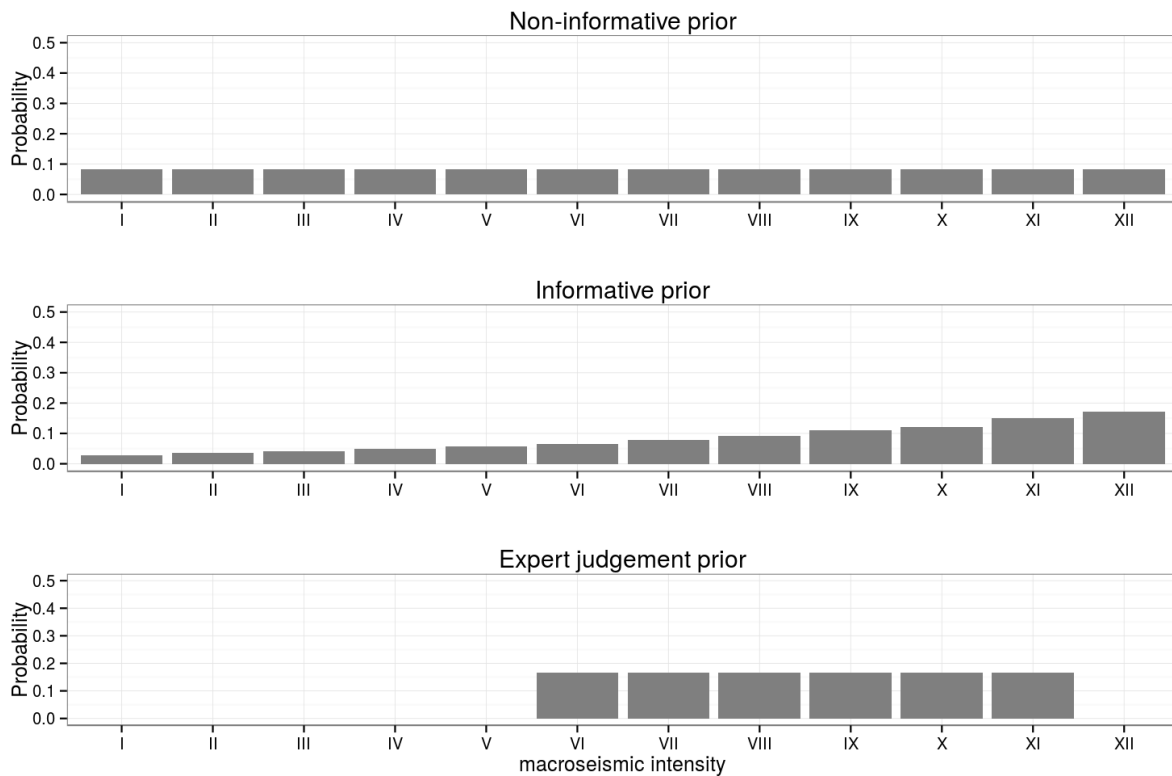


Figure 5. Three different prior distributions on the MI. From the uppermost: constant (non-informative) prior, informative prior conditioned by an estimated average intensity VIII, and a prior based only on expert judgement. In the last case, the probability of intensities I, \dots, V and XII has been set to zero.

APPLICATION AND RESULTS

293 For each of the considered localities, the mean damage grade is estimated (according to Eq. 2)
 294 from the observed damage scenario, according to the observed vulnerability classes. These
 295 intermediate results, listed in Table 3, represent the input to the Bayesian assessment of the
 296 intensity.

Table 3. Summary of computed mean damage grades according to the different vulnerability types. The number of observations is also reported, including the total value and the number of observations where at least a damage $D > 0$ was observed. The last three columns list the observed relative frequency of vulnerability types. Only vulnerability types A , B and C have been assigned in the considered region.

Locality	MI INGV (EMS-98)	μ_D			No. of observations					Observed freq.		
		A	B	C	A	B	C	Total	$D > 0$	A	B	C
Accumuli	VIII	3.5	1.75	1.5	6	15	2	23	19	0.26	0.65	0.09
Amatrice	X	-	2.67	2.25	0	3	4	7	6	0	0.43	0.57
Arquata del Tronto	VIII / IX	2	2.97	0	4	9	1	14	13	0.29	0.64	0.07
Borgo	VIII	2.75	1.74	0.25	4	15	4	23	17	0.17	0.65	0.17
Collalto	VI / VII	4	0.84	0	1	7	4	12	4	0.08	0.58	0.33
Collegentilese	VI / VII	2.67	0.7	0	6	10	1	17	9	0.35	0.59	0.06
Colli	VI / VII	4	2	-	1	1	0	2	2	0.5	0.5	0
Configno	VI / VII	2.5	2.2	0	2	5	2	9	7	0.22	0.56	0.22
Cornelle di Sotto	VII / VIII	2.26	0.28	0	7	14	5	26	9	0.27	0.54	0.19
Cossito	VIII	4	3.63	1	2	3	1	6	6	0.33	0.5	0.17
Faete	VII	2.66	1.74	0	3	7	2	12	9	0.25	0.58	0.17
Illica	IX	4.4	2.33	-	5	3	0	8	8	0.62	0.38	0
Musicchio	VI / VII	3	1.67	0.66	1	3	3	7	5	0.14	0.43	0.43
Pescara del Tronto	X	4.26	2.6	2.5	8	5	4	17	16	0.47	0.29	0.24
Piedilama	VII	3.2	1.1	1	5	8	4	17	13	0.29	0.47	0.24
Saletta	X	4.5	4	1	4	2	2	8	7	0.5	0.25	0.25
San Cipriano	VII	-	1.34	0.25	0	3	4	7	3	0	0.43	0.57
Santa Lucia	VII	4	0.81	0	2	11	3	16	6	0.12	0.69	0.19
Santi Lorenzo e Flaviano	IX / X	4.16	4	-	6	4	0	10	10	0.6	0.4	0
Scai	VII	-	1.65	0.5	0	9	4	13	8	0	0.69	0.31
Spelonga	VI / VII	0.75	0.61	0.1	4	22	10	36	10	0.11	0.61	0.28
Trisungo	VII	2.29	1.7	0.5	7	10	2	19	14	0.37	0.53	0.11

297 The procedure described above has been applied (see Eq. 4) to each locality, in order to
 298 estimate a posterior probability distribution of the MI from each of the considered priors. From
 299 the posterior distribution, two different intensity assignments methods have been implemented:
 300 *argmax*, selecting the intensity value with the highest probability, and *weighted*, taking the
 301 weighted average of the intensities corresponding to the three highest probabilities. In order

302 to illustrate this approach, Fig. 6 shows the specific case of Arquata del Tronto. In the lower
303 inset the probability density functions (pdf) of the mean damage grade μ_D for the observed
304 vulnerability classes are shown, considering only the three intensity values mostly contributing
305 to the likelihood. We note that intensity VII maximizes the likelihood of observing a μ_D equal
306 to 2 for buildings of vulnerability class *A*; intensity IX is the most compatible with a μ_D equal
307 to 2.97 for buildings of vulnerability class *B*. In this case the contrasting information collected
308 during the field survey about the vulnerability classes *A* and *B* explains the bimodal posterior
309 distribution. In the case of buildings of vulnerability class *C* (only one observation in this
310 case) the observation of a μ_D equal to zero narrows down the support of the PDFs, which
311 up to intensity VI almost completely fit within the interval, therefore contributing to increase
312 the likelihood in the lower end of intensity. The final posterior is shown, along with the used
313 (informative) prior, in the upper part of Fig. 6. It can be noted that the relatively high frequency
314 of buildings of vulnerability class *B* determines the highest peak in the posterior distribution.
315 The continuous vertical line marks the intensity officially assigned by INGV while the dashed
316 lines represent the intensities derived from the posterior distribution following the *argmax* and
317 the *weighted* approaches.

