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1 **Image-based mapping of surface fissures for the investigation of landslide** 2 **dynamics**

3

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6

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 The development of surface fissures is an important indicator for understanding and forecasting slope
15 movements. Landslide investigations therefore frequently include the elaboration and interpretation of
16 maps representing their spatial distribution, typically comprising intensive field work and
17 instrumentation. Only recently aerial photography with sub-decimetre spatial resolution is becoming more
18 commonly available and opens a window to analyse such features from a remote sensing perspective.

19 While these data are in principle helpful to elaborate maps from image interpretation techniques, there is
20 still no image processing technique available to extract efficiently these geomorphological features. This
21 work proposes a largely automated technique for the mapping of landslide surface fissures from very-high
22 resolution aerial images. The processing chain includes the use of filtering algorithms and post-processing
23 of the filtered images using object-oriented analysis. The accuracy of the resulting maps is assessed by
24 comparisons with several expert maps in terms of affected area, fissure density and fissure orientation.

25 Under homogenous illumination conditions, true positive rates up to 65% and false positive rates
26 generally below 10% are achieved. The resulting fissure maps provide sufficient detail to infer

27 mechanical processes at the slope scale and to prioritize areas for more detailed ground investigations or
28 monitoring.

29

30 **Keywords:**

31 Landslide; Fissure; Geomorphological mapping; Remote sensing; Image filtering; UAV

32

33

34 **1 Introduction**

35 Observations of features and structural patterns of earth surface landforms can reveal information on the
36 origin and mechanisms controlling the geomorphological processes. Structural geology and
37 geomorphology have developed comprehensive concepts to delineate geomorphological units and
38 structure types from remote sensing images, and infer about mechanical processes without necessarily
39 measuring displacement, deformation or the applied forces directly (Melton 1959; Davis and Reynolds,
40 1996; Passchier and Trouw, 2005; Pollard and Fletcher, 2005). Surface discontinuities observed in rocks
41 and sediments have proven to be valuable indicators of the deformation history and stress pattern of the
42 slope. For landslide analysis, their observation and interpretation can contribute to a better understanding
43 of the controlling physical processes and help in the assessment of the related hazards (McCalpin, 1984;
44 Fleming and Johnson, 1989; Parise, 2003). In hard-rock slopes, the analysis of structural discontinuities
45 (faults, bedding planes, joints, fractures) allows to characterize potentially unstable areas (Hoek and Bray,
46 1981; Matheson, 1983; Priest, 1993; Selby, 1993; Günther et al., 2004; Jaboyedoff et al., 2004; Glenn et
47 al., 2006). In soft-rock slopes and sediments, the analysis of surface fissures may indicate the
48 development of future failures (Krauskopf et al., 1939; Shreve, 1966; Chowdhury and Zhang, 1991;
49 Abramson et al., 2001; Khattak et al., 2010) and is often considered as a geo-indicator of the activity stage
50 of a landslide. In sediments, the surface fissure characteristics also influence water infiltration and
51 drainage, which in turn affect the ground-water system and the kinematic response of slopes to
52 hydrological events (Malet et al., 2003; Malet et al., 2005b; van Asch et al., 2009).

53 Maps of surface deformation features can be obtained by extensive field surveys either through the direct
54 visual observation of the topography (Fleming et al., 1999; Meisina, 2006) or through the indirect
55 measure of seismic wave propagation in tomography setups (Grandjean et al., 2011; Bièvre et al., 2012).
56 Relatively large fissures on landslides may also be discernible in Very-High-Resolution (VHR)
57 spaceborne images (Glenn et al., 2006; Youssef et al., 2009) but typically those structures reach widths in
58 the decimetre-range and at present only airborne photographs provide sufficient detail for their detection
59 in the centimetric range. Recent studies (Eisenbeiss, 2009; Niethammer et al., 2011a) have shown that
60 VHR images acquired from Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) are cost-efficient data sources for the
61 monitoring of landslide surfaces with sub-decimetric image resolution. Especially small UAVs with
62 payloads below 5 kg and operating altitudes below 2000 m are expected to be employed much more
63 frequently in coming years (Frost & Sullivan, 2007) though more specific regulations for their specific
64 operational use are being discussed at national and international levels (Prats et al., 2012; Watts et al.,
65 2012).

66 Visual interpretation of VHR imagery is a classical method in geomorphology, but it remains subjective,
67 and rather impractical for repetitive observations or the inspection of large areas. An increasing number of
68 studies therefore targeted the development of automated techniques to extract relevant features from
69 imagery (Graham et al., 2010; Martha et al., 2010; Stumpf and Kerle, 2011). Although, the detection and
70 extraction of linear features is a fundamental operation in digital image processing (Quackenbush, 2004;
71 Mendonca and Campilho, 2006; Papari and Petkov, 2011), relatively few studies have explored the
72 application of automatic approaches for the mapping of geomorphological relevant linear features
73 (Baruch and Filin, 2011; Shruthi et al., 2011).

74 Considering the increasingly widespread availability of sub-decimetre resolution images from UAVs and
75 other airborne platforms, this study targeted the development of a semi-automatic image analysis
76 technique to support geomorphologists in the detection, mapping and characterization of landslide surface
77 fissures from VHR aerial images. In this context the term “semi-automatic” expresses that the technique
78 requires user input to be adapted for different image types and environmental settings. The developed

79 method is based on a combination of Gaussian directional filters, mathematical morphology and object-
80 oriented image analysis (OOA) and was tested on a set of multi-temporal VHR images acquired at the
81 Super-Sauze landslide (Southeast French Alps). The obtained results were compared to manual mappings
82 carried out by experts combining image interpretation and field surveys.

83

84 **2 Types of surface fissure observed on landslides**

85 Detailed observations of landslide surface fissures were provided by Krauskopf et al. (1939) who adapted
86 analogies from structural geology for their interpretation and distinguished between strike-slip structures,
87 normal faults, graben structures and compression structures. Also Ter-Stephanian (1946) noticed the
88 mechanical significance of surface fissures and elaborated a classification scheme relating fissure
89 morphology and location within the landslide mass to corresponding mechanical processes. This included
90 a first-order differentiation between upper extension, side friction, central compression, and lower creep-
91 on cracks. Although some authors used similar classification schemes (Bombard, 1968), the adopted
92 terminology varies among different authors and affected lithologies (Fleming and Johnson, 1989; Cruden
93 and Varnes, 1996; Fleming et al., 1999; Walter et al., 2009) and the terms crack and fissure are often used
94 synonymously to refer to a variety of surface discontinuities.

