

Towards a Dynamic Earthquake Risk Framework for Switzerland

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Abstract. Scientists at ETH Zurich from different disciplines are developing a dynamic, harmonised and user-centred earthquake risk framework for Switzerland, relying on a continuously evolving earthquake catalogue generated by the Swiss Seismological Service (SED) using the national seismic networks. This framework uses all available information to assess seismic risk at various stages and facilitates widespread dissemination and communication of the resulting information. Earthquake risk products and services include Operational Earthquake (Loss) Forecasting (OE[L]F), Earthquake Early Warning (EEW), ShakeMaps, Rapid Impact Assessment (RIA), Structural Health Monitoring (SHM), as well as Recovery and Rebuilding Efforts (RRE). Standardisation of products and workflows across various applications is essential for achieving broad adoption, universal recognition, and maximum synergies. In the Swiss dynamic earthquake risk framework, the harmonisation of products into seamless solutions that access the same databases, workflows, and software is a crucial component. A user-centred approach utilising quantitative and qualitative social science tools like online surveys and focus groups is a significant innovation featured in all products and services. Here we report on the key considerations and developments of the framework and its components. This paper may serve as a reference guide for other countries wishing to establish similar services for seismic risk reduction.

Short Summary. We are developing an interdisciplinary dynamic earthquake risk framework for advancing earthquake risk mitigation in Switzerland. It includes various earthquake risk products and services, such as Operational Earthquake Forecasting and Earthquake Early Warning. Standardisation is crucial for widespread adoption and recognition, and the harmonisation of products into seamless solutions that access the same databases, workflows, and software is a crucial component.

Keywords: seismic hazard, seismic risk, seismic network, earthquake forecasting, earthquake early warning, rapid loss assessment, structural health monitoring, recovery and rebuilding efforts, earthquake communication

43 1. Introduction

44 Europe faces a significant earthquake risk due to its tectonic situation, high population density, business value,
45 and the age and condition of buildings (e.g., Danciu *et al.*, 2022; Crowley *et al.*, 2022). This includes areas with
46 moderate seismic activity, such as Switzerland, where earthquakes have the potential to cause significant loss,
47 with projected costs of major events exceeding Euro 100 billion (Wiemer *et al.*, 2016; Wiemer *et al.*, 2023).
48 Building codes and retrofitting are the most effective measures to reduce earthquake risk, but emerging
49 technologies, such as Operational Earthquake Forecasting (OEF) or Earthquake Early Warning (EEW), can also
50 improve resilience by means of reducing exposure (e.g., Cauzzi *et al.*, 2016; Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2023a).

51 The seismic risk to which a structure is exposed depends on its type, location, occupancy, and local site conditions;
52 an individual's risk is also affected by her/his exact location within the structure. Seismic risk is therefore highly
53 time-dependent (dynamic) and subject to change, because the underlying hazard, or the exposure, changes. In the
54 short term, the risk may increase during an active seismic sequence in the vicinity. On a more immediate timescale,
55 seismic risk is greatly increased once an event initiates and before the strong shaking begins. In the long term,
56 seismic risk increases with rapid urbanisation and densification of the building stock. The vulnerability of certain
57 structures may be altered by preceding events, contributing to an evolving seismic risk landscape during an
58 ongoing seismic sequence. Compared to a static approach that assumes a constant level of hazard and risk, the
59 dynamic risk approach allows for timely identification of changes, enabling more accurate estimates and thus
60 more effective mitigation measures and improved safety outcomes. Here we describe the dynamic earthquake risk
61 framework that we are implementing for Switzerland.

62 The national Seismic Hazard Model (SUIhaz2015; Wiemer *et al.*, 2016) and the recently released first national
63 Earthquake Risk Model of Switzerland (ERM-CH23; Wiemer *et al.*, 2023; Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2023b) serve as
64 the basis for tools and systems which we are developing as part of a dynamic, harmonised and user-centred
65 earthquake risk framework for Switzerland. Within our framework, earthquake risk is evaluated consistently and
66 in a harmonised manner, whether for the immediate next few seconds or projecting ahead for the next five decades.
67 The framework uses all available information to evaluate seismic risk at various stages of the earthquake cycle
68 (**Figure 1**), and facilitates widespread dissemination and communication of the resulting information. This
69 involves various services, products, and research developed at the Swiss Seismological Service (SED), the
70 Department of Earth Science, and the Institute of Structural Engineering (IBK) at the Eidgenössische Technische
71 Hochschule (ETH) Zurich, including Operational Earthquake (Loss) Forecasting (OE[L]F), Earthquake Early
72 Warning (EEW), ShakeMaps, Rapid Impact Assessment (RIA), Structural Health Monitoring (SHM), as well as
73 Recovery and Rebuilding Efforts (RRE).

74 Harmonisation of products and workflows across different applications is crucial to ensure broad acceptance and
75 universal recognition of products, as well as to maximise synergies and impact. The first element of our framework
76 is the high-quality characterization of seismicity in Switzerland using the Swiss Seismic Network operated by the
77 SED as the backbone (**Figure 1**) with reliable monitoring and recording of seismic events, reaching a

78 completeness magnitude of ML1.0 in most Swiss regions and ML1.5 in less densely instrumented areas. Real-
79 time waveform data and derived catalogue parameters contribute directly to EEW, ShakeMaps, and OE[L]F, and
80 play a key role in immediate disaster response and public safety measures.

81 The second element of our framework involves the assessment of ground shaking hazards. Using data from the
82 Swiss Seismic Network, we derive predictive ground motion models, which we combine with seismotectonic and
83 seismogenic sources (again strongly informed by the seismicity catalogue described above) for a comprehensive
84 long-term seismic hazard assessment. These assessments are used to update seismic design guidelines and
85 regulations, and to inform seismic risk assessment.

86 The third element of our framework focuses on assessing the consequences of earthquakes and estimating losses
87 at different levels of exposure, from the national scale down to individual communities. The RIA system
88 developed at the SED provides rapid estimates of potential structural and economic losses. The SHM and RRE
89 systems developed at the IBK are essential for post-earthquake damage assessment of structures and recovery
90 predictions.

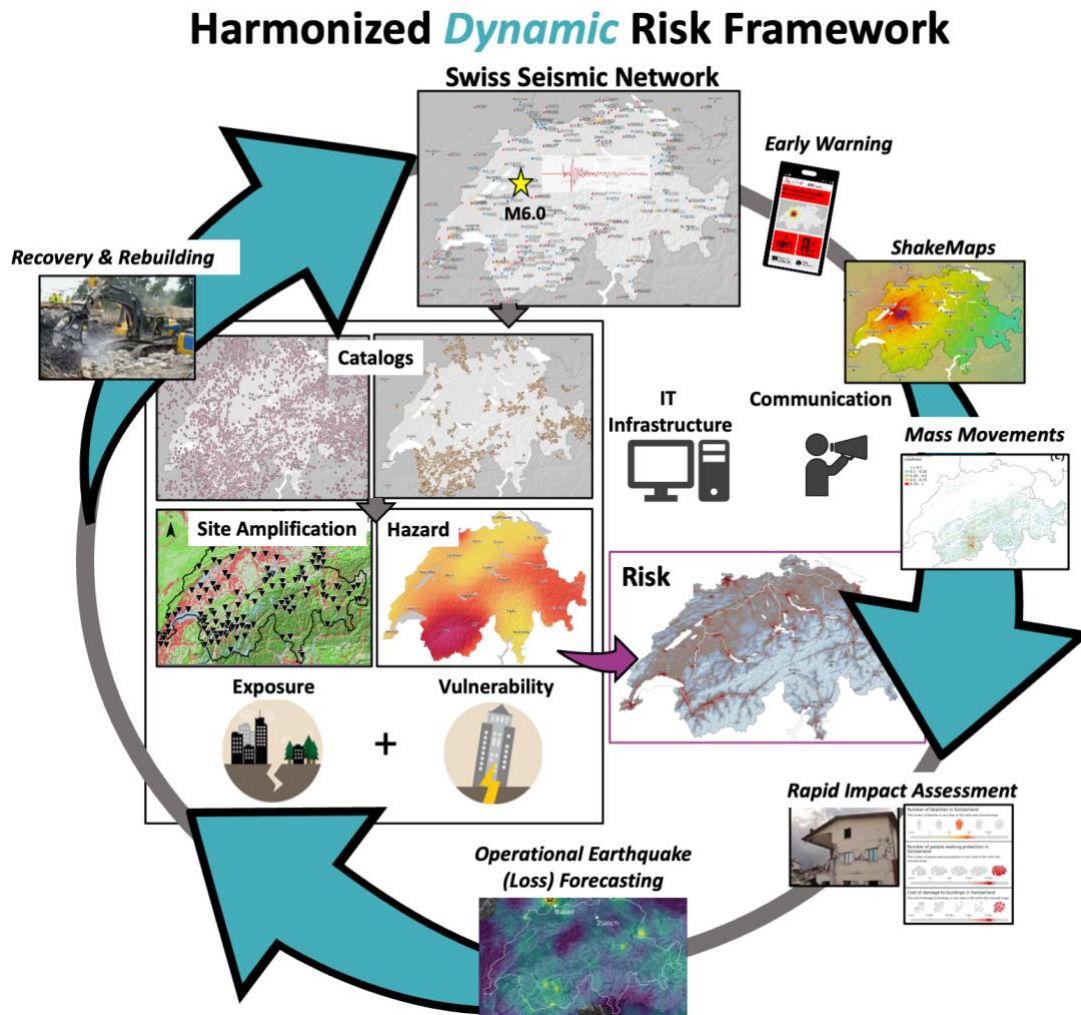
91
92 Finally, a carefully crafted communication strategy accompanies the entire lifecycle of our initiative, from the
93 development of operational services and the construction of data models to the dissemination of data products.
94 All services and tools in our framework are based on state-of-the-art research infrastructure, including powerful
95 computational tools and databases.

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97 A critical component of the Swiss dynamic risk framework is the standardisation into seamless products that
98 access the same databases, workflows, and software, and are based on standard models: the Swiss EEW system
99 (Massin *et al.*, 2021) uses the same ground-motion models as employed in the Swiss ShakeMaps (Cauzzi *et al.*,
100 2015; 2022); the Swiss RIA system utilises Swiss ShakeMap as input, that includes the same site amplification
101 layers (Bergamo *et al.*, 2023) used in ERM-CH23. Rapid impact is calculated using OpenQuake (Pagani *et al.*,
102 2014) for scenario products, RIA, RRE, and probabilistic products, while the impact on people and buildings is
103 determined from national building databases and their vulnerability. OELF calculations employ short-term
104 seismicity forecasts in synergy with components of the hazard and risk models utilised for long-term hazard and
105 risk calculations and RIA products. All products are informed by a single, continuously evolving earthquake
106 catalogue, as well as continuous waveforms generated by the SED, using the national seismic networks.

107 All products and services feature a significant innovation, namely a user-centred approach that utilises quantitative
108 and qualitative social science tools such as online surveys and focus groups. The visual representation of rapid
109 impact, for instance, was developed based on feedback from focus groups and discussions with stakeholders at
110 the federal and cantonal levels, and includes new visualisations of uncertainties. The risk map was adapted to the
111 needs of the public, which were assessed through a representative, nationwide survey.

112 Here we report on the main components of the Swiss dynamic earthquake risk framework, most of which have
113 been developed within the scope of the European Union Horizon 2020 *Real-time earthquake risk reduction for a*
114 *ReSilient Europe* (RISE; <http://www.rise-eu.org/home/>, last accessed November 2023) project (**Figure 1**). We

115 start with a summary of the seismic hazard and risk in Switzerland and then continue with a description of the
 116 recent advances in seismic monitoring capabilities over the last decade, which are crucial for the downstream risk
 117 mitigation products and services that we focus on in the second part of this paper. Finally, we discuss the SED
 118 strategy for implementing and communicating earthquake hazard and risk products to the public and stakeholders
 119 in Switzerland. Our paper may serve as a reference for other countries seeking to establish a similar framework.