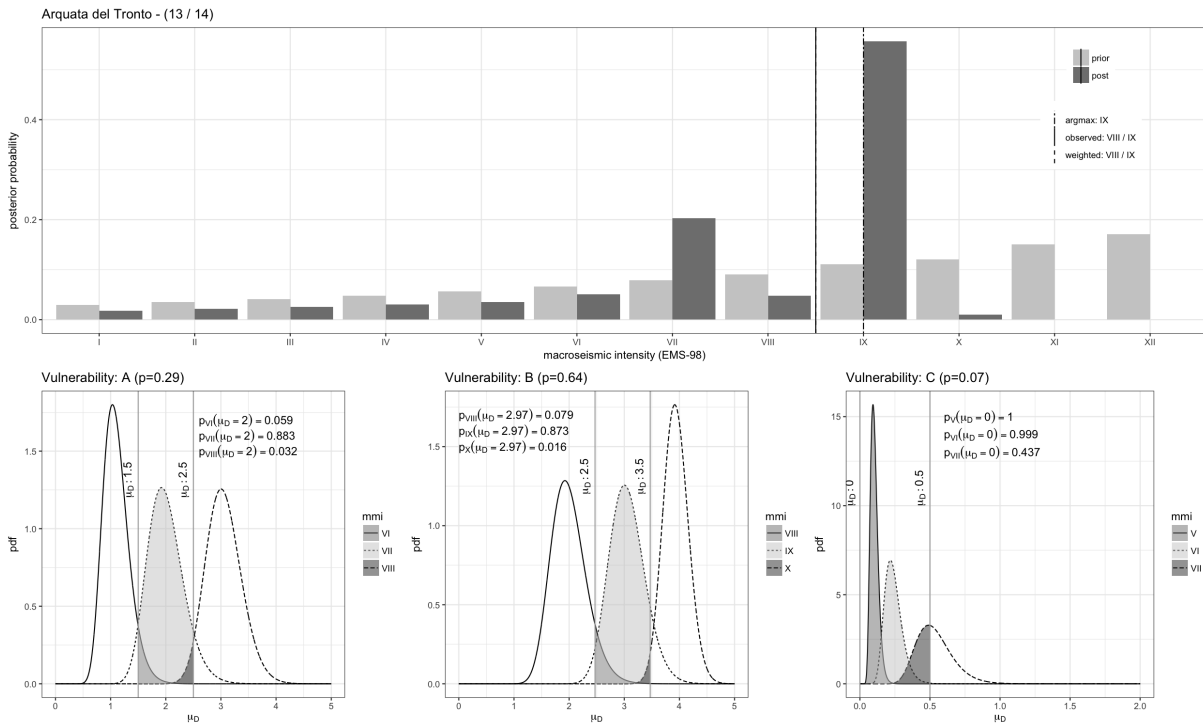


Figure 6. Upper side: comparison of prior and posterior distribution for the settlement of Arquata del Tronto. The continuous vertical line marks the intensity officially assigned by INGV. The dashed lines represent the intensities derived from the posterior distribution by selecting the intensity bin with the highest probability (argmax) or by taking the weighted average of the intensities corresponding to the three highest bins. Lower side: probability density functions (PDF) of mean damage grade for the observed vulnerability classes. Only the three intensity values contributing significantly to the likelihood are shown.

318 In Figs. 7 to 9, the posterior distributions and the corresponding intensity assignments are
 319 shown for the localities where RRDA damage grading was available for the considered three
 320 prior distributions. Intensity values officially assigned by INGV to these settlements (black tri-
 321 angles) are also shown, along with the distribution of the residuals, defined as the difference
 322 between the value estimated with the weighted approach and the value officially assigned. The
 323 size of the points is proportional to the number of grading used for the estimation. This num-
 324 ber is also indicated for each target location, along with the number of gradings with non-zero
 325 damage). For both assignment approaches (argmax and weighted), the average residual is also
 326 indicated. A comparison of the estimation results according to the different priors and assign-
 327 ment approach is provided in Table 4 in terms of the number of assignments which differ by
 328 respectively up to half an intensity degree and up to one intensity degree with respect to the
 329 official intensities provided by INGV. As an additional indicator, the last column in the table
 330 provides the squared sum of residuals normalized on the number of estimations.

Table 4. Comparison of the estimation results according to the different priors and assignment approaches. The total number of estimations is 22. The last column displays the sum of squared residuals (RSS) normalized on the number of estimations.

prior type	assignment	within half intensity	within one intensity	RSS
flat	weighted	15	19	2.19
flat	argmax	10	16	3.17
informative	weighted	14	18	1.13
informative	argmax	8	16	1.36
expert judgment	weighted	11	17	0.67
expert judgment	argmax	17	20	1.17

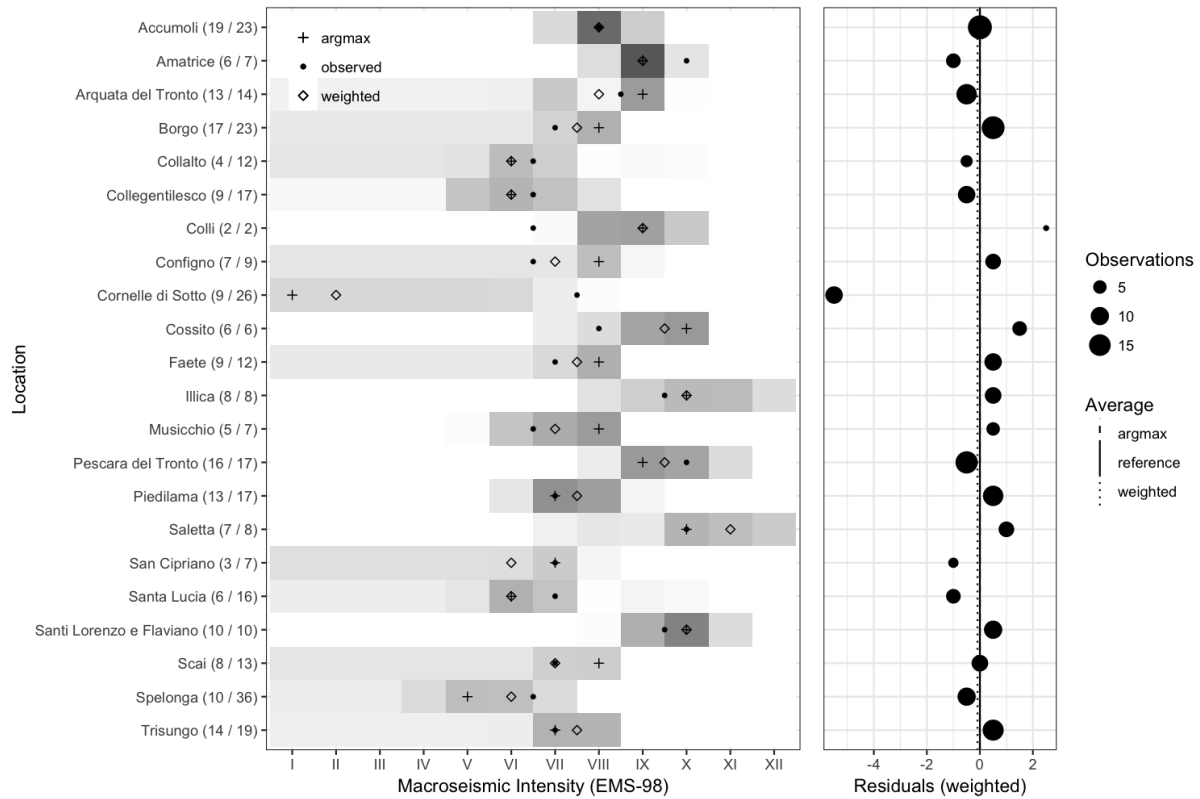


Figure 7. Left: Posterior distribution of MI with uninformative (flat) prior for the considered settlements. In parenthesis are the number of gradings with damage $D > 0$ and the total number). The reference (official INGV) assignment is indicated by a black triangle. Intensity estimated with both the argmax and weighted approaches are also shown. Right: distribution of residuals, defined as the difference between estimated (weighted) and assigned intensity. The size of the points is proportional to the number of available gradings. Vertical lines represent the average residuals, including the zero residual as reference.