95 Here, *fissure* is adopted as a generic term for open fractures on the topographic surface of a natural slope.

96 At first instance, *transversal*, *longitudinal* and *diagonal fissures* are distinguished according to their main
97 orientation axes relative to the dip of the slope. This terminology can be used *ad hoc* to classify fissures
98 solely based on geometric properties observed in the field or in an image. A more refined mechanical
99 classification such as provided in Ter-Stephanian (1946) will generally require considerations of the
100 fissure patterns, the involved material and the local geometry of the slip surface. The term *crack* is used in
101 this manuscript when referring to genetic processes described within classical fracture mechanics
102 (Anderson, 2005). It should be noted that the term *crack* is also often adopted to refer to shrinking-
103 swelling induced fractures (Malet et al., 2003) which are not the objective of this study.

104 Classical fracture mechanics postulates tensile opening, sliding and tearing as the three basic modes for
105 crack propagation (Fig. 1a). The concept has been developed for brittle material but is also adopted to
106 explain fracturing of plastic materials at high deformation rates (Schulson and Duval, 2009). Surface
107 fissures may develop from a combination of all three modes, whereas in practice, considering the
108 relatively low tensile fracture toughness of most geomaterials (Backers, 2004; Ke et al., 2008; Schulson
109 and Duval, 2009), tensile fracturing can be expected to dominate the formation of fissures at the free
110 surfaces of a landslide. However, interpreting tension cracks as a direct indicator for a purely tensile stress
111 regime may often fall too short. In fact, tensile fracturing may also result from relaxation of tensile
112 stresses that originate from deformation induced by shearing and compression as well (Wang and Shrive,
113 1995). A mechanical interpretation and classification of the fissures must therefore consider the fissure
114 pattern, the material and the landslide geometry.

115

116

117 FIG. 1 SOMEWHERE HERE

118

119 Fig. 1b-d illustrates three typical fissure patterns that are frequently used as geoindicators of specific
120 deformation processes in the above-cited studies. One commonly observed example for such patterns is
121 the formation of *en-echelon* fissure arrays (Fig. 1c), often also termed *Riedel* shears (Riedel, 1929). They
122 accommodate tensile stress and shear stress typically resulting from shear in the bounding zone of blocks
123 moving with different displacement rates. Certain patterns such as arrays of transversal fissures (Fig. 1b)
124 are typically associated with tension in the steeper upper slopes, whereas fissures resulting from
125 compression and lateral extension (Fig. 1d) are more typically associated with gentler slopes in the transit
126 and accumulation zones of landsides (Sowers and Royster, 1978). For landslides with a complex
127 geometry, the position of those fissure patterns may however deviate considerably from this simple
128 scheme (Niethammer et al., 2011a).

129

130 **3 Study site and data**

131 The Super-Sauze mudslide is an active slow-moving landslide located in the Barcelonnette Basin in the
132 Southern French Alps (Fig. 2) that developed in weathered black marls in the 1960s, and features highly
133 variable displacement rates (from 0.01 m.day^{-1} to 0.40 m.day^{-1}) controlled by the local hydrological
134 conditions (Malet et al., 2005b). The landslide measures 950 m from the main scarp to the toe, and is up
135 to 150 m wide. The moving mass has a clay-rich matrix containing up to 30% coarse gravel as well as
136 larger boulders and blocks (Malet et al., 2005b). The surface displays the signs of deformation in the form
137 of ridges, bulges, lobes and fissures but also markers of surface erosion such as rills and small gullies.
138 Unlike surrounding stable areas the landslide surface is largely bare and only at a few locations,
139 especially at its toe, cushion plants form small vegetation patches. Fissure widths of 0.01-0.40 m, lengths
140 of more than 1.00 m and depths of up to 1.50 m (Espinosa, 2009) can be observed in the field (Fig. 4b).
141 During the last 15 years, the landslide has been investigated through numerous monitoring campaigns
142 including *in-situ* geophysical measurements, terrestrial and airborne LiDAR (Light-Detection and
143 Ranging) and the acquisition of VHR optical imagery. In the VHR airborne optical images, the fissures
144 can be recognized as dark curvilinear structures (Fig. 2c-e) as soon as their width approaches one pixel in
145 size. Previous studies (Malet, 2003; Niethammer et al., 2011a; Walter et al., 2012) already discussed
146 relationships between the observed fissure patterns (Fig. 2c-e) and strain resulting from a spatially
147 heterogeneous displacement field and interactions between moving mass and the stable bedrock.
148 However, a full reconstruction of the complex bedrock geometry that may allow for a more detailed
149 characterisation of the underlying deformation mechanisms has been completed only recently (Travelletti
150 and Malet, 2012).

151

152 FIG. 2 SOMEWHERE HERE

153

154 3.1 *Airborne acquisitions of VHR optical imagery at the Super Sauze landslide*

155 Between April 2007 and October 2009, diverse imaging systems and airborne platforms were used to
156 acquire VHR images of the landslide at five different dates (Fig. 3). In July 2008, October 2008, and
157 October 2009, a low-cost UAV system equipped with compact camera was operated at flight heights
158 between 100 m and 250 m yielding images of the surface with a ground resolution between 0.03 m and
159 0.10 m. The individual images were corrected for barrel lens distortion, rectified according to ground
160 control points (GCPs) measured with differential GPS (DGPS), and finally merged into one large
161 orthomosaic. Further details on the image acquisition and processing were provided by Niethammer et al.
162 (2010; 2011b) who quantified the residual positional error (x-y) for the October 2008 images with
163 0.5 ± 0.57 m within the boundaries of the sliding area. The UAV images for July 2008 and October 2009
164 are expected to provide better positional accuracies because they were orthorectified using elevation
165 models that were generated from a photogrammetric analysis of the images.

166 During the airborne LiDAR surveys (see § 3.2) of, respectively May 2007 and July 2009, two
167 orthomosaics of optical images with full coverage of the landslide were recorded using medium format
168 cameras (Fig. 3) mounted on, respectively an airplane and a helicopter. The surveys used fully integrated
169 systems for direct georeferencing and orthorectification with LiDAR surface models (see § 3.2), which in
170 general provide sub-decimetre positional accuracy in the x-y plane (Vallet, 2007).

171 For the study presented here, additionally 60 homologous tie points on stable areas were manually
172 selected in the available images and showed a mean relative alignment error of 0.76 ± 0.82 m among the
173 different acquisitions.

