

1 **A combined field/remote sensing approach for characterizing** 2 **landslide risk in coastal areas.**

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9 **Abstract**

10 Understanding the key factors controlling slope failure mechanisms in coastal areas is the
11 first and most important step for analyzing, reconstructing and predicting the scale, location
12 and extent of future instability in rocky coastlines. Different failure mechanisms may be
13 possible depending on the influence of the engineering properties of the rock mass (including
14 the fracture network), the persistence and type of discontinuity and the relative aspect or
15 orientation of the coastline. Using a section of the North Coast of Cornwall, UK, as an
16 example we present a multi-disciplinary approach for characterizing landslide risk associated
17 with coastal instabilities in a blocky rock mass.

18 Remotely captured terrestrial and aerial LiDAR and photogrammetric data was interrogated
19 using Geographic Information System (GIS) techniques to provide a framework for
20 subsequent analysis, interpretation and validation. The remote sensing mapping data was
21 used to define the rock mass discontinuity network of the area and to differentiate between
22 major and minor geological structures controlling the evolution of the North Coast of
23 Cornwall.

24 Kinematic instability maps generated from aerial LiDAR data using GIS techniques and
25 results from structural and engineering geological surveys are presented. With this method, it
26 was possible to highlight the types of kinematic failure mechanism that may generate coastal
27 landslides and highlight areas that are more susceptible to instability or increased risk of
28 future instability. Multi-temporal aerial LiDAR data and orthophotos were also studied using
29 GIS techniques to locate recent landslide failures, validate the results obtained from the
30 kinematic instability maps through site observations and provide improved understanding of
31 the factors controlling the coastal geomorphology. The approach adopted is not only useful

32 for academic research, but also for local authorities and consultancy's when assessing the
33 likely risks of coastal instability.

34

35 Key words: Remote sensing, Landslide risk, LiDAR, GIS, Coastal instabilities, Listric faults

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Discontinuity-controlled slope instabilities are an important natural hazard that can affect
38 hard rock coastlines in blocky rock masses. Different failure mechanisms may be
39 kinematically feasible depending on the influence of the rock mass fracture network
40 (geometry and engineering characteristics of identified fracture sets that form a three
41 dimensional fracture network) and the relative orientation of the coastline to the fracture
42 network. The study of coastal failure involves evaluation of several contributing factors such
43 as underlying failure and erosion mechanisms, changes in environmental (weather and sea)
44 conditions, variations in coastline morphology, geology and structural geology, etc. (Collins
45 and Sitar, 2008; Wolters and Müller, 2008; Abellán et al. 2009; Naylor et al., 2010; Stock et
46 al., 2012). The analysis and prediction of such failures can be challenging as it is also
47 important to consider the spatial and temporal aspects of failure as well as scale, size, impact
48 and consequence.

49 Several recent studies have identified the potential use of remote sensing techniques for
50 improved understanding of coastal processes, although most investigations are associated
51 with relatively small scale studies. For example, at a scale of several kilometres Rosser et al.
52 (2013) showed the use of multi-temporal terrestrial laser scanning for analyzing precise
53 failure patterns across near-vertical rock cliffs on a section of the UK North Sea coast.
54 Although the precise patterns highlighted by their research is specific for the site studied, the
55 underlying progressive incremental failure mechanism proposed can be applied to wider
56 applications. More recently, Mantovani et al. (2016) highlighted the use of InSAR techniques
57 and developed a methodology for automatic classification of radar reflectors phase histories.
58 Using this approach, the authors were able to interpret the kinematics and displacement
59 trends of slow-moving coastal landslides in a sector of the island of Malta. The combined use
60 of InSAR and UAV techniques is described by Mateos et al. (2017) for monitoring of a
61 landslide affecting the urban development in the Cármenes del Mar Resort.

62 When applying these techniques to a larger/regional scale a wider area has to be studied and
63 more information considered. Application of InSAR can be often be problematic because of

64 the absence of natural scatter areas, presence of vegetation, unavailability of images,
65 unsuitable satellite return periods, cost and complexity of post-processing. Dickson and Perry
66 (2016) recently presented the use of a machine-learning approach for analyzing coastal cliff
67 landsliding in a large portion of New Zealand using an existing landslide database containing
68 498 landslides. This purely-statistical based research (where cliff and bedding geometry,
69 lithologies, slope degree/aspect/exposure and proximity to faults were used as predictors)
70 highlighted that in the studied area, landsliding generally occurs at sites where faults intersect
71 cliffs with high slope angle.

72 In this paper, we provide a regional scale analysis of coastal instability that includes
73 identification of recent landslides and highlights the influence of structural geology on the
74 likely scale of potential instability. This is performed using conventional predictors (such as
75 cliff and bedding geometry, lithologies, slope degree/aspect/exposure) with information
76 relating to the structural setting of the area (type and shape of faults and fracture sets). We
77 use a section of the North Coast of Cornwall, UK (Figure 1A), between Hell's Mouth and
78 Portreath, shown in Figure 1B, to demonstrate how the combined use of several disciplines
79 (geology, structural geology, GIS, remote sensing) provided a multi-scale analysis of coastal
80 instability in blocky rock masses. Specifically, the proposed multi-disciplinary approach
81 emphasizes the integrated use of conventional geological/engineering surveys, aerial and
82 terrestrial remote sensing and GIS together with validation through engineering geological
83 mapping and site observations. Special emphasis is given to the evaluation of the role of
84 major faults in controlling the volume/type of failures and the geometry or geomorphology of
85 the coastline. Two 'site-specific' investigations showing the importance of structural geology
86 in the analysis of slope failures are illustrated by Humair et al. (2013) and Brideau et al.
87 (2009) in the analysis of the Turtle Mountain (Alberta, CA), Hope Slide (British Columbia,
88 CA) and Randa Rockslide (Switzerland). Using a similar approach, this has been extended in
89 the current research to a more regional scale study.

90



91
 92 Figure 1. A) 3D Google Earth image of Cornwall with study area highlighted in black (inset
 93 shows a map of United Kingdom with Cornwall highlighted in red). B) Area of study
 94 between Hell's Mouth and Portreath on the North Coast of Cornwall.

95
 96 Aerial LiDAR and photogrammetry were used to identify major structures in the study area.
 97 This data was then integrated with field data (traditional engineering geological and remote
 98 sensing surveys) to generate a discontinuity database that included both major and minor
 99 structures.

100 GIS was used in this study to improve the interpretation of remote sensing data and develop
 101 kinematic instability maps. Other research showing the use of GIS and remote sensing in
 102 landslide and structural geology investigations has been presented by Jaboyedoff et al.
 103 (2004), Oppikofer (2009), Brideau et al. (2011), Fey et al. (2015) and Francioni et al. (2015),
 104 (2017a).

105 Finally, to identify recent landslides that have occurred in the immediate area of study and
 106 validate the results obtained from the GIS analysis, two aerial LiDAR datasets, 2011 and
 107 2014 (available through Channel Coastal Observatory, 2017), were compared and the results
 108 used to locate failures that occurred during this period. Analysis of the LiDAR datasets
 109 confirmed that the Hell's Mouth failure (September 2011) was the most significant landslide
 110 event in the area during this time and that the characteristics of the landslide are likely to be
 111 controlled by the structural geology of the area.

112 Although the specific results/patterns obtained/identified should be considered specific for
 113 the area under investigation, the use of the proposed methodology, combined with techniques
 114 suggested by previous research (Collins and Sitar, 2008, 2011; Naylor et al., 2010; Rosser et
 115 al. 2013), provides new insight into the study of rocky coastline evolution. The research
 116 identifies the challenge of large scale spatial analysis in determining areas of potential failure,
 117 and the role of structural geology on coastal instability. The approach adopted is not only

118 useful for academic research, but also for local authorities and consultancy's when assessing
119 the likely risks of coastal instability.

120 **2 Study area**

121 **2.1 Landslide Characteristics**

122 This research study is focused on a section of the North Coast of Cornwall, UK, between
123 Hell's Mouth and Portreath. This section of coastline is known to be susceptible to landslide
124 activity: varying from low volume rock fall to entire cliff collapse (Jones et al., 1998; Shail et
125 al., 1998; British Geological Survey, 2017; Westgate, 2005; Westgate et al., 2003).

126 One of the more recent instabilities occurred on the afternoon of Friday 23rd September 2011
127 immediately adjacent to Hell's Mouth. The landslide was captured on video and is recorded
128 in the British Geological Survey Landslide Database (British Geological Survey, 2017).
129 Although this landslide is commonly referred to as the 'Hell's Mouth' failure, it is actually
130 located at Hudder Cove, immediately to the East of Hell's Mouth. A jogger reported a large
131 crack in the coastal path 5 days prior to failure. This prompted Cornwall Council (working
132 alongside the landowners The National Trust) to divert the coastal path for public safety.
133 Following the early identification, surveys by Cornwall Council were undertaken observing
134 further tension crack development, one day prior to failure. On Friday 23 September 2011,
135 reports of material falling from the cliff were noted throughout the day with the slope failure
136 captured on video at 4.50 p.m. (British Geological Survey, 2017).

137 Figure 2 shows that the Hell's Mouth instability was associated with two major episodes of
138 instability. The initial failure captured on video was subsequently followed by later failure of
139 the section of the coastline immediately to the south of the original failure (cliff face dipping
140 towards the west).



141

142 Figure 2. Photographs of Hell's Mouth failure area prior to failure and two subsequent
143 episodes of instability. Comparison of photographs taken on 23/09/2011 and 24/12/2011
144 show further instability of the South-West section of the failure area a few weeks after the
145 main landslide that was captured on video (photograph taken looking towards SSE).

146 2.2 Geological Setting

147 The South West of England is characterized by a series of interconnecting sedimentary
148 basins, which developed sequentially northwards in the region during Early-Devonian to
149 Mid-Devonian continental rifting (Leveridge and Hartley, 2006). The study area coincides
150 with the location of the Gramscatho Basin which represents the earliest of these basins that
151 was developed as a result of syn-rift sedimentation within graben and half-graben structures
152 (Leveridge, 2011). The geology of the study area is dominated by the Porthtowan Formation,
153 a 2.8 km thick Devonian metasedimentary sequence (Leveridge and Shail, 2011) composed
154 of alternating beds of strong to moderately strong, medium to thinly bedded dark grey
155 mudstone, interbedded with strong to moderately strong, thick to thinly bedded pale grey fine
156 sandstone which may locally have a silt and mud component (Hollick et al., 2006).
157 Discontinuities within this formation are characterized by low to medium/high persistence
158 and smooth planar surfaces with local calcite and quartz infill. Joints may also enclose up to 3
159 mm thickness of dark grey clay infill originating from weathered slope profiles (Westgate,
160 2005).

161 Regarding the tectonic evolution of the area, in relation to what is observed in the field and in
162 accordance with Alexander and Shail (1995) and Hughes et.al. (2009), two generations of
163 North-North-West verging Variscan structures (Hercynian, related to late Paleozoic
164 continental collision between Euramerica and Gondwana associated with Deformation phase
165 1 and 2 - D1 and D2) are post-dated by structures showing South-East sense of shear
166 (deformation phase 3 - D3). D1 is evident at most localities and is marked by folds which
167 verge North-North-West and a pervasive and penetrative cleavage, sub-parallel to bedding
168 (S0) dipping gently South-South-East. D2 folds are close to tight asymmetric structures
169 which verge North-North-West and are generally coaxial with D1 structures (Alexander and
170 Shail, 1995). The axial planar cleavage to these folds dips at moderate to steep angles to the
171 South-South-East. D3 represents an important phase with a switch in the dominant fold
172 vergence towards the South or South-East. During this phase, there is a transition from a
173 ductile to a more brittle regime related to the development of listric and predominantly low
174 angle South-South-East dipping (10° - 70°) extensional faults. Listric faults represent one of
175 the most common indicators of an extensional regime. The main difference between these
176 faults and frequently observed normal faults is their concave surface and for this reason they
177 could be also defined as curved normal faults.

178 The NNW-SSE late orogenic extension started during D3 and continues after this phase with
179 the generation of low angle North-North-West dipping listric faults and subsequently with
180 steeper structures dipping either to the North-North-West or South-South-East.