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121 Figure 1: Schematic representation of the dynamic risk framework.

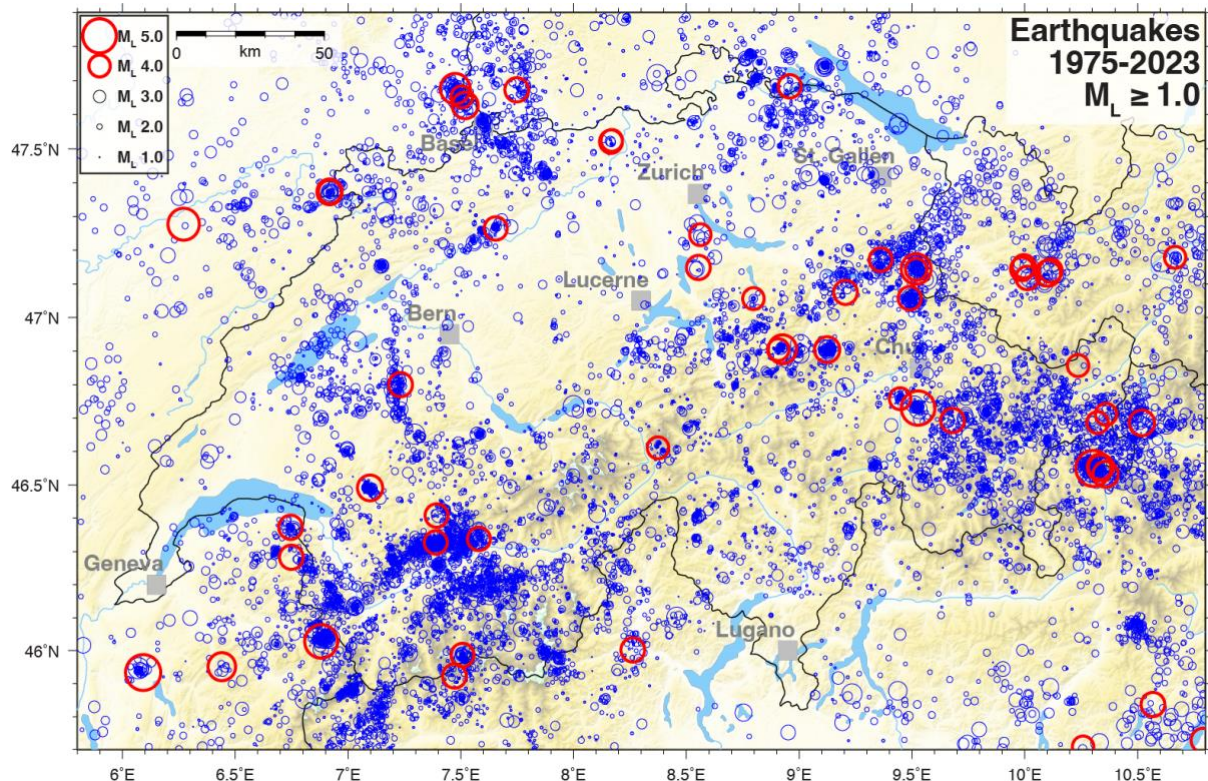
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123 **1.1 Seismic Hazard and Risk in Switzerland**

124 Switzerland is exposed to a considerable threat of earthquakes. Around 1000 to 1500 earthquakes are detected in
 125 Switzerland and its neighbouring countries every year, including 10 to 20 events that are felt by the population
 126 (Figure 2). The 2015 Swiss seismic hazard model, SUIhaz2015 (Figure 3a; Wiemer *et al.*, 2016), which assesses
 127 the likelihood of ground shaking, forecasts that earthquakes of magnitude 5 or greater are likely to occur every 8
 128 to 15 years. The severity of impacts on buildings depends on the location and depth of the earthquake. Earthquakes
 129 with a magnitude of 6 or greater, which can cause extensive and severe damage, occur on average every 50 to 150

130 years and can strike any part of Switzerland at any time. The last earthquake of this magnitude occurred close to
131 the town of Sierre in the Upper Valais in 1946 (Fäh *et al.*, 2011). The canton of Valais faces the highest level of
132 seismic hazard in Switzerland, followed by Basel, Grisons, the St. Gallen Rhine Valley, and Central Switzerland.

133 SUIhaz2015 has been implemented in the most recent version of Swiss building code SIA 261 (2020). It updated
134 the hazard model from 2003 (Giardini *et al.*, 2004). The first seismic hazard model for Switzerland used in Swiss
135 building codes until 2003 was the one of Sägesser & Mayer-Rosa (1978) which was based on the historical
136 catalogue available at that time, as well as on macroseismic intensity data.



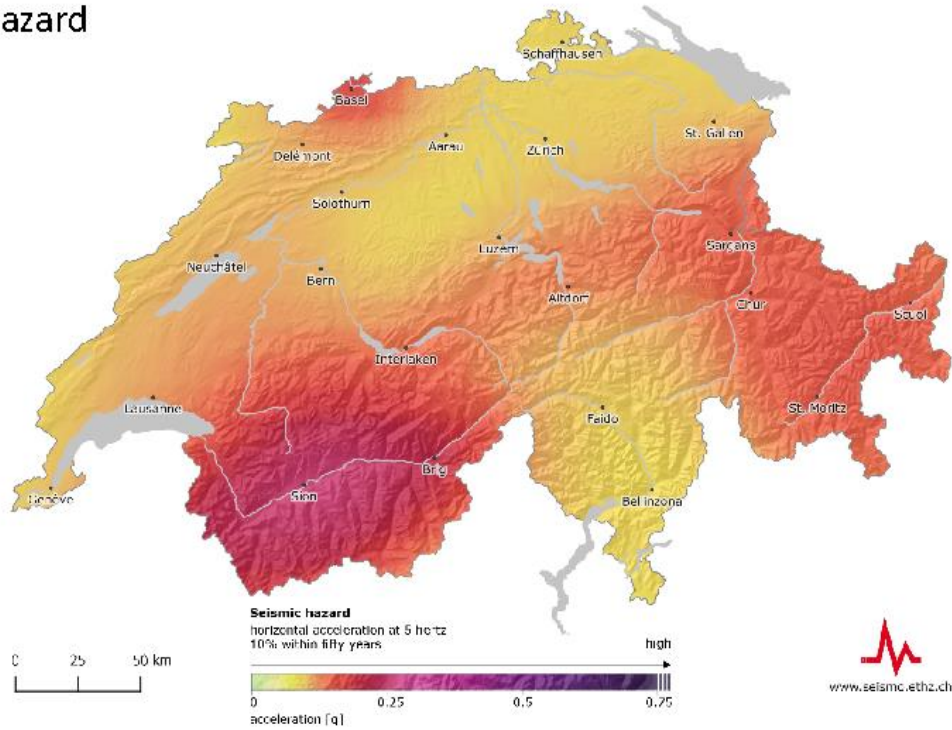
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138 **Figure 2: Map of Switzerland and the surrounding area showing all seismicity with $M_L \geq 1.0$ since 1975 in the SED**
139 **earthquake catalogue (bulletin locations). Events with $M_L \geq 4.0$ are highlighted by bold red circles.**

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141 Methods for estimating site-specific amplification and local seismic hazard were developed at the SED during the
142 past decades and were implemented in microzonation studies, e.g., as for the region of Basel (e.g., Fäh and
143 Huggenberger, 2006). A number of approaches were developed to estimate site-specific amplification based on
144 geophysical measurements and earthquake recordings (e.g., Edwards *et al.*, 2013; Michel *et al.*, 2017; Poggi *et*
145 *al.*, 2017; Perron *et al.*, 2022; Panzera *et al.*, 2021, 2022). Recently, a project started to update the microzonation
146 for the Basel region. All this experience was used to define the elastic response spectra in the Swiss building code
147 (2020) and to implement a national regulation related to microzonation in SIA 261/1 (2020).

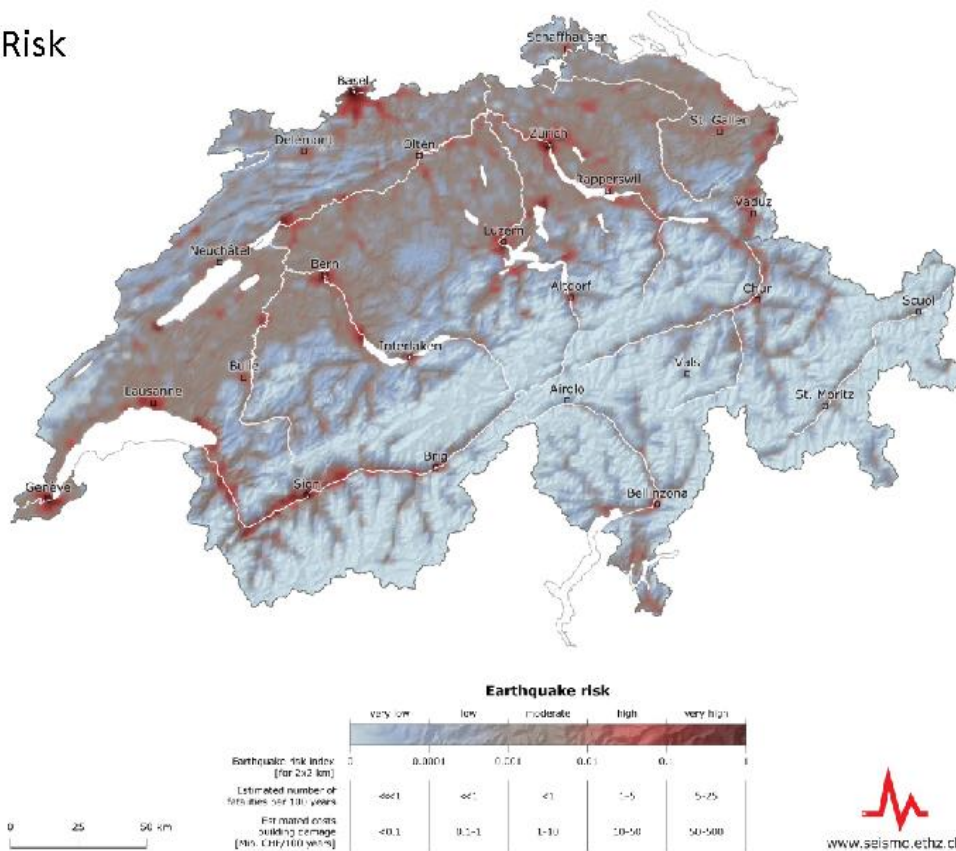
148 Geographic features, such as large and deep peri-alpine lakes, steep slopes, and alluvial basins with a high-water
149 table, make Switzerland susceptible to secondary hazards (e.g., Fritsche *et al.*, 2012; Fäh *et al.*, 2012). Using
150 geophysical imaging, seismic monitoring, numerical modelling and other techniques, the SED has been

151 conducting research on earthquake-induced hazards, including (i) rockfalls and landslides (e.g., Burjanek *et al.*,
152 2018; Kleinbrod *et al.*, 2018; Glueer *et al.*, 2021; Häusler *et al.*, 2022); (ii) lake tsunamis (e.g., Strupler *et al.*,
153 2018; Kremer *et al.*, 2022; Shynkarenko *et al.*, 2022); and (iii) liquefaction (e.g., Fritsche *et al.*, 2012; Roten *et*
154 *al.*, 2014; Janusz *et al.*, 2022; Janusz *et al.*, 2023). Findings from these studies have been incorporated into rapid
155 estimates of earthquake-induced mass movements and liquefaction probabilities via the SED ShakeMap
156 application (Cauzzi *et al.*, 2018a; Section 3.3).