174 Further details on the adopted camera systems and the resolutions of the images resulting from the five
175 surveys are summarized in Fig. 3. The figure also illustrates the considerable radiometric differences
176 among the five images originating from illumination changes, seasonal variations and the distinct
177 characteristics of the sensors. The scenes for May 2007, October 2008 and October 2009 were acquired
178 under cloudy conditions with diffuse sky radiation and consequently show a more homogenous
179 illumination of the surface. The scenes for July 2008 and July 2009 in contrast were recorded under sunny

180 sky yielding strong contrast and many cast shadows. The latter are more prominent in the image for July
181 2008 which was recorded in the morning hours, at a relatively low sun angle. Available methods for
182 absolute and relative radiometric correction can be employed for the radiometric alignment of satellite
183 images (Hong and Zhang, 2008; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2008) but, to the best of our knowledge, no
184 approach exists to accurately align the radiometry of sub-decimetre images from different sensors, with
185 substantial changes in illumination, a complex topography and changing surface characteristics. Initial
186 test using histogram-matching, linear-regression (Schott et al., 1988) and iteratively re-weighted
187 regression (Canty and Nielsen, 2008) did not provide satisfactory results. Consequently no radiometric
188 normalization was performed and the image analysis technique was designed and tested with radiometric
189 diverse imagery.

190 In order to calibrate adjustable parameters of the detection algorithm to the targeted fissures and the
191 variable scene characteristics, the processing was first tested on a subset of the terrain covering ~
192 14.000 m² in the central part of the landslide (Fig. 2a, Fig. 3). This section was characterized by different
193 fissure patterns and recorded during all surveys (including July 2008 and October 2009 which did not
194 yield full coverage of the surface). Subsequently, the developed workflow was applied on the full scenes
195 for a comprehensive mapping and analysis of the fissure distribution. Corresponding results for the full
196 extent of the Super-Sauze landslide and their mechanical significance are discussed in section § 5.2.

197

198 FIG. 3 SOMEWHERE HERE

199

200 3.2 *LiDAR DTM*

201 Two airborne LiDAR surveys were conducted in May 2007 and July 2009, respectively. The first survey
202 used a Riegl LMS-Q560 laser scanner mounted on an airplane flying 600 m above the ground and
203 resulted in a mean point density of 0.9 pts.m⁻² after vegetation filtering. The residual 3D positional error
204 of the ground points was quantified as 0.12 m. The second survey was conducted with a Riegl Q240i laser
205 scanner mounted on a helicopter and after vegetation filtering resulted in a mean point cloud density of

206 3.2 pts.m⁻². The residual 3D positional error of the ground points was 0.07 m. Continuous surface raster
207 with a pixel size of 0.5 m were interpolated from the respective point clouds using Delaunay
208 triangulation. The resulting surface was then adopted for the extraction of the principal hydrological
209 drainage lines.

210

211 3.3 *Reference datasets: expert maps of surface fissures*

212 Reference mappings of the fissure characteristics (type, distribution) were elaborated by an expert
213 geomorphologist familiar with the study site. The fissures were first identified on-site during a field
214 survey carried out in October 2009 at the same time as the acquisition of the UAV images. The position
215 of the fissures was mapped using a dGPS survey and terrestrial photographs. Then image interpretation
216 rules were defined to identify and digitize the fissures on the images as polyline vectors using a 2D view
217 and at a scale of 1:250. The image interpretation rules were then applied to the four other images in order
218 to elaborate an expert fissure map for each date. The resulting five maps were adopted as a reference to
219 assess the performance of the semi-automatic method.

220

221 **4 Image processing methods**

222 While first generic edge detection operators were already proposed in the 1980s (Marr and Hildreth,
223 1980; Canny, 1986), the extraction of linear features from imagery remains a challenging task in many
224 disciplines such as medical research (Mendonca and Campilho, 2006), earth science (Shao et al., 2011;
225 Shruthi et al., 2011) or signal processing (Lampert and O’Keefe, 2011). For our focus, the specific
226 challenges posed for an automation of fissure detection can be summarized as follows:

- 227 • The approach should be scalable to apply for variable fissure sizes and image resolutions, and as
228 insensitive as possible to variable radiometric image characteristics;
- 229 • The technique should not respond to edges but enable the detection of dark curvilinear structures that
230 may be oriented at any direction. Classical techniques such as Sobel operator and the Canny detectors

231 (González and Woods, 2008) have been designed specifically for edge detection and are not directly
232 applicable;

233 • The complex micro-topography, the presence of rock blocks and gravels as well as small patches of
234 vegetation yield highly textured images. Consequently, the approach should enable to smooth out
235 spurious signals from the noisy background while still retaining small partially disconnected linear
236 features of interest. Contextual scene information should be taken into account to resolve ambiguities
237 of the local features.

238 Considering these challenges, a processing workflow including three main stages was developed. Firstly,
239 a set of scalable Gaussian filters is applied to detect fissure candidates and suppress responses at edges.
240 Secondly, a set of morphological filters is used to close small gaps along the extracted candidates.
241 Thirdly, an object-oriented procedure is followed to eliminate some of the false positives exploiting
242 higher-level scene information with contextual rules.

243

244 FIG. 4 SOMEWHERE HERE

245

246 *4.1 Stage 1: Extraction of fissure candidates using a Gaussian matched filtering algorithm*

247 A particularly well-studied example for the detection of dark curvilinear structures is the extraction of
248 dark blood vessels in photographs of the human retina. Based on the observation that the cross-profiles of
249 the vessels resembles a Gaussian distribution, Chaudhuri et al. (1989) proposed the use of a matched filter
250 (MF) that is essentially a Gaussian convolution kernel subtracted by its own mean value. As illustrated in
251 Fig. 4a, the cross-sections of surface fissures can be approximated with a Gaussian distribution and an
252 MF scaled to the size of the fissure will give a peak response when crossing the fissure at an angle of
253 approximately 90° . Because the MF still yields errors such as false detections at step edges (Fig. 5a,c)
254 numerous extensions (Hoover et al., 2000; Sofka and Stewart, 2006) and alternative approaches
255 (Mendonca and Campilho, 2006; Soares et al., 2006) have been developed. Recently, Zhang et al. (2010)
256 proposed modification to the original MF filtering approach integrating a first order derivative of a

257 Gaussian function (FDOG) to locally adapt the thresholds separating dark line from non-target features.
258 Compared to other state-of-the-art algorithms their approach provided competitive accuracies while being
259 a computationally efficient and hence easier to apply on the large images resulting from VHR remote
260 sensing.

261 For this study, a similar approach was implemented in ENVI-IDL 4.8 (ITT Visual Information Solutions).
262 The algorithm and its parameterization are detailed below.