181 This dominant North-North-West South-South-East extension probably lasted well into the
182 Permian, and subsequently changed to approximately an East-West extension during the
183 Triassic. In this regime, steep faults striking North-North-East or South-South-West were
184 formed.

185 **3 Methods**

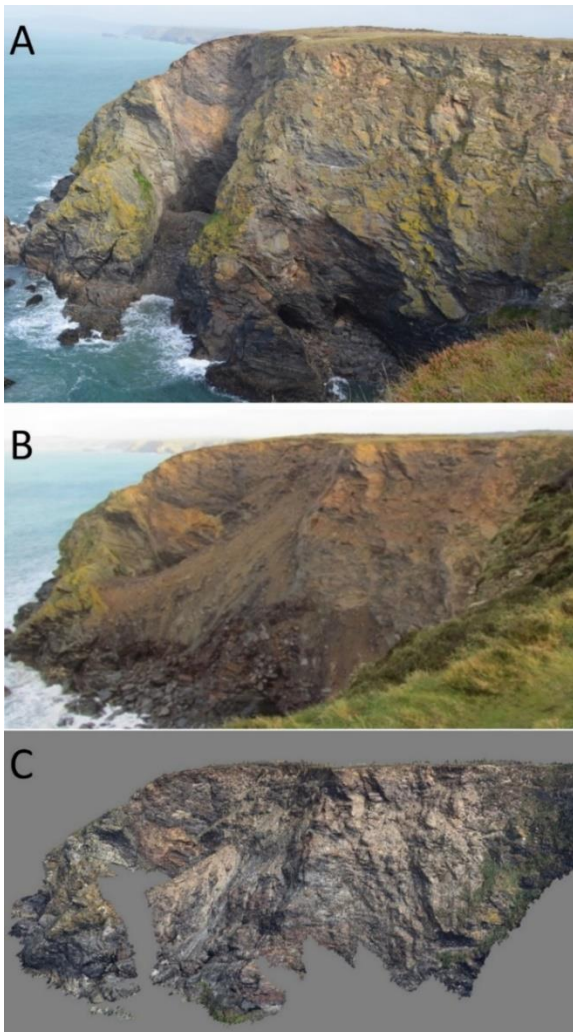
186 **3.1 Engineering geological and terrestrial remote sensing survey**

187 Engineering geological surveys have been carried out in two accessible and representative
188 sections of the coastline within the study area. Two hundred discontinuities (joints, veins and
189 faults) and their characteristics (trace length, spacing and surface description) were collected
190 during the survey.

191 The cliffs on the section of coastline between Hell's Mouth and Portreath are up to 80 m high
192 and have complex morphology. In such an environment, conventional engineering geological

193 surveys can be extremely hazardous and difficult to perform and may only be possible for
194 limited areas during low tides. In view of limited safe access, a photogrammetric survey of
195 the Hell's Mouth failure region was undertaken to verify the structural setting, confirm the
196 data from the engineering geology survey and increase the number of discontinuities to be
197 used for defining the discontinuity sets present within the study area.

198 The photogrammetric survey was carried out from the headland to the West of Hell's Mouth
199 (Hell's Mouth failure area highlighted in Figure 1) using a tripod and a Canon 50D with an f
200 = 200 and $f = 400$ mm lens. The software Photoscan (Agisoft, 2016) was used to create the
201 3D model using Structure from Motion (SfM). Figure 3 shows a photograph of the 'Hell's
202 Mouth' cliff before (Figure 3A) and after (Figure 3B) the failure, and the subsequent 3D
203 photogrammetric model of the cliff after failure (Figure 3C).



204
205 Figure 3. Images of Hell's Mouth landslide location. A) Photograph of Hell's Mouth cliff
206 section taken before the 2011 failure. B) Photograph of Hell's Mouth after the 2011 failure.
207 C) 3D SfM photogrammetric model of the cliff after failure (photograph taken looking
208 towards SSE).

209 The software Split FX (Split Engineering LLC., 2016) was used for subsequent interrogation
210 of the three-dimensional point cloud. Using this software, it was possible to extract
211 geological structure from the point clouds (including discontinuity orientation and spacing)
212 and plot the data on a stereonet for comparison with the conventional engineering geology
213 data.

214 **3.2 Aerial remote sensing and GIS analysis**

215 Aerial LiDAR surveys are capable of rapidly collecting large volumes of point cloud data to a
216 height accuracy of approximately 50 mm.

217 One of the main advantages offered by this technique is the ability to penetrate the vegetation
218 cover, avoiding occlusions in the resulting dataset. Although LiDAR allows data acquisition
219 over large areas, it may not always be suitable for the study of natural and artificial rocky
220 slopes characterized by very steep or even vertical slope sections (Francioni et al., 2017b). In
221 such cases, other techniques of analysis are suggested such as terrestrial laser scanning and
222 digital terrestrial photogrammetry (DTP) (Rosser et al., 2005; Rosser et al., 2013; Francioni
223 et al., 2017b). In this research, LiDAR has been combined with DTP for study of steep
224 coastal slopes/cliffs. This data has a resolution of 1 m and covers the North Coast of
225 Cornwall (including the current area of interest).

226 GIS was used to manage aerial LiDAR data and create thematic maps to facilitate
227 identification and interpretation of structural and geomorphic features. Data obtained from
228 engineering geology field work and LiDAR data was integrated with complementary data
229 obtained from terrestrial remote surveys carried out in inaccessible areas directly related to
230 this research.

231 *3.2.1 Major structural features and coastline analysis*

232 Persistent fault systems play a key role in the stability of the coastlines and can be defined as
233 1st order structures while joint sets, with lower persistence, can be defined as 2nd or lower
234 order structures depending on their influence on stability.

235 Using the GIS software ESRI's ArcMap version 10.2 (ESRI, 2016) it was possible to process
236 the LiDAR data and generate thematic maps, such as a 'hillshade' map. A hillshade map is
237 generated using a lighting effect based on differences in elevation within the landscape. It
238 provides synthetic three-dimensional views of the landscape. This map was used in this study
239 to identify by visual inspection/interpretation the major structures in the area. With the goal
240 of verifying the possible relationship between structural features and coastline geometry the
241 coastline was digitized in ESRI's ArcMap (Figure 9C), and the respective azimuths

242 calculated. Since the software calculates the azimuth of each segment, irrespective of their
243 length, coastline segments were “normalized”. The segments were given a set length of 100
244 m, avoiding preferential weighting (i.e. a segment length of 1 km does not have the same
245 weighting as that of a 100 m segment).

246 3.2.2 GIS kinematic analysis

247 Kinematic analysis examines the likelihood that rock slope failures such as planar, wedge,
248 and toppling will occur due to the presence of unfavorably oriented discontinuities. Although
249 a very simple analysis it is a useful functional preliminary tool providing a first estimation of
250 potential for failure (Jaboyedoff et al., 2004; Francioni et al., 2015).

251 The kinematic instability test considers the orientation of the discontinuities, the slope
252 orientation and effective friction angle along the discontinuity surface(s). In the case of
253 coastal areas, where the orientation of slopes can vary considerably, the kinematic analysis
254 should be performed for every change of slope direction. Since this procedure can be
255 complex and time consuming using conventional techniques, data from the GIS analysis and
256 engineering geological survey were integrated/combined to automatically create kinematic
257 instability maps.

258 We adopted an approach similar to that proposed by Jaboyedoff et al. (2004), Oppikofer
259 (2009), Brideau et al. (2011) and Francioni et al. (2015). The GIS thematic slope and the
260 aspect maps were created using ESRI’s ArcMap and show respectively the steepness or
261 inclination and the dip direction of the slopes/structures. Information gained from these two
262 thematic maps was then combined using GIS spatial analysis techniques into a database
263 containing both slope inclination and aspect information. Using kinematic analysis rules that
264 control rock slope failure (Markland, 1972; Hoek and Bray, 1981), the possible combinations
265 of slope geometry (dip and dip direction) prone to kinematic failure were calculated (in this
266 preliminary analysis a friction angle and a lateral limit of 30° were assumed).

267 3.2.3 Multi-temporal aerial LiDAR analysis

268 The two aerial LiDAR data sets (2011 and 2014), were compared using the software
269 CloudCompare (CloudCompare v2.6, GPL software, 2016). CloudCompare is freeware
270 software developed in 2006 for comparing 3D point cloud datasets. The software has the
271 capability to report deviation between two-point cloud objects (elevation change) or assess
272 the accuracy of computer generated surface meshes from the original dataset. In this research,
273 the LiDAR images were converted into point clouds using ESRI ArcMap and then imported

274 into CloudCompare for interpretation. The 2011 LiDAR data was used as the reference data
 275 for comparison between the two periodic point clouds (to observe any changes).

276 4 Results

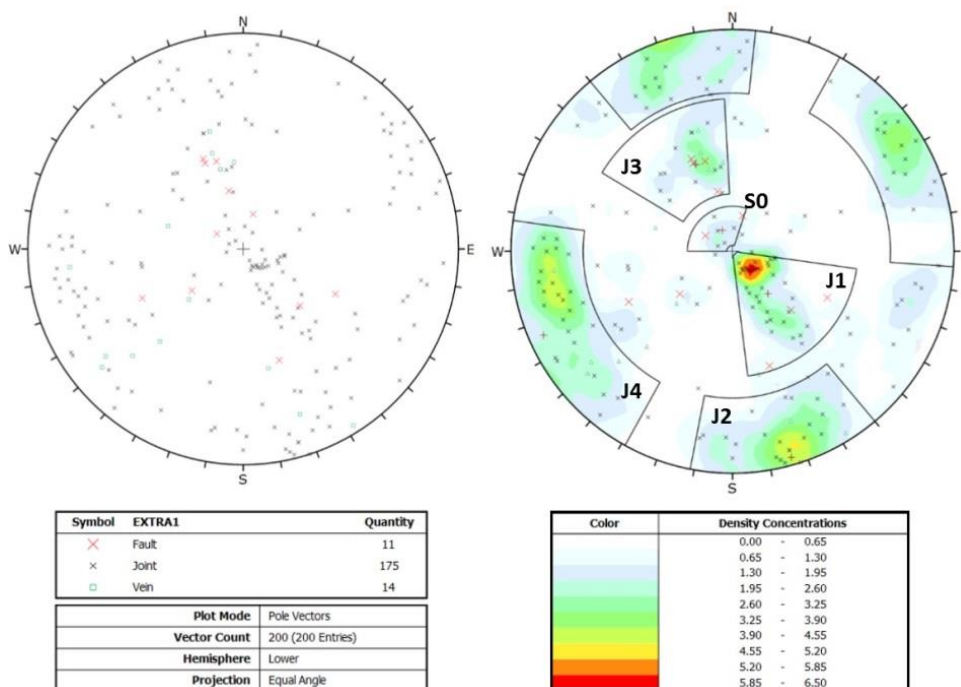
277 4.1 Results from engineering geological and photogrammetric surveys

278 Structural, engineering geological and remote sensing surveys identified 5 main discontinuity
 279 sets. Figure 4 shows a lower hemisphere stereonet representing the poles of 200
 280 discontinuities (joints, veins and faults) collected during the engineering geological survey.
 281 Low angle discontinuities dipping towards SE represent the identified bedding (S0).

282 Figure 5A shows a lower hemisphere stereonet representation of the 302 discontinuities
 283 measured from the photogrammetric analysis. From this data, it is possible to observe that the
 284 discontinuity pole distribution is similar to that obtained from the conventional engineering
 285 geological surveys. The datasets were then combined to identify the main discontinuity sets
 286 present within the study area (Figure 5B) and their associated characteristics (Table 1).