(a) Hazard



(b) Risk



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Figure 3: (a) Swiss Hazard Map (SUIhaz2015; @Swiss Seismological Service) showing the horizontal acceleration at 5 Hz; the probability of a building constructed on rock-like ground type experiencing this is 10% within 50 years (i.e., mean return period of 475 years). On average, 5 Hz represents the natural frequency of buildings with two to five floors, which make up the largest proportion of construction in Switzerland. 475 years is the value that underlies the Swiss Seismic Building Codes: an earthquake-resistant residential or office building should be able to withstand an earthquake that occurs where the building is situated within 475 years on average. (b) National Earthquake Risk Model of Switzerland (ERM-CH23; @Swiss Seismological Service). The color scale refers to a composite index based on

165 equally-weighted, normalized average structural/nonstructural loss and fatalities during 100 years. Values are
166 provided in a 2 x 2 km grid. Comparatively high seismic risk is shown in dark red, lower risk is pale blue.
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168 While seismic hazard in Switzerland has been extensively studied, a formal effort to quantify seismic risk, which
169 assesses the potential impact of earthquakes on both people and structures, as well as the resulting financial losses,
170 was not available in the public domain until recently. In March 2023, the SED in partnership with the Federal
171 Office for the Environment (FOEN) and the Federal Office for Civil Protection (FOCP) released the first National
172 Earthquake Risk Model of Switzerland (ERM-CH23; **Figure 3b**; Wiemer *et al.*, 2023). ERM-CH23 is
173 implemented for use with OpenQuake (Pagani *et al.*, 2014), developed by the Global Earthquake Model (GEM)
174 foundation. As with most contemporary risk models, ERM-CH23 follows a modular structure (Mitchell-Wallace
175 *et al.*, 2017), with five generally decoupled components pertaining to seismic hazard on a reference rock,
176 amplification, structural vulnerability, exposure, and consequence models. These components were developed
177 through collaboration with national and international partners. Unlike past attempts that sought to assess
178 earthquake risk at a continental (Crowley *et al.*, 2021) or global scale (Silva *et al.*, 2020), ERM-CH23 is largely
179 supported by high-quality and high-resolution data.
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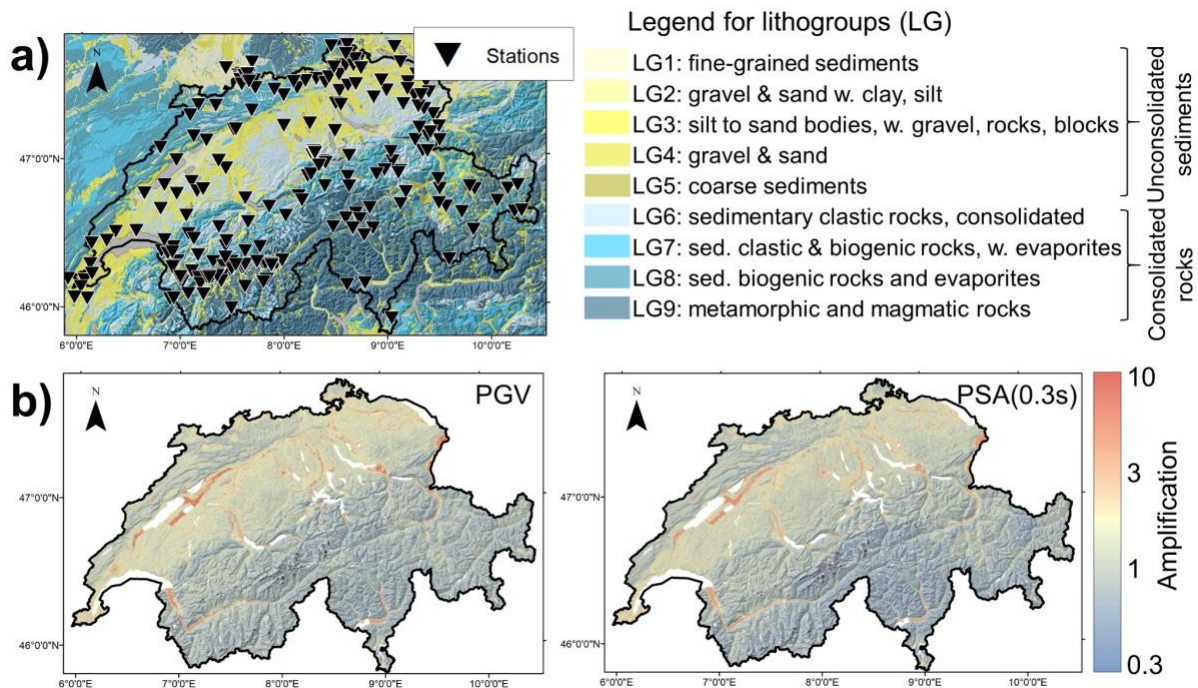
181 ERM-CH23 has been developed to estimate the economic damage in Switzerland caused by earthquakes, which
182 resulted in a projected average cost of CHF 11 to 44 billion for building and contents alone, over a 100-year
183 period. Urban areas, particularly the cities of Basel, Geneva, Zurich, Lucerne, and Bern, face the greatest risk due
184 to their size and the concentration of people and assets that could be impacted by an earthquake. Additionally,
185 these cities contain numerous vulnerable buildings located on soft soil types, which can significantly amplify
186 seismic waves. As a culmination of many years of research and expertise at the SED (e.g., Michel *et al.*, 2017,
187 Hobiger *et al.*, 2021, Bergamo *et al.*, 2021), a national site amplification model (**Figure 4**) has been created as
188 part of ERM-CH23, using geo-spatial prediction techniques constrained on local site response measured at
189 instrumented sites (Bergamo *et al.*, 2023). This model is based on (i) the direct mapping of observed site
190 amplification factors at about 245 seismic stations, extracted with empirical spectral modelling technique (ESM,
191 Edwards *et al.*, 2013); and (ii) layers of site condition indicators (multi-scale topographic slope, estimated bedrock
192 depth, lithological classification of soil; **Figure 4a**). The dataset of empirical amplification factors was finally
193 interpolated over the national territory using site condition proxies as predictor variables and the regression kriging
194 algorithm (Hengl *et al.*, 2007) as a geo-spatial prediction framework. The resulting amplification model consists
195 of four soil response layers for peak ground velocity, PGV, and 5%-damped pseudo-spectral acceleration, PSA,
196 at periods of 1.0 s, 0.6 s, and 0.3 s (e.g., **Figure 4b**), each with associated maps of epistemic and aleatory variability
197 following the definition in Al Atik *et al.* (2010). The amplification maps for PGV and PSA were also converted
198 into layers of aggravation or reduction of macroseismic intensity by means of the relations of Faenza & Michelini
199 (2010, 2011).
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201 The exposure model represents the results of a national effort to obtain an extensive geo-referenced database of
202 all building objects in Switzerland. ERM-CH23 makes use of over 2.25 million building entries in the database,
203 after excluding close to 900'000 too small or unclassified objects. Among others, the building database contains
204 for each object information such as the period of construction, building function, footprint area, volume, height
205 or reconstruction cost (determined for each building individually and validated with data from the cantonal

206 building insurance companies). Together with ground surveys to assess the frequency of different building
 207 materials in several cities, they underpin the ERM-CH23 exposure model. The number of occupants in each
 208 building is defined through de-aggregation of geo-referenced housing and employment statistics (Papadopoulos
 209 *et al.*, 2023b).

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 211 Relying on the aforementioned surveys and past experience the building taxonomy proposed in Lagomarsino &
 212 Giovinazzi (2006) was found to be suitable and applicable to Switzerland, with minor modifications. Two sets of
 213 fragility curves were derived, one in terms of macroseismic intensity for the relevant part of the logic tree of the
 214 overall model and one in terms of spectral acceleration (at 0.3s or 0.6s) for the other part (Wiemer *et al.*, 2023).
 215 The former relies on the methodology described in Lagomarsino & Giovinazzi (2006) and Lagomarsino *et al.*
 216 (2021), together with engineering judgement about Swiss practice. For the development of the latter, a statistical
 217 investigation of building blueprints was first performed to identify average geometric characteristics of various
 218 building types. Capacity curves, idealised in bilinear form, were obtained from numerical models (Lestuzzi *et al.*,
 219 2017).

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 222 **Figure 4: (a) Geographical locations of the 243 (urban) free-field stations having recorded at least 5 earthquakes with**
 223 **signal-to-noise ratios > 3 in the period 2000 – 2021, superimposed on the lithological classification of Switzerland**
 224 **employed to derive the national soil response model. (b) PGV (left) and PSA(0.3s) (right) amplification maps (referred**
 225 **to $V_{s30} = 1105$ m/s), part of the national soil response model (Bergamo *et al.*, 2023).**

226 2. Seismic Monitoring

227 2.1 Swiss Seismic Network

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229 The Swiss Seismic Network counts today about 220 permanent stations (network code CH; Swiss Seismological
 230 Service (SED) at ETH Zurich, 1983) with the aim of monitoring the seismic activity in Switzerland, supporting
 231 scientific research, and assessing seismic hazard and risk (Clinton *et al.*, 2011; Diehl *et al.*, 2021b; **Figure 5**). The

232 network is divided into two main groups of stations. The first group is composed of about 50 backbone broadband
233 stations (known as the ‘SDSNet’) that have very sensitive seismic sensors (broadband velocity instruments, often
234 referred to as “weak-motion”) placed in quiet areas with optimal vault conditions. These stations are evenly spread
235 throughout Switzerland and can detect and locate microseismic activity. Each of these sites also has a state-of-
236 the-art force-balance accelerometer (often referred to as “strong-motion” instrument). The second group is
237 composed of approximately 150 strong-motion stations (known as ‘SSMNet’) that are primarily located in high-
238 risk urban areas of Switzerland, such as Basel and the Rhone Valley in the Valais (e.g., Clinton *et al.*, 2011;
239 Cauzzi & Clinton, 2013). The SSMNet network is concluding a multiannual renewal project (2009 - 2023) which
240 involved the renovation and significant expansion of the network, as well as the systematic site characterization
241 of all newly instrumented sites (Michel *et al.*, 2014; Swiss Seismological Service (SED) at ETH Zurich, 2015;
242 Hobiger *et al.*, 2021). In addition to these permanent stations, the Swiss Seismic Network operates another ~70
243 temporary stations, which were installed for a variety of reasons, including the monitoring of geothermal
244 exploration (Swiss Seismological Service (SED) at ETH Zurich, 2006); aftershocks and seismic sequences (Swiss
245 Seismological Service (SED) at ETH Zurich, 2005), mass movements (Swiss Seismological Service (SED) at
246 ETH Zurich, 2012), glaciers (Swiss Seismological Service (SED) at ETH Zurich, 1985), underground rock
247 physics laboratories (Swiss Seismological Service (SED) at ETH Zurich, 2018a); as well as for risk studies (Swiss
248 Seismological Service (SED) at ETH Zurich, 2018b). The particularly dense network infrastructure in the Valais
249 is host to the Valais Near Fault Observatory (Chiaraluce *et al.*, 2022). An extra ~10 stations inside Switzerland
250 but operated by external providers are included in the SED processing to improve the detection and
251 characterization of seismic events, e.g., related to geothermal exploration (Swiss Seismological Service (SED) at
252 ETH Zurich, 2021). Around 50 stations operated by seismic agencies in neighbouring countries are also included
253 in the real-time monitoring, which are crucial for accurate event locations and lowering the magnitude of
254 completeness in and around the border regions.