263
264

265 FIG. 5 SOMEWHERE HERE

266

267 The MF is a two dimensional kernel defined in the x-direction by an inverted Gaussian profile (Fig. 5b),
268 and in the y-direction by replicates of the same profile (Fig. 5d). It may be denoted as:

269

$$270 \quad MF = g(x, y; \sigma) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)} - m, \text{ for } |x| \leq 3\sigma, |y| \leq L/2 \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

271

272 where σ denotes the standard deviation of the Gaussian functions and relates to the width of the targeted
273 feature. To centre the kernel on zero, it is subtracted by its own mean m . The extent of the kernel in the x-
274 direction is typically constrained to 3σ , whereas L defines the extent of the kernel in the y-direction and
275 can be related to the length of the fissures. Because the matched filter still yields false responses at dark
276 and bright step edges (Fig. 5c) Zhang et al. (2010) proposed to use the response of the FDOG to locally
277 adjust the thresholds which are applied to classify the MF response into fissure and non-fissure structures.

278 In analogy to Eq. 1, the first order derivative filter may be denoted as:

279

$$280 \quad FDOG = g'(x, y; \sigma) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma^3} e^{\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)}, \text{ for } |x| \leq 3\sigma, |y| \leq L/2 \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

281

282 Fig. 5f illustrates that the FDOG responds with a single peak to edges but with a zero crossing at the
 283 centre of the idealized fissure. A simple mean filter can be applied to broaden the zero crossing into a
 284 plateau covering the whole width of the fissure (Fig. 5f). Subtracting the smoothed FDOG response from
 285 the MF response will attenuate the signal at edges while at the position of the fissure the full response is
 286 retained (Fig. 5h).

287 Since the orientation of the fissures is *a priori* unknown, multiple rotated versions of the Gaussian filters
 288 are applied on the image and for each pixel only the maximum response value is retained. This
 289 corresponds to finding the angle $\theta_{max(x,y)}$ which maximizes the filter response at a given position in the
 290 image $I_{(x,y)}$ using Eq. 3:

$$291$$

$$292 \theta_{max(x,y)} = \arg \max (I_{(x,y)} \otimes MF_{\theta}), \text{ for } 0 < \theta_i \leq \pi \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

$$293$$

294 where \otimes denotes the convolution operator and θ the orientation of the MF.

295 The calculation of the maximum response image R can then be obtained with Eq. 4:

$$296$$

$$297 R_{(x,y)} = [I_{(x,y)} \otimes MF_{\theta_{max(x,y)}}] > 0 \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

$$298$$

299 where all negative response values are automatically set to zero and only values greater than zero are
 300 retained. The FDOG filter is rotated according to the determined $\theta_{max(x,y)}$ and the corresponding
 301 response image D can be derived by Eq. 5:

$$302$$

$$303 D_{(x,y)} = \left| I_{(x,y)} \otimes FDOG_{\theta_{max(x,y)}} \otimes M \right| \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$

$$304$$

305 where M denotes the above-mentioned mean filter used to broaden the zero crossing to the width of the
 306 fissures.

307 While Zhang et al. (2010) used a very broad mean filter with a fixed size, we suggest to use a kernel size
308 that matches the width of the Gaussian kernel (6σ) and is thereby related to the width of the targeted
309 features (Fig. 5a,f). In contrast to early studies where the FDOG response was used to locally adapt the
310 threshold (Zhang et al., 2010) the final response image \bar{R} is obtained by subtracting the FDOG from the
311 GMF response using Eq. 6:

312

$$313 \quad \overline{R_{(x,y)}} = R_{(x,y)} - Ct * D_{(x,y)} \quad \text{Eq. 6}$$

314

315 where Ct denotes a user defined trade off parameter to adjust the sensitivity of the detection with typical
316 range of values between 3 and 4. A threshold T is defined by Eq. 7:

317

$$318 \quad T = \mu_{\bar{R}} + 2 \sigma_{\bar{R}} \quad \text{Eq. 7}$$

319

320 where $\mu_{\bar{R}}$ is the mean of the response image \bar{R} and $\sigma_{\bar{R}}$.

321

322 A binary fissure candidate map F_{map} is obtained by applying the threshold T on the response image \bar{R}
323 using Eq. 8:

324

$$325 \quad \overline{R_{(x,y)}} \geq T_{(x,y)} : F_{\text{map}} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{R_{(x,y)}} < T_{(x,y)} : F_{\text{map}} = 0 \quad \text{Eq. 8}$$

326

327 The thresholding after subtraction of the FDOG response was found to provide a generally more robust
328 attenuation of undesired edge responses than the technique previously applied by Zhang et al. (2010).

329 In summary, the user needs to specify four simple parameters, namely (1) the scale of the filter kernels in
330 terms of σ , (2) the length L of the kernel, (3) the constant Ct of the thresholding sensitivity and (4) the
331 number of orientations n_{θ} at which the filters are calculated. In this study, n_{θ} was kept constant at 36 for

332 all experiments, whereas, if computational time becomes an issue, the angular resolution may be reduced
333 to 12 steps without major losses of accuracy. To determine σ a tool was created, which allows drawing
334 profiles on the image and automatically estimates the fitting Gaussian function (Fig. 4). Cross-profiles of
335 the smallest fissures visible in the image with the coarsest resolution ($0.1 \text{ m}\cdot\text{pixel}^{-1}$ resolution) were best
336 fitted by Gaussian curves with $\sigma \approx 0.6$. To ensure a homogenous scale of the detected features among all
337 images, the kernel can be scaled by changing σ relative to the image resolution. If, for instance, the image
338 resolution is increased to $0.08 \text{ m}\cdot\text{pixel}^{-1}$, a value of $\sigma \approx 0.75$ yields a kernel with the same physical size
339 (Table 1). The same applies for the filter length L which was estimated as 1 m corresponding to the
340 typical minimum length of the fissures. Resampling of the images can thereby be avoided. In our
341 experience, σ establishes the lower bound for the width of the targeted features, whereas the filters still
342 remain sensitive to features which are up to 5 times larger. For the choice of σ it is also helpful to note
343 that the discrete kernel cannot represent FDOG functions with $\sigma \leq 0.5$.

344 To assess the sensitivity of the parameters and to determine a suitable threshold parameter Ct , a
345 sensitivity analysis was carried out on a subset of the October 2008 image. Based on a visual assessment,
346 values of $L = 1 \text{ m}$ and $\sigma = 0.75$ were found suitable for the detection of the fine fissure structures. The
347 preliminary analysis also showed that increasing the parameters L and σ directs the detection towards
348 more elongated and broader features, whereas in general the sensitivity of those parameters is rather low
349 compared to the influence of the threshold Ct . Values of $Ct = \{0.0, 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0\}$ were tested and
350 based on a visual assessment of the outputs a value of $Ct = 3$ was established for an optimal trade-off
351 between detection rate and the amount of false positives. The final parameter set is summarized in Table
352 1.