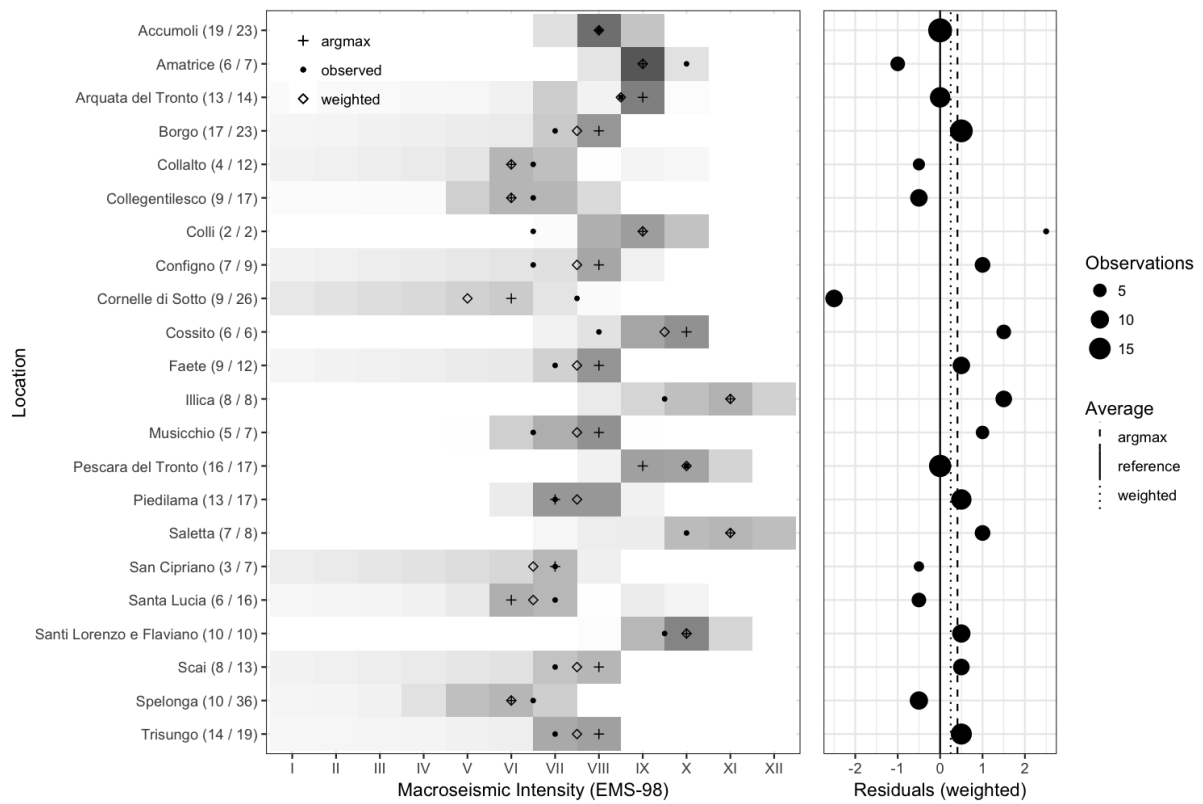


Figure 8. As in Fig. 7 but for posterior distribution of MI with informative prior.

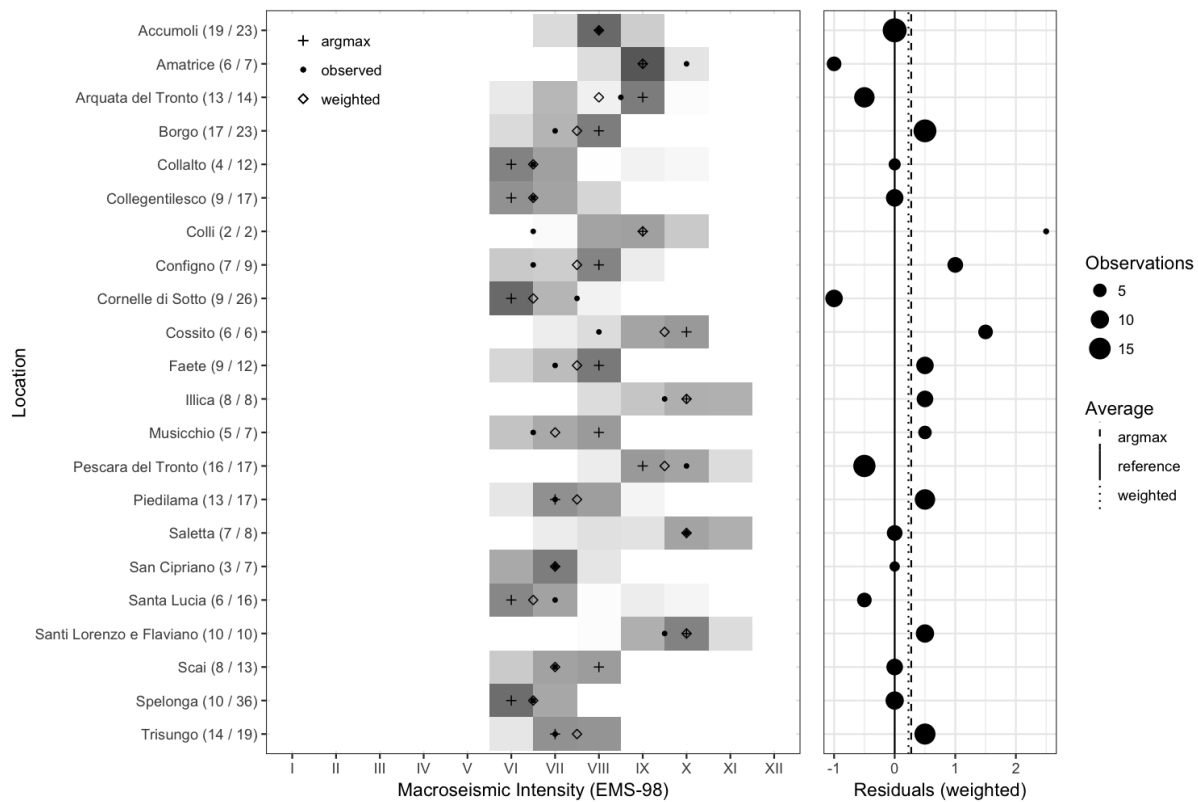


Figure 9. As in Fig. 7 but for posterior distribution of MI with expert judgment-based prior.

331

DISCUSSION

332 The results show a good agreement between the intensities estimated following the presented
 333 method with respect to the ones officially assigned by INGV through extensive *in situ* investi-
 334 gations. This suggests that a balanced spatial sampling of buildings for inspection may allow
 335 for consistent estimates, even with sparse observations. We note that using an uninformative
 336 (flat) prior (Fig. 7) the residuals are more widely spread than with the other priors (i.e., the
 337 RSS is greater), but the average residuals considering both the *argmax* and the *weighted* assign-
 338 ment methods are close to zero, hence relatively unbiased. In contrast, by using an informative
 339 (Fig. 8) or an expert-based (Fig. 9) prior on average a better overall performance is obtained,
 340 but with an observable bias. This applies mostly in the cases where the paucity of information
 341 leads to highly uncertain distributions, and therefore the prior has a relevant role. Where the
 342 observed information is consistent (as happens in most of the cases), the three different priors
 343 provide a comparable performance. Among the considered locations, only Cornelle di Sotto
 344 and Colli show a significant discrepancy between estimated and assigned intensity. This dis-
 345 crepancy is minimized when a stronger prior is used (Fig. 9). The intensity assignment for Colli