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256 The majority of broadband sensors in the Swiss Seismic Network are Streckeisen STS-2 and STS-2.5 and
257 Nanometrics T240 or T120; the Kinematics EpiSensor is deployed for strong-motion stations. The network uses
258 modern ultra-low latency digitizers (typically Nanometrics Centaur, Taurus, and Kinematics Q330), and most
259 sensors are acquired at sampling rates between 200 and 250 sps. A newly developed sensor concept allows the
260 SED to easily deploy large numbers of temporary stations rapidly in more remote locations with real-time
261 streaming. GNSS datasets are currently not collected, processed, or integrated by the SED.

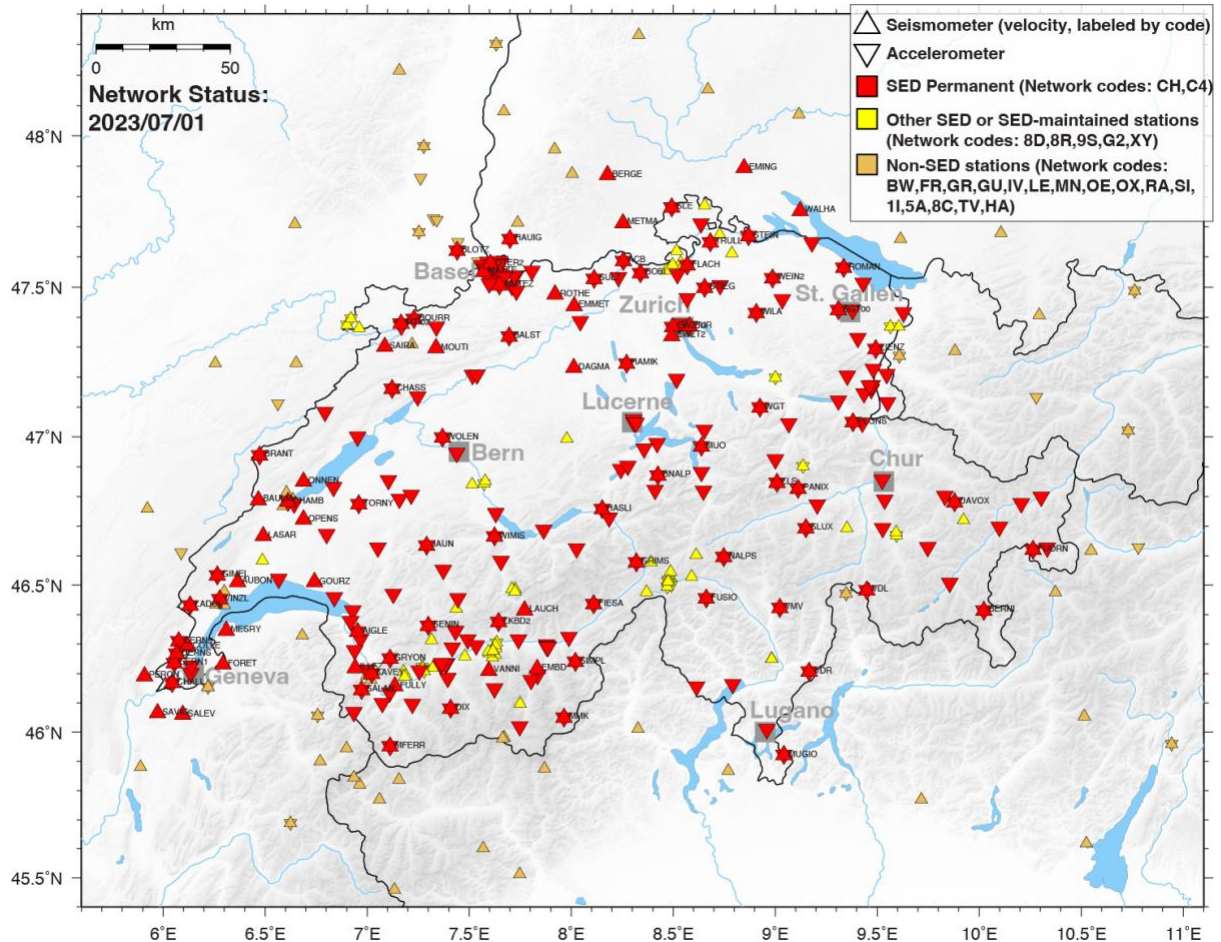


Figure 5: Map of Switzerland and the surrounding area showing broadband seismometers and strong-motion accelerometers monitored by the Swiss Seismic Network as of July 2023. The map shows permanent and temporary stations operated by the SED, as well as stations operated by external partners in and outside of Switzerland.

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2.2 Seismic Data Processing

269 Over the past 20 years, the number of stations within the Swiss Seismic Network has grown steadily. Data began
270 to be continuously archived in 1999, with the advent of the first broadband sensors. Today, continuous data is
271 standard and the network collects around 20GB of data every day; the total archive size is currently close to
272 100TB. The SED operates a European Integrated Data Archive (EIDA) node (Stollo *et al.*, 2021), and the
273 majority of the waveform data, along with the SED earthquake catalogue, is open and accessible via community-
274 standard International Federation of Digital Seismograph Networks (FDSN) web services for data access and
275 download (Table 1).

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277 Since 2012, the Swiss Seismic Network has been utilising SeisComP (<https://www.seiscomp.de/>, last accessed
278 November 2023), a software developed by the German Research Centre for Geosciences (GFZ) Potsdam and
279 gempa GmbH (<https://www.gempa.de/>, last accessed November 2023), for earthquake monitoring and seismic
280 data processing. SeisComP supports real-time data acquisition, archival, and distribution, as well as automated
281 earthquake detection and quantification, manual earthquake review, as well as catalogue management.

282 **Detection and Location:** The real-time automated processing at the SED involves event triggering using station-
283 specific short term-average (STA)/long term-average (LTA) thresholds, refined post-picking using Baer (Baer &
284 Kradolfer, 1987) and AIC pickers, association of picks using *scatoloc* or *scanloc* (Grigoli *et al.*, 2018), and
285 location of events with *nonlinloc* (Lomax *et al.*, 2000) using Swiss-specific 1D and 3D velocity models. Several
286 projects have been initiated at the SED over the last decades to improve the existing velocity models at different
287 scales. A first 3D P-wave velocity model for Switzerland was developed by Husen *et al.* (2003), followed by a
288 regional 3D local earthquake tomography (LET) P-wave velocity model by Diehl *et al.* (2009). A refined Pg and
289 Sg LET model (parametrization 10x10x4 km) was computed by Diehl *et al.* (2021a). In their study, Diehl *et al.*
290 (2021a) demonstrated that a sub-kilometer accuracy of epicenters can be achieved in most parts of Switzerland
291 by using Pg and Sg phases in combination with an accurate 3D velocity model and the dense seismic network
292 operated by the SED. Especially in very densely instrumented parts of the network, in which the distance to the
293 closest observing station is smaller than 1.5 times the focal depth for most of the seismicity, the new velocity
294 model also achieves sub-kilometer accuracy of focal depths (Diehl *et al.*, 2021a; Lee *et al.*, 2023). This 3D velocity
295 model has been used for relocation and high-resolution seismotectonic interpretations in several recent studies
296 (e.g., Lanza *et al.*, 2022; Diehl *et al.*, 2023) and, since June 2022, is the standard model for bulletin locations by
297 the SED. Furthermore, the LET model was locally improved in southwestern Switzerland by application of a
298 staggered-grid approach, resulting in a 5x5x3 km model parametrization for the region of the Rhone-Simplon
299 Fault Zone (Lee, 2023). The SED is working on an extension of these models to the entire crust, a Swiss-wide 3D
300 Qp and Qs attenuation model, and a new Alpine-wide 3D P-wave crustal model using the data of the AlpArray
301 experiment (e.g., Hetényi *et al.*, 2018).

302 **Source Characterization:** Over the last couple of years, the SED has updated its strategy for magnitude
303 determination to align it with the latest developments in engineering seismology and seismic hazard studies in
304 Switzerland. This includes the adoption of a new local magnitude relationship MLhc (Edwards *et al.*, 2015; Racine
305 *et al.*, 2020) and the seamless computation of the moment magnitude, Mw, based on spectral fitting, MwSpec
306 (Edwards *et al.*, 2010). In this article we use the generic “ML” notation for local magnitudes at the SED. Station
307 corrections for local magnitudes have been included, and these changes have been implemented retrospectively
308 for all events since January 1, 2009. Since November 2021, MLhc is the authoritative Swiss-specific local
309 magnitude used by the SED, and its computation has been integrated with SeisComP. Magnitudes are provided
310 for all origins, and the preferred origin is selected using a SED developed origin score that considers the number
311 of picks, pick residuals, and azimuthal gap. For earthquakes larger than ML2.5, alerts are automatically sent to
312 federal and cantonal authorities (Section 4.2), a ShakeMap is created (Section 3.3), and the strong-motion portal
313 (<http://strongmotionportal.seismo.ethz.ch/home/>, last accessed November 2023) is populated. Manual review is
314 performed using the SeisComP *scolv* GUI. For large events with ML >3.5, manual moment tensors are calculated
315 using the *scmtv* GUI and published in the annual/bi-annual reports of the SED (e.g., Diehl *et al.*, 2021b). The
316 earthquake catalogue is curated through *scolv*. The SED is currently working on strategies to disseminate and
317 visualise its existing first-motion and moment-tensor catalogues for public access.

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319 **Advanced Processing:** In addition to the SeisComP standard modules mentioned above, the SED has developed
320 internally, or with support from gempa, specific modules for advanced processing. These include

- 321 • *scwfparam* for providing engineering intensity measures and input to ShakeMap (Cauzzi *et al.*, 2016);
- 322 • *sceewenv*, *scvsmag*, *scfinder*, and *sceewlog* for EEW (Massin *et al.*, 2021);
- 323 • *scdetect* for earthquake detection using template matching (see below);
- 324 • *scrtDD* for real-time double difference relocation (see below).

325 *Earthquake Detection from Template Matching - scdetect*: Real-time earthquake detection is crucial for the
326 characterization of earthquake sequences. *Scdetect* is a highly configurable module for real-time earthquake
327 detection based on template matching using computationally efficient waveform cross-correlation (Armbruster *et*
328 *al.*, 2022; Mesimeri *et al.*, 2023). The workflow of *scdetect* is fully integrated with the SeisComP architecture and
329 allows users to visualize and refine the detected earthquakes using SeisComP's built-in GUI applications. *Scdetect*
330 is currently being real-time tested in Switzerland in areas of high seismic activity using templates from past
331 earthquake sequences with the goal of detecting small magnitude earthquakes that are missed by the current
332 operational pipelines.

333
334 *Real-time Double Difference Relocation - scrtDD*: To understand the spatio-temporal evolution of natural and
335 induced seismicity, it is essential to have real-time, high-precision hypocenter locations, allowing to determine
336 the geometry and extent of seismically active faults, as well as the volume affected by stimulation procedures.
337 The spatio-temporal evolution of seismicity can also provide information about fluid-flow processes and hydraulic
338 properties, including the possible existence of hydraulic connections (e.g., Diehl *et al.*, 2017). Although relative
339 relocation procedures have been developed for decades (e.g., Console & Di Giovambattista, 1987; Waldhauser &
340 Ellsworth, 2000), they are rarely applied in routine, real-time processing. To address this, the SED has developed
341 the *scrtDD* software module (Scarabello & Diehl, 2021), which performs real-time and near-real-time double-
342 difference relocations following the procedures described in Waldhauser & Ellsworth (2000) and Waldhauser
343 (2009) within the SeisComP architecture. The module combines differential times derived from automatic and
344 manual picks as well as waveform cross-correlation with archived data from nearby past events (Scarabello *et al.*,
345 2020). The differential-time data are subsequently inverted to compute the single-event, relative location of a
346 newly detected earthquake with respect to the double-difference background catalogue following the procedure
347 of Waldhauser (2009). The module also includes the possibility to generate or update a double-difference
348 background catalogue using the standard multi-event double-difference method of Waldhauser & Ellsworth
349 (2000). To ensure that new events are continuously included in the background catalogue and that real-time
350 relocations remain accurate in areas of sparse background seismicity, the SED has implemented both single-event
351 and multi-event relocation procedures in their operational monitoring system since 2021. Currently, the SED is
352 developing and testing concepts for more advanced visualisation and dissemination of SED's double-difference
353 catalogues.