353

354 TABLE 1 SOMEWHERE HERE

355

356 4.2 *Stage 2: Connection of broken lines using structuring elements*

357 The highly textured surface of the landslide constitutes a noisy background that affects the detection
358 especially at section where the fissures are very thin or partially occluded. While a human operator can
359 easily interpolate broken lines through perceptual grouping (Metzger, 1975), this needs special attention
360 for a semi-automated mapping technique.

361 To close small gaps between broken line segments of the detected candidates, a hit-or-miss transform
362 algorithm (Serra, 1982) was used. The transform assigns a value of 1 to each pixel whose local
363 neighbourhood fulfils the criteria defined by hit- and miss structures (Fig. 6a), also known as structuring
364 elements. They were defined to address all plausible 3-by-3 neighbourhoods representing small gaps in
365 the detection starting from four prototype hit-structures shown in Fig. 6b. The respective miss-structures
366 (Fig. 6c) are typically derived by simply inverting the prototype hit-structures, and both elements were
367 rotated (Fig. 6d) to test for a total number of 24 possible neighbourhood arrangements. Exceptional cases
368 were thereby the structuring elements for closing directly diagonal gaps, where an extended
369 neighbourhood was used for the hit-and miss structures (Fig. 6b, c) to prevent connections of lines
370 running parallel to each other.

371

372 FIG. 6 SOMEWHERE HERE

373

374 The connectivity of the line segments was also particularly important for the subsequent object-oriented
375 post-processing, where objects constitute from pixels groups connected in a Von Neumann
376 neighbourhood (4 adjacent pixels at each side), and small isolated objects could be disregarded as noise.

377

378 4.3 *Stage 3: Object-oriented analysis for false positive removal*

379 Due to visually similar objects, such as linear erosion features (rills, small gullies) and elongated shadows
380 induced by the micro-topography, the fissure candidates resulting from the described filtering routine may
381 still comprise numerous false positive detections. While a human interpreter can differentiate most of the

382 false positives assessing the geospatial context of the scene, the efficient use of such information with
383 automated systems is a challenge for object-oriented image analysis. To exploit the contextual scene
384 information for an automatized refinement of the extracted fissure candidate maps, an object-oriented
385 routine that integrates spatial reasoning into an explicit form was elaborated and implemented using
386 eCognition 8.64 (Trimble, 2011). The elaborated routine included the following steps:

- 387 1) The ratio of shadow around the detections is evaluated and candidates with a ratio of shadow pixels
388 in their smallest enclosing circle above 33% are regarded as false detections induced by shadings of
389 the micro-topography. This ratio threshold was determined empirically through visual inspection of
390 the candidate fissures, and selected to capture elongated false detections with one side lying fully in
391 shaded zones. The threshold for shadow can thereby be adjusted according to the illumination
392 conditions and the dynamic range of the image (Table 2).
- 393 2) Further false detections may result from vegetation which typically shows a lower reflectance in the
394 green and red channel compared to the blue. The blue ratio in the sum of all channels is consequently
395 typically below one third for vegetated areas. The suitable value varies slightly with the illumination
396 conditions and the season, and Otsu's method (Otsu, 1979) was employed to automatically adapt to
397 such changes. Through an iterative testing of all possible values, Otsu's method determines threshold
398 value that maximizes variance between two classes in an image. Hence, constraining the search
399 space to all pixels with a ratio blue below 33%, the algorithm was used to determine the thresholds
400 that maximize the contrast between vegetation and the background (Fig. 7). Fissure candidates
401 covered by the resulting vegetation class, or having a relative border length larger than 0.15, were
402 subsequently removed.

403

404 FIG. 7 SOMEWHERE HERE

405

- 406 3) Another class of frequent false detections resulted from linear objects such as rills, gullies and nearly
407 vertical steps at the landslide flanks, which may locally obtain similar characteristics as the targeted

408 fissures. To test for the presence of larger linear features and evaluate their relationship with fissure
409 candidates, a strategy to suppress additional false positives was required. For the mapping of the
410 larger linear elements two sources were adopted. First drainage lines were extracted from the LiDAR
411 DTMs using hydrological standard tools (Tarboton et al., 1991) and enlarged with a surrounding
412 buffer of 0.5 m. A second approach was to repeat the Gaussian filtering with the parameter set
413 indicated in Table 1, but with a two times increased scale σ and a 5 times coarser image resolution
414 (resampled with bilinear interpolation). This is equivalent to a search with a 10 times larger scale
415 providing a sufficiently large scale difference to assure that none of the detected linear features
416 would correspond to fissures. The linear objects extracted with both approaches were virtually
417 overlaid with the fissure candidates, and the difference of the orientations of their respective centre
418 lines was adopted as criteria to evaluate if the fissure candidate was in fact part of a larger linear
419 object or constitutes an independent structure (Fig. 8). Image-based measurements of the angular
420 offset of the fissure indicated a minimum offset of about $\pm 13^\circ$. Considering that the lowest
421 effective friction angle values measured for the landslide material are $\alpha' = 26^\circ$ (Malet et al., 2005a),
422 the thresholds are consistent with the orientation of $\alpha'/2$ that the Coulomb criterion predicts for the
423 orientation of shear fissures at the landslide boundary (Tchalenko, 1970).

424

425 FIG. 8 SOMEWHERE HERE

426

427 4) A last filtering step was implemented by removing all candidates with length not longer than 0.4 m
428 and an area smaller than 0.1 m^2 . Finally all fissure candidates falling in areas with a fissure class
429 density lower than 1% in a surrounding neighbourhood of 10 m^2 were considered as noise and also
430 removed.

431 Table 2 displays that most adopted thresholds were kept the same among all the images and only the
432 classification rule for the shadow areas was adapted in order to compensate radiometric differences in the
433 input images.

434

435 TABLE 2 SOMEWHERE HERE

436

437 **5 Results**

438

439 *5.1 Comparison with multi-temporal manual mappings*

440 The primary output of the developed processing routine is a map of the detected fissures represented by
441 polygons. Applying a Delaunay triangulation that extracts the skeleton of those polygons (Trimble, 2011),
442 a 2D line representation, which enables a more immediate comparison with expert mappings, can be
443 obtained.