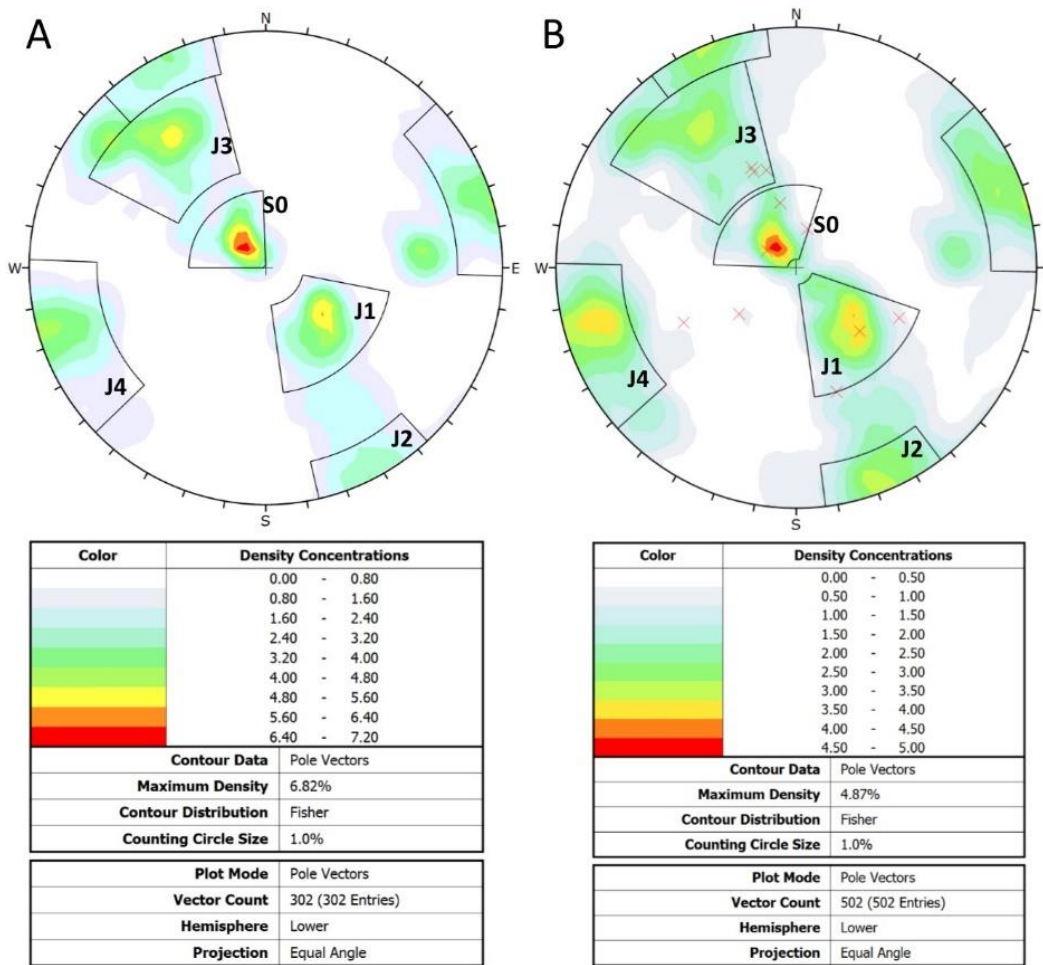
287 These 5 discontinuity sets mainly follow two trends (NW-SE and NE-SW) and can be
 288 directly related to the structural evolution of the area. In Section 2 it was noted that the
 289 transition from a ductile (D1 and D2 Phases) to a more brittle regime started during D3.

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291

292 Figure 4. Stereonet representing 200 discontinuities collected during an engineering
 293 geological survey of a representative section of coastline within the study area.



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296 Figure 5. Lower hemisphere stereonet obtained from: A) the photogrammetric data, number
 297 of measurement equals 302; B) Combination of engineering geological mapping and
 298 photogrammetric data (number of measurement equals 502, red crosses highlight faults
 299 mapped during engineering geological survey).

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Joint set	Eng. Geol. (Dip ^o /Dip Dir ^o)	DTP (Dip ^o /Dip Dir ^o)	Combined (Dip ^o /Dip Dir ^o)	Spacing (m)	Mean Trace length (m)	Description
S0	12/154	19/140	18/142	0.2 – 0.8	5.7	Bedding. Smooth, undulating, planar.
J1	28/320	37/317	34/320	0.3 – 1.5	2.8	Rough, undulating, stepped.
J2	88/344	90/332	87/336	0.3 – 1.5	3.2	Smooth, undulating, planar.
J3	46/157	65/142	64/143	0.3 – 1	4.2	Rough, undulating, planar.
J4	86/66	88/69	87/69	0.5 – 5	2.2	Smooth, undulating, planar.

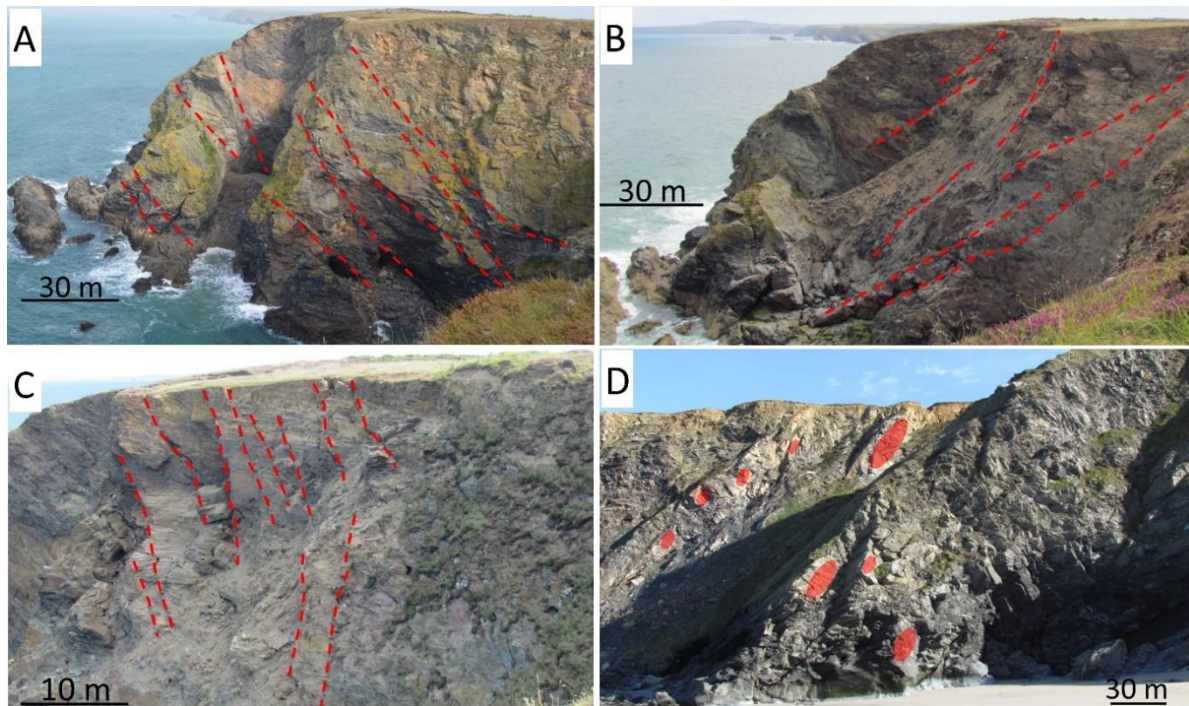
310 Table 1. Characteristics of identified discontinuity sets and faults. Spacing and mean trace
311 length refers to the joint sets only of the discontinuity sets identified in the stereonets using
312 engineering geological data, DTP data and the combined data set.

313

314 During the first stage of D3 the formation of listric and predominantly low angle South-
315 South-East dipping (10°-70°) extensional faults can be associated with the F3 system (Figure
316 6A). After D3, the extensional regime continued with the generation of low angle North-
317 North-West dipping listric faults (F1 structures, Figure 6B) and subsequently with steeper
318 structures dipping either to the North-North-West or South-South-East (F2 structures, Figure
319 6C). This extensional phase continued well into the Permian and then changed to
320 approximately East-West extension during the Triassic forming high angle ENE or WSW
321 dipping faults (F4 structures, Figure 6D). Table 2 provides the orientation of the four fault
322 systems identified within the study area.

323 The mapping suggests that the joint sets are associated with four major fault systems (F1, F2,
324 F3 and F4). F1 and F3 are characterized by listric faults, while F2 and F4 represent high
325 angle normal faults. It should be noted that during the engineering geological survey it was
326 not possible to acquire measurements of F2 and F4. This is because the engineering

327 geological surveys have been undertaken in areas that were more easily and safely accessible.
 328 These fault systems are characterized by high dip angle and often do not daylight in the
 329 outcrops (i.e. fault dips at a higher angle than the cliff slope face angle). However, major
 330 lineaments attributable to F2 and F4 are observed in the photogrammetric and GIS analysis.
 331



332
 333 Figure 6. A) Photograph of Hell's Mouth failure area prior to failure with listric faults F3
 334 (photograph taken looking towards NE). B) Photograph of Hell's Mouth failure area post
 335 failure with F1 (photograph taken looking towards NE). C) Photograph of Hell's Mouth
 336 failure area prior to failure with steep joint and fault structures J2 and F2 (photograph taken
 337 looking towards NE). D) Photograph of the section of coastline between Hell's Mouth and
 338 Basset's Cove showing F4 (photograph taken looking towards SSE).

339

Fault system	Strike	Dip°
F1 (listric)	NE	10°-60° (NW)
F2	ENE	Sub-vertical
F3 (listric)	NE	10°-70° (SE)
F4	NNW	Sub-vertical

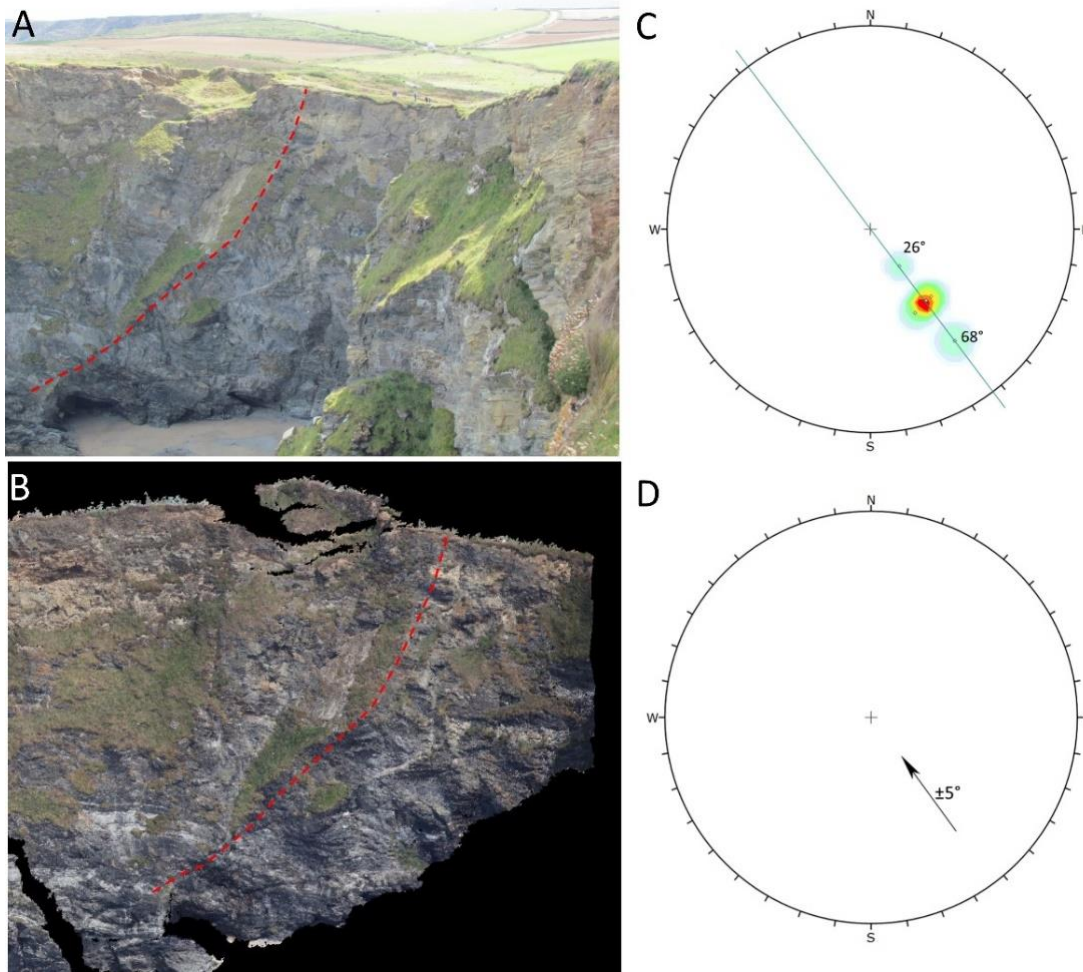
340 Table 2. Orientation of the fault systems recognized in the study area