354
355 Other advanced methods, which are currently being explored and evaluated at the SED, include

356
357 *Noise interferometry*: To monitor variations in mechanical and structural properties in the crust, the SED is
358 applying seismic noise interferometry techniques, which involve reconstructing approximative Green's functions,
359 typically referred to as cross-correlation functions, by correlating continuous ambient seismic noise records (e.g.,

360 Nakata *et al.*, 2019). From the cross-correlation functions, ballistic waves are used to image the subsurface (e.g.,
361 Obermann *et al.*, 2016; Molinari *et al.*, 2020) and coda waves are used for time-lapse imaging (e.g., Obermann *et al.*,
362 2013, 2014). Unlike earthquakes, seismic noise offers a constant source of signals that can be recorded
363 anywhere on Earth. The spatial resolution of noise interferometry is primarily limited by the geometry and
364 aperture of the seismic network, as well as the stability in noise excitation across frequency bands. While sparse,
365 noisy stations often only allow the reconstruction of the fundamental-mode surface wave, quiet stations in dense
366 arrays allow the reconstruction of body waves with a much-increased depth resolution. In addition to the
367 monitoring of natural processes, coda wave-based noise interferometry has great potential for the time-lapse
368 monitoring of local engineering applications, such as dams, hydraulic stimulations, or carbon storage. Changes in
369 seismic velocity and waveform similarity are proxies for aseismic stress changes in the subsurface that could
370 indicate weakening, stress build-up or imminent failure. At geothermal project sites coda wave interferometry
371 has already proven its potential to detect unexpected reservoir dynamics earlier than the microseismic response
372 alone (Obermann *et al.*, 2015; Hillers *et al.*, 2015; Toledo *et al.*, 2022; Sánchez-Pastor *et al.*, 2019) and as such
373 could become a valuable contributor to our earthquake risk framework in the future.

374

375 *Fiber-optic deformation sensing:* During the past decade, fibre-optic sensing techniques, previously used mostly
376 for perimeter security and infrastructure monitoring applications, have emerged as a new seismic recording
377 paradigm. In particular, Distributed Acoustic Sensing (DAS) offers high spatial resolution at the metre scale, as
378 well as a frequency bandwidth from mHz to kHz (e.g., Lindsey *et al.*, 2020; Paitz *et al.*, 2021). Complementing
379 conventional seismometer recordings, DAS fills a niche in cases where kilometre-long fibre-optic cables can
380 either be co-used or easily deployed. The former includes fibre-optic sensing in densely populated cities (Ajo-
381 Franklin *et al.*, 2019, Spica *et al.*, 2020), under water (Spica *et al.*, 2022) or in avalanche-prone regions (Paitz *et al.*,
382 2023) with the help of telecommunication fibres. This enables urban subsurface imaging with a lateral
383 resolution on the order of 10 m, and the detection of earthquakes and avalanches for monitoring and early warning
384 purposes. On volcanoes, glaciers and ice sheets, fibre-optic cables for sensing applications can often be deployed
385 with relative ease, thereby providing new opportunities for high-resolution studies of volcanic or glacial dynamics
386 (Walter *et al.*, 2020; Klaasen *et al.*, 2021; Jousset *et al.*, 2022). More recent developments in integrated fibre-optic
387 sensing overcome the limited interrogation distance of DAS, typically several tens of kilometres, at the expense
388 of reduced spatial resolution (Marra *et al.*, 2018; Bogris *et al.*, 2022). Applications of integrated sensing for
389 seismic imaging and earthquake characterization, especially in the oceans, are promising but still in their infancy.
390 At the current stage, fibre-optic seismology is still in exploratory mode, and the identification of clear applications
391 where it would be beneficial within an earthquake risk framework is work in progress. Specific next steps include
392 the routine incorporation of DAS data in near-real-time earthquake detections and locations, as well as the
393 detection of secondary effects, such as landslides and avalanches using existing telecom infrastructure.

394

395 *Machine learning:* Over the last couple of years, machine learning and deep learning techniques have started to
396 rapidly transform earthquake seismology (e.g., Mousavi & Beroza, 2022). Automated seismic processing methods
397 are nowadays capable of producing large data products (such as seismicity catalogues) of high quality that match
398 or even exceed the reliability and fidelity of those made by human data processing experts. The SED is actively
399 pursuing research in deep learning-based earthquake science, including event classification, seismicity monitoring

400 methods, site-characterization, planetary seismology, and seismicity forecasts (e.g., Maranò *et al.*, 2012; Hammer
401 *et al.*, 2013; Meier *et al.*, 2019; Dahmen *et al.*, 2022). This work involves implementing various machine learning
402 models for seismic signal denoising, phase detection and arrival time estimation, signal/noise classification, phase
403 association, first motion polarity classification, and others. The SED uses non-machine learning based methods
404 as benchmarks to evaluate the effectiveness of these new approaches. For all monitoring tasks, the SED plans to
405 compare established and available models against newly-trained models and models transfer-learned using Swiss
406 data. A crucial aspect of these efforts will be the testing of the machine learning methods at various scales of
407 seismicity monitoring, including underground laboratory experiments, geothermal reservoir scales, as well as
408 national and regional monitoring scales.

409

410 **3. Products and Services**

411

412 **3.1. Operational Earthquake (Loss) Forecasting (OEF & OELF)**

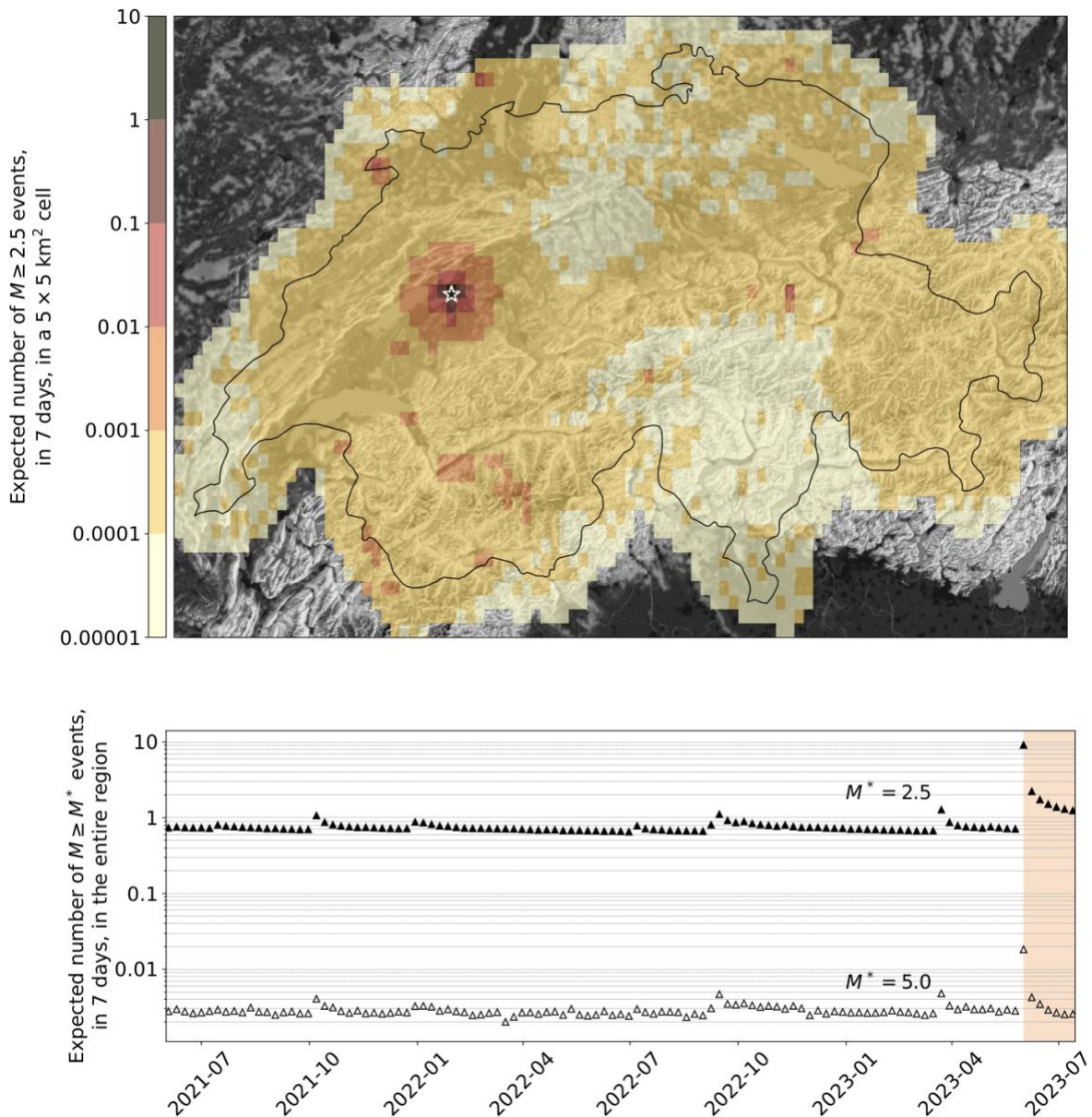
413

414 Operational Earthquake Forecasting (OEF) and Operational Earthquake Loss Forecasting (OELF) are scientific
415 approaches to forecasting the short-term probability of occurrence and the associated economic and societal
416 impact of earthquakes. OEF utilises statistical analysis of historical earthquake data, seismic activity patterns, and
417 geological features in a specific region to determine the probability of earthquakes above a certain magnitude
418 occurring over a given period. OELF builds upon these OEF probabilities and assesses the potential loss of life,
419 property, and infrastructure that could result.

420 Earthquake probabilities and the resulting short-term hazard and risk can vary by several orders of magnitude
421 between quiet periods and clustered sequences, such as aftershocks sequences or swarms (van Stiphout *et al.*,
422 2010). Unlike long-term earthquake forecasts, which inform long-term risk mitigation measures such as building
423 codes, the operationally calculated short-term earthquake probabilities and the corresponding loss estimates
424 generated by OEF and OELF, respectively, provide crucial information for crisis management in case of a major
425 earthquake. To complement the long-term earthquake forecasts that are part of SUIhaz2015, the SED is therefore
426 working on an Epidemic-Type Aftershock Sequence (ETAS)-based earthquake forecasting model (Ogata, 1988)
427 for Switzerland that describes the temporal fluctuations of earthquake probabilities. ETAS models are well suited
428 for this task: they are being used for OEF by agencies worldwide (Marzocchi *et al.*, 2014; Harte, 2019; van der
429 Elst *et al.*, 2022) and are the most extensively tested time-dependent models available (Woessner *et al.*, 2011;
430 Ogata *et al.*, 2013; Strader *et al.*, 2017; Savran *et al.*, 2020). Furthermore, an expert elicitation conducted within
431 the RISE project showed wide consensus among experts that the ETAS model shall be used as a default model
432 for earthquake forecasting (Mizrahi *et al.*, 2023). In ETAS, earthquakes are partitioned into background seismicity
433 and aftershock clusters. In the Swiss case, the background seismicity model is based on the SUIhaz2015 time-
434 independent rate forecast, and clustered seismicity is modelled using ETAS parameters calibrated with the local
435 SED earthquake catalogue. The SED is developing and testing multiple ETAS-based models for Switzerland
436 (Mizrahi, 2022), ranging from simple models that only rely on a comprehensive earthquake catalogue as input to
437 more complex models that consider variations in catalogue completeness and additional information from

438 SUIhaz2015. To evaluate the performance of the models, pseudo-prospective forecasting experiments and
439 retrospective consistency tests (Cattania *et al.*, 2018; Nandan *et al.*, 2021; Bayliss *et al.*, 2022) are being
440 conducted.