444

445 FIG. 9 SOMEWHERE HERE

446

447 Fig. 9 displays an example of comparison between an expert map and the result of the semi-automatic
448 detection. A first visual assessment of the obtained maps suggested better agreement of the fissure
449 patterns in areas with high contrast and low texture (Fig. 9a), whereas false positives and false negatives
450 concentrated in sections with low contrast and increased surface texture (Fig. 9b).

451 For a quantitative assessment of the mapping accuracy the obtained results were compared with the expert
452 mappings in the central part of the landslide (Fig. 9c) at all five dates. While several accuracy measures
453 for geographic line datasets have been already proposed, there is still no consensus about one generally
454 applicable technique and the metrics should be selected according to the problem at hand (Ariza-López
455 and Mozas-Calvache, 2012). Here, we focused on three crucial aspects of the map accuracy that may have

456 direct implications for their further use, namely the size of the affected (e.g. fissured) area, the length and
457 density of the fissures, and their orientation.

458

459 *5.1.1 Size of the fissured area*

460 Tveite and Langaas (1999) suggested an accuracy measure for line datasets based on repeated buffering
461 and overlay operations of detected and reference line datasets. A similar strategy was adopted in this
462 study by repeatedly calculating true positive and false positives rates from two raster representing the
463 detections and the expert mapping at increasingly coarser resolutions. Raster were calculated at 10 cm
464 steps for resolutions between 0.10 m and 1.00 m, and each pixel was assigned as fissured or non-fissured
465 area according to the presence or absence of a fissure in the detections and the reference map,
466 respectively. The resulting Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC) plots are presented (Fig. 10). The
467 analysis showed a correspondence with the expert maps at true positive rates typically above 40% and up
468 to 65%. The false positive rates were below 5% except for the scenes recorded with full sunlight where
469 false positive rates up to 9% could be observed (Fig. 10).

470

471 FIG. 10 SOMEWHERE HERE

472

473 *5.1.2 Fissure length and density*

474 Hydrological models that integrate the influence of surface fissures on infiltration and preferential flow
475 have demonstrated that the fraction of fissures per unit area is an important parameter with considerable
476 influence on the modelled water storage (Malet et al., 2005b; Krzeminska et al., 2011). Such models are
477 typically generated at slope scale with grid resolutions below 10 m. To assess the accuracy of the
478 extracted maps with respect to this potential application, the fissure density was calculated as the line
479 length in circular sliding windows with diameters between 2 and 10 m, and compared among automated
480 detection and expert mappings.

481

482 FIG. 11 SOMEWHERE HERE

483

484 The regression plots in Fig. 11 illustrate the correlation of the fissure density estimates with a 5 m circular
485 sliding window yielding coefficient of determination (R^2) typically above 0.5. The regression analysis
486 further indicated generally higher densities resulting from the semi-automatic detection originating from
487 false positive detections but also from a stronger generalization of the fissure line drawings within the
488 expert mapping. Exceptions from this general trend are the results obtained from the image of July 2008
489 which was recorded at a low sun incidence angle leading to a relatively low $R_{5m}^2 = 0.36$. The bar plots in
490 Fig. 11 display the generally higher R^2 values at increasing resolutions of the density raster. This is a well-
491 known effect of spatial aggregation on correlation statistics (Gotway and Young, 2002) but also reflects
492 the contrast between stronger discrepancies of local details and a better correspondence of the global
493 fissure pattern pictured in the respective maps. The highest correlation was observed among the mappings
494 for May 2007 with $R_{10m}^2 = 0.88$ indicating that the lower resolution of the corresponding input image
495 was not an important factor for the accuracy of the detection.

496

497 5.1.3 Fissure orientation

498 As outlined in the introductory section, different fissure patterns may signal respective mechanical
499 processes and statistics of the principal fracture orientation often allow to estimate the directions of the
500 principal stresses (Pollard and Fletcher, 2005). The fissure orientations were quantified as a third factor to
501 assess the accuracy of the extracted maps using rose diagrams frequently employed for the analysis and
502 interpretation of two dimensional orientation data (Jammalamadaka and SenGupta, 2001). Rose diagrams
503 with a bin width of 10° were computed on a 10 m regular grid for the semi-automatic detections and the
504 expert mappings at all five dates. Considering the length and direction of each bin expressed as a
505 respective vector the preferred fissure orientation within a grid cell can be calculated by summing the
506 vectors over all bins. Taking into account all cells containing fissures in both the expert map and the

507 semi-automatic detection, the Mean Absolute Error (MAE) of the mean orientations provides a
508 quantitative measure for the orientation accuracy.

509 The rose diagrams plots and error statistics in Fig. 12 depict MAEs between 9.7° and 22.5° for the five
510 dates. The detections on the three scenes recorded under cloudy sky resulted in MAE not larger than
511 10.7° , whereas the error rate clearly exceeded 20° with the scenes of July 2008 and 2009 recorded with
512 full sunlight at the surface. The lower orientation accuracies are largely consistent with the relatively low
513 accuracies in terms of area (see § 5.1.1) and density (see § 5.1.2) resulting from the detection at the latter
514 two dates.

515

516

517 FIG. 12 SOMEWHERE HERE

518

519 *5.2 Fissure patterns as possible geoindicators of deformation processes*

520 For a comprehensive interpretation of the detected fissure patterns at the scale of the entire slope, the
521 scenes of May 2007, October 2008 and July 2009 offering a full coverage of the landslide, have been
522 analysed. However, considering the relatively low detection accuracy on the sunlit images of July 2009,
523 the interpretation was focused essentially on the scenes of 2007 and 2008 spanning also over a period
524 with displacement rates significantly above the average annual rates (Travelletti, 2011).

525 Comparing the detection results of May 2007 (Fig. 13a) and October 2008 (Fig. 13b), a significant
526 increase in the abundance of fissures could be noted for the entire landslide. This can be attributed to a
527 phase of strongly increased displacement rates (up to 3.5 m.day^{-1}) in early June 2008 (Travelletti, 2011)
528 preceding the UAV survey in October 2008. Though, in October 2008, the displacement rates already
529 consolidated again at average rates between 0.01 and 0.03 m.day^{-1} , most of the fissures induced in June
530 were preserved and evolved at the surface until October. This view is supported by the results obtained
531 for the test area with the five scenes (Fig. 10, Fig. 11) picturing rather a transient evolution than a
532 complete reorganization of the fissure patterns. Despite partially strong disagreement in the absolute

533 measured fissure density, both expert maps and semi-automatic mapping showed an increase in fissure
534 density after May 2007, with higher values in October 2008 (Fig. 11) than directly after the peak
535 displacement in spring. Pluviometric records for the area in 2008 show relatively dry summer season with
536 cumulative rainfall of 110 mm for the month of July, August and September, suggesting that the
537 increased fissure density in October is partially caused by an increased brittleness of the upper soil layer
538 that dried out during summer.