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342 **4.2 Representation of listric faults on a lower hemisphere stereonet**

343 As previously described, F1 and F3 represent listric fault systems with dips varying from low
344 (10°) to high ($60^\circ - 70^\circ$) angle. These fault systems play a key role in the evolution and
345 stability of North Coast and for this reason, their study and representation are very important.
346 However, the representation of listric faults on stereonet can be complicated and sometimes
347 misleading due to the difficulty of visualization of the associated range of dip variation. One
348 single measurement related to the dip of a listric fault would not be representative of the
349 entire fault but only one specific point (dip will vary in relation to where the data is collected
350 along the structure). In this context, a suggested methodology is provided to represent listric
351 faults on a stereonet using, when available, the entire range of the measured fault's dip.
352 Figure 7A shows the slope adjacent to the Hell's Mouth failure with a listric fault highlighted
353 belonging to F1. Split-FX was used to take measurements from the orthorectified 3D model
354 along the fault surface (Figure 7B). This data was then transferred onto the lower hemisphere
355 stereonet (Figure 7C) and a best fit line/arrow drawn starting from the highest to lowest dip
356 values (Figure 7D). The arrow provides information about the fault dip direction (direction of
357 the arrow), the range of dip (from the beginning to the end of the arrow) and dip direction
358 variation related to the waviness of the fault surface. When plotted on a kinematic
359 stereographic analysis using a daylight envelope construction, it may then be possible to
360 recognize potential bi-planar/multi-planar fault controlled mechanisms.

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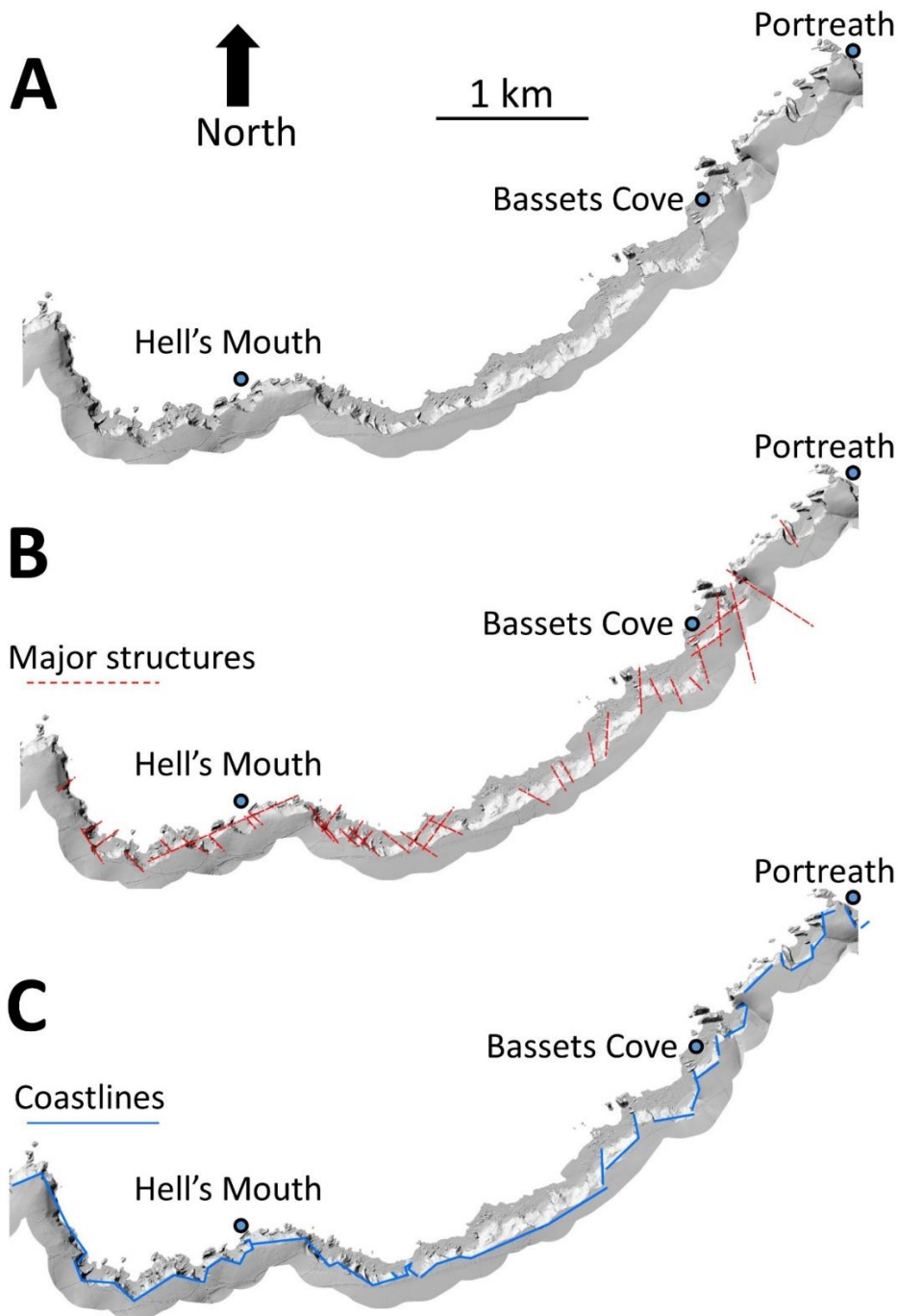
363 Figure 7. A) Listric fault highlighted in photograph. B) Photogrammetric 3D model of the
 364 area. C) Stereonet of five measurements of the listric fault surface measured in the 3D model,
 365 26° and 68° are the lowest and highest dips measured along the fault. D) Proposed
 366 representation of a listric fault on the stereonet; 5° represents the dip direction variability
 367 measured in the 3D model.

368 4.3 Results from GIS analysis

369 The creation and interpretation of the ‘hillshade’ map (Figure 8A) within ArcGIS software
 370 was important to define the major lineaments in the study area (Figure 8B). The light angle
 371 used in Figure 8 has an azimuth of 315° (light cast from the northwest) and an inclination of
 372 25°. However, different light angle/azimuth combinations have been used to avoid
 373 interpretation errors related to map lighting. The identified major structures were aligned
 374 along two main trend directions respectively: North-West (F4) and North East (F1 and F3),
 375 which coincides with the previously mapped discontinuity data that appear to control the
 376 geometrical evolution of the entire North Coast of Cornwall.

377 The GIS analysis of the coastline orientation, shown in Figure 8C, confirmed this alignment
378 trend, highlighting how the coastline closely reflects the two main trends also observed in the
379 discontinuity mapping.

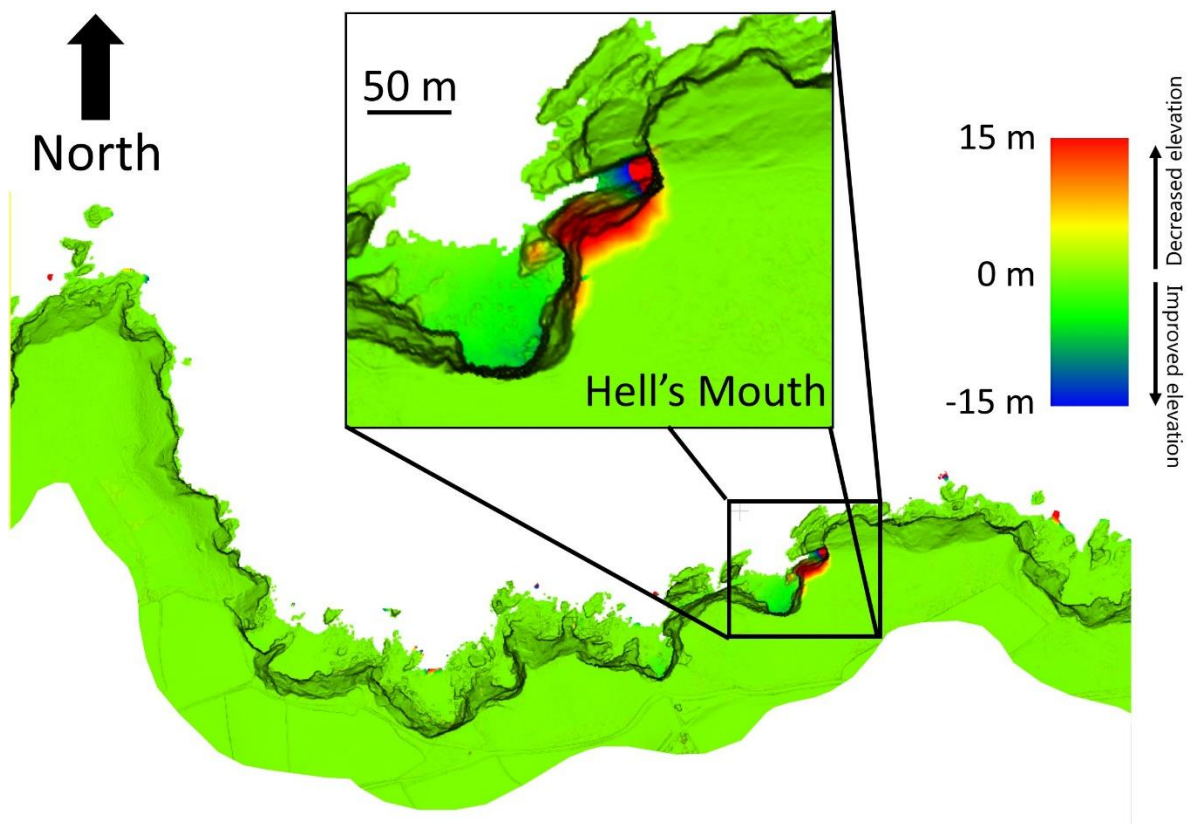
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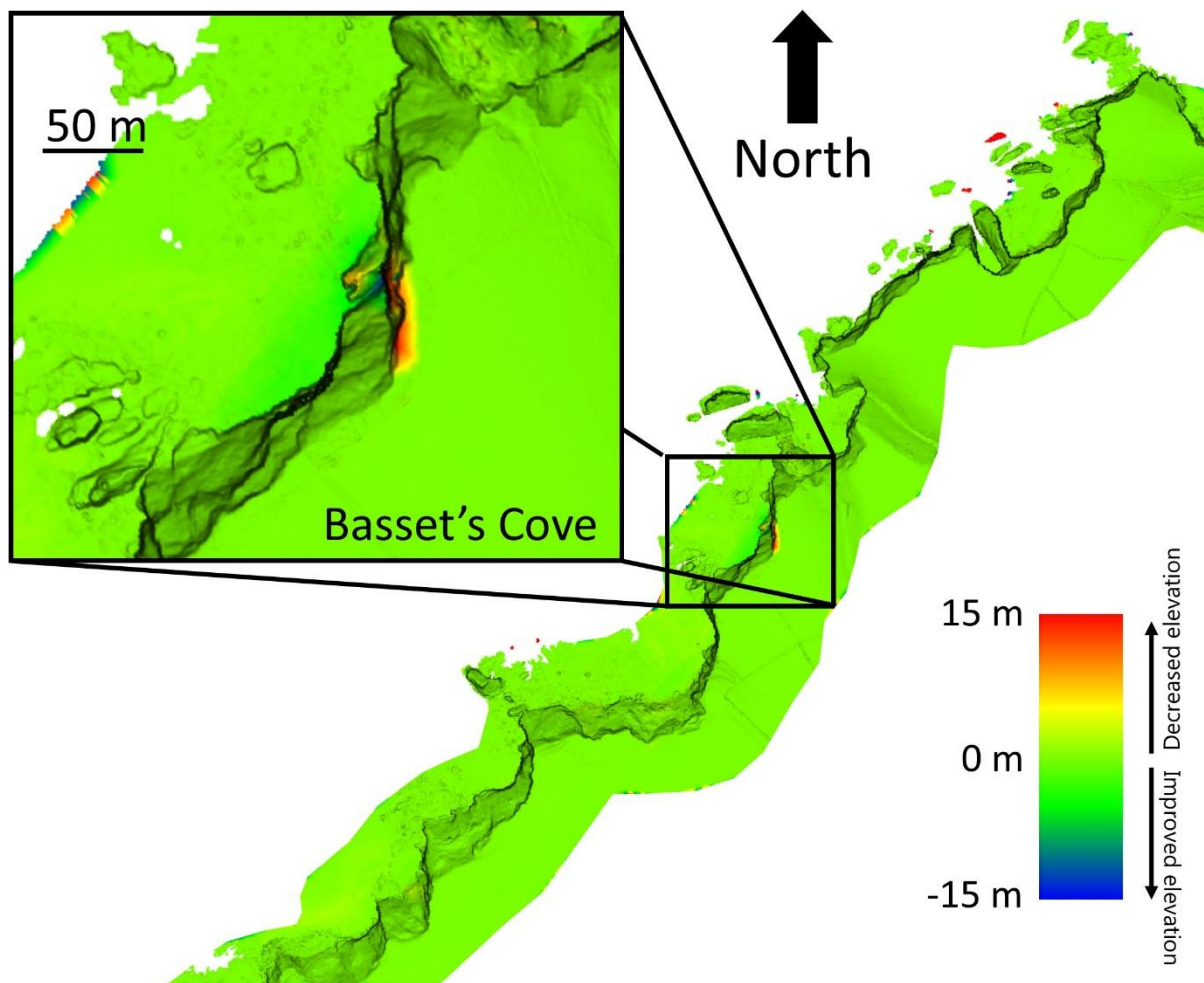
382
383 Figure 8. Hillshade analysis. A) Hillshade map. B) Major structures identified from
384 interpretation of the hillshade map. C) Coastline orientation digitized on the hillshade map.