441 Besides the scientific model to probabilistically describe future earthquake occurrence, the SED is also developing
442 the IT infrastructure required to produce automated earthquake and loss forecasts for Switzerland in real-time (see
443 example in **Figure 6**). Both systems are initially operated internally at the SED for evaluation and refinement and
444 will at a later stage be made available to the general public and federal agencies in Switzerland. In particular, the
445 OELF system will provide actionable information to individuals, public authorities, and other stakeholders, based
446 on the updated earthquake rate forecast from the OEF system and ERM-CH23. Strategies for the effective
447 communication of earthquake probabilities and uncertainties to the public are important and have been and
448 continue to be extensively studied at the SED using surveys and discussions with focus groups and stakeholders
449 at the federal and cantonal levels (Section 4.2).



450

451 **Figure 6: Time-dependent earthquake forecast for Switzerland after a hypothetical Mw 6.0 earthquake near Bern,**
452 **Switzerland, at midnight on June 1, 2023 (white star in top panel). Top: Spatial distribution of the expected number of**
453 **felt earthquakes ($ML \geq 2.5$) in the first 7 days following the event, per $0.05^\circ \times 0.05^\circ$ grid cell (roughly 5×5 km²). Bottom:**
454 **Temporal evolution of 7-day forecasts for the entire region shown in the top panel. The filled and empty triangles**
455 **represent the expected number of $ML \geq 2.5$ and $ML \geq 5.0$ earthquakes, respectively. The shaded background marks**
456 **the time interval after the occurrence of the Mw 6.0 event.**
457

458 3.2 Earthquake Early Warning (EEW)

459

460 Earthquake early warning (EEW) systems are designed to rapidly detect earthquakes and provide people and
461 automated systems with time to prepare and take protective action before strong shaking arrives (e.g., Allen *et al.*,
462 2009; Cremen & Galasso, 2020). Although the EEW provided alert times are short (depending on the distance
463 between the earthquake and the location to be warned), they are considered sufficient to allow taking cover,
464 stopping trains or elevators, shutting down industrial processes, or triggering automated shutdown systems. EEW
465 is considered an important tool for earthquake risk reduction and disaster management, as it may help to reduce
466 the number of casualties and damage to infrastructure and buildings during an earthquake, as well as to minimise
467 social and economic disruption (e.g., Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2023a).

468

469 For around one decade, the SED has been developing open-source software and methods for EEW using a set of
470 SeisComP modules (such as *sceewenv*, *scvsmag*, and *scfinder*), known as the ETHZ-SED SeisComP EEW (ESE)
471 system (Massin *et al.*, 2021). The core of ESE is formed by the Virtual Seismologist (VS; Cua, 2005) and Finite-
472 Fault Rupture Detector (FinDer; Böse *et al.*, 2012) algorithms. VS provides fast EEW magnitudes using existing
473 SeisComP detection and location modules, while FinDer identifies fault rupture extent by matching growing
474 patterns of observed high-frequency seismic acceleration amplitudes with modelled templates. The SED is
475 currently developing a new SeisComP module to compare the observed and predicted ground-motion envelopes
476 with the goal to select origins and magnitudes from the independent VS and FinDer source parameter estimates,
477 while suppressing false alerts (Jozinović *et al.*, 2023).

478 In Switzerland, VS and FinDer are not yet used for public alerting, but rather for testing and demonstration of
479 EEW. VS uses phase picks to provide fast locations and magnitudes for any event detected by the Swiss Seismic
480 Network, while FinDer is typically activated only for earthquakes with magnitudes greater than 3.5. The median
481 delay for the first VS (since 2014) and FinDer (since 2017) alert is 8.7 and 7 seconds, respectively, but earthquakes
482 are frequently detected in as little as 4 to 6 seconds when they occur in areas with a high station density (see
483 example in **Figure 7**). Typically, it takes 3.5 seconds for the P-waves to propagate from the hypocenter to the
484 fourth closest station in the Swiss Seismic Network, the minimum number of stations required by the algorithms.
485 The SED continues to optimise the Swiss Seismic Network for EEW, although the benefit from further station
486 densification appears limited (Böse *et al.*, 2022). Despite the rare occurrence of large earthquakes in Switzerland,
487 a recent public survey shows that 70% of the Swiss population would like rapid notifications for all earthquakes
488 that are felt, even if they have a low damage potential (Dallo *et al.*, 2022a). Future mass notifications for EEW in
489 Switzerland could be enabled either through the Swiss *Alertswiss* and *MeteoSwiss* multi-hazard platforms, which
490 can receive and display push notifications on mobile devices, or through cell broadcast once available.

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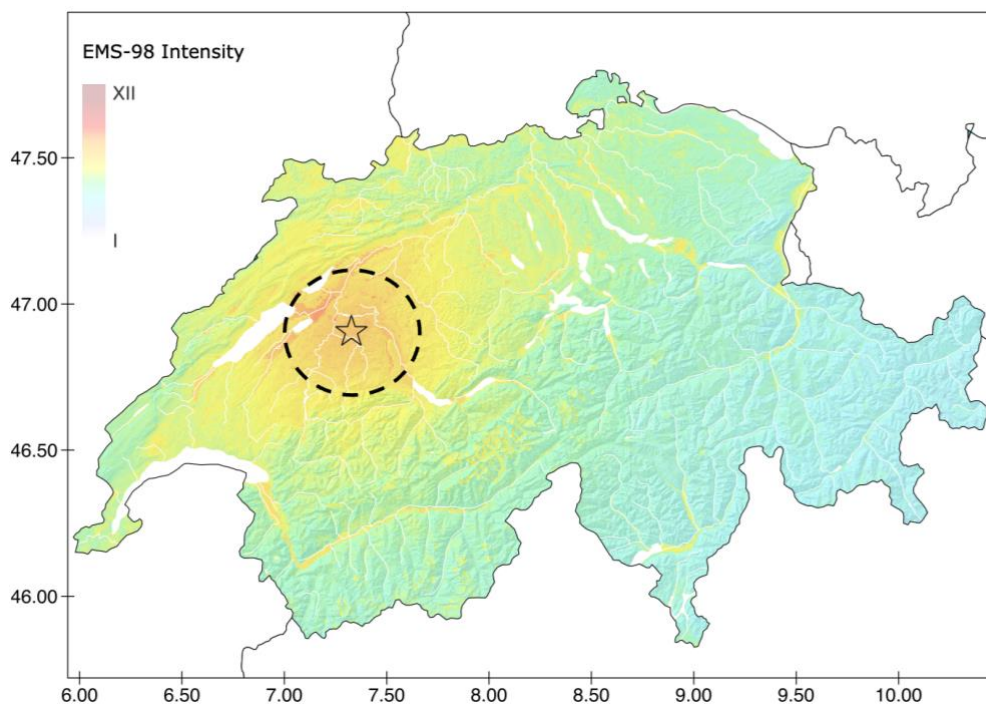
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3.3 Swiss ShakeMaps

Ground-motion maps provide critical information on the severity and distribution of ground shaking generated by an earthquake. The SED has been utilising the ShakeMap® application (Worden *et al.*, 2020) in Switzerland for approximately 15 years (Cauzzi *et al.*, 2022) and is a core founder and contributor to the European ShakeMap initiative that promotes international collaboration and harmonisation of ShakeMap procedures in the greater European region (Cauzzi *et al.*, 2018b; Michelini *et al.*, 2023). ShakeMap rapidly maps seismic shaking information based on recorded and predicted intensity measures, such as peak ground acceleration (PGA), PGV, PSA, and macroseismic intensity levels, including amplification due to local site effects.

The SED ShakeMap framework is updated regularly and employs Swiss-specific ground-motion models, ground-motion-to-intensity conversion equations, and site amplification models (which are the same as those used in ERM-CH23; Section 1.1) that allow for accurate and reliable ground shaking estimates across the Swiss alpine and northern foreland regions (Cauzzi *et al.*, 2015). The SED maintains an archive of instrumental ShakeMaps for events with a magnitude larger than 2.5 that occurred since 1991 and an atlas of large historical ShakeMaps (see example in **Figure 7**). There are plans to include rapid finite-fault information in the SED ShakeMaps in the near future (Böse *et al.*, 2012).

ShakeMaps are an important tool for earthquake response and recovery efforts. At the SED, ShakeMaps serve multiple purposes. They are used (i) to inform the Swiss public about the severity of ground shaking and affected areas; (ii) to estimate the likelihood of earthquake-triggered mass movements for significant events, following a set of geospatial susceptibility proxies and PGA (Cauzzi *et al.*, 2018); and (iii) to rapidly assess the potential damage caused by ground shaking as part of the SED RIA system (Section 3.4).



518 **Figure 7: Swiss ShakeMap for a hypothetical Mw 6.0 earthquake near Bern. Dashed circle shows the 30-km-large no-**
 519 **alert-zone centred on the epicentre where EEW could probably not be provided before strong shaking initiates.**
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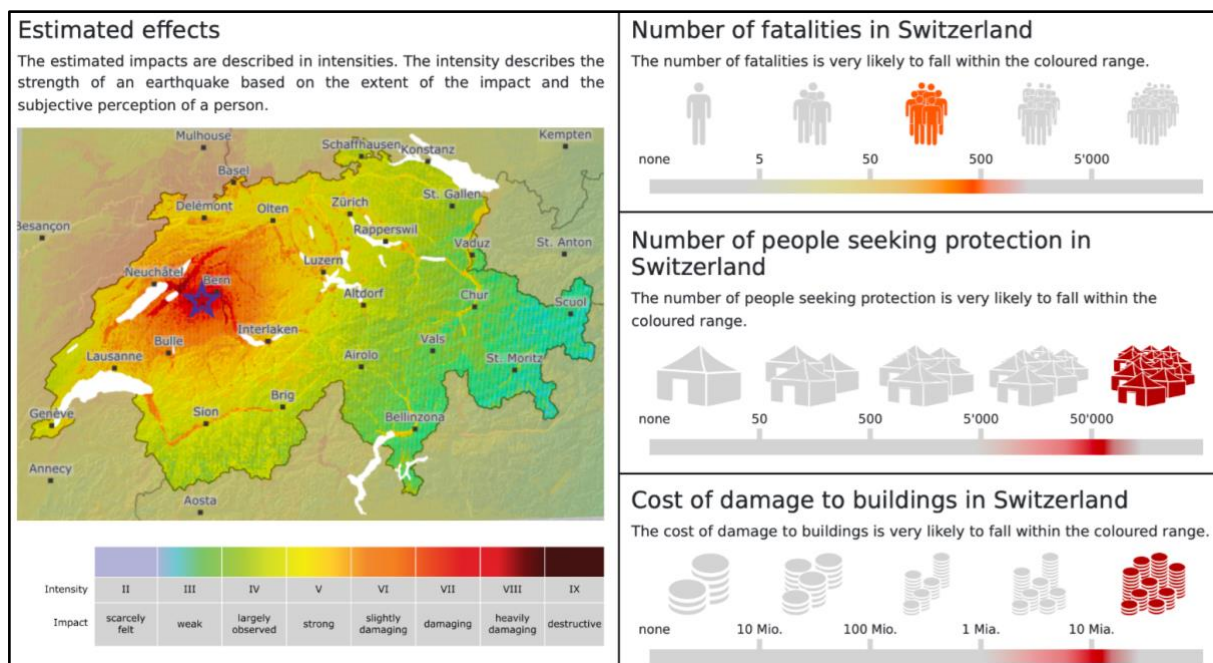
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522 **3.4 Rapid Impact Assessment (RIA)**

523

524 Rapid Impact Assessment (RIA) involves the gathering and analysis of information to quickly assess the damage
 525 and impact of an earthquake (or other) disaster. RIA systems shall provide decision-makers with timely and
 526 accurate information to guide their response and recovery efforts. The RIA processing chain involves (i) the
 527 assessment of the extent and severity of the damage; (ii) the evaluation of the needs of the affected population;
 528 and (iii) the identification of priority areas for response. RIA efforts in Switzerland currently focus on the first
 529 step.