346 is based on only two gradings, hence it should be considered unreliable. Cornelle di Sotto is
347 a very small village located in the municipality of Amatrice, where most of the damage was
348 concentrated in the historical center. The Voronoi cell used to aggregate the individual gradings
349 to this settlement also partly included neighboring villages, where less damage was observed.
350 Although the use of Voronoi tessellation allows for a straightforward mapping of the grading to
351 the settlements based solely on their centroidal coordinates, if a high spatial variability in MI is
352 observed (due, for example, to local site amplification effects), a further bias may be introduced.
353 Remarkably, although the car with the mobile mapping system was often not allowed to enter
354 the so called red areas, where most of the collapses occurred, there is no observable negative
355 bias in the intensity assignments. On the contrary, a small positive bias (less than half intensity
356 grade) can be observed on average when using informative and expert-judgment priors. In the
357 case of the informative prior, this positive bias may be imputed to the monotonically increasing
358 shape of the distribution, due to the application of the principle of maximum entropy. In fact
359 the arithmetic mean of the official INGV intensities is 7.73, very close to the average value VIII
360 estimated from the instrumental shake map (Faenza et al., 2016) and used to constrain the prior
361 distribution. The use of a strong prior such as the expert-judgment one, further increases the
362 performance of the procedure. In most cases intensity values greater than XI can be safely ruled
363 out by setting to zero the corresponding prior probability, however this type of prior should be
364 employed with care, since an irreversible constrain is created which cannot be further modi-
365 fied by incoming information. Finally, two methodologies have been considered to assign a
366 single intensity from the probability distribution. According to the obtained results, the assign-
367 ment based on the weighted combination of the three most likely intensity values (indicated as
368 *weighted*) shows a consistently better performance with respect to using the intensity value with
369 highest likelihood (*argmax*).

370

CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

371 An innovative methodology is proposed to provide a rapid estimation of macroseismic intensity,
372 in terms of the EMS-98 scale, based on the observed damage to the built environment. Despite
373 being based on a small number of gradings, the estimated intensities are in good agreement
374 with the ones officially assigned by INGV through extensive in situ investigations. A consis-
375 tent probabilistic estimation of the macroseismic intensity in different geographical locations
376 can therefore be carried out, integrating the collected information with ancillary data and ex-
377 pert judgment through the use of a Bayesian updating framework. The following concluding

378 remarks can be done:

- 379 ● The web-based reconnaissance platform (RRDA), based on visual data collected through
380 mobile mapping, allows for the involvement of a potentially high number of skilled sur-
381 veyors, working remotely. The RRDA platform could in fact be easily scaled up, allow-
382 ing the prompt collection of more statistically significant datasets, and contributing to
383 improving the situational awareness of civil protection authorities and decision makers.

- 384 ● The overall procedure has been designed to minimize the amount of subjective judgment
385 and provide a transparent, traceable processing scheme. The immediate availability of the
386 collected data (including both the individual evaluation of the experts and the related geo-
387 referenced panoramic images) can contribute to the prompt recalibration of fragility and
388 vulnerability models. The proposed procedure would also benefit from the integration of
389 reconnaissance data provided by independent surveying missions.

- 390 ● Since only intensities greater than V are associated with physical damage to structures,
391 lower intensity grades cannot be reliably estimated with this methodology. The integra-
392 tion of complementary data such as, for instance, crowd-sourced reports on felt earth-
393 quakes, could contribute filling in information on the lower intensity grades.

- 394 ● While the damage grades are well described by the EMS-98 formulation, the assignment
395 of vulnerability classes is more uncertain and relies heavily on the experience of the
396 surveyor. However, since the RRDA user interface was originally designed to collect
397 structural and non-structural features according to a standard taxonomy (GEM v2.0), in
398 future applications, the vulnerability class (and hence the vulnerability index) might be
399 assigned in an unsupervised way based on clearly observable properties, minimizing the
400 amount of subjective judgment.

- 401 ● The use of the data provided by the Copernicus Emergency Mapping Service exemplifies
402 the integration of qualified information into the process from a very early stage and over
403 a broad area, showing how the damage grading from satellite imagery may actively com-
404 plement the data collected via a mobile mapping system with information on the most
405 damaged areas, which are likely not accessible to a direct survey.