385 **4.4 Results from multi-temporal analysis**

386 The comparative analysis of 2011 and 2014 LiDAR data highlighted changes in coastline
387 geometry during this period, including the major Hell's Mouth landslide that occurred in
388 September 2011 and the relatively minor Basset's Cove failure. Figure 9 and Figure 10 show
389 the results of the analysis related to the Hell's Mouth and Basset's Cove failures; with
390 positive values indicating decreased elevation from 2011 and 2014 (possible instability or
391 coastal recession) and negative values indicating increased elevation (possible material
392 accumulation or deposition). Changes below 1 m were excluded at this stage of the analysis.
393

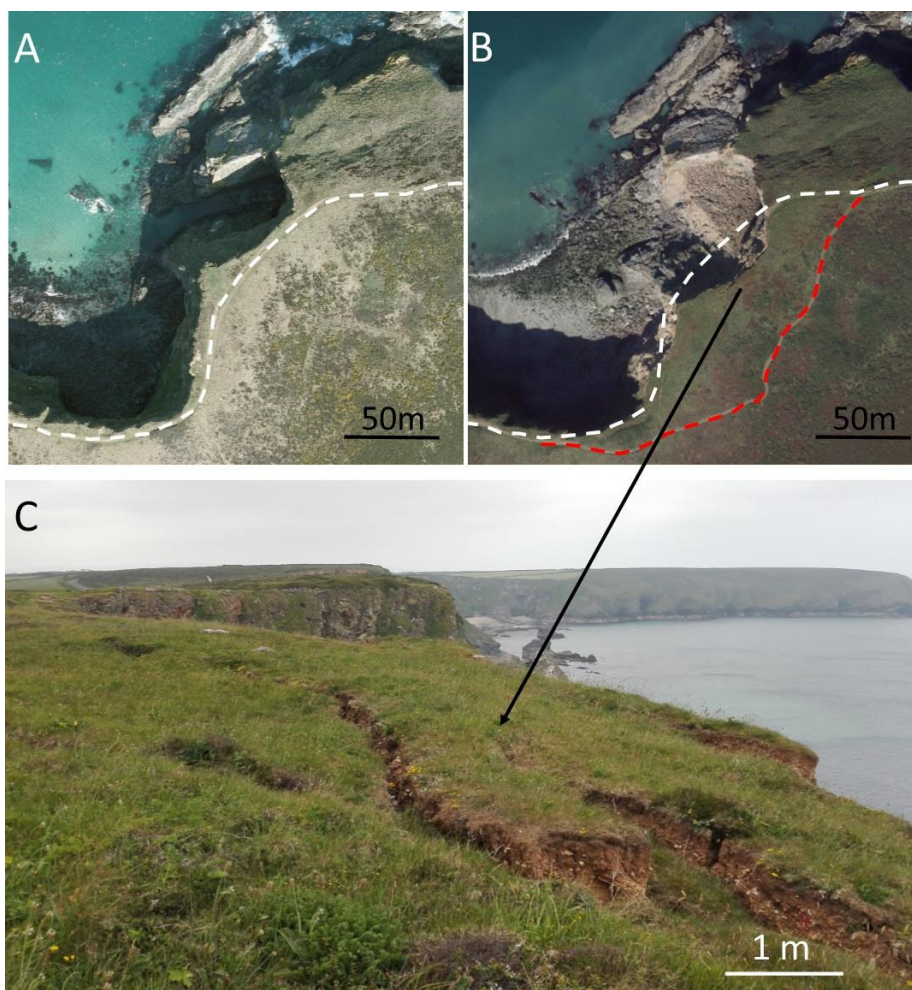


394
395 Figure 9. Results from comparison of 2011 and 2014 LiDAR data. Positive values indicate
396 decreased elevation from 2011 and 2014 (possible instability or coastal recession) and
397 negative values indicate increased elevation (possible material accumulation or deposition).
398 The Hell's Mouth landslide area is highlighted in the inset.
399



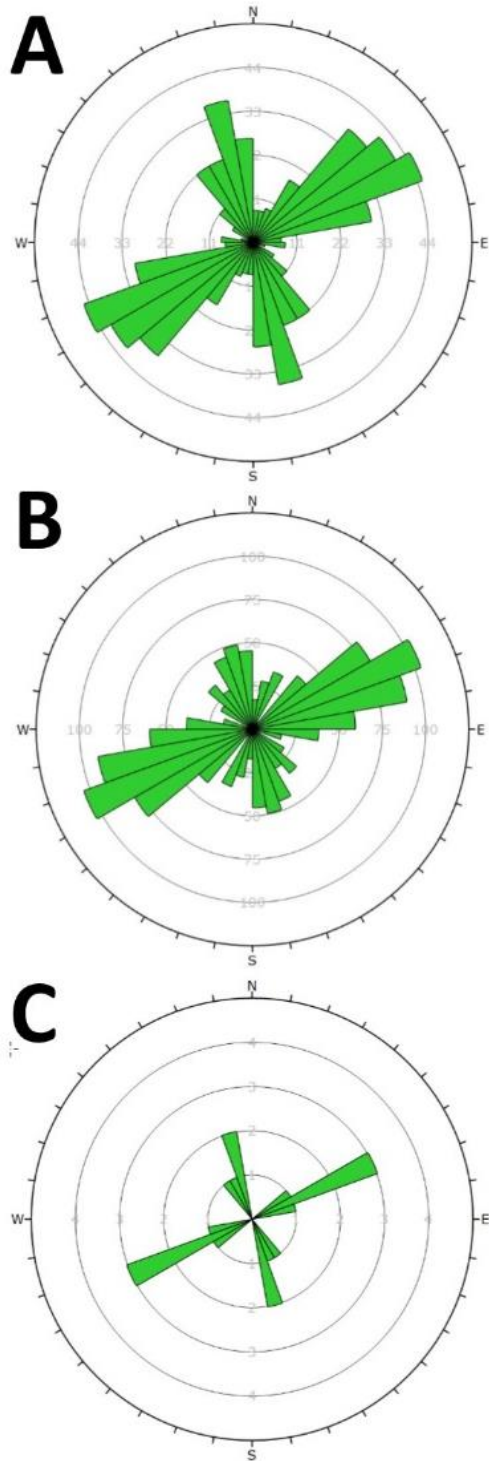
400
 401 Figure 10. Results from comparison of 2011 and 2014 LiDAR data. Positive values indicate
 402 decreased elevation from 2011 and 2014 (possible instability or coastal recession) and
 403 negative values indicate increased elevation (possible material accumulation or deposition).
 404 The Basset's Cove failure is highlighted in the inset.

405
 406 The Hell's Mouth landslide LiDAR data shown in Figure 9 can be compared with images,
 407 presented in Figures 2 and 11, of the immediate area before and after failure. These images
 408 show the development of a 'zawn' along a major fault F3 forming the northern boundary of
 409 the landslide area. A 'zawn' can be described as a deep and narrow sea-inlet in the British
 410 Isles, especially Cornwall and the south-west, cut by erosion into sea-cliffs with steep or near
 411 vertical side-walls. The aerial images presented in Figure 11 also show the slope before
 412 (Figure 11A) and after (Figure 11B) the failure highlighting the loss of the coastal footpath
 413 and it's re-routing away from the landslide. Tension crack development behind the failure
 414 scar can be clearly observed in the post failure image (Figure 11B and C). These cracks have
 415 extended post failure and are a clear indication of likely further instability.



416
 417 Figure 11. Ortho-rectified aerial photographs of Hell's Mouth landslide. A) Aerial
 418 Photograph before (2010) and (B) after failure (2013) - photographs from Channel Coastal
 419 Observatory (2017). C) Tension crack development behind the 2013 failure scar. White
 420 dashed line shows the location of the coastal footpath before the failure and the red dashed
 421 line showing re-routing following the landslide.

422
 423 The tension cracks behind the failure scar were mapped both in the field and using the
 424 available ortho-photos and their azimuth plotted on a rosette diagram. These features are
 425 associated with the same trends as identified in the GIS analysis. Figure 12 shows the
 426 measurements related to the major lineament, coastline and tension crack orientations plotted
 427 on a rosette diagram (Figure 12A-C).



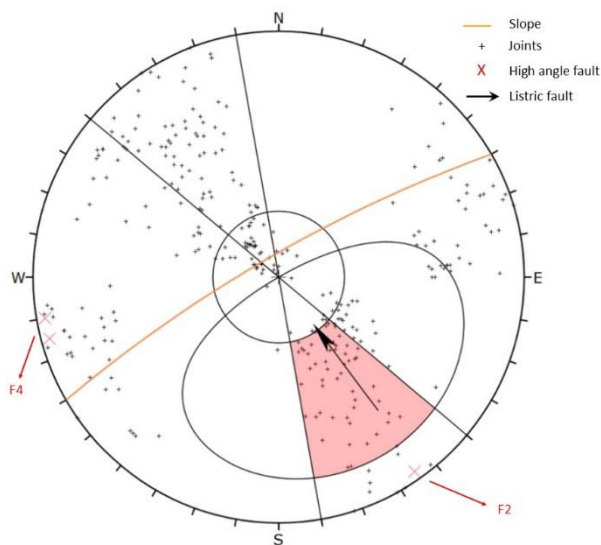
428

429 Figure 12. Rosette plots of major trends observed in structural/lineament data from the study
 430 area. A) Trends observed in discontinuity orientation data from engineering geology and
 431 remote sensing surveys. B) Coastline aspect analysis. C) Tension crack orientation analysis.