530 The SED RIA system uses OpenQuake’s scenario calculator (Pagani *et al.*, 2014) and Swiss ShakeMaps (Section
 531 3.3). Once an earthquake’s location and magnitude are determined, a ShakeMap is created and the RIA calculator
 532 activated. Monte Carlo simulations are then used to generate multiple ground-motion field realisations at the
 533 location of the building assets in the ERM-CH23 exposure model. Damage and loss estimates are derived using
 534 the vulnerability functions associated with each asset and the simulated ground-motion values. The SED RIA
 535 system estimates various types of losses (damage, economic loss, injuries, deaths, and shelter needs) at the
 536 national, cantonal, and municipal levels. These estimates are compiled in a standard format (Section 4.2), which
 537 includes a map of ground shaking and visualisations of losses - along with associated uncertainties - at different
 538 scales (see example in **Figure 8**). In the future, the SED RIA system will become fully integrated and synchronised
 539 with the Swiss Seismic Network operations and perform near-real-time calculations for every earthquake with
 540 magnitude $M > 3.0$ within a specified radius around Switzerland. For now, the RIA results are shared internally
 541 at the SED for verification, but will soon be made available to the public.



542

543 **Figure 8: Exemplary Rapid Impact Assessment (RIA; @Swiss Seismological Service) output (here national level**
544 **estimate) for a hypothetical Mw 6.0 earthquake near Bern. See [CH23/scenario/Bern_M6_0_en.pdf](http://www.seismo.ethz.ch/static/ERM-
545 <a href=) for full report.**

546

547 **3.5 Seismic Hazard Web Platform and Services**

548

549 Among other dynamic and operational earthquake-related services, the SED is actively involved in the
550 development, maintenance, and hosting of a web platform that grants access to a wide range of earthquake hazard
551 datasets, input models, results, documentation, and information at both the national and regional levels. This web
552 platform, accessible at <http://hazard.efehr.org>, is an integral part of the European Facilities of the Earthquake
553 Hazard and Risk (EFEHR) network of federated services. Moreover, the earthquake-related hazard data, products,
554 and services are designed to be interoperable with the newly developed EPOS ICS-C platform (Haslinger *et al.*,
555 2022).

556

557 The hazard platform comprises three individual web applications that enable users to interactively explore and
558 retrieve hazard curves, hazard spectra, and hazard maps. Through a user-friendly interface, users can access hazard
559 data and related metadata. The platform streamlines the retrieval of hazard maps, which can be disseminated to
560 users through multiple avenues, including customised services offering ASCII data, file downloads featuring
561 compressed ESRI shapefiles, and adherence to the OGC standards, which facilitate the distribution of projected
562 map images.

563

564 The EFEHR web portal serves as a gateway to various seismic hazard models, including the 1999 Global Hazard
565 Map of the Global Seismic Hazard Assessment Program (GSHAP, Giardini, 1999), the 2013 European Seismic
566 Hazard Model (ESHM13, Woessner *et al.*, 2015), the 2014 Earthquake Model of the Middle East (EMME14,
567 Giardini, 2017), the 2015 Swiss Hazard Model (SUIhaz15; Wiemer *et al.*, 2016), and the 2020 European Seismic
568 Hazard Model (ESHM20; Danciu *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, this platform will be the principal repository for
569 results and datasets related to the ERM-CH23 (Wiemer *et al.*, 2023).

570

571

572 **3.6 Structural Health Monitoring (SHM)**

573

574 Due to slow retrofit and replacement rates of existing buildings, slow uptake of modern earthquake resistance
575 standards, and the intensity of extreme events, earthquakes pose a significant threat to the built environment. Post-
576 earthquake inspections are necessary to assess the damage to buildings and ensure safe shelter for the population.
577 Current expert-conducted visual inspections suffer from possible subjectivity and delay recovery. However, recent
578 advances in sensor development offer reliable and cost-effective sensing hardware, making broad monitoring of
579 multiple conventional buildings realistic. Structural Health Monitoring (SHM) provides tools to analyse these
580 sensor data and to translate vibration data into meaningful information about the structural state of a building.
581 Damage-sensitive features (DSFs) can be extracted from continuous measurements and contribute to the detection
582 and localization of earthquake-induced damage (e.g., Reuland *et al.*, 2023a).

583 Several approaches to overcome the scarcity of real-world dynamic monitoring data of both healthy and damaged
584 structures have been developed at the IBK: (i) SHM-based fragility functions relate probabilities of a structure to
585 reach a given damage state to DSFs and can provide near-real-time damage tags (Reuland *et al.*, 2021; Reuland
586 *et al.*, 2023b); (ii) a machine-learning methodology relying on domain adaptation has been successfully used to
587 transfer a damage-state classification from simulated training data to real measurements from experimentation
588 (Martakis *et al.*, 2023); and (iii) a framework for automated detection of malfunctioning sensors has also been
589 developed to ensure that sensors are functional and record valuable data during earthquakes (Martakis *et al.*,
590 2022a). Furthermore, monitoring data from buildings can contribute to earthquake preparedness by reducing
591 uncertainty and regional variability of capacity curves used to derive fragility functions (Martakis *et al.*, 2022b).
592 After successful testing on individual buildings, SHM-based rapid loss assessment has been recently integrated
593 into a regional demonstrator (Nievas *et al.*, 2023). Integrating monitoring data and engineering models into a
594 robust framework will pave the way to make SHM-based real-time building tagging operational in Switzerland
595 and elsewhere in the future.

596
597

598 **3.7 Recovery and Rebuilding Efforts (RRE)**

599

600 Recovery and Rebuilding Efforts (RRE) refer to the process of restoring a community or region to its pre-disaster
601 condition after a natural or man-made disaster. The recovery phase begins immediately after the event and focuses
602 on providing immediate assistance to affected people, restoring critical infrastructure such as power, water, and
603 transportation systems, and providing temporary housing for those displaced by the disaster. The rebuilding phase
604 involves longer-term efforts to repair or replace damaged infrastructure, such as roads, bridges, and buildings, and
605 to help affected individuals and communities recover from the economic and social impact of the disaster.

606

607 Resilient communities have the ability to quickly recover from extreme events, and retrofitting measures can help
608 decrease the risk of earthquakes and reduce repair efforts. Still, RRE is crucial to restoring community functions
609 and minimising negative social and economic impacts. Recovery models and resilience assessment tools can
610 simulate recovery trajectories and guide decision-makers towards effective actions. The iRe-CoDeS
611 (interdependent Resilience Compositional Demand and Supply) framework developed at ETH Zurich (Blagojević
612 *et al.*, 2022), offers the capacity to perform such analyses and has been integrated with OpenQuake software for
613 regional hazard and risk assessment.

614 Early loss assessment is often incomplete and imprecise, which hinders response efforts. To improve decision-
615 making, a dynamic update of regional post-earthquake damage estimates is proposed in iRe-CoDeS. Gaussian
616 process inference models are used to fuse early inspection data with a pre-existing earthquake risk model (such
617 as ERM-CH23; Bodenmann *et al.*, 2023), reducing uncertainty and improving regional building damage
618 estimates. By combining regional recovery and resilience assessment tools with this framework, uncertainty in
619 recovery trajectories can be reduced, and real-time what-if analyses can inform decision-makers on the state of
620 the community during recovery and optimal resource deployment. The iRe-CoDeS model can be updated with

621 early inspection information after an earthquake, providing recommendations for recovery efforts and remaining
622 recovery time.

623

624

625 **4. Operation and Communication**

626

627 **4.1. Operation**

628

629 Providing operational services demands a high level of service availability. To achieve this, the SED provides
630 appropriate hardware solutions, invests in professional software engineering, and provides for 24/7 IT on-call
631 duty backup. The seismic processing data centre at the SED is the operational service with the longest history and
632 most mature setup, and provides the template for new services as they are added to the operational ecosystem.
633 High availability services are achieved by operating two identical software versions on fully redundant and
634 physically separated hardware, a primary and backup system. If any issues arise on the primary system, the backup
635 system can immediately become primary. A third server is also supported for development and prototyping.
636 Databases are also fully replicated and backed-up, and when database information is provided to the public, it is
637 accessed only via replicated databases to remove the possibility of external loads compromising the operational
638 systems.

639

640 To react to operational and seismic crises, the SED operates three 24/7 on-call teams, dedicated to technical IT-
641 related issues, immediate review of all seismic events with $M > 2.5$, and for handling inquiries from authorities,
642 media and the public for Swiss and international events. To provide internal and external seismic alerts, an in-
643 house developed alarm system enables the duty seismologists to take prompt action when an earthquake occurs.
644 The seismic alerts are automatically activated when an earthquake above a specific magnitude is detected within
645 or in proximity of Switzerland. Web portals enable the public distribution of products generated by these
646 operational services via direct access or APIs.

647

648 The SED conforms to international community standards in data formats, metadata and dissemination services
649 where possible (such as FDSN mseed, stationXML and web services), and indeed is at the cutting edge in
650 developing new standards, for example the SED curates the quakeML (Schorlemmer *et al.*, 2011) data model,
651 ensuring that earthquake information is easily accessible and shareable. The integration of harmonised data and
652 processes is at the heart of effective dynamic earthquake risk management and mitigation strategies.

653

654

655 **4.2 Communication and Societal Perspective**

656

657 As a federal agency, the SED is responsible for informing the public, authorities, and media about earthquakes
658 affecting Switzerland, and providing warnings when needed. For this purpose, the SED monitors ground shaking
659 24/7 in Switzerland and neighbouring countries (Section 2.1). Details (including time, location, magnitude, and

660 possible impacts) of a detected earthquake are published on the SED webpage within 90 seconds. Federal and
661 cantonal authorities are informed automatically if the magnitude is 2.5 or larger. A team of on-call duty
662 seismologists assesses every recorded earthquake and takes further actions if needed, and is available for media
663 requests. The SED also engages in science communication during quiet times to transfer knowledge about
664 earthquakes and related topics. To ensure effective communication, the SED interacts with societal stakeholders
665 and co-develops and evaluates various information products, including those presented in this article. The SED
666 also contributes to the training of future earthquake experts through teaching efforts at ETH Zurich and beyond.