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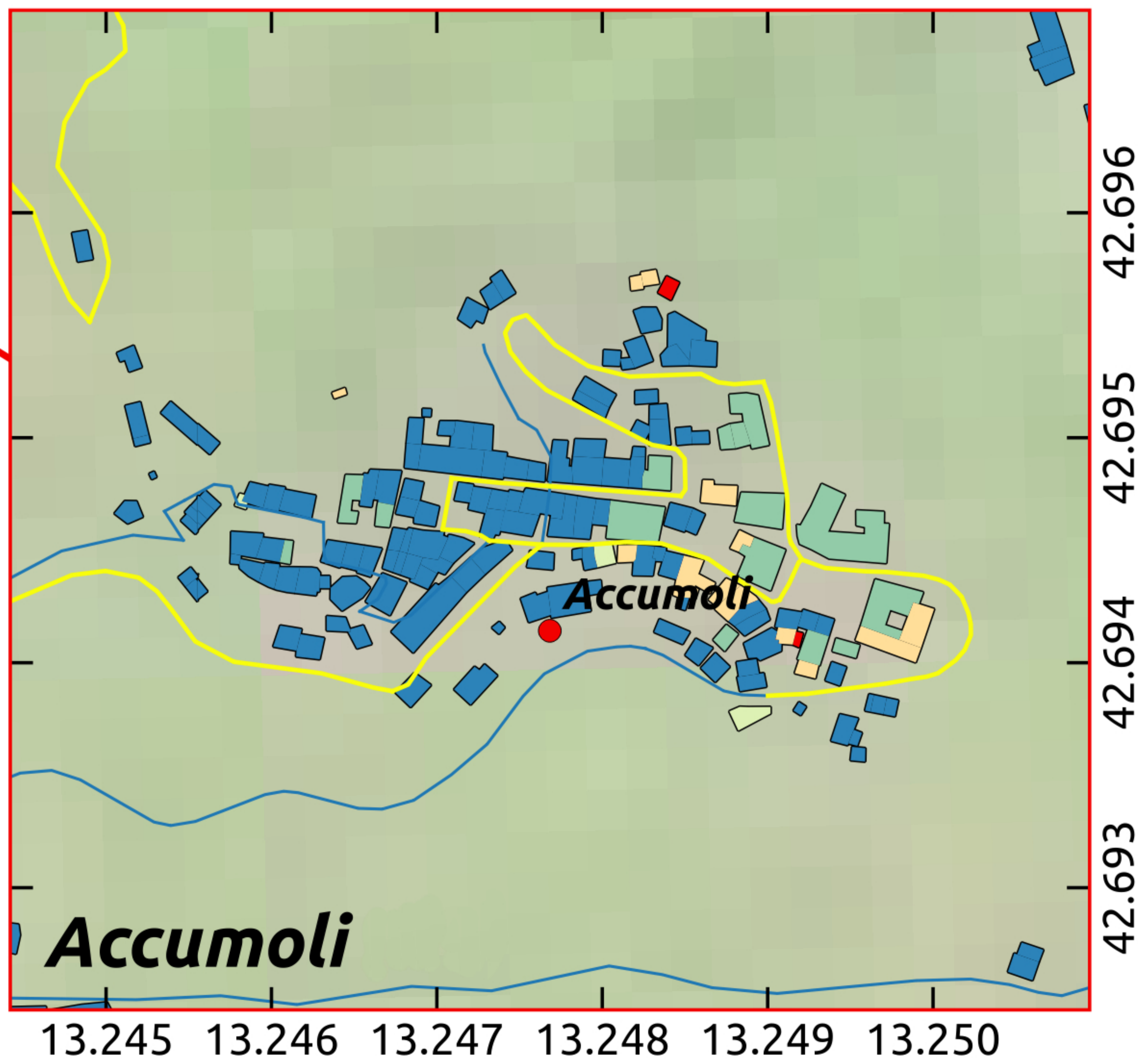
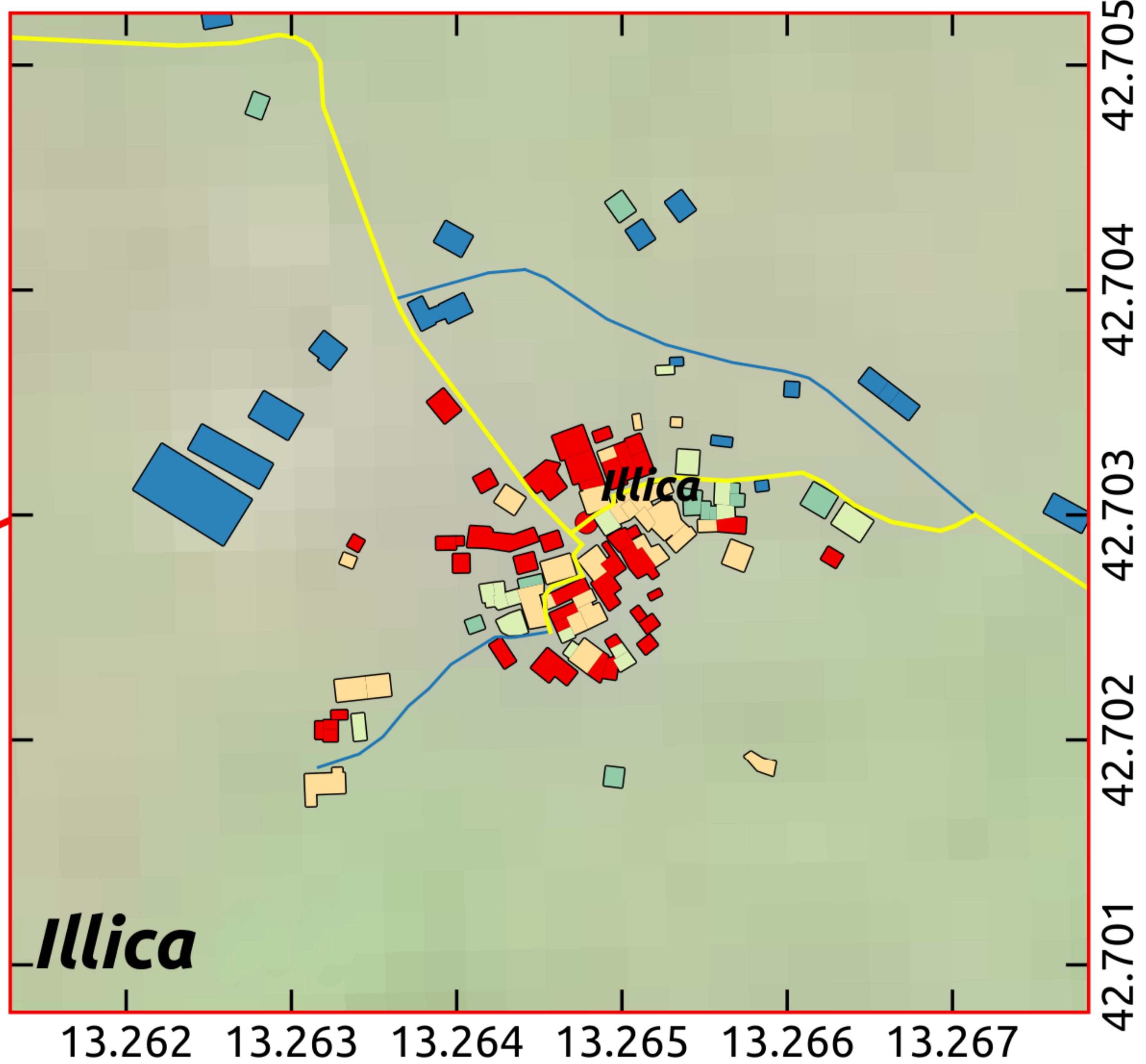
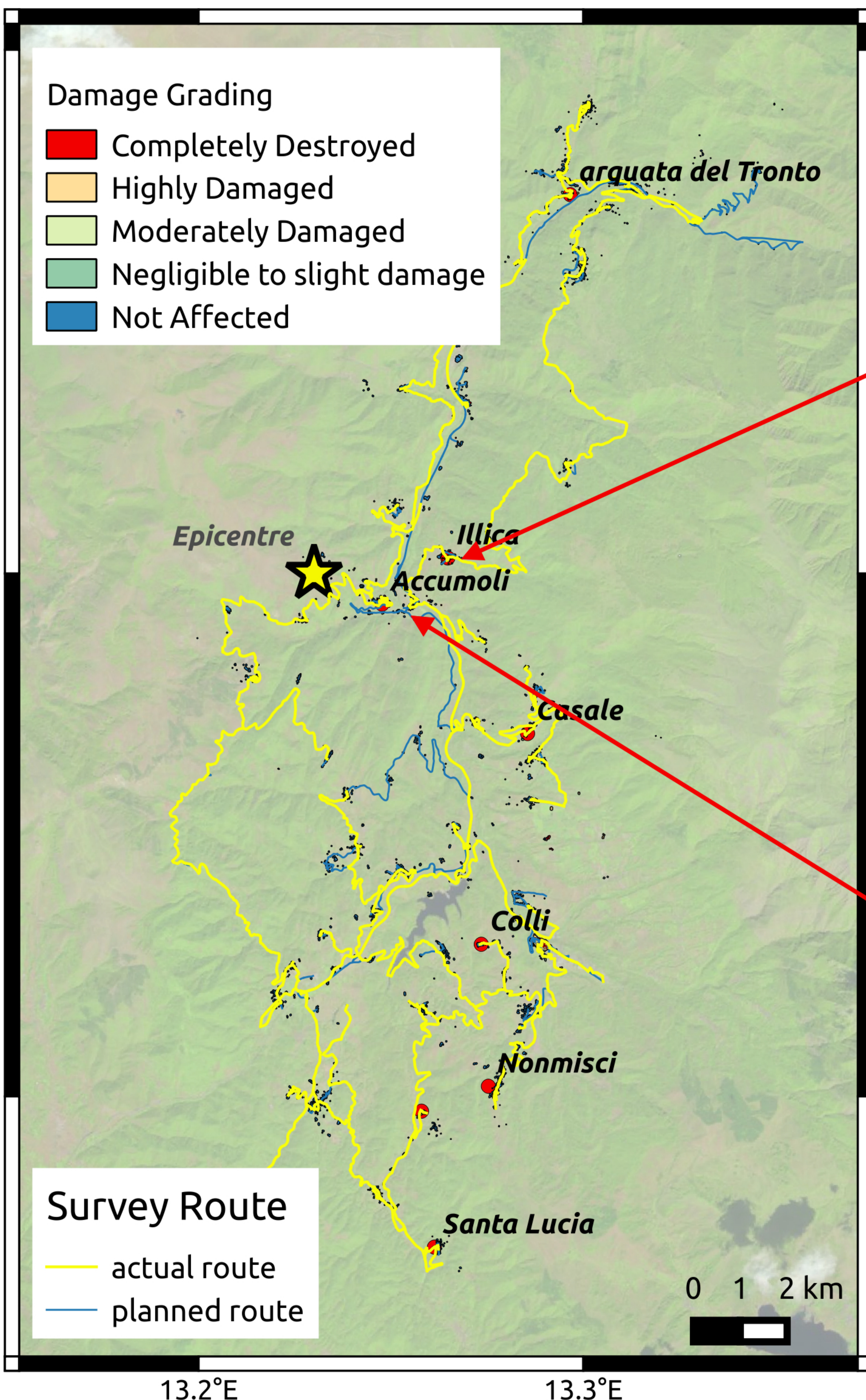
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Damage Grading

- Completely Destroyed
- Highly Damaged
- Moderately Damaged
- Negligible to slight damage
- Not Affected

Survey Route

- actual route
- planned route





RRDA Remote Rapid Damage Screening Tool

Search:

Mat. LLRS H Age Occ. Plan&Pos. Str.Irreg. Ext. Walls Roof Floors Foundn. Sys. Dmg+VC

BuildingID	RRVS Status
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19194	COMPLETED
19223	COMPLETED
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19299	COMPLETED

Showing 1 to 100 of 100 entries

BuildingID:

Completed

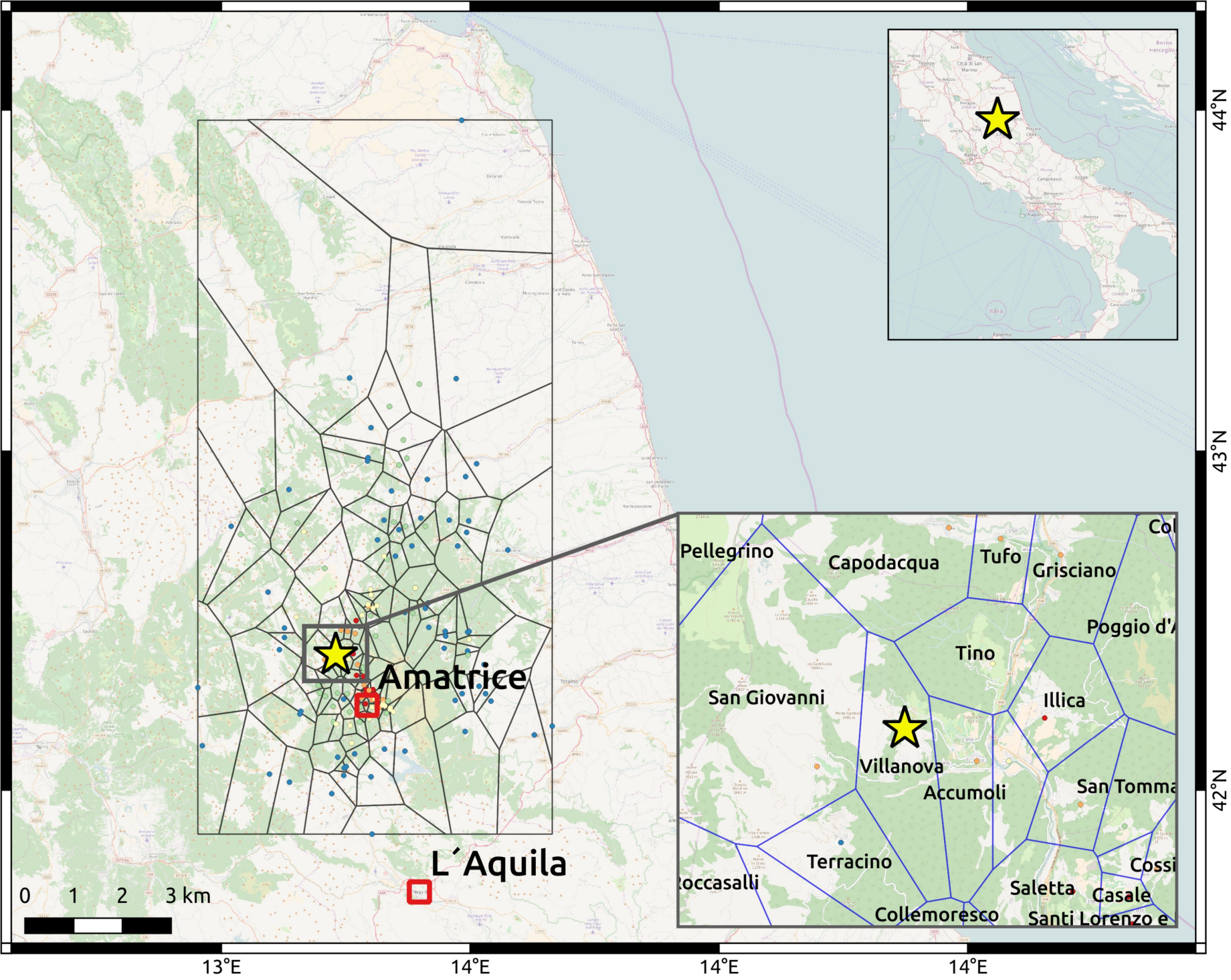
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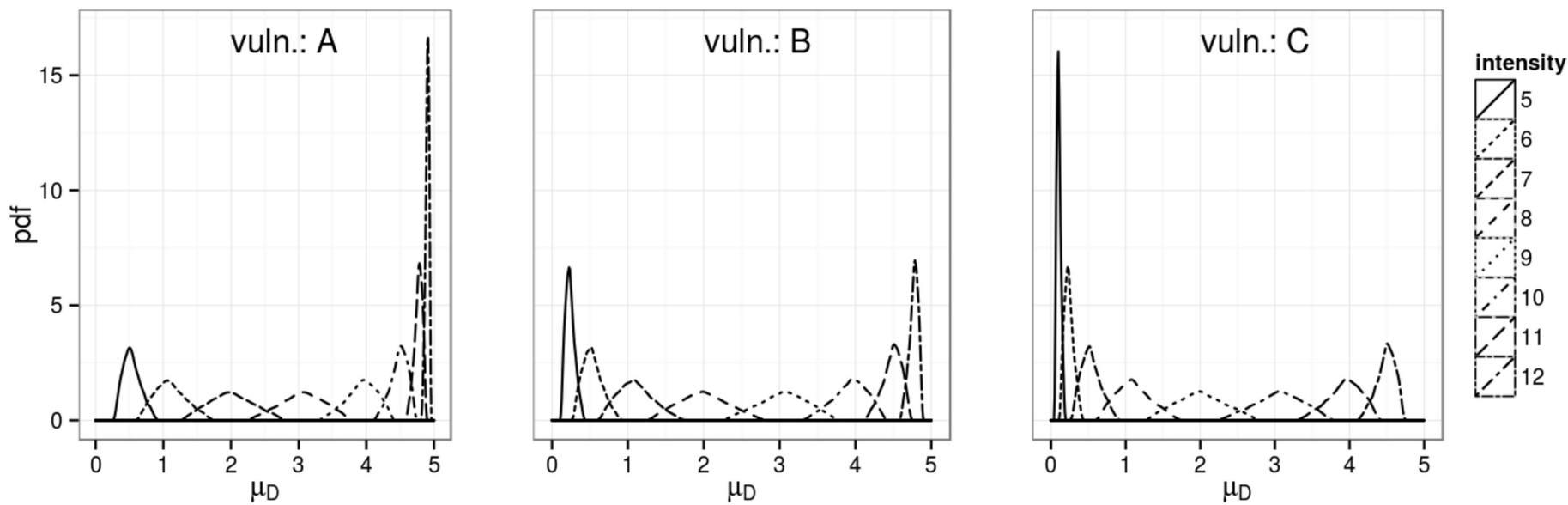
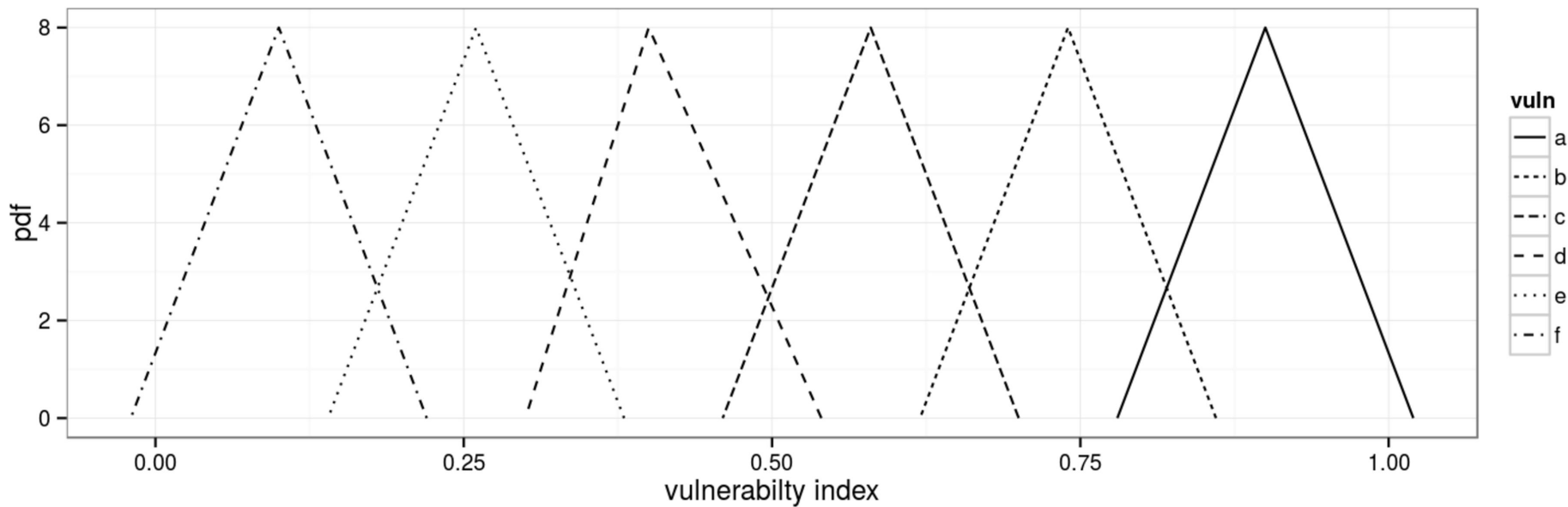
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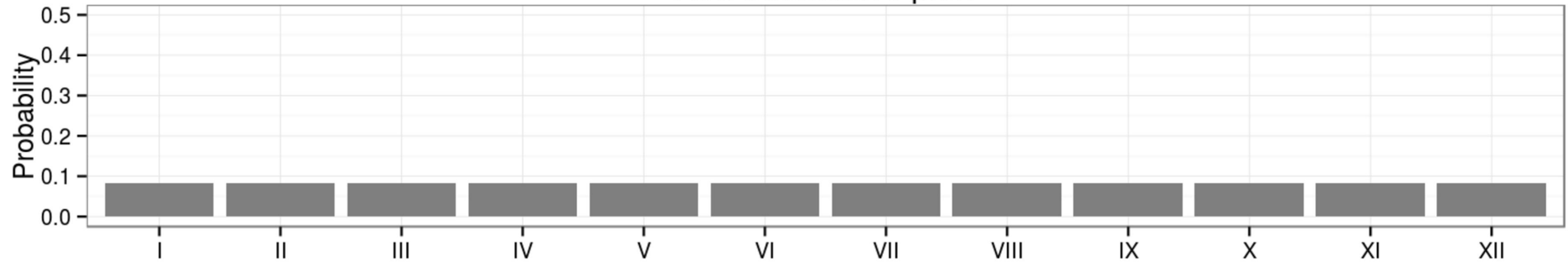
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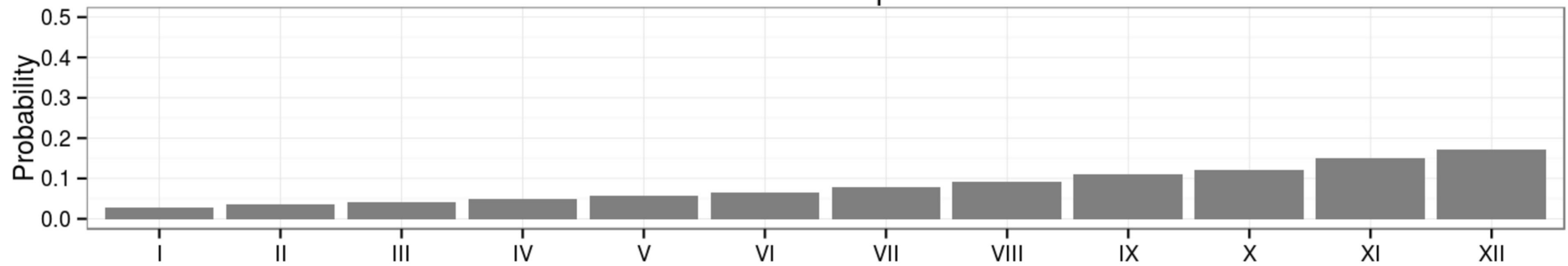