432

433 A study of photographs taken before and after the Hell's Mouth failure also show that this
 434 failure (Figure 2 and 6B) was influenced by F1 (listric faults with dip varying from 10° to

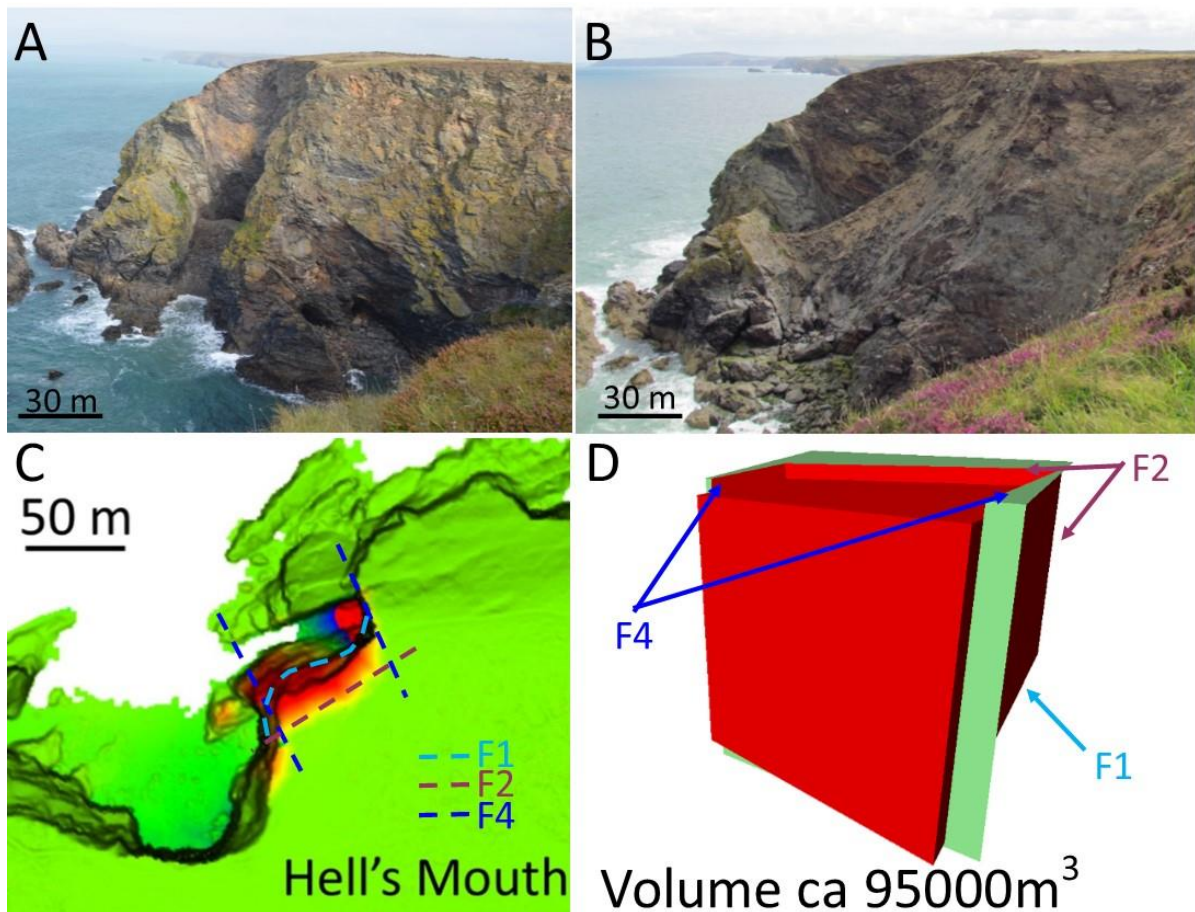
435 60°). F2 faults acted as potential tension cracks as observed immediately prior to the failure
 436 and have subsequently developed and extended post failure. F4 faults appear to act as lateral
 437 release surfaces. This suggests that evolution of the North Coast near Hell's Mouth is
 438 dominated by the structural geology of the area. Figure 13 shows the kinematic analysis of
 439 the Hell's Mouth failure highlighting the interaction between joints and faults and the
 440 potential role of the listric fault (mapped using DTP, Figure 6B) as a likely failure surface
 441 and F2/J2 and F4/J4 (interpreted by LiDAR analysis, Figure 8) as lateral release and tension
 442 crack surfaces.



443
 444 Figure 13. Kinematic analysis of the Hell's Mouth failure

445
 446 Given the current tension crack growth, both in width and length, behind the failure scar there
 447 is an increased likelihood of further instability. Figure 14 provides a reconstruction of the
 448 Hell's Mouth failure: Figures 14A and 14B show the Hell's Mouth slope before and after the
 449 failure; Figure 14C shows the comparison of 2011 and 2014 LiDAR data of the Hell's Mouth
 450 failure highlighting the role of the structural geology and, finally, Figure 14D provides a
 451 conceptual 3D model of the failure using the Rocscience SWedge software (Rocscience,
 452 2016). It should be noted SWedge does not allow modelling of listric (a surface with varying
 453 dip) faults and for this reason, F1 is shown in this simplified representation as a planar
 454 surface combining with F2 to form a biplanar wedge.

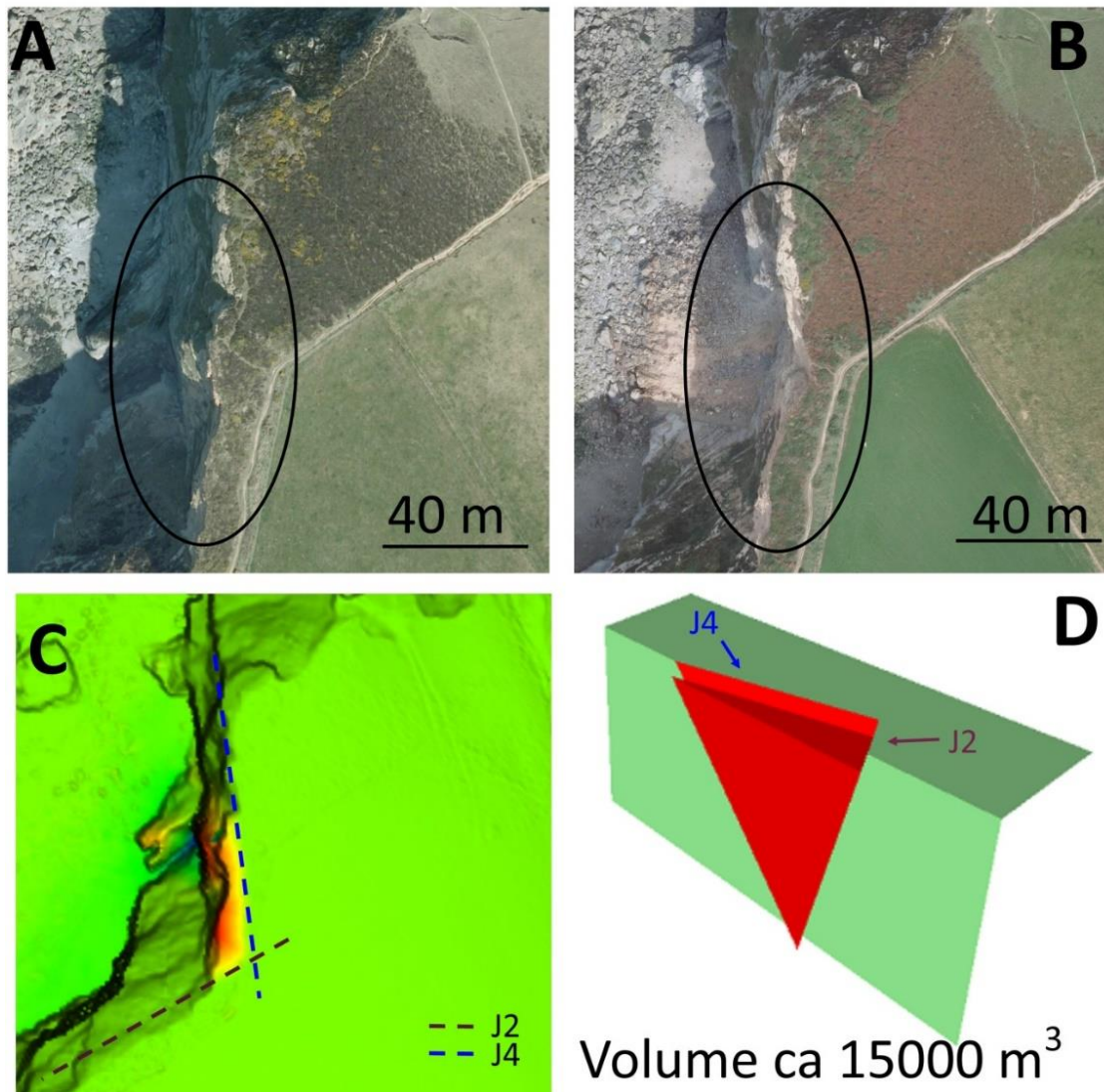
455



456
 457 Figure 14. Hell's Mouth failure. A) Hell's Mouth slope before the failure (Photograph taken
 458 looking towards North-East). B) Hell's Mouth slope after the failure (Photograph taken
 459 looking towards North-East). C) Comparison of 2011 and 2014 LiDAR data and structural
 460 features. D) Conceptual 3D model of the failure (View looking towards South-East).

461
 462 Regarding the minor failure detected by the LiDAR comparison at Basset's Cove (Figure 10),
 463 it can be seen in Figure 15 that this wedge failure occurred along F2/J2 and F4/J4. Figures
 464 15A and B show the ortho-photographs before and after the failure. Figure 15C shows the
 465 2011 and 2014 LiDAR comparison and, finally, Figure 15D shows a conceptual 3D failure
 466 model. The volume of this failure, ca 15000 m³ (calculated with SWedge software), is much
 467 smaller than the failure that occurred at Hell's Mouth (ca. 95000 m³). In this case listric faults
 468 (F1 and F3) do not daylight in the slope (dipping toward W) and the failures are associated
 469 with high angle failure surfaces F2 and F4 (without the interaction with lower angle dipping
 470 sets) that generate smaller failure volumes. This conceptual model is a simplified
 471 representation of the failure that may also have involved a series of smaller wedges/blocks or
 472 retrogressive failures associated with intersections between J2/F2 and J4/F4. For comparison

473 purposes, 2.5D volume computations of the respective failures were undertaken in
474 CloudCompare from the 2011 and 2014 LiDAR data. The calculated volume of the failure at
475 Hell's Mouth was found to be approximately 75126 m³ and Bassett's Cove 9850m³.