539 Besides the general increase in the amount of fissures, it is intriguing to observe that at several local plots,
540 similar fissure patterns can be observed at approximately the same positions through time (Fig. 12, Fig.
541 13a,b), despite maximal displacements of up to 55 m between October 2008 and October 2009
542 (Niethammer et al., 2011a). This indicates the recurrent continuous *in-situ* formation where the fissures
543 provide a close representation of the local strain field, similar as observed for the evolution of glacier
544 crevasses (Harper et al., 1998).

545 Previous studies (Malet, 2003; Niethammer et al., 2011a; Walter et al., 2012) already observed close
546 relationships between the occurrence of fissures and the geometry of the stable bedrock at the Super-
547 Sauze landslide. They also noted a general contrast between higher water content and rather ductile
548 behaviour in the lower subsurface (< 1m) and typically lower water content of the topsoil yielding more
549 brittle behaviour at the surface. The surface fissures can therefore be understood as the response to
550 stresses induced in the topsoil through coupling with ductile strain in the deeper subsurface. A similar
551 model was already described by Fleming and Johnson (1989) and adopted as a basis to qualitatively
552 estimate the patterns of flow and stresses from a joint-interpretation (Fig. 13) of the detected fissure
553 patterns and a geometrical model of the stable bedrock (Travelletti and Malet, 2012).

554 Considering the bedrock geometry and a formation of the open fissures normal to the direction of the least
555 compressive stress (Pollard and Fletcher, 2005), three different flow field patterns leading to the fissure
556 formation at the Super-Sauze landslide can be suggested. First, lateral shear at external and internal
557 landslide boundaries aligned with the general flow field leads to the formation of diagonal shear fissure
558 arrays (Fig. 13e). Second, longitudinal compressive and tensile strain related to abrupt changes in the

559 slope of the sliding surface induces tensile stresses at the surface that results in transversal fissure arrays
560 (Fig. 13c). Third, divergence of the flow field over topographic ridges and at the outlets of confining
561 topographic channels induces lateral extension and tensile stresses resulting in longitudinal fissure arrays
562 (Fig. 13d). At several locations, those processes overlap and lead to the formation of mixed structures
563 such as a radial fissure patterns displayed in Fig. 4 and Fig. 13c, resulting from lateral shear and
564 longitudinal strain, and from local divergent stress field, respectively.

565

566 FIG. 13 SOMEWHERE HERE

567

568 **6 Discussion**

569 Deformation patterns at the surface of landslides are important indicators for the mechanical processes,
570 whereas the elaboration of detailed maps of such features remains a challenging and time-consuming task.
571 While Sowers and Royster (1978) still argued that aerial photographs do not reach sufficient resolution
572 for such mappings, modern digital sensors and new aerial platforms such as UAVs today provide the
573 necessary level of detail. Furthermore, this study demonstrated the possible use of a semi-automatic
574 image processing chain for the extraction of surface fissure maps.

575 The accuracy of the method was assessed by comparisons with expert maps and demonstrated
576 heterogeneous areal accuracies with true positive rates of up to 65% and false positive rates generally
577 below 10%. Also, the orientation accuracy showed a variable quality of the resulting maps with mean
578 deviations between 9.7° and 22.5°. The fissure densities derived from both maps have significant
579 correlations (R^2 between 0.36-0.78), whereas the semi-automatic detections yield typically higher
580 estimates. Interestingly, this difference is more pronounced with the images of 2009 (Fig. 10) reflecting
581 the contrast between increased semi-automatic detection rates at higher resolutions and the fixed scale of
582 the expert mapping. Contrariwise, the best agreement among detection and expert maps was measured for
583 the scene of May 2007 showing that the lower resolution does not necessarily yield lower accuracies.
584 Generally lower accuracies were observed for the scenes recorded with full sunlight at the surface in July

585 2008 and 2009 and the worst results were obtained for July 2008 when images were recorded at a
586 relatively low sun incidence angle. Since the direct sunlight induces shading that affects the local contrast
587 and global image normalization methods cannot alleviate this problem and image acquisition with diffuse
588 skylight appears to be the generally better option.

589 In the initial stage of the processing chain, a low-level linear feature detector is used. Similar techniques
590 yield competitive results in medical image analysis (Zhang et al., 2010), whereas the accuracies achieved
591 with aerial images in this study are still significantly lower. This must be attributed to the generally higher
592 complexity of outdoor scenes and at the moment still requires additional steps and parameters to take the
593 contextual scene information into account. The use of an OOA heuristic-based post-processing technique
594 proved useful for the removal of false positives and helped to objectify the image analysis by transferring
595 expert knowledge in an explicit form. The analysis still relies on a number of fixed thresholds which may
596 hinder an easy transfer of the entire processing chain to a different geographic area. This concerns
597 especially parameters that require knowledge of the local processes (e.g. minimum fissure length,
598 effective friction angle) while thresholds that can be determined directly from the image (e.g. shadows,
599 vegetation) may be adjusted more effortlessly.

600 The development of surface fissures precedes and accompanies especially slow- and very slow-moving
601 landslides (Cruden and Varnes, 1996) making the developed technique particularly applicable to such
602 types of landslides and to potentially unstable slopes. However, the spatial resolution of the acquired
603 images must at least match, or should ideally exceed, the width of the targeted fissures, and the vegetation
604 must be sufficiently sparse to permit direct view on the bare ground. The results of this study
605 demonstrated that if those requirements are met, the obtained fissure maps can already provide sufficient
606 accuracy to infer the landslide dynamics and mechanical processes (see § 5.2.) at the slope scale. Density
607 maps from both semi-automatic and expert mappings show a strong spatial and temporal variability of the
608 fissure abundance pointing toward important local and temporal contrasts in the infiltration capacity
609 which may need considerations in the design of hydro-mechanical models. An analysis of the evolution
610 and mechanics of individual fissures will however require higher temporal resolution and terrestrial

611 cameras have recently been installed at the surface of the landslide to record imagery for further research
612 in this direction. It would also be desirable to test the developed technique for the investigation of other
613 landslides with different characteristics in order to validate a more general applicability of the approach
614 and the mechanical interpretation of the observed fissure dynamics.