667 Recently, the SED has been shifting from hazard to risk communication, which should increase societies'
668 preparedness and disaster resilience. To ensure effectiveness, it is important that communication products are
669 designed by an interdisciplinary expert group and then tested with the relevant end-users before releasing them
670 publicly. In preparation of the ERM-CH23 release in March 2023, the SED has tested various output formats for
671 risk products with professional stakeholders of the society and the general public:

- 672 • Marti *et al.* (2023) showed that people and professionals consider RIA reports and risk scenarios to be
673 very important, although they appeared similarly challenged to correctly interpret the information
674 provided. To represent the uncertainties of the model estimates, the simplest visualisation using ranges
675 was the most understandable and the most popular (see **Figure 8**).
- 676 • Regarding EEW systems, a public survey conducted by the SED in Switzerland (Dallo *et al.*, 2022a),
677 revealed that the Swiss public wants to receive EEW alerts for all felt events (even if they are not
678 damaging) and their preferences align with those in other countries. EEW alerts with pictograms have
679 the strongest effect in motivating people to take action, even if that is not necessarily what they like best.
- 680 • The SED has collaborated with the Winton Center at the University of Cambridge to test OEF
681 communications with the general public in Italy, Switzerland, and California in the US. A survey of
682 Dryhurst *et al.* (2022) found that people in all three countries provided similar answers. Maps
683 representing OEF probabilities as different coloured isoline compartments could mislead the public. The
684 best information combination for OEF communication is a geographical map showing the forecast area,
685 textual information about the current absolute chance of an earthquake, and a risk ladder to provide
686 context.
- 687 • Dallo *et al.* (2022b) conducted three online surveys with various experiments and virtual focus groups
688 to improve communication of earthquake information on multi-hazard platforms, such as *MeteoSwiss*
689 and *Alertswiss* (Section 3.2). The results indicated that people prefer a combination of visual and textual
690 information, pictorial and textual behavioural recommendations, interactive features, consideration of
691 data privacy issues, messages with time indication and action-keywords, as well as clearly
692 distinguishable icons of the epicentre and the person's location (Valenzuela Rodríguez, 2021).

693 When designing information campaigns, it is important to consider people's personal factors, which can influence
694 their interpretation of the information provided, their design preferences, and their perceived usefulness. To
695

699 achieve successful campaigns, key factors to consider include regular communication, context, channel choice,
700 risk communicator training, and community-based approaches (Marti *et al.*, 2020). A significant challenge is to
701 provide personalised notifications to end-users while still addressing their concerns about data privacy.
702

703 **5. Conclusions and Outlook**

704 Earthquake hazard and risk are often assumed to be constant over time. However, because seismicity is spatially
705 and temporally clustered, and because individual exposure can change rapidly, both hazard and risk are often
706 strongly time-dependent on different time scales. In the dynamic-risk framework outlined in this paper, seismic
707 activity is continuously monitored by a regional seismic network, such as the one operated by the SED, and risk
708 assessments are dynamically adapted in response to the latest data. We believe that this dynamic concept provides
709 a more accurate and timely means of identifying potential seismic hazards and assessing risks, thereby enabling
710 more efficient mitigation strategies and improving overall safety outcomes.

711
712 As described in this paper, we have developed key operational services of a dynamic earthquake risk framework
713 for Switzerland. These include earthquake monitoring, ShakeMaps, EEW, OEF, RIA, and computational
714 infrastructure. The seismic network and the ShakeMap system are currently the most mature of these services in
715 Switzerland, followed by EEW and RIA; the OEF service is currently in a demonstration phase (**Table 1**).
716 Furthermore, the SED has a well-established communication network to provide rapid earthquake information to
717 the public over multiple channels.

718
719 Integration and interoperability are important aspects of our dynamic risk framework. Integration means that the
720 framework must be able to accommodate different components while also remaining adaptable enough to function
721 even when specific components are not connected. For example, some countries interested in establishing similar
722 services may prioritise ShakeMaps and RIA while opting not to invest in EEW. Interoperability, on the other
723 hand, entails that the various products and services within the framework should share common models and
724 databases, thus eliminating redundancy in processing and ensuring efficient utilisation of resources. For example,
725 the Swiss EEW system uses the same ground-motion models as ShakeMaps, and the Swiss RIA system uses the
726 same ShakeMaps and the same site amplification layers derived for the national risk models, and calculates
727 impacts on people and buildings based on national databases of buildings and their vulnerability.

728
729 During the development of our framework, we came across several key findings. First, the foundation of this
730 framework is highly dependent on the existence of a robust seismic monitoring network and a high-quality data
731 processing system and infrastructure. These components play a key role as they serve as the primary data sources
732 for various downstream risk-related products. Secondly, the quality and effectiveness of the underlying models
733 and methodologies are critically dependent on the incorporation of the latest scientific advances and the
734 availability of computational infrastructure. Ensuring that the framework is kept up to date with the latest research
735 is of paramount importance and may even be the greatest challenge in the long term. Thirdly, it is essential to
736 involve stakeholders and target audiences at an early stage of development to ensure that products and services
737 meet their expectations and understanding.

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In the dynamic risk context, earthquake risk is assessed in a consistent and harmonised way for the next few seconds or for the next five decades. This not only offers great potential for synergy, but also means for comparative Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA). While traditional CBA is useful for evaluating EEW systems (e.g., Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2023a) or OE(L)F-based alerting systems (van Stiphout *et al.*, 2010; Hermann *et al.*, 2016), alternative methods such as Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA) have proven useful for decision-making when non-economic factors are important (e.g., Guarini *et al.*, 2018). The flexibility and transparency of MCDA allows for the consideration of a wider range of criteria beyond economic costs and benefits, including model bias, model uncertainty, time gain in emergency response, information gain etc., making it a valuable tool for assessing the cost-effectiveness of different dynamic risk products. Ongoing research aims to assess the wider benefits of these dynamic risk products for earthquake risk reduction, incorporating surveys and expert opinion to facilitate a dialogue with decision-makers and the public.

751 **Table 1:** Status of earthquake risk-related products and services in Switzerland (as of November 2023).

Product/Service	Type	Status & Availability
Earthquake Hazard and Risk Model	product	available (SUIhaz2015 and ERM-CH23) SED OpenQuake (engine <i>sed-oq-engine</i>): https://github.com/swiss-seismological-service/sed-oq-engine
Seismic Network	operational service	mature seismic stations: https://networks.seismo.ethz.ch/en/networks/ch/ http://eida.ethz.ch/fdsnws/station/1/ waveform data: http://eida.ethz.ch/fdsnws/dataselect/1/ earthquake catalogue: http://www.seismo.ethz.ch/en/earthquakes/ http://eida.ethz.ch/fdsnws/event/1/
Routine Seismic Data Processing	operational service	mature <i>scdetect</i> : earthquake detection using template matching https://scdetect.readthedocs.io <i>scrtDD</i> : real-time double difference relocation https://docs.gempa.de/scrtdd/current/ <i>scwfparam</i> : provides engineering parameters and input to ShakeMap https://www.seiscomp.de/doc/apps/scwfparam.html

Product/Service	Type	Status & Availability
		<i>sceewenv</i> , <i>scvsmag</i> , <i>scfinder</i> , <i>sceewlog</i> : EEW modules https://docs.gempa.de/sed-eew/current
ShakeMaps	operational service	mature https://github.com/DOI-USGS/ghsc-esi-shakemap
Earthquake Hazard Web-Services	operational service	mature European Facilities of the Earthquake Hazard and Risk (<i>EFEHR</i>): http://hazard.efehr.org <i>EPOS</i> ICS-C platform: https://www.epos-eu.org/integrated-core-services
Earthquake [Loss] Forecasting (OE[L]F)	demonstration service	beta RAMSIS core: (https://gitlab.seismo.ethz.ch/indu/rt-ramsis , dependencies described there) ETAS model wrapper: https://gitlab.seismo.ethz.ch/indu/ramsis-nsfm wrapped ETAS: https://github.com/swiss-seismological-service/etas/
Earthquake Early Warning (EEW)	demonstration service	beta https://docs.gempa.de/sed-eew/current
Rapid Impact Assessment (RIA)	demonstration service	beta - operational https://github.com/swiss-seismological-service/REIA
Structural Health Monitoring (SHM)	demonstration service	beta (codes not publicly available)
Recovery and Rebuilding Efforts (RRE)	demonstration software	available <i>pyrecodes</i> : open-source python library for post-disaster recovery simulation and resilience assessment (Blagojević and Stojadinović, 2023): https://nikolablagojevic.github.io/pyrecodes/html/usa/ge/what_is_pyrecodes.html

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The SED continues to advance its seismic observational capabilities and risk products, including double-difference earthquake catalogues, extending 3D crustal velocity models, enhancing magnitude determination, and exploring new visualisation and distribution methods. They aim to provide short-term earthquake probabilities and associated seismic hazards and losses, to provide rapid earthquake information and EEW to the Swiss public,

757 and to integrate the RIA system into the seismic network operations for near-real-time calculations for earthquakes
758 in and around Switzerland above magnitude 3.0. In addition, research is ongoing to determine how best to
759 communicate earthquake forecasts and support the translation of probabilities into actions.

760 We expect our framework to improve over time as individual components are improved. For example, in the near
761 future, simulation-based approaches, such as physics-based ground motion modelling, or so-called digital twin
762 components may replace certain elements of the framework. Embracing the conceptual framework of dynamic
763 risk inherently signifies a comprehensive and interdisciplinary approach to the assessment, reduction, and
764 resilience of earthquake risks. Furthermore, this framework can be easily extended to a multi-risk framework,
765 which offers significant advantages in addressing a variety of risk reduction challenges.

766
767 Future work on our framework could include (i) transitioning demonstration services to become operational; (ii)
768 continuing the development and testing of the proposed services and risk framework in a wider range of countries,
769 both in Europe and globally, as well as exploring collaborations with interested stakeholders; (iv) advancing the
770 implementation of European-level services within the European Plate Observing System (EPOS); (v) widening
771 the scope of the proposed exposure and loss models to encompass not only buildings but also critical
772 infrastructures, such as for transportation, water, or energy, as well as high-risk industries, which play an important
773 role in disaster risk management and emergency response efforts; and (vi) continuing and expanding the use of
774 promising techniques like AI and DAS.

775
776 We would like to emphasise that while we believe that the dynamic and user-centric risk framework outlined here
777 is valuable and can contribute to earthquake risk reduction, it should not detract from a strong focus on earthquake
778 engineering efforts. Building to modern seismic standards has proven to be the most valuable means of reducing
779 financial and human losses in future earthquake disasters and must remain a priority.

780
781 As data, models, and computing resources increase, dynamic and operational earthquake-related services will
782 become increasingly available and important for earthquake risk assessment and mitigation. This paper may serve
783 as a reference guide for countries wishing to establish similar tools and services in the context of dynamic risk.
784 Links to publicly available components of our framework are provided in **Table 1**.

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795 **Author contributions**

796 We use the [CRediT](#) Contributor Roles Taxonomy to categorise author contributions. **Methodology &**
797 **Investigation:** *Hazard and Risk*: LD, AP, PR, SW, PB, DF, FH, BMC, DG. *Seismic Monitoring (network &*
798 *processing)*: JC, TD, CC, FM, FH, DF, AF, MB, FG, LH, PJ, DJ, FL, TL, M-AM, AO, MS, LS, AS, SW, PK.
799 *OE(L)F*: LM, SW, MH, LD, AP, PR. *EEW*: MB, FM, JC, DJ, CC. *ShakeMaps*: CC, JC, MB, PB, DF. *RIA*: LD,
800 AP, PR, NS, SW. *SHM*: YR, EC, LB, PM, BS, NB. *RRE*: YR, EC, LB, PM, BS, NB. Operations and
801 Communication: JC, LD, PK, ID, MM, NV, LD, AP, PR. **Writing – original draft**: MB. **Writing – review &**
802 **editing**: all. **Project investigators and Funding**: DG, SW.

803 **Declaration of Competing Interests**

804 The authors acknowledge that there are no conflicts of interest recorded.
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