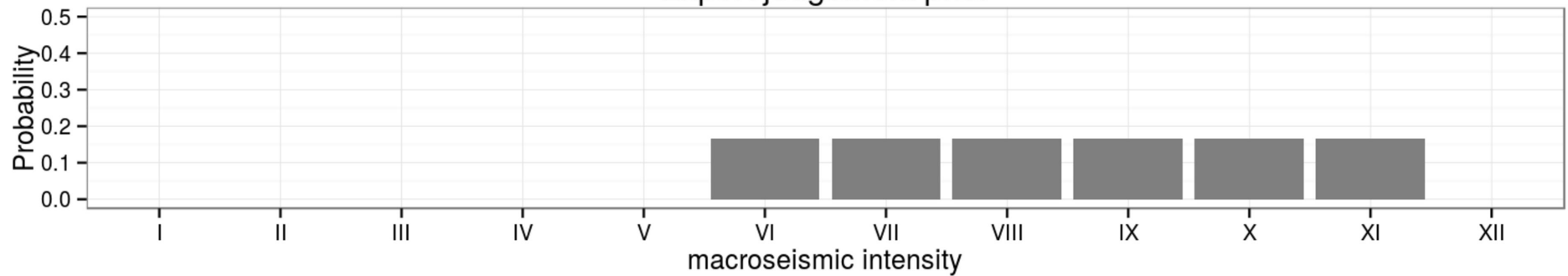
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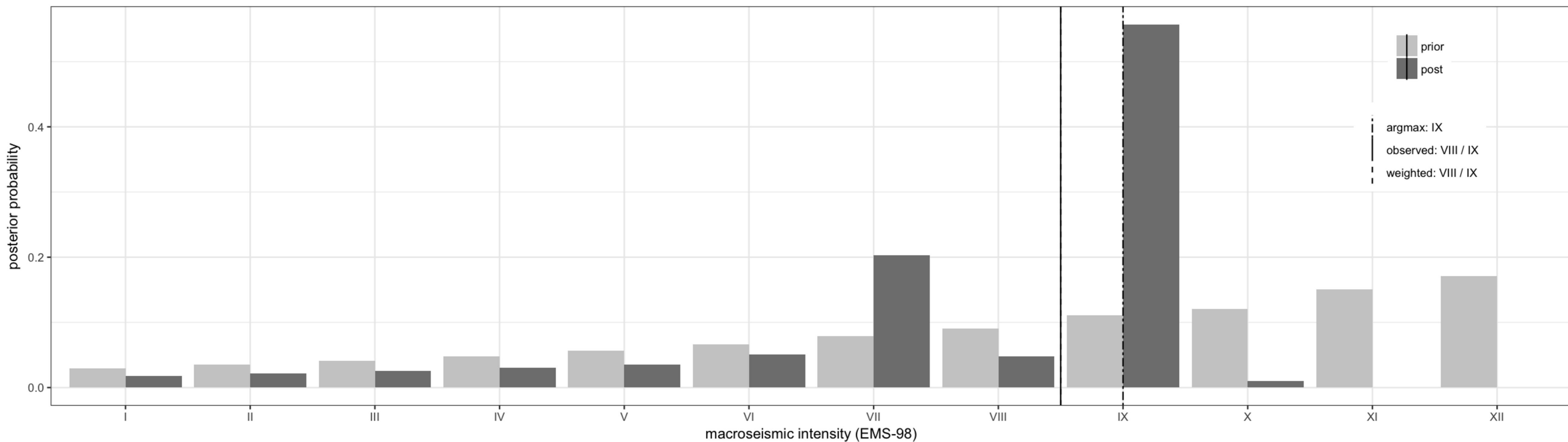