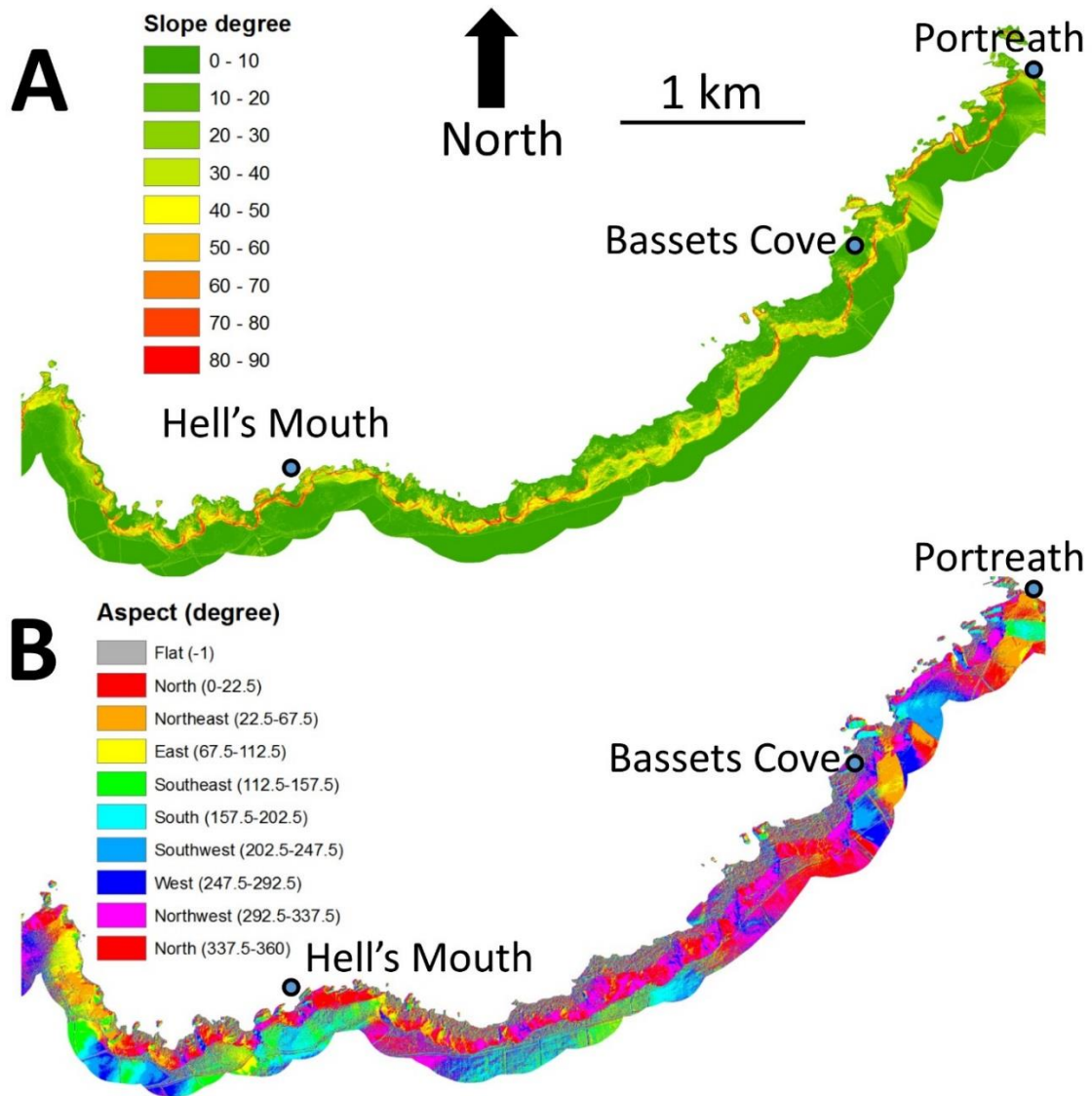


476
477 Figure 15. Bassett's Cove failure. A) Bassett's Cove slope before the failure. B) Bassett's Cove
478 slope after the failure. C) Comparison of 2011 and 2014 LiDAR data and structural features.
479 D) Simplified conceptual 3D model of the Bassett's Cove failure (View towards North-East).

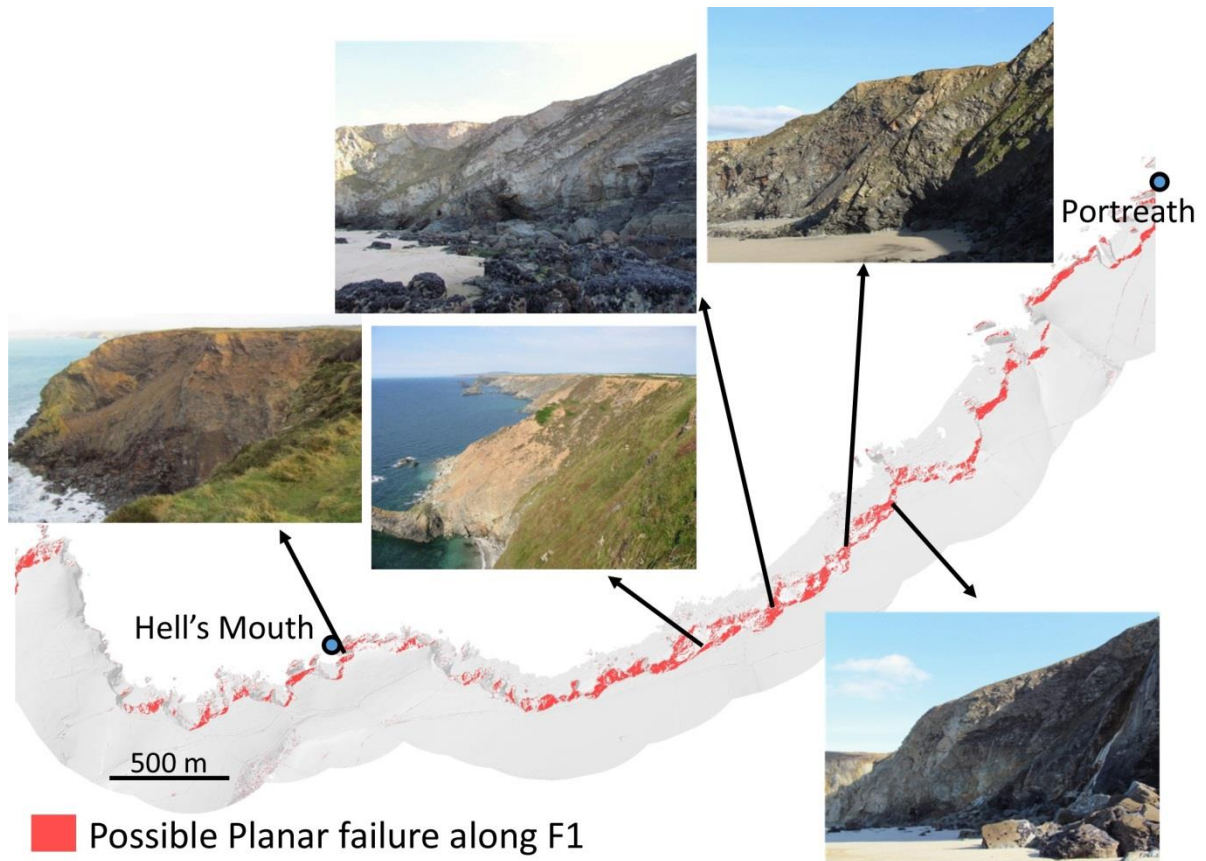
480 4.5 Results from GIS kinematic analysis

481 GIS kinematic analysis confirmed that the interaction of F1, F2 and F4 play a key role in the
482 evolution and in the control of failures along this section of the North coast. Figures 16 A and
483 B show respectively the slope and the aspect maps used for the analysis and Figures 17 and
484 18 show potential locations along the coastline that are susceptible to possible planar failures
485 along F1 and wedge failures along F1/F2 and F4. Also shown in these figures are
486 photographs taken of previous landslides (dominated by F1, F2 and F4) observed in the study

487 area between Hell's Mouth and Portreath. Validation of the observed failures is discussed in
488 more depth in the following section.

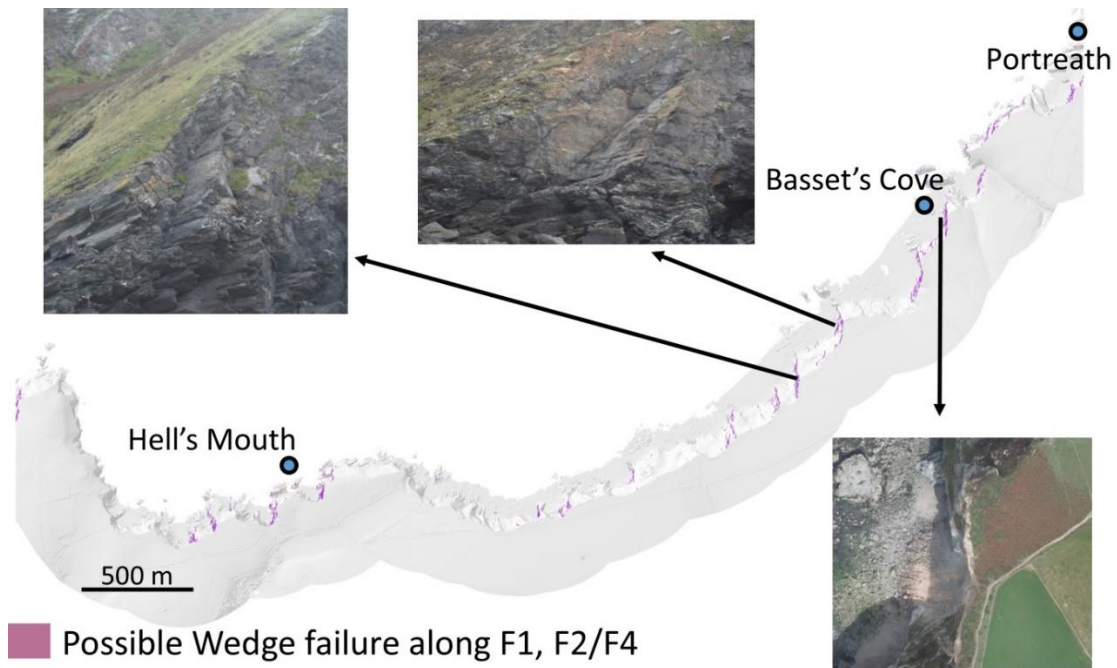


489
490 Figure 16. Thematic maps. A) Slope inclination or dip map. B) Slope aspect or dip direction
491 map.
492



493
494
495
496

Figure 17. Results obtained by GIS kinematic instability test for slopes that may be prone to planar failure and example photographs of previous landslides in the area.



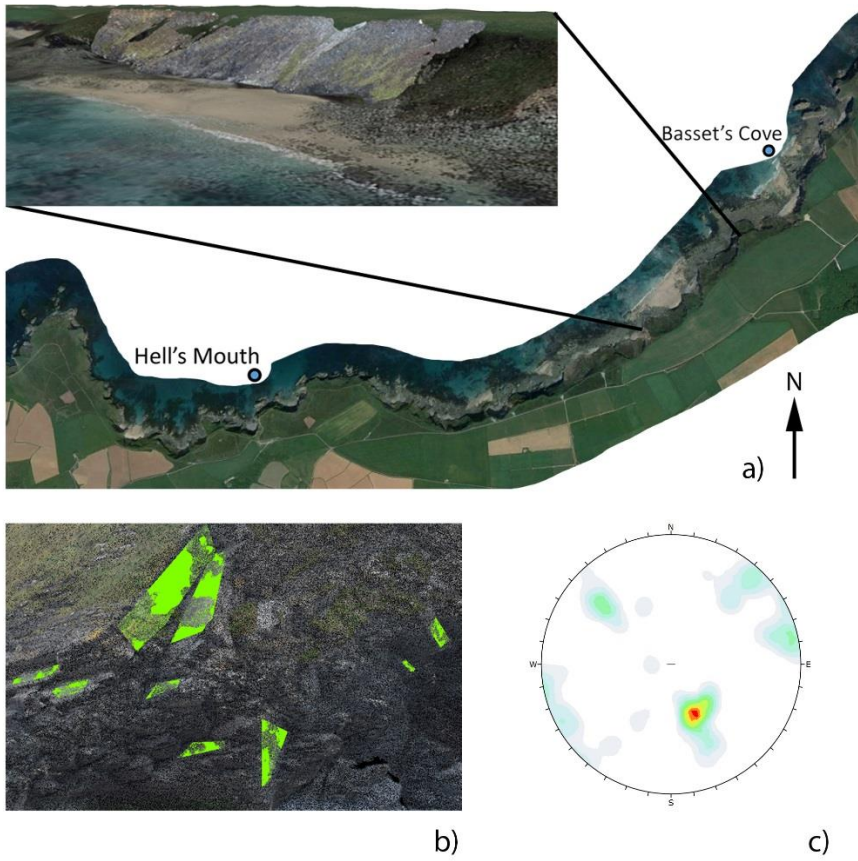
497
498
499

Figure 18. Results obtained by GIS kinematic instability test for slopes that may be prone to wedge failure and example wedge failure photographs from the study area.

500 **5 Validation of the Results**

501 In order to validate the results of the GIS kinematic instability evaluation on-site ground-
502 truthing has been performed for a section of coastline that could be safely accessed at low
503 tide. A three-dimensional model of the section of coastline was generated from 800
504 photographs using structure from motion (SfM) techniques. The point cloud model consisted
505 of 30 million points, creating a dense reconstruction of the foreshore and cliff face. This
506 dataset was then orientated and taken into SplitFX, where feature or discontinuity orientation
507 mapping was performed for verification of discontinuity-controlled instability. Figure 19A
508 illustrates the three-dimensional point cloud model in context with the case study area, Figure
509 19B example feature mapping undertaken in SplitFX and Figure 19C the resultant polar
510 contour stereonet of mapped discontinuities. The discontinuity orientations mapped agree
511 well with previous engineering geology mapping and remotely mapped features shown in
512 Figures 4 and 5.