615 The OOA heuristics already considers multi-scale information to some degree (see § 4.33), whereas for
616 further methodological improvements an explicit integration of an automatic scale selection technique at
617 the low-level filtering stage appears as a promising approach to further reduce heuristics and tuneable
618 parameters (Stumpf et al., 2012). The first and second stages of the proposed method are generic for the
619 detection of dark linear features and could in principle also be applied to detect other geomorphological
620 and geological structures with similar characteristics. The proposed technique might be of interest for the
621 mapping of erosion gullies (Shruthi et al., 2011), geological lineaments (Mallast et al., 2011), ice-glacier
622 crevasses (Vaughan, 1993) or tectonically induced fractures (Allmendinger and González, 2010),
623 sufficiently larger to be depicted in sub-metre satellite images.

624 Considering the intrinsic disagreement in expert mappings of linear features, especially in the inter- and
625 extrapolation of lines (Sander et al., 1997), further studies should also include an assessment of the
626 uncertainties of reference maps since their quality can strongly bias the evaluation of different alternative
627 approaches (Lampert et al., submitted).

628

629 **7 Conclusions**

630 This study developed an image processing chain to extract surface fissures from heterogeneous sets of
631 VHR aerial images and tested the approach with a challenging multi-temporal set of images recorded at
632 the Super-Sauze landslide for five different dates. The first two stages of the developed workflow
633 combine families of Gaussian matched filters and morphological filters and are followed by an object-
634 oriented analysis to reduce the amount of false positive detection using contextual information and
635 auxiliary topographic information. The detection results can be represented in raster maps or optional by
636 centre skeleton lines.

637 Under homogenous illumination conditions a comparison of the results with expert mapping
638 demonstrated detection rates of up to 65% and orientation errors below 10°. Contrary, the technique is
639 relatively sensitive to shading effects at full sunlight and prone to errors especially at low sun incidence
640 angle.

641 A joint-interpretation of obtained fissure maps and of a 3D geometrical model of the stable bedrock
642 demonstrated their complementary use for a better understanding of the geomorphological and
643 geomechanical processes, such that the detected fissure pattern may be used for first approximation for
644 mechanical processes in the recent deformation history of a slope.

645 Possible directions for further research are the reduction of tuneable parameters and a more immediate
646 exploitation of multi-scale information, as well as an adaption of the technique to other linear features
647 with geomorphological and geological relevance.

648

649

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662 eCognition rule set implementing the object-oriented analysis are available on demand.

663

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868

869 **Fig. 1.** Generic types of surface fissures and their typical spatial occurrence within a landslide mass. (a)
870 Modes of fracture propagation: mode I (opening), II (sliding) and III (tearing). (b) Fissures developing
871 predominately in mode I and resulting from tensile stress. (c) Fissures developing predominately in mode
872 I and resulting from shear stress. (d) Fissures developing predominantly in mode I resulting from
873 compressive stress and lateral expansion. The central figure is adapted from (Sowers and Royster, 1978).

874

875 **Fig. 2.** Oblique view of the Super-Sauze landslide combining a hillshade image derived from an airborne
876 LiDAR DTM (July 2009) and a UAV image (October 2008). (a) The main scarp (hashed black line),
877 transport and accumulation zone (black outline), and the area of interest for the multi-temporal analysis
878 (white square) are indicated. UAV image subsets show (b) compression ridges, (c) longitudinal fissures,
879 (d) diagonal fissures at the boundary of the active part, and (e) and transversal fissures.

880

881 **Fig. 3.** Subsets of orthophotographs (see location in the white bounding box in Fig. 2a) acquired at five
882 different dates with details of the acquisition systems and image ground resolutions.

883

884 **Fig. 4.** (a) Subset (see extent in Fig. 3) of the UAV image from October 2008 showing typical fissure
885 patterns and (I-IV) grey-value profiles (green channel) approximated with Gaussian curves. (b) Field
886 terrestrial photograph taken in October 2009.

887
888 **Fig. 5.** Illustration of the principles of the Gaussian filtering for (a-c, f-h) a simplified 1-D case, (d, i) a
889 3D visualization of 2D filters and (e, j) the filter responses for the image subset in Fig. 4a. See text for
890 details.

891
892 **Fig. 6.** Strategy used to connect broken line segments. (a) Working principle of the hit- and miss
893 transform, (b) hit structures, (c) miss structures and (d) respective rotations used for the plausible pixel
894 neighbourhoods.

895 **Fig. 7.** Illustration of the automatic threshold detection for the intermediate mapping of vegetation.
896 (a) Subset of the October 2008 image at the toe of the landslide. (b) Ratio blue. (c) Initial thresholding at
897 ratio blue < 0.33 to obtain vegetation candidates (yellow). (d) Histogram of the vegetation candidates with
898 the automatically selected threshold. (e) Final map of the vegetation (green).

899
900 **Fig. 8.** Illustration of the object-oriented post-processing routine. (a) Fissure candidates that overlapped
901 with linear structures. (b) Linear structure detected at a ten times greater filter scale. The fissure
902 candidates aligned with the linear structures at angles below $\pm 13^\circ$ were removed.

903
904 **Fig. 9.** Example of comparison of the obtained fissure maps with the expert mapping for October 2010
905 (fissures in red). (a) Area with relatively high agreement of the mapped fissure patterns. (b) Area with
906 relatively high rate of false negatives and false positives. The scale of the representations corresponds
907 approximately to the scale used for the expert mapping (1:250).

908

909 **Fig. 10:** Receiver operating characteristics (ROC) plots for the fissured area at different map resolutions.
910 The sky conditions for the five different dates are indicated.

911

912 **Fig. 11.** Correlation between fissure density estimates at 5 m raster resolution based on semi-automatic
913 detections and expert mappings from the five images. The bar plots at the bottom display the R^2
914 coefficient at different raster resolutions.

915

916 **Fig. 12.** Rose diagram plots with mean orientation (red line) and error statistics for the mean fissure
917 orientation per 10 m grid cell for the test area at the five different dates. For visualization, the rose
918 diagrams were plotted over a hillshade of the landslide surface and the scatterplot angles were centred at
919 90° .

920

921 **Fig. 13.** Pseudo 3D view showing the landslide dynamics inferred from the fissure patterns detected in the
922 aerial images of (a) May 2007 and (b) October 2008. (c, d, e) Close up views for October 2008 showing
923 inferred landslide dynamics and stress vectors. The results are overlaid on a hillshade model of the
924 topography of the stable bedrock proposed by (Travelletti and Malet, 2012).

925

926 **Table 1**

927 Parameter set of the Gaussian filters scaled according to the respective image resolution.

928

929 **Table 2**

930 Summary of the thresholds adopted in the object-oriented post-processing routine. See text for details.

931