Informative prior

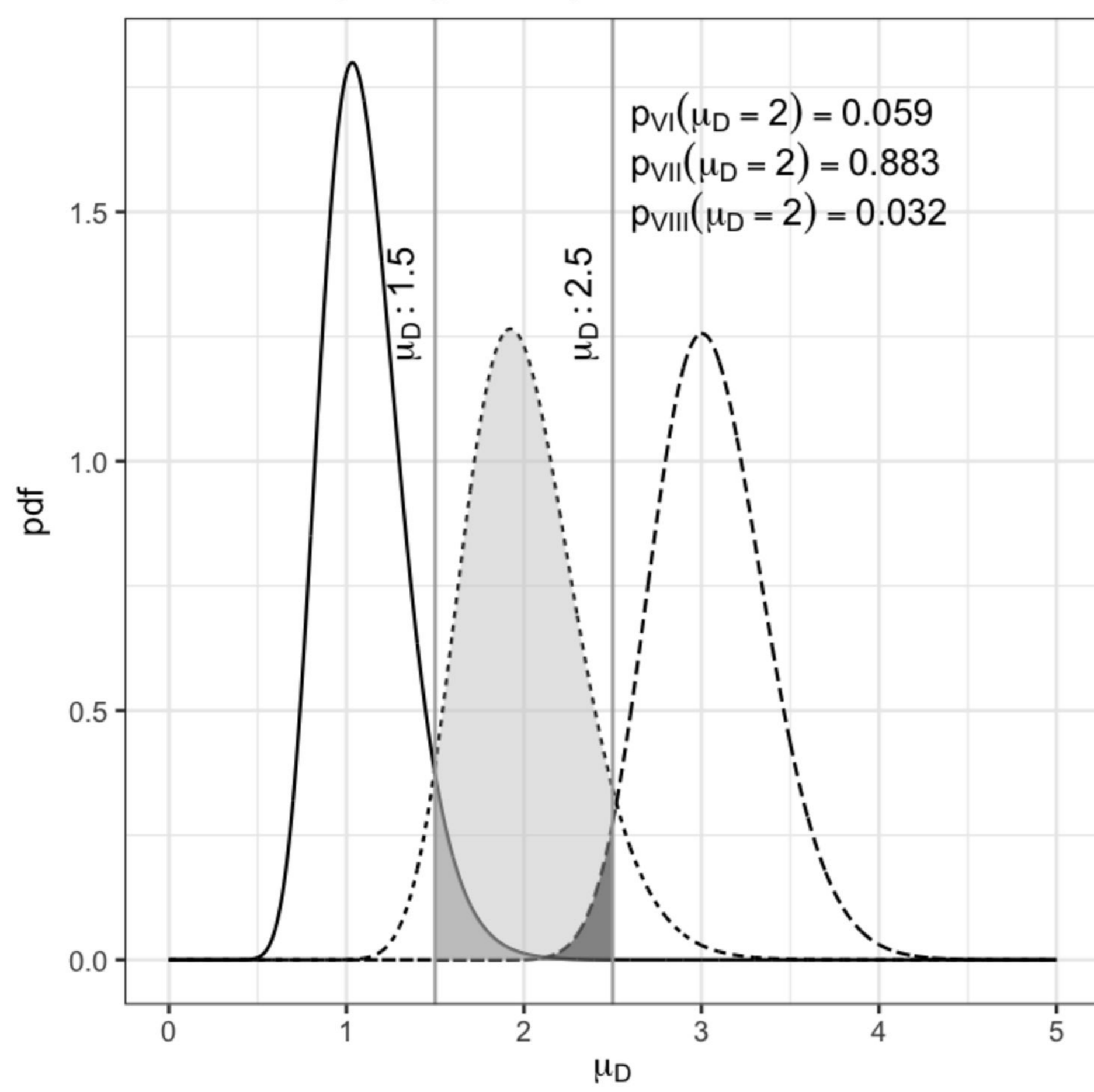


Expert judgement prior

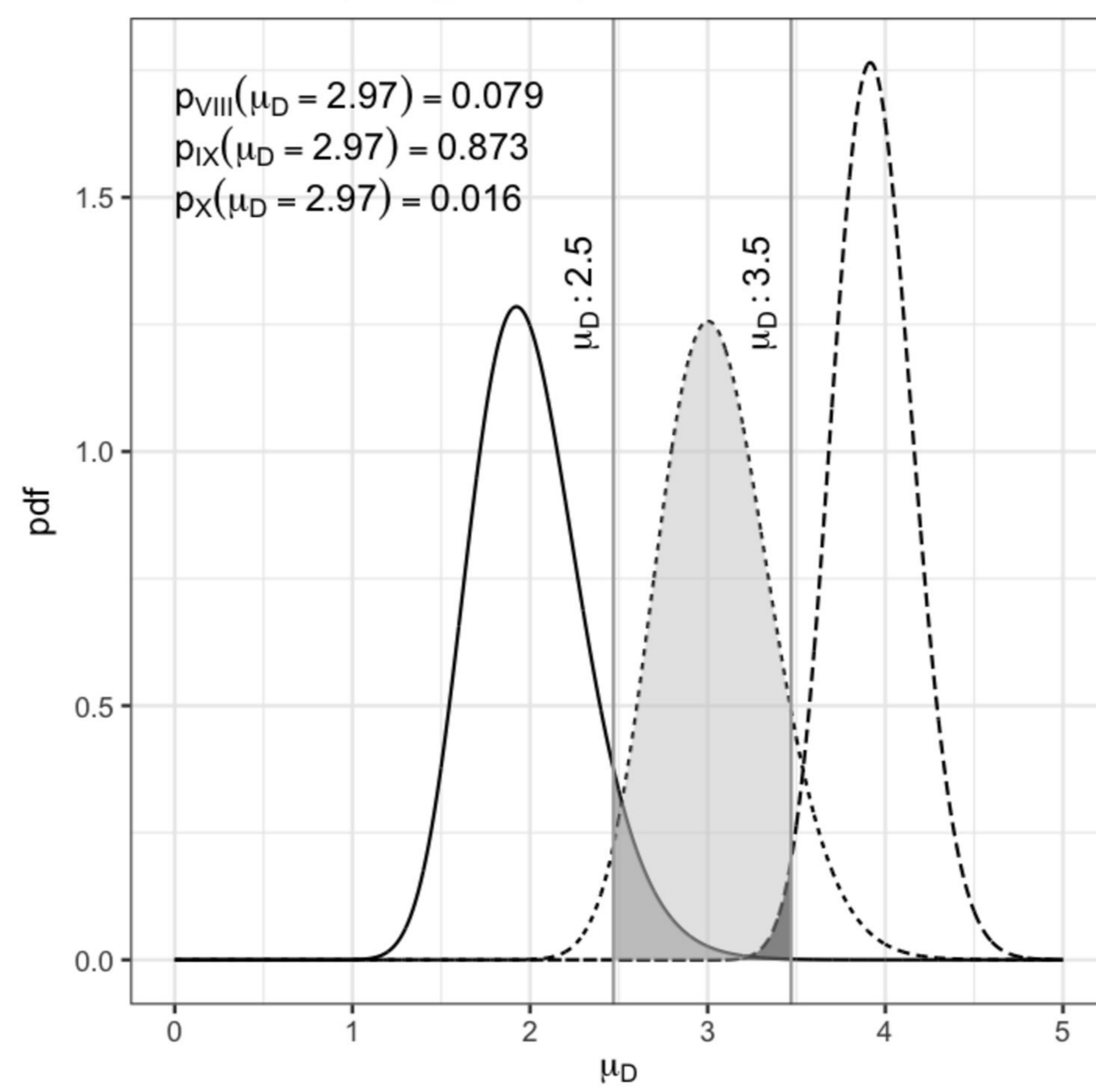




Vulnerability: A (p=0.29)



Vulnerability: B (p=0.64)



Vulnerability: C (p=0.07)