513 Photographs of previous discontinuity-controlled instabilities, and their location along the
514 coastline, highlighted in Figures 17 and 18, were also identified in the point cloud and
515 orientations of the major discontinuities obtained from SplitFX for validation purposes.
516 Figure 20 shows the dip and dip direction of discontinuities associated with both planar and
517 wedge failure showed in Figure 17 and 18 for the respective failures, highlighting the
518 controlling influence of F1, F2 and F4. Figure 20 also demonstrates the scale of different
519 failure modes and the controlling influence of structural geology. For example, planar failures
520 shown in Figures 17 and 20 are associated with F1 and can affect the entire cliff section,
521 generating large failures (i.e. Hell's Mouth failure). Whereas, wedge failures are associated
522 with F4 and F1/F2 (and related fracture sets) and tend to generate smaller volume failures
523 (shown in Figures 18 and 20). Due to health and safety reasons, access to Basset's Cove area
524 (Figure 15 and bottom right image in Figure 18) was restricted and therefore the authors
525 performed structural analysis utilizing the aerial LiDAR dataset for validation (Figure 15).
526 How it is possible to observe in Figure 20 and as previously discussed, type and scale of
527 failure vary in relation to the structural control.



528

529 Figure 19. a) Area of validation mapping and location of the structure from motion (SfM)
 530 generated point cloud b) close up images of the SfM model and example discontinuity
 531 mapping c) lower hemisphere polar contour stereonet of discontinuities identified from
 532 SplitFX mapping.

533

Planar Failure



F1: 40°/325°



F1: 45°/345°



F1: 35°/335°



F1: 45°/340°

Wedge Failure



F4: 85°/055° F1/2: 60°/340°



F4: 87°/060° F1: 30°/320°

534

535 Figure 20. Orientation of discontinuities controlling both planar and wedge failure for
536 selected photographs from Figures 17 and 18.

537 6 Discussion

538 Previous applications of aerial surveys alone have not provided the necessary detail needed in
539 engineering-based analysis in coastal areas (Lim et al. 2005). This paper has highlighted the
540 benefits that can be achieved from a combined engineering geological – structural geology
541 approach for mapping and characterization of blocky rock mass coastlines. Aerial LiDAR

542 surveys have been used to remotely obtain the major geological structures of the surrounding
543 coastline in order to gain an understanding of the factors influencing the numerous failures
544 that have occurred on the North Coast of Cornwall, UK. The spatial coverage of the aerial
545 LiDAR survey allows the user to explore large sections of the coastline and provides the
546 basis for an initial scoping study to highlight unstable areas that may require more detailed
547 in-depth evaluation using terrestrial based survey techniques.

548 In view of the restricted access to the failure site at Hell's Mouth, limited safe access to the
549 toe of the cliff and the steep nature of the coastal section a variety of remote mapping
550 techniques were used to collect the structural data for discontinuity set characterization. This
551 included use of both terrestrial laser scanning from accessible locations (although these were
552 not ideal, being rather oblique to the failure) and use of long-range photogrammetry from an
553 adjacent headland (use of both $f = 200$ and 400 mm focal length lenses). Although, the survey
554 method and subsequent data processing techniques used are similar to those highlighted by
555 Lim et al. (2005), Mitasova et al. (2009) and Obu et al. (2016) the photogrammetric and laser
556 scanning was non-optimal due to unavoidable occlusion related to the rather oblique point of
557 view. Occlusion in the datasets resulted in both the terrestrial LiDAR and photogrammetric
558 models poorly representing oblique structures. Relying on this information alone, has the
559 potential to bias the results. By incorporating a long range photogrammetric survey from the
560 opposite headland, occlusion was improved but areas of the point cloud were still obscured
561 by the surrounding geometry of the coastal outcrops. This suggests that a combination of
562 approaches and set-up locations is best suited to the case study at Hell's Mouth.

563 This problem, rather typical in coastal and very steep slopes has been discussed by Rosser et
564 al. (2005), Sturzenegger and Stead (2009) and Francioni et al. (2017b) and was overcome by
565 Michoud et al. (2015) by use of boat-based mobile laser scanning along a coastal cliff section
566 in Normandy. In the case of the North Coast location future research will include the use of
567 UAV surveys similar to those highlighted by Francioni et al. (2015), Salvini et al. (2015) and
568 Colomina and Molina (2014). During the investigation features measured/identified with
569 terrestrial remote sensing techniques were classified as discontinuities since it is not possible
570 to identify kinematic indicators in the DTP models. For this reason, features obtained from
571 remote sensing surveys have been termed generally as discontinuities. It is however clear that
572 some major features such as listric faults can be identified during these types of survey.

573 In the case of the Hell's Mouth study, the registration of the high resolution photogrammetric
574 datasets generated a model consisting of approximately 30 million points. This high-
575 resolution model allowed identification of discontinuity features in Split FX. Manual

576 assignment of 'patches' and 'traces' was found to be preferable to the automated extraction of
577 features that provides orientation of surfaces from point-normal clustering that may identify
578 features that are not fractures or discontinuities. This is due to the complex mesh generation
579 required in the study area rather than using the Triangulated Irregular Network (TIN)
580 available in Split FX as discussed by Gigli and Casagli (2011). In addition, manual operation
581 allowed the authors to verify the selection and allocation of discontinuity surfaces using
582 'patches', while also having the ability to identify daylighting features using 'trace planes'.
583 This minimises interpretation errors and allows measurement of fracture spacing and
584 persistence of identified features.

585 This research has used different remote sensing based platforms, both terrestrial and aerial, to
586 identify areas of coastal instability. Multi-temporal aerial LiDAR has been used to provide an
587 initial scoping study to identify areas of coastal instability and major structures that could
588 influence failure. In addition, the incorporation of the aerial LiDAR data into a GIS-based
589 workflow provides the basis for a desk-based kinematic instability analysis of the study area.
590 The use of both long range and short range photogrammetric and laser scanning techniques
591 provided useful complementary data for discontinuity identification. The long range
592 photogrammetry was a useful low-cost alternative to terrestrial LiDAR; in this case a long-
593 range laser scanner instrument located at the adjacent headland would have to be used at
594 considerable capital expenditure. When comparative studies were undertaken the
595 discontinuity set identification from both the terrestrial laser scanning imagery and
596 photogrammetric reconstruction in this study provided similar eigenvalues (mean pole for
597 identified set(s)) to previous comparative studies (Coggan et al. 2007). In addition, following
598 deviation analysis undertaken in CloudCompare, similar accuracies (150 mm deviation in
599 overlapping areas where occlusion from TLS was not present) were achieved to that from
600 previous research by James and Robson (2012) and Westoby et al. (2012). However, accurate
601 geo-referencing of both laser scanning and photogrammetric reconstructions can be
602 problematic in coastal areas, where consistent periodic targets between surveys are hard to
603 relocate due to erosion, human intervention and the inability to install new stations. In this
604 case study, the authors established a DGNS (Differential Global Navigation Satellite
605 System) baseline away from the coastal path utilizing pre-existing infrastructure with a
606 positional error of approximately 5 mm. The established baseline was then used for periodic
607 survey control to mitigate against re-establishment errors.

608 The Hell's Mouth landslide investigation clearly highlights that instability problems on the
609 North Coast of Cornwall are directly related to the pre-existing geological structure along the

610 blocky rock mass coastline. Rosser et al. (2007) also showed similar findings where
611 concentration of failures occurred along small scale rock mass structure features (e.g. bedding
612 planes, or low persistent joints) although their study was on a smaller scale (a few kilometres
613 of coastline). Smaller rockfall events appeared to be related to less persistent discontinuities,
614 resulting in kinematic instability.

615 The study of the North Coast of Cornwall is at a larger regional scale and has highlighted that
616 larger failures, such as that observed near Hell's Mouth, for coastline sections striking NE-
617 SW, are the result of high persistence low-angle first order listric faults (F1) interacting with
618 higher angle first order faults and sub-parallel joint sets (F4/J4 and F2/J2). Initial time-lapse
619 video analysis of the Hell's Mouth failure by Stead et al. (2012) highlighted the importance
620 of joint dilation and fracturing immediately prior to the failure suggesting that the failure
621 mechanisms may be complex and likely involved interaction of several 1st order faults and
622 lower order discontinuity sets with degradation and damage of the rock mass preceding
623 failure. The observed failure itself involved considerable rock mass fragmentation and intact
624 rock fracture. It must be noted that the failure models presented in this research provide a
625 simplistic representation of the Hell's Mouth failure. It can be seen in the video of the
626 collapse, that the failure is more complex. The fracturing of rock bridges and the interaction
627 of highly persistent slope dipping faults (F1) with other fault systems (F2 and F4) and with
628 smaller less persistent joint sets could also contribute to failure. Further analysis with
629 numerical methods and analysis of additional data from UAV surveys will be carried out in
630 future to explore the complexity of the observed failure. These observations regarding
631 potential complex mechanisms can be extended to other large planar failures shown in
632 Figures 17 and 20, where failures occur along F1 with F2/J2 and F4/J4 act as tension cracks
633 and lateral release surfaces respectively. The planar failures could be also defined as wedge
634 failures, with F1 acting as the basal plane. With regards to wedge analysis (shown in Figures
635 18 and 20) both pure wedge failures, related to the interaction between F4 and F1, and more
636 complex wedge failure generated by a series of smaller wedges/blocks or retrogressive
637 failures associated with intersections between F2/J2 and F4/J4 (e.g. Basset's Cove failure,
638 Figures 15 and 18) were observed.

639 **7 Conclusion**

640 The North Coast of Cornwall, UK, is susceptible to landslide processes, varying from low
641 volume rock fall to entire cliff collapse. This investigation shows a combined engineering

642 geological – structural geology approach incorporating structural analysis, remote sensing
643 and GIS analysis. This approach is highly suited for preliminary analysis of landslide
644 susceptibility in blocky rock coastlines, varying from large (e.g. Hell’s Mouth) to relatively
645 small scale (e.g. Basset’s Cove) failures.

646 Engineering geological analysis of the area, carried out through conventional and remote
647 sensing surveys, showed the presence of five discontinuity sets and four first order fault
648 systems. The mapped discontinuities can be directly related to the geological evolution of the
649 area, and mainly reflect two dominant trends: NW-SE and NE-SW respectively.

650 GIS analysis highlighted that the coastline orientation and the current tension crack
651 orientations mapped immediately behind the crest of the Hell’s Mouth landslide also align
652 with these two main structural trends, suggesting that coastal evolution is strongly controlled
653 by the structural geology of the area. On-site validation of GIS kinematic indicators was
654 undertaken using photographs and discontinuity mapping from structure from motion (SfM)
655 generated point cloud data.

656 A comparison of the 2011 and 2014 aerial LiDAR data highlighted two failures that occurred
657 in the study area during the intervening time period; one in close proximity to Hell’s Mouth
658 and the other at Basset’s Cove. The analysis of these failures showed that they are directly
659 related to the structural geology of the area. However, the volume of the failures can vary
660 considerably depending on the coastline orientation and the discontinuities involved. Listric
661 faults dipping NW (associated with discontinuity set F1/J1) have dip magnitudes varying
662 from low to high angles and can generate large volume landslides in cliffs with adverse
663 orientations. In such cases, discontinuities related to sets F2/J2 and F4/J4 act as tension
664 cracks and lateral release surfaces respectively. Smaller volume landslides can also occur
665 along the intersection of sub-vertical faults related to F4 and F1/F2.

666 LiDAR comparison of point cloud data, integrated with GIS analyses and field engineering
667 geology survey data, has allowed an improved understanding of potential failure mechanisms
668 that control coastal instability. The combined use of LiDAR and photogrammetry played an
669 important role in this research as most of the coastline area under study is very difficult to
670 access due to the steep nature of the rugged cliffs with limited foreshore accessibility.
671 Integration of conventional field engineering geological surveys with remote sensing
672 techniques allowed the authors to analyze a larger section of the coastal area and produce a
673 data set representative of the entire portion of the coast (including inaccessible areas). This
674 work has provided a basis for improved understanding the role of discontinuities and major
675 faults (structural geology) on coastal instability that have occurred\occurring in the area.

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